

ANTECEDENTS OF EMOTIONAL LABOR AND JOB SATISFACTION IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

by

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ABSTRACT

It is a general policy in the hotel industry that all the service should be provided in the friendly and a professional manner. The first smile of a front desk clerk or a wait staff can make a difference in customer satisfaction and loyalty. A service quality is becoming more important with increase of competitiveness among hotels and hotel brands. A process of regulating positive emotions for an organization is called Emotional Labor (EL) (Grandey, 2000). While essential for the hospitality industry, empirical research on EL is very limited, and research on EL during stressful situations is almost nonexistent. To reduce the gap in the prior research, this study is looking into dynamics of a perceived organizational and customer (in) justice as a stress factor on an employee's EL and subsequent job satisfaction. To further understand dynamics of the proposed model, variables such as a gender and intensity of interaction were used as moderating effects. This study extended research done by Spencer and Rupp (2006, 2009) on employees' perceived customer injustice and its effects on employees' EL. This study drew on fairness, effective events, referent cognition, social exchange and action theories to explain why individuals' EL is impacted by injustice extended by guests and organization. Four types of organizational justice (procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational) were used in this research.

The results of the study indicated that employees EL (effort, dissonance) increases with increased effects of distributive (in) justice. EL dissonance had a significant negative effect on job satisfaction and EL effort had a significant positive effect on a job satisfaction. Finally, procedural (in) justice and informational (in) justice had a higher effects on male employees rather than their female counterparts. Since this study is first to explore effects of four facets of organizational (in) justice on employees EL, job satisfaction and gender as moderating effects,

this study offers multiple theoretical and managerial implication for evaluation of EL and its antecedents in the hospitality industry.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The service industry is becoming ever more important in the United States. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics in 2022 the service industry will consist of 80.9 % in total labor market. Within the service industry, hospitality and leisure services will be the fifth largest sub-industry. The service industry is one of the largest job providers with 90% of employees being involved in non-managerial positions. Moreover two out of five employees are part-time workers and with more than 21% of employees between 16 to 19 years old which is about 5 times higher than any other industry (bls.org). Within the service industry and especially in hospitality services the human factor is a vital one. As customers have more than ever access to information and deals through the Internet, competitiveness among hospitality providers is increasing. Customer service as a main point of interaction between the organization and its customers is becoming one of the most important tools to attract and retain customers. This makes it even more important for industry leaders to review procedures at all points of interaction between customer and service provider. In consequence, putting even more pressure on employees to provide friendly, courteous service or so called “service with a smile” at all times. Providing friendly service is fundamental to competitiveness in the hospitality industry. The importance of this phenomena is frequently highlighted in news. Articles and blogs herald the need for exceptional, friendly service at hotels and airlines, frequently praising great service and condemning poor service experiences. Occasionally even making it to a headlines of news and newspapers such as JetBlue flight 1052 in 2010 where the poor handling of a situation cost JetBlue thousands of dollars in damages.

Academic researchers claim that a smile has a direct effect on customer satisfaction (Grandy et al., 2005). Although, such commodity is highly in demand the hospitality industry as tool of competitiveness and is generally understood for its practical implication, the concept of front-line employees' emotional work was introduced only in 1983, by Hochschild. She argued that "...In the public world of work, it is often part of an individual's job to accept uneven exchanges, to be treated with disrespect or anger by a client, all while closeting in to fantasy anger one would like to respond with." (Hochschild, 1983, p.83). She labeled this as an emotional labor (EL). Her work sparked a beginning of the research in the emotional work of employees. Some research done over the past three decades was mainly focused on consequences of employees' emotional work, referring to the EL as catalyst of future behavior. Most notably a meta-analysis published by Hulsheger and Schewe (2011) collected research on employees EL for the past three decades summarized and analyzed the magnitude of articles which shows that most of the publications are indeed focused on the consequences of EL rather than its antecedents. On the hand Morris and Feldman (1996) in their meta-analysis, theoretically proposed some antecedents of EL. However, empirical research on antecedents of EL is strongly lacking in the hospitality filed.

This study intends to examine a selection of antecedents of Emotional Labor in the hospitality industry such as Interpersonal (IPJ), Informational (IFJ), Distributive (DJ) and Procedural (PJ) (in) Justices, length of working experience on the emotional labor and its effects on Job Satisfaction of hourly wage employees in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, this study will examine the moderating effect of gender and frequency of interaction (back of the house and front of the house) with customers. The current chapter begins by providing general background on emotional labor of hourly wage employees in the hospitality industry, its proposed

antecedents and moderators, followed by a justification of the importance of the study. After purpose statement, a brief description of the model that will be studied is provided, followed by research questions and a brief description of the proposed methodology of the study. Finally, significance of the proposed study is discussed with respect to its theoretical, potential practical contributions and study's limitations.

Background

The service industry is getting ever important in in the world economies. According to World Tourism Indicators, the service sector accounts for more than 71% of global GDP (Global Service Forum, 2013). Increasing amount of demand for services has increased demand for labor, where front line employees are hired for their ability to provide professional or friendly and courteous service. Friendliness to the customers in the service industry adds to a quality of service and customer satisfaction. Emotions are an integral and inseparable part of any organizational life (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). In hospitality, probably more than any other industry, companies attention not only to employee physical abilities (caring trays, cleaning), but also to employee's emotional actions, where service workers express feeling if the emotional work as a smile is not of them, but on them (Hochschild, 2003 p. 8). According to the author the management of feeling to create a publically observable facial or bodily display is emotional labor (EL). Since emotional labor is sold for currency and therefore has exchange value." The concept of EL is highly to the hospitality industry as the ability to provide friendly and courteous service is a required standard for any service employee, but it is especially important in hourly wage employees as they are the most frequent point of interaction between customers and the organization. They are the face of any a hospitality organization, first providers of services and creators of first impressions for a hospitality organization. However, unfairness in treatment of

employees by customers and/or the organization undermines employees' attitude and elevates their need for emotional acting and possibly strongly reducing the ability of employee to provide friendly service with a smile, which is so much in demand by hospitality employer (Spencer and Rupp, 2009). Therefore, we theorize that the intensity and/or frequency of experiencing unfairness from customers or the organization are effecting employees' ability for EL.

Emotional Labor and its antecedents in hospitality industry

Since its introduction by Hochschild in 1983 concept of EL's antecedents was approached mainly theoretically. There is a general agreement in academic circles that increase in EL is created by stress factors. Subsequently, some theoretical propositions were made such as autonomy, face to face contact, gender, power difference, closeness of control etc., (Morris and Feldman, 1996). However, in EL the emotional climate of an organization can play significant role. Co-workers or manager's support, intensity of emotional expression and intensity of emotional state could influence employees' EL. On the other hand, unfairness towards employees by the organization or its customers could elevate stress through negative emotions such as anger and subsequently elevated levels of EL. This is particularly important in hospitality enterprises since hospitability during interactions with a customers is paramount in this industry.

In the service industry employees are required to express most frequently integrative emotions such as happiness and sympathy, unlike in other industries where controlling emotions (therapist) and differencing emotions (bill collectors). Requirement of portraying positive emotions, service environment and intensive frequency of usage differentiates the hospitality industry from others and requires a unique approach. Furthermore, the majority of the EL antecedents that were previously proposed were only theoretically derived and still severally lack

in empirical evidence. Chu and Murrmann (2006) pioneered in hospitality research of EL, by creating an EL scale specific designed for hospitality organizations.

In the current market, the importance of understanding employees' EL cannot be underrated. Increasing competition among hospitality brands is forcing hotel organizations to increase attention on quality of service provided to the customers by hospitality employees (Schneider & Bowen, 1992) and "customer is always right" is continuous theme in customer service. Research and popular press note, now more than ever, about difficult customers, unreasonable complaints, and poor behavior of customers. During interactions front-line employees are particularly vulnerable to EL (Pizam, 2004; Chu, Baker and Murrmann, 2012).

While, majority of studies used EL as an antecedents to job outcomes like emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Grandey, Kern and Frone, 2007), withdrawal behavior (Carneli, 2003), burnout (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002), and others. Recent studies investigated deeper and empirically tested proposed antecedents of EL (in this case portraying positive emotions, while feeling negative emotions) such as interactional injustice (Rupp and Spencer, 2006; Spencer and Rupp, 2009). Others looked at the effects of negative emotive states on EL and subsequent job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is mainly proposed to have negative relationship with EL and have direct impact on turnover intentions (Mobley, 1977, Song 2014). The hospitality industry has high rate of turnover, from 66.7% in 2014, it increased to 72.1 % in 2015 (Bureau of Labor statistics). Thus, creating a need for better understanding of organizational dynamics that have indirect impact on dissatisfaction with employment such as organizational justice and EL. Such as IPJ and IFJ would reflect a potential stressor created by customers, whereas PJ and DJ would reflect potential stressor created by an organization. In turn potentially impacting EL of hospitality employees and their job satisfaction.

Problem Statement

Despite certain contributions to the knowledge about EL (Lee & Ok, 2014; Lam and Chen, 2012; Chu and Murrmann, 2006, Chu, Baker & Murrmann, 2012), hospitality industry research is strongly lacking in understanding and empirical testing of many antecedents of EL such as interaction expectations, injustice, stress effectivity, demographical influences, etc. As recently proposed by various researches (Pizam, 2004; Kim, 2008; Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Lam & Chen, 2012) there is a strong need for more studies on EL in the context of hospitality.

Purpose of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate the effects of organizational injustice on EL and its effects on job satisfaction. Additionally, this study will look into the moderating effects of gender and frequency of interaction. Although some antecedents such as frequency of use and gender were theorized to have an effect on EL, none of the published studies empirically tested its effects.

This study also aims to contribute to the literature on EL in the hospitality industry, by empirically testing several dynamics (frequency, gender) in EL.

To meet these goals this study will attempt to achieve the following:

1. Design a comprehensive research model to investigate the effects of organizational injustice on EL and its subsequent effects on job satisfaction in the hospitality industry;
2. Evaluate the relationship between injustice of customer, organizational injustice on EL and its subsequent effects on job satisfaction of hourly wage employees.
3. Provide a theoretical contribution and possible practical preventive and ameliorating solutions to employees' EL and potential increase in job satisfaction.

Theoretical background

The theoretical framework of this study is based on theoretical propositions done by Granday (2000), Rupp and Spencer (2006) and Spencer and Rupp (2009) on concepts of EL antecedents.

To the best of our knowledge, only, two empirical studies by (Kim, 2009) and Chu, Baker and Murrmann (2012) were conducted on antecedents of EL in the hospitality industry. However, in the research by Kim (2009), the author found no significant effects between frequency of emotional expression and duration of interaction on employees' EL. However, Kim found partial support for effects between variety of emotional expression and EL. Chu et al., 2012 found a significant relationship among positive/negative affect and emotional contagion on EL. In study by Rupp and Spencer (2006) found significant relationship between customer (in) justice and EL. In the follow up study Spencer and Rupp (2009) found significant effect of co-worker directed interactional injustice on employees' increase of EL. Hochschild, (2003) theorized that women tend to use emotions more than men and therefore experience effects of EL, stronger. Granday (2000) and Ashworth and Humphrey (1993) in their research theorize that frequency of EL use, has an increasing effect on EL.

Definitions of main constructs in the study are presented below (Table 1)

Table 1
Definitions

Constructs	Definition
Distributive Justice (DJ)	Workers concern for about fairness of resource distribution such as pay, rewards, promotion and the outcomes of dispute resolution (Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata-Phelan, 2005 p. 5)
Procedural Justice (PJ)	Fairness of decision-making procedures that lead to those outcomes, attempting to understand how and why they came about (Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata-Phelan, 2005 p. 5)
Interpersonal Justice (ITJ)	The degree to which those in authority treat individuals with dignity, respect and politeness (Spencer and Rupp, 2009 p. 430)
Informational Justice (IFJ)	the extent to which communications between supervisors and subordinates are clear, candid and sufficient (Spencer and Rupp, 2009 p. 430)
Emotional Effort - Deep acting (ELE)	antecedent-focused emotion regulation, convinces employees that they really feel is the way they are trying to express (Grandey, 2000 p. 105)
Emotional Dissonance - Surface acting (ELD)	The ways of regulating feelings or manipulating expressions ... conscious "faking" of the emotion (Grandey, 2000)
Job satisfaction	a positive emotional state that results from an employees' appraisal of their job (Locke, 1976)

Proposed research model

The research model (Figure 1) suggests that informational, interpersonal, distributive and procedural (in) justice, leads to increasing levels of EL in hospitality employees. Subsequently ELD (surface acting) will have negative effect and ELE (deep acting) will have positive effect on job satisfaction. Furthermore, the model proposes that gender and intensity of interaction will moderate the effects between proposed antecedents and EL (Figure 1).

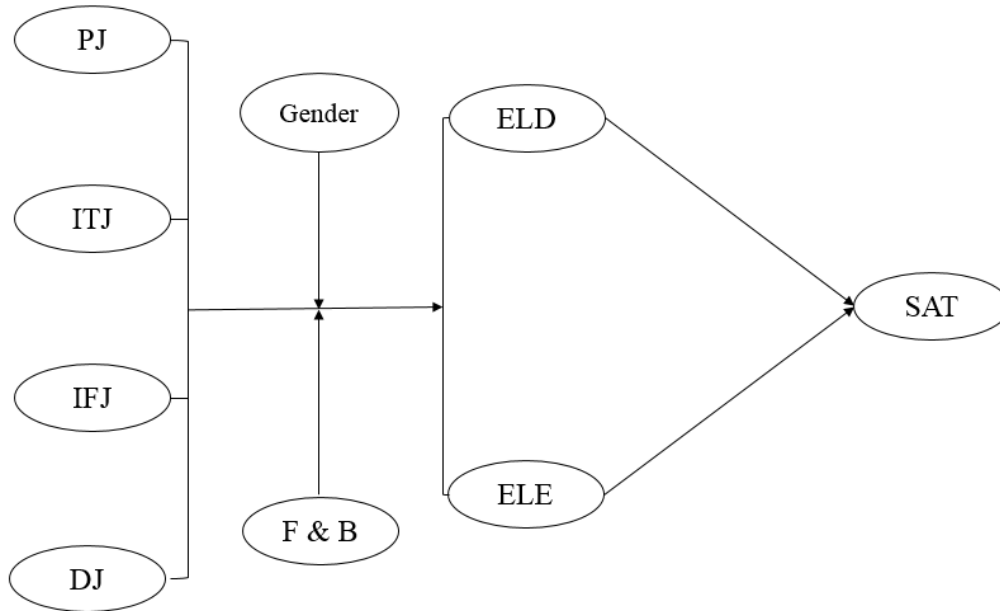


Figure 1 Proposed Model

Employee emotion or ability to provide friendly and professional service is a significant factor in customers' perception of service quality and subsequently satisfaction. Hence, in practice, understanding the antecedents and moderating effects of EL is of high importance for regulating and monitoring employees' EL to a hospitality organization.

Research Questions

The study will be guided by following questions:

1. Is there a positive relationship between Informational (in) Justice and ELD/ELE?
2. Is there a positive relationship between Procedural (in) Justice and ELD/ELE?
3. Is there positive relationship between Interactional (in) Justice and ELD/ELE?
4. Is there positive relationship between Distributive (in) Justice and ELD/ELE?
5. Is there a negative relationship between Work Experience and ELD/ELE?
6. Is there negative relationship between ELD and job satisfaction?
7. Is there positive relationship between ELE and job satisfaction?

8. Does gender have a moderating effect between four types of organizational (in) justice and ELD/ELE?
9. Does frequency of interaction (back of the house and front of the house) have a moderating effect between four types of organizational (in) justice and ELD/ELE?

Study Methodology

The study will investigate antecedents and moderators of EL using a quantitative survey. The survey instrument will be based on an extensive literature review in hospitality and organizational behavioral psychology. Hospitality hourly wage employees will be selected to participate in the survey. Structural equation modeling will be used for its ability to control measurement error and convenience of testing moderating effects and several endogenous and exogenous variables simultaneously. The overall sample will be composed of about 250-300 participants which will allow an adequate statistical analysis to investigate the research questions.

Significance of the Study

This study is an attempt to increase the empirical evidence to the existing knowledge on EL and its antecedents. This study will also endeavor to make a number of practical and theoretical contributions to the general body of knowledge in the fields of hospitality and human resources management.

First, the theoretical aim of this study is to contribute to the body of literature on EL by exploring: (a) the effects of (in) justice on EL as a cause of stress and (b) the effects of ELE on job satisfaction. Additionally, the moderating effects of gender and frequency of interaction with the customers among injustices, and EL will be reviewed. This study will investigate those

relationships and extend our understanding of employee behavior nuances in stressful situations during interaction with customers.

Second, this study will extend the understanding of employees' EL antecedents in the hospitality industry. While, a significant attention was given to EL and its consequences, very little consideration was given to EL and its antecedents in the hospitality industry.

Third, this research is novel and has academic value. Most of the theoretical and empirical research on EL in the hospitality industry have been scarce. It was not until 2006 that an EL scale relevant to the hospitality industry was created by Chu & Murrmann. Ever since the SERVQUAL scale was created by Parasuraman et al., 1988, hundreds of research articles and multiple adaptations of the SERVQUAL scale were adapted. However, the perspective of emotional labor effects on service quality appears to be understudied. Thus, this study will significantly contribute to the understanding of the EL phenomenon in the hospitality industry.

Fourth, employees can provide poor service not only due to poor training, but also due to extensive requirements from employers to provide friendly service regardless of customer behavior or employees' personal feeling. This research will provide a better understanding of the dynamics of employees' EL under strain of customer complaints and company service policies.

Fifth, since organizational behavior research appears to be limited in the hospitality industry, the current research can provide a basis for future empirical research in the area for customer injustice and emotional labor.

Finally, the results of this empirical research will provide useful suggestions for the development of better friendly service in hospitality organizations, which could possibly improve organizational efficiency, competitiveness and financial profitability.

Organization of the study

This dissertation will consist of 5 chapters: introduction, literature review, research methodology, data analysis, discussion conclusions, and recommendations.

Chapter 1 will consist of an introduction to the topic, theoretical background, purpose of the study, research questions, an overview of the proposed framework, model and the significance of the study.

Chapter 2 will be comprised of an in depth summary of previous empirical and theoretical research on EL and its antecedents.

Chapter 3 will consist of the methodology of the study. It will propose the theoretical framework of the study including hypotheses to be tested. The chapter will elaborate on the questionnaire design, measurement instrument and statistical tools that will be employed to analyze the proposed model. In addition, it will discuss data sampling and data collection methods.

Chapter 4 will present and discuss the results of the hypotheses testing analyses. The statistical technique of CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) will be presented to verify measurement model. SEM (structural equation modeling) will be applied to verify the proposed structural model.

Chapter 5 will consist of findings that will be compared and contrasted with previous research to highlight hypotheses and empirical evidence of previously theorized relationships. Additionally, implications, limitations, management and future research recommendations will be included in the chapter.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has:

1. Identified the research topic, gaps in the literature and research objectives.
2. Specified the theoretical background and overview of future chapters
3. Provided justification and the necessity of conducting the empirical research in the hospitality industry

In short, this study will focus on understanding the dynamics of (in) justice on employees' EL. Additionally, moderating effects of gender and the intensity of interactions with customers will also be addressed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Introduction

This chapter will summarize an in-depth literature review on the main constructs of the following proposed framework. First, the author will review literature on the endogenous construct of Emotional Labor (EL). Second, the author will review literature on the exogenous constructs of interactional, interpersonal and procedural (in) justices. Lastly, the author will review the moderating effects of gender and the intensity of the Emotional Labor used in hospitality organizations. In brief, this chapter will review significant literature done on the past research and theory of this topic.

The Nature of Emotional Labor

Emotional Labor (EL) was first introduced into literature by Hochschild (1983) in her well-known book *The Managed Heart*, which formed the beginnings of academic research on the accepted term of “service with the smile”. Hochschild argued, given that employees receive a salary for friendly emotions, it is acceptable to describe this act as a labor, and subsequently, she coined the term Emotional Labor. Since the introduction EL by Hochschild in 1983, the concept was approached by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987), who looked at the emotions as a part of the work role. They believed that a service and an emotional work provided by an employee plays an important role not only in the customer’s perception of service, but also “encore gains” that have a long-term benefits for the organization, such as gaining a repeat customer or positive word of mouth.

Ashworth and Humphrey (1993) studied EL more as an observed variable that can be trained, buffered and manipulated. Unlike Hochschild who emphasized feelings and their negative effect on employees due to the constant acting and manipulation of the feelings.

Ashworth and Humphrey (1993) had downplayed nuances and the depth of workers' emotions in the organizational setting and its negative consequences. Instead, they looked at Emotional Labor as a concept of task effectiveness with the belief that, once trained, emotions become effortless to use and should not become source of stress.

Morris and Feldman (1996) in their research proposed four dimensions of EL. Specifically, a frequency of an emotional display, a variety of an emotional display, attentiveness to required display rules and emotional dissonance. The authors approached EL from an interactional approach, where emotions are more determined and expressed through a social environment, and are regulated due to an organizational expectation from the employees. Key antecedents of EL were frequency, attentiveness and variety. On the other hand, consequences of EL were somewhat consistent with Hochschild's (1983) work and lead to emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction.

Grandey (2000) added to the body of literature on EL theoretical framework. The author theorized that EL is induced not only by interactional expectations (Morris and Feldman, 1996) and feelings (Hochschild, 1983), but also with emotional events, putting emphasis on surface acting and deep acting as part of EL. This is when employees display insincere emotions and later feel positive emotions by thinking of positive events and then translating those emotions onto a customer. The author proposed that individual factors, such as gender and different types of expressivity, and organizational factors, such as job autonomy, supervisor or employee support, influence the degree of Emotional Labor use and its subsequent negative consequences on organizational and individual well-being.

Underlying Theory of Emotional Labor

EL in the organizational concept is explained using the action theory. Originally proposed by a German scientists in applied psychology (Hacker, 1994), the action theory defines a task-oriented view of human behaviors. Specifically, human behaviors such as mental regulation of the goal-oriented behavior, actions and the organization of the mental process. Since the “labor” is a multifaceted action “...the psychological component of work is the work activity and from perspective of action theory it is psychological regulation of work actions.”(Zapf, 2002 p. 248). Through different cognitive processes, action theory links work objectives to behavior. Work activities consist of sequential steps described with hierarchical-sequential goals and sub-goals (Zapf, 2002). There are roughly three levels of action regulation that can be differentiated:

1. An automated or unconscious type of regulation
2. A knowledge base and possibly conscious mode
3. A strictly conscious mode or intellectual mode (Hacker, 2003)

The most important characteristic is that actions are controlled by goals, or to say it in another way, goals initiate certain actions, creating a loop of goal, action and the check point where feedback indicates whether the goal was achieved or not (Zapff, 2002). The goal-oriented work activity is organized in the cyclical loop of activities or TOTE (Test-Operate-Test-Exit) (Hacker, 2003). Those activities are sequential and hierarchical in nature. In short, sequential phases involve:

1. Task (given by an organization)
2. Implementation

3. Test
4. Exit
5. Back to the task creating a loop.

Different tasks require different regulations of actions and tasks, where the main work tasks are often comprised of subtasks. A typical task of service providers require both automated and conscious regulations, such as automated and person-related subtasks. For example, a server while providing service to a customer at a restaurant may unconsciously and automatically put bread and food on the table, while consciously smiling and making small talk with the customer. In this case, emotions work is the goal that is given to the server, creating an emotion regulation for a server a psychological focus. In other words, an employee receives an order from an organization to provide a friendly and professional service. The friendly behavior required by an organization, becomes the subjective task, which in turn will require development of the goals and actions to carry it out. Taking on the order of the organization includes an expectation of the organization that emotions work will match to organizational display rules. Hence, display rules will turn into the goal of emotion work, which becomes a secondary task to the main job requirements of a server, such as taking a food order, delivering food, processing payments and cleaning tables. Ideally, emotions work should be automatic if an employee feels positive emotions toward a customer. However, if emotions are not positive, an employee may make an emotions work the main task and use the conscious process of an acting to display a pleasant attitude. Conversely, an emotions work will become a secondary task during the entire transaction and switching to a main task only when the server will refresh the effort by thinking “Smile!” and then switching priorities of the tasks again.

This illustrates Hacker's (2003) TOTE loop based on action theory; the task is to provide friendly service (given by an organization), the implementation is an act (EL), the test is a reminder to smile and finally the exit is a switch of priorities between emotions acting and the primary task of serving food.

Antecedents of Emotional Labor

There are number of theoretical propositions of the EL antecedents that mainly reflect organizational characteristics, job characteristics and individual differences. According to Van Maanen and Kunda (1989), to increase the required positive attitude toward customers, the Walt Disney Company provides classroom training to the new employees. Kuenz (1995) emphasized this point in his study of an EL, indicating that the longer employees interact with the customer, the more they feel emotional dissonance. Furthermore, the more employees have contact with customers, the more organizations tend to believe that controlling EL of employees will result in organizational gains, subsequently leading to the higher levels of control of employee behavior. Morris and Feldman (1996) posed a similar argument in their study, which found a positive correlation between the closeness of monitoring and the frequency of an emotional display. In the same study, the authors theoretically proposed a rather extensive number of possible antecedents of EL. Specifically, the authors posited that explicitness of display rules, closeness of monitoring, gender, task routineness or variety and face-to-face contact will have a positive correlation with EL. Deaux (1985) and Hochschild (1989) also argued that gender plays an important role in EL, suggesting that women are expected to do more emotional management than men.

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) proposed two main antecedents of EL, organizational context and emotional transactions. Organizational context includes recruitment and selection, socialization and a reward/punishment. Recruitment and selection are indicators of an employee's predisposition to the service job or what practitioners often call employees with "service attitude". Socialization is identified as learning norms or display rules required by an organization. Rewards and punishment are control factors used by an organization to judge employees' required display rules. Another antecedent proposed by the authors is the emotional transactions, which include cycles of displayed emotion and feedback from the target. This antecedent emphasizes and goes along with action theory, proposed by Hacker (2010) and Zapf (2002), where employees' EL are effected by the reaction of the target (customer), creating a need to switch priority of tasks and checkpoints. Specifically, verbal and non-verbal cues sent by the customer will influence the cycles of employees' emotional display or EL.

Grandey (2000) in her conceptual study also emphasized that interaction expectations, such as frequency, duration, variety and display rules could have an impact on the EL of employees. Moreover, individual factors, such as gender, emotional expressivity, emotional intelligence and affectivity could affect the EL of employees. Schaubroeck and Johns (2000) found empirical support that display rule requirements as antecedent indeed have a positive effect on EL and partial empirical support for personality traits, such as positive and negative affectivity, as an antecedents of EL. Grandey (2000) posed that emotional events, positive or negative, could be potential antecedents of an EL. Positive or negative events at work could have an implicit and acute change in employees' emotions and create a need for an emotional regulation. Job autonomy is another proposed antecedent of EL. Morris and Feldman (1997) asserted that job autonomy and emotional dissonance could have a positive relationship.

Although job autonomy is similar in concept to the closeness of monitoring, in the service industry, context indicates "... to the extent to which role occupants have the ability to adapt display rules to fit their own interpersonal styles" (p. 999).

Tolich (1993) found that in spite of the close monitoring of the emotional performance of supermarket clerks, they still maintained discretion as to how they will interact with customers. However, Gursoy, Boylu, and Avci (2011) in their empirical work did not find support on effects of job autonomy on EL.

Zapf and Holz (2006) did an empirical study on personality traits as antecedents of EL, but found only partial support for that hypothesis in an overall sample which combined call center, bank, hotel and kindergarten employees. The most important point however, was when researchers split data into subsamples based on organizations and hotel workers specifically had a significant effect of positive and negative emotions on EL, but personality trait (neuroticism) had no effect. On the other hand, Gursoy, Boylu, and Avci (2011) found empirical support of a personality trait (Neuroticism) to be a significant antecedent of EL in hospitality management employees. Finally, Kim (2008) in his empirical study of EL in service employees statistically confirmed job variety and positive/negative display rules as antecedents of EL.

Emotional Labor in the Hospitality Industry

In this section we will explore EL, its antecedents and its implication for organizations, employees and managers within the hospitality industry. Since the main output of the hospitality industry is service, EL is becoming the essential component of selection criterion for human resources in the hospitality industry (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Johanson and Woods, 2008). While there was much attention given to EL in the organizational research, there is little research done

on EL in hospitality (Chu, 2002). Since EL is a relatively new topic in the hospitality industry there is a scarcity of research in the field. While some research in the service industry linked EL with job performance, job satisfaction and service quality (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Kusluvan et. al., 2010; Rosemond, 2007; Grandey, 2000; Ashworth and Humphrey, 1995; Hulsheger and Schewe, 2011) and others, most of the research published in the hospitality industry is not only limited, but is also mainly qualitative (Kim, 2008). Although, what constitutes service quality, is fiercely debated (Grayson, 1998), it is generally agreed that the quality of customer service is an essential part of the hospitality and tourism industry. It is customer-contact employees that are mainly responsible for much of the success or failure in the organization (Davidoff, 1994). Well known articles of Enz and Siguaw (2000) about hospitality best practices suggest that quality of service is monumental in determining customer satisfaction and loyalty. Over the past decade, a number of articles came to the same conclusion (Andreassen, & Lindestad, 1998; Caruana, 2002; Hallowell, 1996; Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000).

The main point of customer service is the critical incidents when a customer gets his/her impression of service quality and subsequent loyalty. Those moments can happen at any moment, but they mainly happen when a customer reaches a higher-than-normal agitated state. It happens when a customer is upset or angry, but it also happens when a customer is simply unwell. In these cases, customers are less inclined to overlook mistakes. The Second Law of Service tells us that there is never a second chance to make a good impression and stresses that the first encounter the most critical moment (Davidoff, 1994). In this case, the main point of the initial interaction is a display of positive emotions and to minimize any possible negative impact on the customer (Johanson and Wood, 2008; Davidoff, 1994). Myers and Blanc (1998, p4.) in the training manual described the exact EL requirements of hospitality workers:

“... As an employee on the front line with customers, you are the one who creates the customer-service experience. You are the one who can make it or break it... That’s why you must develop service attitude Think of it as being an actor. Actors no matter how they feel, have to set their personal feelings aside before stepping onto the stage....Playing the role of positive customer service provider is no different. To do so, you concentrate on acting cheerful, friendly, and helpful, no matter how you are feeling.”

Service-excellence offer sustainable competitive advantage. It is apparent that hospitality work requires EL, but data suggest that demand for EL gradually increases due to the competition in the hospitality industry (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). Increasing competition takes different forms and impacts different elements of the hospitality industry. Lately, within the hospitality industry there was a high increase in market segmentation (Teare & Ingram, 1993). Another factor that increases competition is online access to information and purchasing. Modern consumers have extensive access to information online. Customer’s ability to find bargain deals and avoid company reservations led some companies to compete on prices (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). Yet, it caused some companies to put more emphasis on customer-consumer interaction. All of this indicates that demand on employees’ EL will increase and the hospitality industry will have more and more required display rules, which subsequently will lead to a higher demand of sincere emotions and increase EL of hospitality employees (Morris and Feldman, 1996; Kusluvan, 2003).

Assessment of Emotional Labor

Although there is a strong qualitative research on EL, the concept of EL is still evolving and there is no consensus among researches about measurement and definition of EL (Fisher &

Ashkansay, 2000). A number of articles refer to the original definition proposed by Hochschild (1983) in her book. In organizational psychology, EL is often referred as surface acting and deep acting. Those two types of emotion reflect the sincerity of emotions portrayed by an employee (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Botherige and Grandey (2000) separated EL into two categories “job-focused” and “employee-focused” Emotional Labor. Job-focused EL is more concentrated on job characteristics and includes frequency, duration, variety and intensity of EL. Employee-focused EL is more concentrated on employee emotion management and techniques that employees use in interaction with the customer, such as surface acting and deep acting. Grandey (2000) also introduced a more organization-oriented definition of the EL is “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals, which was chosen for this research” (p.97).

Kruml and Geddes (2000) developed a measurement instrument for EL and separated it into two categories: emotive dissonance and emotive effort. The former reflects a degree of emotional mismatch between actual feelings and portrayed feelings, while the latter reflects the actual effort an employee makes to portray positive feelings. This scale was created with the purpose of helping organizations identify EL among front line employees. Chu and Murrmann (2006) developed EL scales specifically for the hospitality industry (HELs). The authors created a 19-item scale, which concentrated on employee-focused approach and employees’ perception of EL in the hospitality industry. HELs scale has a two-factor structure of EL, emotive dissonance and emotive effort, which is consistent with Kruml and Geddes’ (2000) study.

The Nature of Justice

Justice has been a topic of interest since the beginning of recorded history. Ancient Greek philosophers debated on the topic, leaving behind Plato’s Republic which is still relevant

in our modern times. The topic of justice is becoming an increasingly significant area of inquiry in the organizational behavior sciences, specifically, in how the concept is perceived (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). For a long time, justice had been used in research from the employee's or customer's perception of how fairly they are treated (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). For example, employees judge events that take place at work through behavior of customers and management, which in turn guides their perception of (in) justice and subsequent attitude and behaviors. After several decades, justice theory evolved into different types, relevant to organizational behavior. Distributive justice (DJ), which is rooted in the equity theory (Adams, 1965), reflects the perceived fairness of outcomes. Procedural justice (PJ), which reflects procedures that guide such outcomes or the reason that guides such outcomes; was largely introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975, 1978), and advanced by (Leventhal (1976, 1980).

Finally, behavioral justice is based on the employees' perception of fairness/treatment received from management or customers. Originally introduced as interactional justice (IJ) by Greenberg (1993), IJ was later was split in to two groups informational (IFJ) and interactional justice (IRJ), where the former is reflecting fairness of judgment based on the information provided and the latter is reflecting fairness of the interpersonal behavior directed at an employee from key authorities, such as a customer or management (Rupp et. al., 2007). Jointly, distributive, procedural, interpersonal and interactional justices are considered to be part of the organizational justice. Although there are some arguments regarding the structure of the justice, there is strong empirical support using meta-analytical research supporting this structure (Colquitt et. al., 2001; Colquitt, et al., 2013). In the meta-analysis by Colquitt et. al., (2001) four justices were linked to a state of positive and negative effectivity, which in turn will affect future

work outcomes. Perceptions of justice by an employee can lead to range of emotions such as guilt, anger, happiness and enthusiasm (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Theory of Justice

Over the past several decades, justice theories have been successfully applied in organizational settings and their link to the emotive states of employees. Affective Events Theory (AET) described by Weiss and Corpanzano (1996) states “... specific events at work generate specific emotions, which in turn translate to spontaneous, affectively driven behaviors.” (Rupp and Spencer, 2006 (p. 972). Empirical research shows that in some cases where employees feel that they were treated unfairly, they experience negative emotions, such as anger, resentment, and guilt (Greenberg, 2001; Krehbiel & Corpanzano, 2000). Other empirical research shows that feelings of anger are a frequent consequence of unjust treatment (Clayton, 1992; Mikula, 1986). Perception and judgment of injustice by employees is supported by the Referent Cognitive Theory (RCT) (Folger, 1986, 1993) and Fairness Theory (FT) (Folger & Corpanzano, 1998, 2001), which was succinctly summarized by Zapata-Phelan et. al., (2009) “both theories focus on cognition of that lead one to appraise an event as either fair or unfair and effective reactions that result from it” (p. 94). Particularly, FT emphasizes cognitive mechanisms of an evaluation about unjust situation and subsequent emotions. Consistently with the AET, anger, blame, and resentment are felt when one feels the authority should have acted differently (Corpanzano et. al., 2000; Zapata-Phelan et. al., 2009). This can be further supported by the Social Exchange Theory (SET). SET is one of the most influential theories in organizational behavior and one of the oldest propositions dating back to the 1920s (Malinowski, 1922) and was adapted into interpersonal relations by Blau, (1964). The author argued that there is a difference between social and economic exchanges. He stated that economic exchange is more of

immediate or short-term exchange of economic/tangible resources. On the other hand, social exchange is a lot more subjective or a “feeling” in nature. It is built on a relationship between an employee and an employer and has long-term relationship that involves socio-emotional benefits.

Corpanzano and Mitchell, (2005) used foundational ideas of the SET and its exploratory power in: rules and norm of exchange, resources exchanged, and relationships that emerge from it (Corpanzano & Mitchell, 2005 p. 875). Specifically, in social exchange relationships, Corpanzano and Mitchel (2005) proposed the typology of transaction and relationships provide interpersonal attachment, which is fundamental to SET. The typology interrelates social and economic exchange, where one of the cases is the social transaction in the economic relationship. For example, employees of service organizations where money is received for friendliness. Such emotion, which is limited and mainly reserved for friends and family, can be stressful and in the sense begetting EL.

Procedural Justice

The PJ is how people attend to the fairness of decision-making procedures and regulations that lead to outcomes or decisions Colquitt et. al., 2005). This component of justice is important to explain reactions to decisions based on a particular outcome. Thibaut and Walker (1975), who studied decision-making behavior, found that understanding the reasons about decision outcome was very important in the perception of justice. Their work was very influential in the research of the PJ. The authors wrote “this subjective measure is critical, because one of the major aims of the legal process is to resolve conflicts in such way as to bind up the social fabric and encourage the continuations of productive exchange between individuals. (p. 67). Meaning, fairness depends on what is perceived to be fair. Formal labeling of procedural

justice came in the same study by Thibaut and Walker (1975) "... The procedures for resolving the types of conflict that result in litigation is a procedure that entrusts much control over process to the disputants themselves and relatively little control to the decision maker. There are many correlated and subsidiary elements of PJ, but the key requirements for PJ is the optimal distribution of control" (p.2). The researchers' observation was rather interesting, as decade ahead of them Selznick (1996) wrote: "...the main stimulus usually comes from usually comes from below [in the organizational ladder] in the form of more or less militant self-assertion by legally disprivileged... The immediate effect is formalization. Rules are promulgated to specify rights and obligations, thus limiting administrative discretion and putting potential rule-violators on notice" (p. 28-29). Selznick's remark is truly an echo of a procedural justice.

In a follow up study, Thibaut and Walker (1978) distinguished between two forms of control: the decision control and the process control. The former involves "the degree to which a disputant can unilaterally the outcome of a dispute and later the degree to which disputant can control the development, selection, and presentation of the evidence used to resolve the dispute" (as described in Colquitt et al., 2005 p.24). Leventhal (1980) follows on the research of Thibaut and Walker (1975) and defines procedural rules as an individual's belief that allocation procedures satisfy certain criteria that are fair and appropriate (p.30). Eventually PJ is separated into six categories: consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality. The authors label the term "voice" as an extent to which one can voice one's opinion about decision and outcome.

PJ was eventually introduced into organizational behavior by Greenberg and Folger (1983), who introduced concepts of "voice" and "choice" into organizational behavior literature. In their following work, Greenberg and Folger (1985) introduced and applied PJ to

organizational behavior in the human resources area. The authors argued that PJ can be applied in employee evaluation and giving an employee the right to participate in the evaluation process through self-appraisals and informing employees on compensation system (Colquitt et al., 2005). In the academic world, there were arguments as for the distinction between procedural and distributive justice in the actual work environment, rather than just a theoretic “fiction”. Using factor analysis, Greenberg (1986) empirically proved a distinction between the two constructs, supporting Thibaut and Walker’s (1975) theory.

Another fundamental work in procedural justice in the organizational behavior setting was published by Lind and Tyler (1988), who wrote: “it is likely that more people encounter formal decision-making procedures in the course of their work than in any other areas in their lives” (p. 173). The authors had a significant contribution in the methodological development of procedural justice through empirical research and measurement. Alexander and Ruderman (1987) studied 2,800 federal government employees in their study and found that stress is one of the outcomes of PJ. Greenberg (1987) found that an increase in procedural justice will mitigate unfavorable outcomes of distributive justice. PJ has several components cognitive and affective. Specifically, the affective component of PJ is positive and negative emotions toward an actual event (Tyler, 1994).

Fairness perceptions lead to important consequences in an employee behavior and attitudes (Konovsky, 2000). Bias (1987) found that justification of a decision is particularly important, when a decision is unfavorable. Past literature suggests that PJ is a link to the positive and negative affective states (Colquitt et. al., 2001). PJ is strongly related to trust in management (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). Mistrust in management and unfair procedures in the organization could create negative affectivity in employees. Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano (1999) linked PJ

to affective states, such as happiness, pride, anger and guilt. “Feeling” of justice can be strongly linked to an emotional state. Solomon (1990) in his book *A Passion for Justice Emotions and Origins of Social Contract* wrote: “the emotions are not just evidence or intuition that will or (won’t) support one or another theory of justice; they are very substance of our sense of justice.” (p. 32). Although, literature about the link between PJ and Emotional Labor is sparse, since PJ is linked to the emotional states (Weiss, et al., 1999), it is logical to assume that an increase in emotions, such as anger and guilt, can lead to increased EL. For example, if a customer complained about an employee’s service, PJ would be reflected if a manager did not give the employee a chance to express his/her feelings or the employee’s side of the story in the conflict before making a decision (Colquitt, 2001).

Interactional Justice

IJ was introduced into the academic world by Bias and Moan in 1986. The idea of IJ came to Bias by observing a Ph.D. student complain about unfairness in projects or rudeness in the behavior of university faculty members. The author noticed that although it is a common theme for Ph.D. students to complain about faculty, interpersonal unfairness was distinct from that of the structured process. Interactional justice was formally introduced in the following passage:

“Concerns about fairness of interpersonal communication are representative of a set of issues dealing with what we refer to as interactional justice. By interactional justice we mean that people are sensitive to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986 p.44).

Bias and Moang (1986) in their study looked at interviews of job candidates and their treatment by recruiters. The authors found four distinct categories that govern interpersonal fairness: truthfulness, justification, respect, and propriety with truthfulness being one of the most important factors. Greenberg, Bies, and Eskew (1991) argued that not only structure, but the manner in which rules are implemented is very important. Research was extended by Folger and Bias (1989) with seven key managerial responsibilities: giving adequate consideration of employees' viewpoints, suppressing bias, applying decision-making criteria consistently across employees, providing timely feedback to employees after a decision, providing justification for the decision, being truthful in communication, and treating employees with courtesy and civility (p. 81).

The authors stressed the importance of implementation on decision-making procedures rather than its structure, where managerial responsibilities are indeed much broader than a scope of written rules. Already several decades ago, Walton (1985) argued that managerial authority is no longer granted, but must be earned through a manner in which authority is exercised. Conversely, Bias (1986) found importance in the timely feedback of a decision for judgment of fairness by an employee from a higher authority. Sheppard and Lewicki (1987) found that managers believe that a prompt decision was positively associated with fairness of the decision, supported Bias' (1986) argument. Bias and Moag (1986) found that curtesy and civility were very important in fairness evaluation by employees in the decision-making process. Although research on justice effects were becoming common, a firm grasp of IJ did not exist.

Moorman (1991), who conceptualized IJ as a construct separate from PJ, was the first to create an empirical measure of IJ using conceptualization proposed Folger and Bies (1989). IJ consists of Interpersonal Justice (IPJ) and Informational justice (IFJ). Colquitt (2001) in his

instrumental work separated nuances of informational and interpersonal justice reflecting definitions of Bies and Montag (1986). IPJ is "...degree of which those in authority treat individuals with dignity, respect and politeness" (Spencer & Rupp, 2009 p. 430). IFJ is clear, candid and sufficient communication between those of authority (Greenberg, 1993; Spencer and Rupp, 2009).

Empirical research on IJ in the service area is sparse. Lovelock (1994) coined term "jaycustomers," who deliberately disrupt service that affects other customers or the organization. Harlos and Pinder (2000) in their work on emotions and injustice in the workplace stated that employees are intensely aware of injustice. "...within context of organizational injustice, emotions are very much more commonly related to injustice experiences than either mood or dispositions" (p.257). Moreover, emotions were easily recalled regardless of time past Karen and Craig (2000). Interactional injustice had distinct dimensions: intimidations, abandonment, inconsistency, degradation, criticism, inaccessibility, surveillance and manipulation (Harlos and Pinder, 1999). Granday, Dickter, & Sin (2004) found that employees in call centers experience customer injustice about 10 times a day. Similarly, Karen and Craig (2000) indicated that an injustice in the workplace from a higher authority to subordinates is very frequent and has lasting negative effects on employees' performance and health; harboring feelings of fear and anger. The concept of an interactional injustice was originally introduced into the area of customer service by Rupp and Spencer (2006) and empirically introduced the concept of Customer Injustice (CIJ), when an experimental design on college students found positive effects of CIJ on EL. The study was followed by Spencer and Rupp (2009) within an organizational setting and found that customer injustice toward employee had positive effects on EL of co-workers. Lam and Chen (2012) studied the effects of IJ on emotions and subsequently two types of EL, such as

surface acting and deep acting. The authors found negative effect between IJ (supervisory support) and negative emotions of employees. Skarlicki, Jaarsveld and Walker (2008) found a significant correlation between customer injustice and service sabotage among call center employees. The effect between injustice and sabotage was significantly moderated by the moral of employees. The authors followed the work of Spence and Rupp (2006; 2009) and created a scale specific to customer injustice in the service organization. Grandey (2007) found that verbal abuse was more frequent from customers rather than coworkers or management.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice (DJ) affirms allocation of goods based on the merit of a person with in his community, giving availability of common goods. From theoretical perspective DJ acknowledges the contingency of social norms with regards to the distribution of resources (Bauzon. 2015 p. 197). Research on DJ mainly advanced around 1950s to 1970s (Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan, 2005).

Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star and Williams, (1949) were one of the first to point out perceptions of DJ in their study. Authors analyzed the attitude of US troops after World War II and accessing soldiers' perceptions of "gain" such as promotion opportunity in the army. They found that judgment of outcome depends on outcomes of others or against whom they compared themselves. Indicating relativity of distributive justice.

Homans (1961) in his research adapted DJ with social exchange theory, where exchange may be no monetary but rather social. People overtime create exchange histories that created anticipations for future exchange. A person in the exchange relationship with another will expect a reward proportional to the investment.

Homans's work was followed by Adam's (1965) and his equity theory (Adams, 1963). He described DJ (equity) as a perceived outcomes to the inputs/investment. In organization outputs would be reflected by employees concern over fairness of resources distribution, such as salary, promotions, and outcomes of dispute resolutions. Whereas inputs include intelligence, training, gender, social status, effort on the job, etc., Adams (1965) expanded on Homans's (1961) social exchange theory emphasizing that people (workers) compare their perceived ratio of input/outcome to put/outcome ratio of others. If, compared ratio falls below the ratio of reference party, it will result in perceived deprivation, on the other hand if ratio is above a ratio of reference party, it will result in feelings of guilt or inequity.

Walster, Walster and Berscheid, (1978) extended Adam's (1965) equity theory suggested that people who found input/outcome ratio as exceeding will compensate for it psychologically, but will retain their earnings and those who find ratio lacking, will try to compensate it behaviorally, thus attempting to increase it. However, subsequently theory although in some way correct did not hold since psychological and behavioral adjustments were found in the both parties, who found themselves lacking or overcompensated (Colquitt, et., al 2005).

Leventhal, (1976) and colleagues in his research sifted focus from reactions of recipients of rewards to the distributors of it. Where allocator distributes rewards (DJ) in order to align individual efforts toward a greater good of a group and subject to allocation norm, which requires differentiations from contributions of recipients.

Conversely, foundation of DJ is characterized by equity theory (Adams, 1965) that describes fairness in the social relationships. Leventhal (1980) described it as '...fairness in

social relationships occurs when rewards, punishments, and resources are allocated in proportion to one's input or contribution" (p.22). Thus, negative emotions that occur due to perceived DJ motivates employees to equalize situation by altering their behavior and attitudes (Greenberg, 1990; Adams and Freeman, 1976). Hume (2012) and Smith (2010) both emphasized that DJ is deep-seated in emotions. Cropanzano and Folger (1989) found were one of the first to link DJ to emotive outcomes, suggesting that perceived unfair outcomes of DJ lead to negative emotions. It was supported by study of Cropanzano and Randall (1993) and Williams (1999) supported this with an experimental study. A stress from perceived distributive (in) justice (underpayment, underappreciation etc.) has negative effect on employee productivity and job satisfaction (Greenberg, 1987; Mowday, 1991). EL is a part of job description and is "work", hence stress resulting from perceived DJ has potential to increase an effort needed to work or be productive in one's job to provide friendly and professional service to guests at a hotel.

Job Satisfaction as a consequence of Emotional Labor

Job Satisfaction (JS) "... emphasizes the match between expectations and perceived reality of the broad aspects of the job taken as whole" Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991 p. 45). Although, early research studies indicate that EL has a deteriorating effects on JS (Pugliesi, 1999), a more recent empirical evidence suggest that results are positive as well as negative (Zapf and Holz, 2006). EL is a multidimensional construct. Inconsistencies in past research could be explained by different mechanisms underlying emotion-rule dissonance (Hulshege and Schewe (2011) and use of internal resources. For instance, surface acting threatens and deep-acing conserves employees' internal resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Granday, 2000).

According to Wharton (1993, 1996) front-line employees in the service industry who have a high level of interaction with public and use an extensive amount of EL, reported a high levels of job satisfaction. On the other hand, Pulgliesi (1999) found that effects of EL are independent of job conditions and self-focused EL had a negative effect on job satisfaction.

Grandey (2000) in her seminal work theorized that surface acting will have deteriorating effects and deep-acting will have positive effects on job-related well-being. Meta-analysis by Hulshege and Schewe (2011) on EL and its organizational consequences, analyzed a substantial number of academic articles supported Grandey theory (2000). Authors empirically proved that surface-acting has a significant negative effect and deep-acting had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. Chu et al., (2012) used the HELS scale developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006) to analyze antecedents and consequences of EL specifically in the hospitality industry, also found support for negative effect of surface-acting and positive effects deep-acting on job satisfaction.

Finally, Cheung, Tang and Tang (2011) enriched understanding of dynamics between surface acting and job satisfaction. Authors argued, that employees with high level of surface-acting report higher levels of job satisfaction in the presence of high psychological capital. Thus, psychological capital moderates effects of surface-acting on job satisfaction.

Moderators

Gender

Gender is extensively theorized as an antecedent of EL. Hochschild (1983) in her book indicated that due to the cultural and societal differences, females, more than males, adapt to emotional management. In the western culture, men are presumed to renounce feelings

(Chodorow, 1980) or hide their emotions and subsequently are less expected to be attuned to their emotional states. Females, on the other hand, are more emotionally expressive, which leads to a higher mismatch of “real” emotions and ones they have to display (Fabes & Martin, 1991). Kruml and Geddes (2000) empirically found that women have higher possibilities of experiencing emotional dissonance. Since, they use surface acting as a segment of emotional labor. It is especially detrimental as it conflicts with a gender role (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Timmers, Fischer, and Manstead (1998) postulated that men and women have different reasons for emotive regulations. While women are more subtle and concerned with getting long, men are more forceful, possess stronger emotions of anger and pride, and are more inclined to seek control. Those emotive states make men more susceptible to the feeling of injustice from persons of authority. On the other hand (Brody, 2000) emphasized social norms of emotional display rules, where content of display rules confirms gender stereotypes such as girls should be timid (need for protection) and boys should be strong (protectors). Emotive display rules are learned within social interactions and due to their non-obvious nature adaptation could be difficult. While, there are many different emotions that are acceptable across US and Europe, negative emotions such as shame and embarrassment displayed by man are evaluated negatively (Siegel and Alloy, 1990) and aggressive behavior is more acceptable for man than woman. Conformity to the display norm (rules) develops in the early age (elementary school), and girls are more skilled in the emotive adaptations and in their ability to show positive emotions in the face of disappointment (negativity) (Brody, 2000).

Grandey (2000) theorized that gender will have a different impact on the emotive states of employees. The author argues that men will have greater difficulty in the service sector, managing their emotions due to their need to control. Hochschild (1983) pointed that woman are

more “motherly” and rather natural nurturers. Guy & Newman (2004) found that females are more likely to be employed where “mothering” is required as part of the job description, such as family service counselor. Maier, Mastracci, and Wilson (2006) investigated EL in educational organizations and found that specifically female EL contributes to organizational productivity and reduces class turnover. Johnson & Spector (2007) conducted a study in customer service organizations and found that women are more likely to become emotionally exhausted than men. Erickson & Ritter (2001) found that women are more likely than men to experience agitation while employing EL at work. Kim’s (2008) research of EL in hotel employees found marginal significant differences in gender emotional display.

Frequency of Emotional Labor

Frequency of EL dynamics is mainly drawn from the work of Morris and Feldman (1996). The authors theorized that the relationship between EL and frequency display should be positive. This particular relationship is more likely to occur because the higher frequency of emotional display, the higher chance employees will have conflict with their “true” emotions. Specifically, Morris and Feldman (1996) stated “... emotional labor can be best described in terms of frequency of EL” (p. 257). For example, according to Willis and Kuenz (1995), the Walt Disney employees whose jobs require frequent interaction with customers reported frequent instances of emotional mismatch. Grandey (2000) supported this observation in her work on EL, stating that the higher frequency of emotional display, the higher emotional regulation. Furthermore, more frequent customer interactions will lead to higher chances of dealing with difficult customers and higher chances of experiencing customer injustice. Bailey (1996) reported that among 49 employees across different jobs, once or twice daily employees interacted with “difficult” customers. According to Grandey (2000), not only are customers a

source of stress and subsequent effects of EL, but management also creates discrepancy between required emotional state and actual emotions. In hospitality settings, Kim (2008) attempted to confirm the proposed theories using hotel employees. The study did not find any significant effect of frequency display on EL.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, we gave an overview of important research works in EL and justice. Following a time line, step-by-step we showed the development of concepts and constructs of EL starting with the work of Hochschild (1983), who introduced concept of EL, until the scale development of EL specifically for the hospitality industry (HELS) by Chu and Murrman (2006). We also covered relevant theories that display mechanics of EL in organizational settings.

In the area of justice, we covered the development of justice, starting with relevant and major theories that deepen the understanding of the mechanics behind justice in organizational environments. This was followed by groundbreaking theoretical work in the development of organizational justice and the evolution of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and interactional justices. Next, we examined a new concept in organizational behavior – interactional (in) justice – that reflects customers’ unjust behavior toward employees and its relevance in the hospitality industry. Finally, we described proposed moderating effects, such as gender and frequency of EL in the hospitality industry and its possible impact on the EL of employees, as an aspect of customer service.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Chapter Introduction

The main purpose of this study is to empirically investigate effects of (in) justice and work experience as antecedents of EL among hourly-wage employees of hotels in the United States. The study has been designed to explore and understand the dynamics of injustice on employee emotional labor, specifically within the hospitality industry where EL is the main attribute of polite and professional service. This study also examined the relationship between injustice, work experience and EL, moderated with effects of intensity of interaction and gender.

A self-reported survey approved by the Institution Review Board (IRB) at University of Central Florida was used in this research. This chapter covers research design, the instrument development, the data collection process, and data analysis.

Research Process

A research design was used to structure the research, as well as illustrate how significant parts of the research, such as measurement, sample and methods, work in synchronization to address research questions. Grounded in comprehensive literature review of past empirical and theoretical research, this empirical study used survey methods for data inquiry. The survey research design provides a measurable description of trends and attitudes of the population by using a sample of the population (Cresswell, 1996).

Figure 3.1 represents a schematic of this research project, providing an outline of the steps taken in the research design for this study. This diagram of traditional research design is adapted from Babbie (2010). The original diagram was slightly altered by adding a prior experience. A prior experience and examination of behavioral dynamics in the hospitality

organization has the potential to lead researchers toward future research interests, subsequent ideas and suggest new ways to explore research interests. The top of the Babbie (2010) diagram includes interests, ideas and theories that are fundamental for further research steps such as conceptualization, a choice of research methods, data collection, data processing, analysis and finally an application.

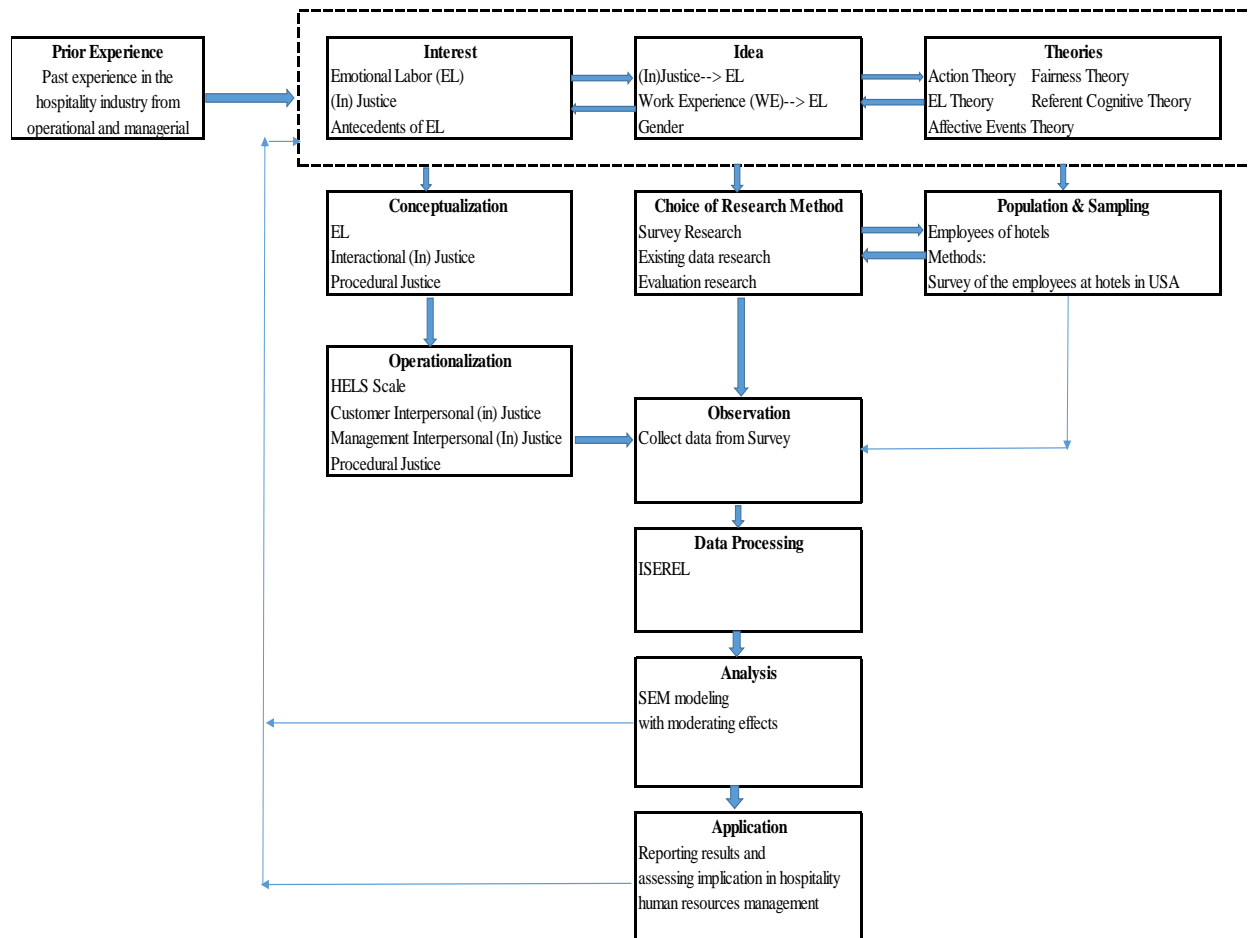


Figure 2 Schematic Diagram of Research Process for This Study
Source: This diagram is adapted from Babbie (2010. P.13)

Research Hypotheses

A proposed framework of the relationship among exogenous variables: Four organizational justices, and endogenous variable emotional labor and satisfaction, moderated by gender and frequency of interaction.

H1a: PJ positively effects employee's ELE

H1b: PJ positively effects employee's ELD

H2a: ITJ positively effects employee's ELE

H2b: ITJ positively effects employee's ELD

H3a: IFJ positively effects employees' ELE

H3b: IFJ positively effects employees' ELD

H4a: DJ positively effects employee's ELE

H4b: DJ positively effects employee's ELD

H5: ELE will have negative effect on Job Satisfaction

H6: ELD will have positive effect in Job Satisfaction

H7: Gender will have moderating effect between PJ, ITJ, IFJ, DJ and EL (ELE, ELD)

H8: Frequency of Interaction will have moderating effect between PJ, ITJ, IFJ, DJ and EL (ELE, ELD)

Emotional Labor

Chu & Murrmann (2006) created a scale that specifically reflects EL of hospitality employees (HELs). Since this study is focused on the hotel industry, the HELs scale was chosen for hourly-wage employees' EL measurement. Although a number of antecedents were theoretically proposed and empirically tested, the effects of Procedural Injustice (PI) and Interactional Injustice Management (IIM) have not previously been theoretically linked or empirically tested. Additionally, Interactional Injustice Customer (IIC) and work experience (WE) have not been empirically tested in the hospitality industry. While gender and intensity of interaction have been proposed as antecedents of EL, they were never tested as moderators of a relationship between injustices, work experience and EL. On the basis of the proposed gaps in the literature, the following hypothesis are suggested.

Procedural Injustice

In the organizational setting when employee expresses their point of view, they expect their opinion to be heard carefully and completely. Giving full consideration to the opinion of an employee is the core of procedural justice (Tyler, 1988). Whereas lack of such consideration from management will be perceived by an employee as procedural misdeed and thus judged unfair (Cohen, 1985). There is empirical support for this thinking. Folger's (1977) research found that the rate of perceived unfairness by an employee is higher when managers ignore the employee's viewpoint than when a manager does not give an employee an opportunity to express their viewpoint in the decision making. Moreover, management's consideration of an employee's viewpoint is main reason for the perception of PJ. Greenberg (1986) found that a standard application of procedures is significant in fairness judgment. Consistency and timely decisions

are also important in the determination of fairness judgment. Paradoxically, in a study by Sheppard and Lewicki (1987), employees do not want strict consistency in the procedures, since they want exceptions to be made as well.

Tepper (2001) found that procedural injustice is a significant predictor of psychological strain, such as emotional exhaustion and anxiety. Weiss, et. al., (1999) linked PJ to affective states, such as happiness, pride, anger and guilt. Although, literature about the link between PJ and emotional labor is sparse, since PJ is linked to the emotional states (Weiss, et al., 1999), it is logical to assume that an increase in emotions, such as anger and guilt, can lead to increased EL. For example, if a customer complained about an employee's service, PJ would be reflected if a manager did not give an employee a chance to express his/her feelings or the employee's side of the story in the conflict before making a decision (Colquitt, 2001). This would in turn create emotions, such as anger. Subsequently, it will increase acting (emotional labor), in order to comply with the employer's requirements of service standards. Injustice of the situation will increase an employee's emotional labor to provide friendly and "always with the smile" service. Based on the literature above, the alternative hypothesis is proposed.

H1a: Procedural injustice positively effects ELE of an employees

H1b: Procedural injustice positively effects ELD of an employees

Interactional Injustice

It is generally accepted that a perceived justice at workplace plays a significant role in employees' behavior and work outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001). For instance, employees' who experience injustice show decreased work performance (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993) and stress-related outcomes, such as psychological strain (Francis & Barling, 2005; Judge and Colquitt, 2004). Several possible sources of an organizational injustice, such as management and customer, are proposed in this research.

According to Schat, Frone & Kelloway (2006), injustice is more likely to come from those outside the organization, such as customers. Perception of injustice can come from unreasonable or irrational treatment, such as blaming an employee for giving a smoking room to the customer, when it is the customer who failed to request a non-smoking room (Bies, 2001).

Such attitudes can create a sense of an emotional dissonance in the employee who has to maintain a professional and friendly appearance in the face of the unjust customer. Subsequently, keeping a professional appearance in the face of injustice can make it harder for employees to perform and adhere to the required display rules. Granday et al. (2004) found that customer hostility increases employees EL. Interactional injustice is a wider term than general aggression and hostility. A customer's behavior could be considered unjust, but may not be conveyed by anger. Injustice implies the lack of appropriate treatment of employees, suggesting that perceived interactional customer injustice by employees will lead to an increase in the employee's EL (Scarlicki, van Jaarsveld & Walker, 2008).

Colquitt (2001) separated Interpersonal Justice to IFJ and ITJ, because both dimensions have been showing independent effects. Spencer and Rupp (2006) connected customer

interpersonal (in) justice using Spencer and Carnevale (2003). This EL scale measures "...the extent to which participants felt they had to exert effort in managing their emotions during interactions with the customers" (Rupp and Spencer, 2006, p. 974). In short, IFJ reflects the clarity of the information and ITJ reflect dignity of interactions between customers and employees. If customer displays lack of curtesy, are unclear in their communications, or do not explain their needs and wants, such distorted communication can create barriers to a proper service. A lack of curtesy or dignity on customer side toward employees could create feeling of resentment and degradation emphasizing a gap between required professional friendliness that is required by company policy and actual feeling employee has.

Based on the literature and discussion above, the following alternative hypotheses is proposed:

H2a: Customer interactional injustice positively effects ELE of an employees

H2b: Customer interactional injustice positively effects ELD of an employees

H3a: Customer informational injustice positively effects ELE of an employees

H3b: Customer informational injustice positively effects ELD of an employees

Distributive Injustice

Distributive justice (DJ) affirms allocation of goods based on the merit of a person with in his community, giving availability of common goods. From theoretical perspective DJ acknowledges the contingency of social norms with regards to the distribution of resources (Bauzon. 2015 p. 197). DJ is explained by the equity theory (Adams, 1963) where perceived outcomes such as salary, promotion, opportunities etc., are judge by the amount of input such as

effort on the job. Howman (1961) expanded this theory and added that perceived input/output ratio is compared to that of the peers or colleagues. Laventhal (1980) described it as ‘...fairness in social relationships occurs when rewards, punishments, and resources are allocated in proportion to one’s input or contribution’ (p.22). Thus, perceived unfairness could lead to negative feelings such as anger and resentment (Cropanzano and Foldger, 1989; Williams 1999).

While, DJ was never directly linked to DJ. It is strongly associated with emotive states (Hume, 2012) and Smith (2010) and link to negative emotions, hence giving it a strong potential for creating an emotional dissonance and to have an impact on EL of employees. For example, employees who feels that their jobs are “dead end” and they have no potential for career improvement and subsequently no potential for improved financial standing may feel resentful, what in turn will increase a gap in emotions. Similar logical sequence could be applied to different DJ situations such as being missed for promotion or salary increase.

Based on the literature and discussion above, the following alternative hypotheses is proposed:

H4a: Distributive injustice positively effects ELD of an employees

H4b: Distributive injustice positively effects ELE of an employees

Job Satisfaction

Hochschild (1983) in her famous book states that managing positive emotions for an organization could be fundamentally unsatisfying. While, early research supported the negative relationship between EL and job satisfaction (Pugliesi, 1999), as research on EL continue evolving, the link between EL and job satisfaction was found to be a lot more complex.

Granday, (2000) and Morris and Feldman, (1997) suggested that there are two facets of EL deep-acting and surface-acting. Authors argued that “faking” positive emotions in surface-acting will increase dissonance in the emotions of employees and lead to decreased job satisfaction.

There is less support for relationship between deep-acting and job satisfaction. However, deep-acting emphasizes a genuine positive feeling that an employee feels (albeit may not related to a job or a customer) and portrays toward a customer, subsequently reducing a dissonance in emotions between what an employee feels and what an employee portrays. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) argued that deep acting or faking in the “good faith” reduces a gap in employees’ emotional dissonance resulting in positive interaction with customers. Thus, leading to a positive work outcomes. Chu et. al., empirically supported this notion and found significant positive relationship between emotive effort (deep-acting) and job satisfaction.

In the hospitality industry, faking in “the good faith” is strongly emphasized through training. It is part of a “job description” and organizations are selecting employees that have an affinity for service (friendly) behavior. While, deep-acting is not trained directly, it is indirectly emphasized in organizations’ mission statements and constant emphasis that service is what we do in employees’ training. Subsequently, emphasizing a need for faking in “the good faith”.

Based on the literature and discussion above, the following alternative hypotheses is proposed:

Ha5: ELD (surface-acting) will have negative effect on job satisfaction

Ha6: ELE (surface-acting) will have positive effect on job satisfaction

Gender

Hochschild (1983) proposed that women more than men are focused on feelings, hence more adept to managing their emotions. Women exhibit more attentiveness to emotional states and subsequently should be more responsive to emotional cues in organizational settings (Domagalski, 1999; Brody & Hall, 2008). On the other hand, men are more emotionally restrained, which is perhaps motivated by the fact that in the western culture men are motivated to be more emotionally restrained (Kring and Gordon, 1998). Subsequently, men will be more responsive to physical cues (Pennebaker & Roberts, 1992).

Based on the literature above, the following alternative hypothesis is proposed:

H7: Female will have smaller increase in EL than male by proposed antecedents.

Frequency of Interaction

A proposition about the quantity of an emotional interaction was originally proposed by Morris & Feldman (1996) based on the research done by DePaulo (1992), Saarni & VonSalisch (1993). The proposition stipulated that the longer employees need to maintain their façade of positive and professional behavior, the harder it will be to perform and maintain the required attitude. On the other hand, the more time an employee spends out of customer sight the, less maintenance will be required of the facial emotions.

Although, specific characteristics of front of the house and the back of the house has not been empirically tested, theoretical evidence from Morris and Feldman (1996) suggests that dynamics of the model could be different for employees in the back of the house than those in

the front of the house. Based on the literature above, the following alternative hypothesis is proposed.

H8: Employees who have more interactions with customers (front-of-the-house employees) will experience a higher level of EL than those who have fewer interactions with customers (back-of-the-house employees).

Questionnaire

The questionnaire design reflects research questions and design. Questionnaire items reflected the proposed antecedents of EL, interactional, procedural (in) justice, work experience and moderators, such as back or front of the house, and gender. First, a literature review was conducted to identify domain of the constructs and identify areas where organizational psychology was applicable for organizational behavior in the hospitality industry. A questionnaire is one of the most frequent methods to collect data in social sciences (Stone, 1978). Developed scales and measurements help to statistically test hypothesized relationships between constructs (Hinkin, 1995). A questionnaire is especially important in accessing an emotional state of participants. Specifically, a survey offers a number of advantages, such as gaining access to the emotional states that happened in the past (Wallbott & Scherer, 1989). It is the only way where subjects can disclose sensitive information, especially within an organizational setting where information is related to the feelings and subsequent emotions related to the current employment (Sudman & Bradburn, 1974).

Most of the constructs and scales in this study were adopted from previous research. Survey instruments included the developed scales for all for facets of organizational justice were

adapted from work by Colquitt (2001) and binary variable for frequency of interaction (back of the house and front of the house), gender (male, female) and demographical variables.

This study involves respondents from hotels in Central Florida. Due to the multinational demographics of the area, the survey had versions in English and Spanish. All scales adopted for this research were created in English or published in English language journals. Most of the wording in the scales for (in) justice and EL remains original with minor modifications.

According to the management of the hotels, employees in the back of the hotel, such as housekeeping, dishwashers, etc., will have difficulty understanding an academic language surveys. A simplification technique was applied for a survey language that does not alter a meaning of a test. Specifically, pharmaceutical companies and schools are using this type of language simplification to streamline complicated (medical or academic) language for general public and children. PhD specialist and a president of the Plain Language Group Dr. Deborah S. Bosley, was hired to adapt a language of a survey (Plain language Group, 2015). Dr. Bosley is a Professor Emerita at UNC Charlotte and specializes in this technique,

In the next step an English version of the survey was translated to Spanish and Creole languages. A Spanish version of the survey was translated directly and back translation was applied to verify contents of the survey. One Ph.D. student and native Spanish speaker was invited for translation of the survey from the English language to Spanish. Another Ph.D. student and native speaker of Spanish language was asked to translate a Spanish survey back to English to verify a consistency of the translation. After checking the conceptual equivalence of the survey, a professor at the University of Central Florida with extensive academic, professional

work experience, and a fluent speaker of both languages, was invited to proof-read contents of the survey.

Similar steps were taken for a survey translation to a Creole language version. A professional translator was asked to translate a survey and a native speaker of a Creole language was asked to back translate a survey for verification.

Instrument development

The researcher operationalized the questionnaire from previous research, where scales were validated. All items were measured on a Likert scale and are provided below.

Measurement of Hospitality Emotional Labor

In this study, researchers used the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale (HELs) (Table 3.1) developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006) to create and validate a 15-item instrument that assesses hospitality employees' performance for customers and identifying EL of hourly-wage employees.

Table 2
Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale

Emotive Dissonance

- I imitate/fake good mood interacting with the customers
- I fake/imitate the emotions I show when dealing with the customers
- I put on a mask/facade emotions in order to express the right emotions for my job
- The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel
- I put on act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way
- My interactions with customer are very robotic /restrained
- I display emotional that I am not actually feeling
- I have to cover up my true feeling when I am working with the customer
- I actually feel the emotional that I need to show to do my job well
- I show the same feeling to customer as those I feel inside

Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale

Emotive Effort

I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers

When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires

I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work

I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers

When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I must show when interacting with customers

I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers

I have to concentrate more on my behavior when display an emotions that I do not actually feel

Source: Chu and Murrmann (2006) EL is measured on 5-point likert scale ranging from 1(not at all) to 5 (almost always).

Organizational Injustice

A scale (Table 3.2) for all four facets of organizational justice were developed by Colquitt 2001.

Table 3
Justice measure items

Measure item

Procedural justice

- Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
- Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- Have those procedures been applied consistently?
- Have those procedures been free of bias?
- Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
- Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
- Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

Distributive justice

- Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?
- Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?
- Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
- Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Interpersonal justice

- Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?
- Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?
- Has (he/she) treated you with respect?
- Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?

Informational Justice

- Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?
 - Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?
 - Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
 - Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?
 - Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?
-

Source: Colquitt (2001) measured on 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 (small extend) to 5 (large extend)

Job Satisfaction

This scale "... emphasizes the match between expectations and perceived reality of the broad aspects of the job taken as whole" Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley (1991 p. 45).

Table 4
Job Satisfaction Scale

Items

How satisfied are you with:

- your present job when you compare it to jobs in other organizations
 - the progress you are making toward the goals you set for yourself in your present position
 - the chance your job gives you to do what you are best at
 - your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job
 - your present job in light of your career expectations
-

Source: Bacharach et. al., 1991 ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5)

Moderators

Gender was measured with binary variable 1=male and 0=female.

Intensity of interaction was measured 1=front of the house and 0=back of the house.

Demographics

Several demographic variables were controlled in this study. Respondents were asked to identify their age, educational levels, gender, marital status, gender, and work experience.

Data Collection

Survey Population and Sampling

This study is limited to the hospitality industry and the target population is hourly-wage employees that work for hotels in the United States.

A self-reported questionnaire was utilized to survey multiple properties in Central Florida. To initiate contact, the researcher went to several university career fairs, meetings between students and hospitality leaders, and made personal visits to large properties in the Orlando/Kissimmee regions. After initial contact was made, a researcher followed up with the human resources (HR) management and initiated negotiations about data collection. Negotiations extended to other hotels under the brand name to get agreement to participate in data collection. Participating managers were informed that the survey was voluntary and participants should be 18 years or older in order to participate in the survey.

Following the agreement of the hotel's management, the survey was submitted for IRB approval. Upon approval, the researcher hand-delivered surveys with envelopes. After completing the survey, the employees were instructed to seal their survey in the envelope to protect confidentiality and reduce anxiety about providing sensitive information to strangers. In addition, a return box was provided for every hotel where management could not observe employees' participation in this survey. The researcher then paid another personal visit to collect the boxes. This was to ensure the surveys would be returned to the researchers in a timely manner. During the collection process, the researcher followed up with management on a regular bases through emails and personal visits to ensure proper and timely collection.

Sampling Selection Method

Sampling is a process of selecting respondents out of the target population (Torchim, 2001). A sample is the actual group a researcher would like to contact in some way. By analyzing a sample a researcher can generalize results of the study to a target population (Sekaran, 2000; Torchim, 2001). The two most known sampling styles are probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is any type of sampling that uses any form of random selection (Torchim, 2001). There are multiple non-random sampling techniques, such as snowball, stratified, multi-stage, quota and many others. Although random sampling technique is preferred theoretically, it is rarely used in practice due to difficulty and cost.

Another way to obtain a sample is quota sampling, where participants are selected according to some fixed quota (Torchim, 2001). According to (Moser and Stuart, 1953) “...essential difference between random and quota sampling is a general breakdown of the sample (different sex, age, social group etc.,) ... the choice of the sample units to fit into a framework is left to a researcher” (p.350).

This study used quota sampling for the reasons of convenience due to a target being only hourly-wage hotel employees whose job requires them to interact with customer, at the front and the back of the house in the United States.

Determination of sample size

There is a considerable argument regarding how large a sample size for a study should be. Multiple “rules of thumb” and formulas are available for calculating sample size. Sample size also varies based on the statistical analysis chosen to analyze the given data. For purposes of this study, structural equation modeling (SEM) was chosen. Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2010)

argued that a minimum number of observations reflects ratio is 5:1 and a preferred ratio is 15: 1. Procedures vary based on the complexity and procedures of a model. A sample size no less than 200 observations is recommended for SEM analysis. However, if a sample is larger than 400 observations, SEM modeling becomes more sensitive, making goodness-of-fit measurements poor. As a result, a sample between 200 and 400 is suggested (Hair et al., 2010). Similarly, Kline (2005) suggested that sample size bigger than 200 is large enough to generate significant results and provide a sound basis for estimation.

Data Analysis Methods

To analyze data, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and SEM modeling is chosen using LISREL software. The overall data analysis flowchart is described in Figure 3.2. It shows steps taken in managing data, such as data collection, cleaning, and analysis.

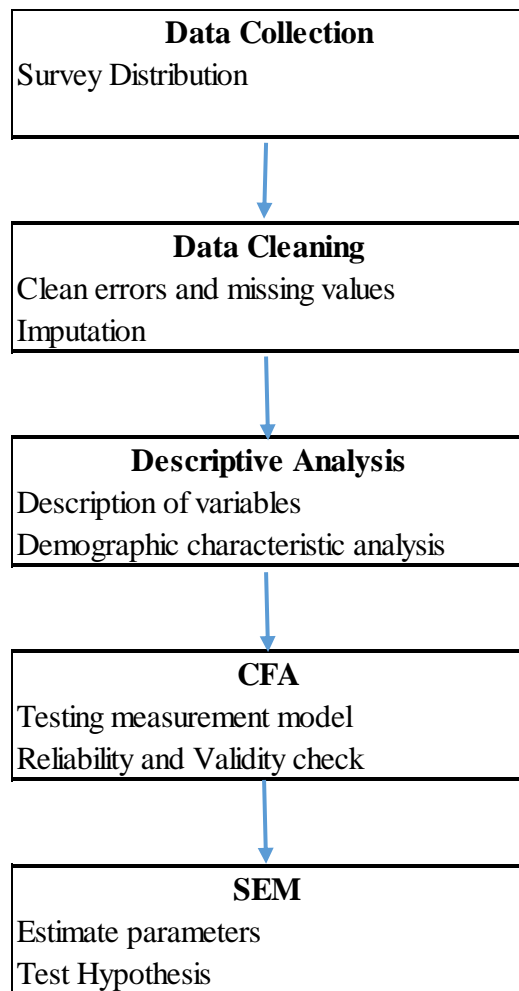


Figure 3 Data Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

A proposed theoretical model is representation of prior research (theory) and researchers' hypotheses. "CFA enable researchers to test how well the measured variables represent constructs" (Hair et al., 2010, p.668) and is also called measurement model (Nusair & Hua, 2010). CFA is a necessary step prior to SEM analysis to verify constructs (measures) of a proposed model. CFA can be used for number of purposes, such as a validation of scale, an evaluation of measurements, method effects and others. However, lately CFA is mainly used for

scale development and examining a latent structure. It is a necessary tool and must be used as a precursor to SEM (Hoyle, 2012).

Measurement model is represented by the equations:

$$\mathbf{x} = \Lambda \mathbf{x} \boldsymbol{\xi} + \boldsymbol{\delta} \quad (1)$$

Where matrices of:

x are observed indicators of latent variable ξ

Λx are loading indicators of x to ξ

δ is measurement error of x

$$\mathbf{y} = \Lambda \mathbf{y} \boldsymbol{\eta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (2)$$

Where matrices of:

y are observed indicators of latent variable η

Λy are loading indicators of y to ε

ε is measurement error of y

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

“SEM is generally referred as latent variable modeling” (Hoyle, 2012, p. 3). SEM is combination of path analysis and CFA or hybrid analytical tool (Nusair & Hua, 2010; Kline, 1998) and technique of covariance structures (Hoyle, 2012). If CFA is the measurement model, SEM is the structural model that tests the relationship between variables and confirms/denies proposed hypotheses. One of the biggest advantages of SEM is to test complex theoretical models. The fundamental question in SEM analysis is how well estimates implied by the model match the estimates of observed data (Hoyle, 2012). Multiple fit statistics are available to verify the fit of a model and suggest alternative models. Figure 3.3 represents SEM implementation framework proposed by Hoyle (2010), which was applied to this study.

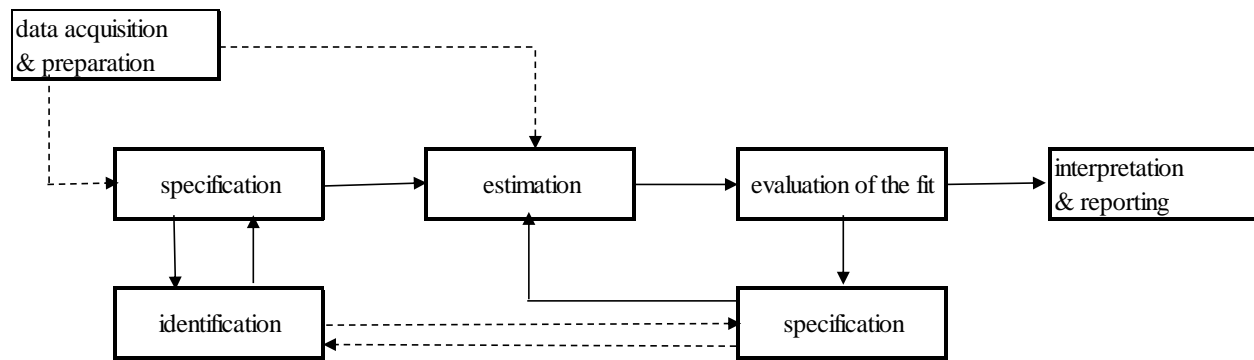


Figure 4 SEM Implementation Framework
 Source: Hoyle, 2010 p. 129

SEM modeling is represented by the equation:

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\eta} + \boldsymbol{\Gamma}\boldsymbol{\xi} + \boldsymbol{\zeta} \quad (3)$$

Equation 3.3 Hoyle (2010)

Where matrices of:

$\boldsymbol{\eta}$ are latent endogenous variable

\mathbf{B} coefficient for $\boldsymbol{\eta}$

$\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ coefficient for $\boldsymbol{\xi}$

$\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ specification error terms

Summary of the Chapter

In brief, this chapter addressed the research process, survey development, data collections and statistical tools for data analysis. Measurement tools consist of previously developed instruments validated by previous research. Quota sampling was used in the hotels in Central Florida for this research. CFA and SEM were used as statistical tools for data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Chapter Introduction

This chapter covers the results of the survey, outlines a data screening, cleaning, and analysis. After the data cleaning process, the author used frequency tables for data evaluation, errors and missing values. Confirmatory data analysis (CFA) or measurement model was used to verify the factor structure of observed variables. A final step was a structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the proposed hypothesis and results of the model.

Survey and Data Screening

A total of 341 surveys were collected from five upscale and luxury hotels in the Central Florida region. Data was collected from May 2015 to October 2015 using online and paper surveys. After a screening of surveys, twenty nine cases were screened out due to (a) large missing portions of measurement sections or (b) only one marked choice/selection for a whole survey. For example, an employee formed a straight line with their answers by marking the same response for every question. The final data set had 312 observations with a very low percentage (under 1 %) of missing data.

In the next step, the final data was carefully screened for input errors using frequency tables and descriptive statistics (maximums and minimums). For further understanding of the data, a cross tabulation was used to inspect missing values and for data exploration. After screening, no errors were noticed and missing values were minimal.

Finally, demographic factors were analyzed using frequency tables.

Demographic variables

The sample included 68.3% women, 24.2% men, and 7.5% did not wish to specify their gender. A majority of the participants were 18-24 years old at 43.1%, followed by 24-34 at 30.6%, while participants of 55 and older were only 2.9%. Participants' education had the highest percentage of vocational/associate degrees with 32.4% and college/university with 34%. High school was 18% and 7.2 % preferred not to answer. A little more than half of the participants were white (51.8%) with the second largest category being Hispanic (22.5%) and 10.7% preferred not to answer. Responses were very balanced regarding back of the house and front of the house place of work with 57.8 % front and 42.2% back of the house. Finally, experience was also quite balanced with less than a year (10.9%), 1-3 years (22.1%), 3-6 years (24.7%), 6-10 years (20.5%) and over 10 years (21.8 %). (See table 1).

Table 5
Demographic factors

Name	Percent
Gender	
Male	24.2
Female	68.3
Do not wish to identify	7.5
Age	
18-24	43.1
25-34	30.6
35-44	14.5
45-54	8.9
55-64	1.6
65+	1.3
Education	
High School	18
Vocational/Associate	32.4
College/University	34

Master's PhD	2
Other	6.5
Prefer not to answer	7.2
<hr/>	
Demographic factors	
<hr/>	
Name	Percent
<hr/>	
Marital Status	
Single	63.7
Married	14.5
Divorced	5.6
Widow	4.6
Separated	3.3
Domestic partner	3
Other	1.3
Prefer not to answer	4
<hr/>	
Race	
White/Caucasian	51.8
African American	3.6
Hispanic	22.5
Asian	2.3
Native American	0.3
Pacific Islander	1
Other	7.8
Prefer not to answer	10.7
<hr/>	
Location	
Front of the house	57.8
Back of the house	42.2
<hr/>	
Experience	
< 1 year	10.9
1-up to 3	22.1
3-up to 6	24.7
6 up to 10	20.5
>10	21.8

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA analyses are strongly recommended to test measurement model prior to the structural equation modeling analysis (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et. al., 2010). CFA was done using SPSS AMOS (Version 22) from hourly-wage employees' responses (N=312).

CFA is a measurement model that qualitatively defines the relationships between observed variables (items) and latent variables (concepts ex: emotional labor). Normality was assessed using SPSS/AMOS normality assessment option using skewness and kurtosis. All variables were in the acceptable range from -2 to +2 for skewness and kurtosis indicating normality within expectable limits (George & Mallery, 2010).

Model fit was assessed using the chi-square statistic (χ^2), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), an absolute fit index; and relative fit indices, including comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The relative fit indices compare the given model to null model and no single measure provides an adequate fit, subsequently multiple measures are used to identify model fit (Brown, 2006; Hair et al., 2010).

Fit indices

Chi –square statistics

The chi-square fit is a statistical fit index that represents how well the observed data fits the proposed model. The most common parametric statistical test for overall fit. Chi-square test implies a null hypothesis of:

$$f(\mathbf{S} - \hat{\Sigma}_{\text{tested}}) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad f(\mathbf{S} - \hat{\Sigma}_{\text{nested}}) - f(\mathbf{S} - \hat{\Sigma}_{\text{nesting}}) = 0 \quad (4)$$

(Joreskog, 1969)

Chi-square simultaneously tests the extent to which all the residuals are zero or how well observed data fits a proposed model. A chi-square test; however, is highly influenced by sample size and should be reported, but not interpreted if a sample size is above 200. Considering that

this study has a sample size of 312 and is significantly higher than the suggested sample size for interpretation, results will be reported but not interpreted (Arbuckle, 1997).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

$$\text{RMSEA} = \sqrt{\hat{F}_0/df} \hat{=} \sqrt{\max(\hat{F}/df - 1/(N-1), 0)}$$

$$E(F) = F_0 + df/(N-1), \quad E(\chi^2) = \chi_0^2 + df \quad (5)$$

(Steiger, 1990; Steiger & Lind, 1980)

F₀ and F are fit functions in the population and a sample for the hypothesized model.

RMSEA provides statistical information on misfit due to misspecification (Joseph, 2015).

Considered to be one of the most popular and comprehensive fit indices.

Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

$$\text{CFI} = 1 - \frac{\max(\chi_m^2 - df_m, 0)}{\max(\chi_b^2 - df_b, 0)} \quad \text{cf.} \quad \text{RNI} = 1 - \frac{\chi_m^2 - df_m}{\chi_b^2 - df_b} \quad (6)$$

(Bentler, 1990; McDonald and Marsh, 1990)

CFI follows a similar logic to the RMSEA index using the non-centrality parameter as an index of lack of fit with a minimum value 0 and maximum theoretical value 1. It is an efficient estimator due to discarding values that population index cannot possibly take on and preferable for reporting the fit of the single model (Hoyle, 2012)

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)

$$\rho_2 = \frac{F_b/df_b - F_m/df_m}{F_b/df_b - 1/(N-1)} = \frac{\chi_b^2/df_b - \chi_m^2/df_m}{\chi_b^2/df_b - 1} \quad (7)$$

Tucker and Lewis (1973)

This index compares M_κ to the hypothesized model M_0 for a baseline, an independent model. For χ^2/df ratios, it gives distance between the baseline and target models as a proportion of the distance between the baseline and target models as a proportion between baseline and a true model.

Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

$$\Delta_2 = \frac{F_b - F_m}{F_b - df_m/(N-1)} = \frac{\chi_b^2 - \chi_m^2}{\chi_b^2 - df_m} \quad (8)$$

Bollen (1989) was introduced to improve the IFI index. It subtracts the hypothesized model's df in the denominator, since this is the expected value of models χ^2 , the model is correct.

Survey items were allocated to interpersonal, informational, procedural, distributive, two sides of emotional labor (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) and satisfaction.

Emotional Labor scale verification

EL scales were verified individually and within the overall model. On an individual level, EL scales had a very good fit with (χ^2 (DF=45) = 74.188, RMSEA = 0.46 (CI = .026 .064, CFI = 0.985, TLI = 0.978, and IFI = .985). From all scales, ELE retained all items and from ELD, 7 out of the 10 items were retained. All the items' coefficients (λ) were .5 or above indicating good

validity coefficient. A strong correlation coefficient (.504) and a positive covariate (0.85) show convergent validity. All standardized regression weights are represented in figure 1 and meet a threshold of .5 indicating a convergent validity of the scales (Hair et al., 2010).

Items in table 1 show estimates and standard errors. All variables are statistically significant at $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ (Table 2).

Table 6
Regression Weights

Item	Estimate	S.E.
ELD1	1.000	
ELD2	1.360	0.148
ELD3	1.344	0.145
ELD4	1.284	0.165
ELD5	1.541	0.174
ELD6	1.720	0.195
ELD7	1.325	0.150
ELE1	1.000	
ELE2	1.158	0.089
ELE3	1.059	0.087
ELE4	1.163	0.090
ELE5	0.851	0.088

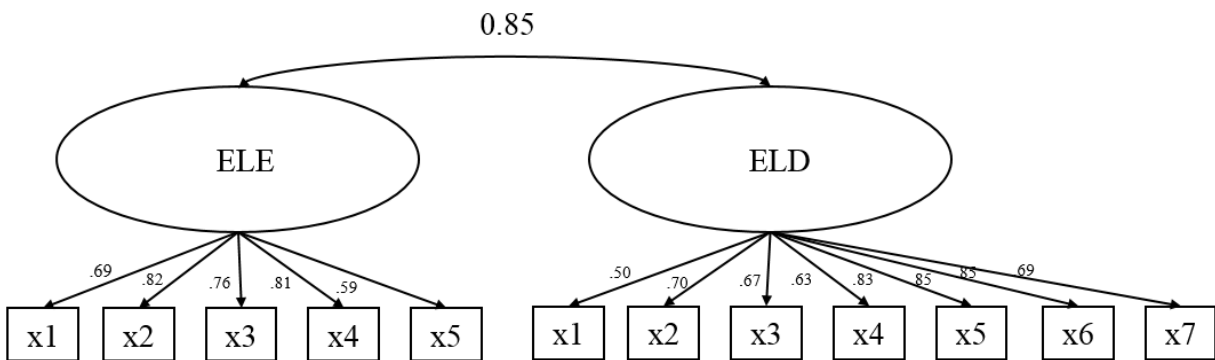


Figure 5 Emotional Labor Scale Verification

The author ruled out the possibility of second order for emotional labor (emotive dissonance and emotive effort) due to poor fit of the model. The fit statistics demonstrated fit of the original model much better. Also, correlation of ELE and ELD scores was .71 (table 3).

Justice scale were developed by multiple authors such as Thuabaut and Walker, (1975); Laventhal, (1980); Bias and Monag, (1976) and others. Scale eventually was consolidated and validated following seminal works in the justice literature by Colquitt, (2001) and used by multiple authors (Ambrose, Schminke, 2009; Simons and Robertson, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004; Karriker and Williams, 2007). The author chose not to confirm scales individually and proceeded to confirm the overall CFA measurement model including all hypothesized latent variables. Reliability of the measurements was confirmed using the Cronbach's alpha, all scales had alpha above .8, indicating good reliability (Hair et. al., 2010). In overall measurement models all items were used in the justice scales.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Full model

Latent variables: Procedural Justice (PJ), Informational Justice (IFJ), Interpersonal Justice (ITJ), Distributive Justice (DJ) (Colquitt, 2001), Emotional Labor (Emotive Dissonance (ELD) and Emotive Effort (ELE) (Chu and Murraman, 2006) and Satisfaction (Jackson, Schwab, Schuler, 1986; Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley, 1991) were used in the overall model.

Descriptive Statistics

As a first step in data analysis, descriptive statistics were done on latent variables using a mean standard deviation with items averaged into scales and Cronbach alpha for scale verification. Table 3 represents a correlation among latent variables from seven factor model's standardized solution and provides a nomonological validity. The diagram provides the

correlation among with items (observed). Those relationships would have been observed if other multivariate technique such as the hierarchical regression. Exception for a few relationships, all correlations were significant providing a good degree of predictable validity. Column one and two provided means and standard deviation of observed latent variables (Colquitt, 2001). PJ, IPJ, IFJ and DJ had means 2.23, 2.73, 2.36, and 2.50 respectively with standard deviations of .841, .979, .903 and 1.132. Two levels of ELD and ELE had means (3.02, 3.09) and standard deviation (.772 and 1.01). Finally, SAT had a mean of 3.55 and a standard deviation of 1.146. Cronbach alpha as a reliability measure was used to verify reliability of the scales is provided in column three. All variables have a reliability higher than .5 (Hair, 2010) and in the levels over .8 indicating very high levels of reliability.

Table 7
Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PJ	2.23	0.841	0.900	1	.08	.10	.27	.11	.04	.03
IPJ	2.73	0.979	0.872	.29**	1	.37	.10	.19	.02	.01
IFJ	2.36	0.903	0.873	.31**	.61**	1	.15	.01	.02	.01
DJ	2.50	1.132	0.933	.52**	.32**	.39**	1	.16	.06	.05
SAT	3.55	1.146	0.928	-0.34**	-0.4*	-0.12*	-0.40**	1	.01	.01
ELD	3.02	0.772	0.812	0.22**	.17**	.15**	.26**	-0.08	1	.50
ELE	3.09	1.01	0.853	.17**	0.11	.12*	.23**	-0.19	.71**	1

Finally, after following appropriate modification, such as error correlation, the model showed a good fit within acceptable margins with (χ^2 (DF=626) = 1013.566, RMSEA =0.45 (CI = .040; .050, CFI = 0.951, TLI = 0.944, and IFI =.950). Chi square statistics were significant; however, as mentioned in an earlier paragraph, chi square is driven by a sample size and is always significant with a sample over 200. In this study with sample over 300, we report chi square statistics, but do not use them in the model evaluation.

All unstandardized factor loading were significant at p-value > .001. Loading estimates that were statistically significant provided a good estimate for convergent validity (Hair, 2010).

Loading and standard errors are provided in the Table 4.

Table 8
CFA full model item loadings

Variables	Estimates	SE
ELD1	1	
ELD2	1.153	0.131
ELD3	1.250	0.136
ELD4	1.227	0.121
ELD5	1.156	0.135
ELD6	1.330	0.137
ELD7	1.430	0.149
ELE1	1	
ELE2	1.153	0.09
ELE3	1.069	0.088
ELE4	1.163	0.091
ELE5	0.856	0.089
PJ1	1	
PJ2	1.101	0.093
PJ3	1.119	0.085
PJ4	1.015	0.083
PJ5	0.946	0.072
PJ6	1.023	0.096
PJ7	1.004	0.08
ITJ1	1	
ITJ2	0.691	0.066
ITJ3	1.001	0.047
ITJ4	1.051	0.045
IFJ1	1	
IFJ2	0.878	0.061
IFJ3	1.021	0.075
IFJ4	0.880	0.077
IFJ 5	0.932	0.080
DJ1	1	
DJ2	1.003	0.051
DJ3	0.986	0.044

DJ4	1.018	0.044
SAT1	1	
SAT2	0.946	0.055
SAT3	1.105	0.055
SAT4	1.053	0.057
SAT5	1.054	0.057

Average Variance Extracted Value (AVE) is calculated as means variance extracted for the item loadings on a construct and is a summary indicator of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). AVE is a summary indicator of convergence and reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct. The average accepted value for AVE should exceed .5 to indicate convergent validity. An AVE value of .4 is also acceptable as a minimum benchmark as an indicator of convergent validity (Dimantopolus & Siguaw, 2000; Fraering & Minor, 2006). All AVE values met a threshold for construct convergence (table 5).

The formula used to calculate AVE was adopted from a book by Hair et al. (2010).

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^2}{n} \tag{9}$$

Table 9
Items Loadings and Convergent Validity

Variables	ELD	ELE	PJ	ITJ	IFJ	DJ	SAT
ELD1	0.552						
ELD2	0.674						
ELD3	0.728						
ELD4	0.691						
ELD5	0.639						
ELD6	0.814						
ELD7	0.794						
ELE1		0.687					
ELE2		0.817					
ELE3		0.765					
ELE4		0.809					

ELE5	0.595
PJ1	0.727
PJ2	0.697
PJ3	0.782
PJ4	0.725
PJ5	0.764
PJ6	0.627
PJ7	0.745

Variables	ELD	ELE	PJ	ITJ	IFJ	DJ	SAT
ITJ2				0.546			
ITJ3				0.877			
ITJ4				0.925			
IFJ1							
IFJ2					0.749		
IFJ3					0.687		
IFJ4					0.843		
IFJ5					0.705		
DJ1					0.754		
DJ2						0.861	
DJ3						0.846	
DJ4						0.91	
SAT1						0.922	
SAT2							0.828
SAT3							0.816
SAT4							0.891
SAT5							0.866
							0.848
Average Variance Extracted	0.50	0.55	0.53	0.67	0.65	0.78	0.72

The model did not require re-specification or any additional steps taken to alter the model.

Discriminant validity is shown in table 4. All AVE estimates from table 5 are greater than the corresponding interconstruct squared correlation estimates. Therefore, this test indicates that there are no issues with discriminant validity for this model (Hair, et al., 210).

A final step of correlations among variables is provided in the table 6. A majority of the variables show significant covariates. Conversely, this is a first insight into those correlations.

Relationships will have to be studied further using SEM modeling.

Table 10
CFA Model Covariates

	PJ	ITJ	IFJ	DJ	ELD	ELE	SAT
PJ	1	.208(.000)	.232(.000)	.458(.000)	.16(.000)	.145(.002)	-.316(.000)
ITJ		1	0.60(.000)	.39(.000)	.164(.063)	.105(.001)	-.164 (.012)
IFJ			1	.421(.001)	.13(.004)	.121(.021)	-.116 (.052)
DJ				1	.267(.000)	.256(.000)	-.489(.000)
ELD					1	.569 (.000)	-.046(.006)
ELE						1	-.047 (.438)
SAT							1

The overall model is graphically represented in the Graph 2. All regression weights and covariates are represented in the standardized form.

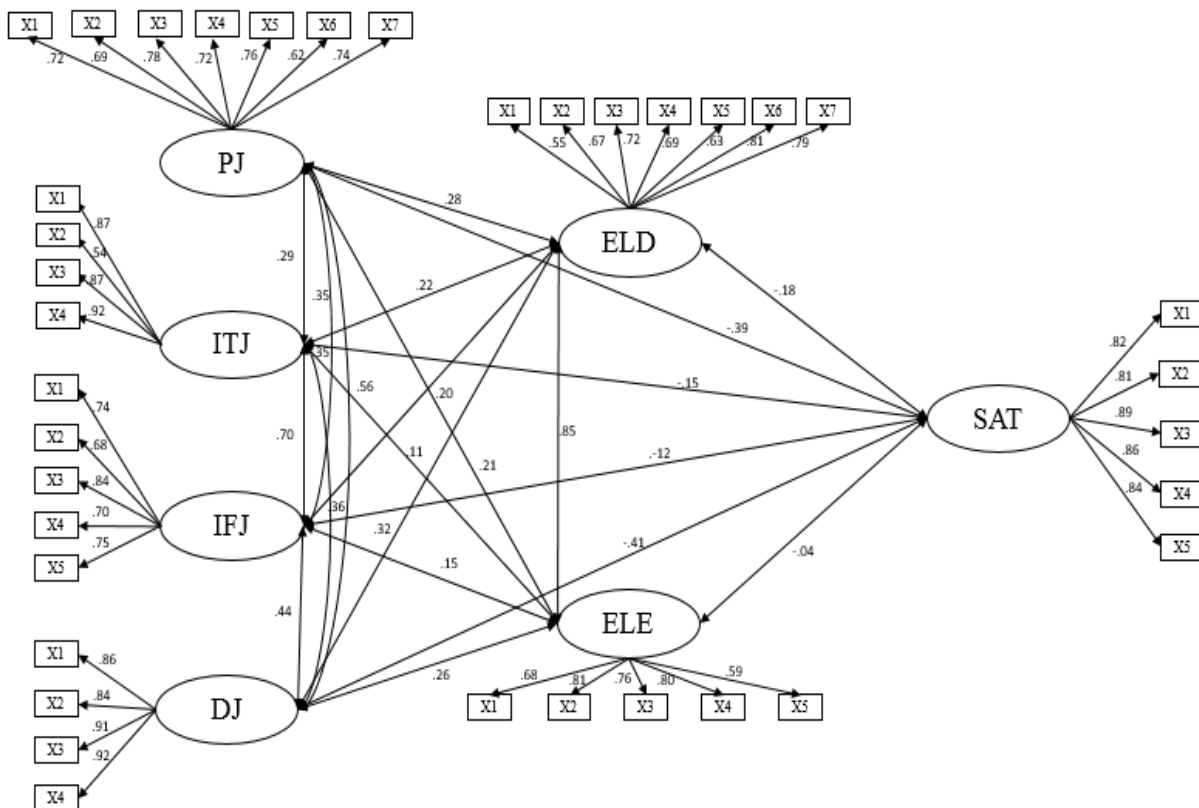


Figure 6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Overall Model

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

After conducting CFA modeling and confirming measurements and an acceptable fit of measurement model, the author proceeded with SEM of overall hypothesized model. The original model provided a satisfactory fit with (χ^2 (DF=639) = 1013.566, RMSEA = 0.045 (CI = .040; .050, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.944, and IFI = .951).

A visual model is represented in the figure 3. Hypothesis H1 ab, H2 ab, H3 ab were not supported. Hypothesis H4a (0.136 $p < .040$) and H4b (0.153 $p = .002$) were supported with p value $< .05$, indicating that distributive justice has a significant effect on ELE and ELD. Also, hypothesis H6 (-1.285, $p < .001$) was confirmed indicating that there is negative relationship between ELD (surface-acting) and job satisfaction. Finally, H7 was confirmed (.776 $p < .001$) indicating a positive relationship between ELE (deep-acting) and job satisfaction.

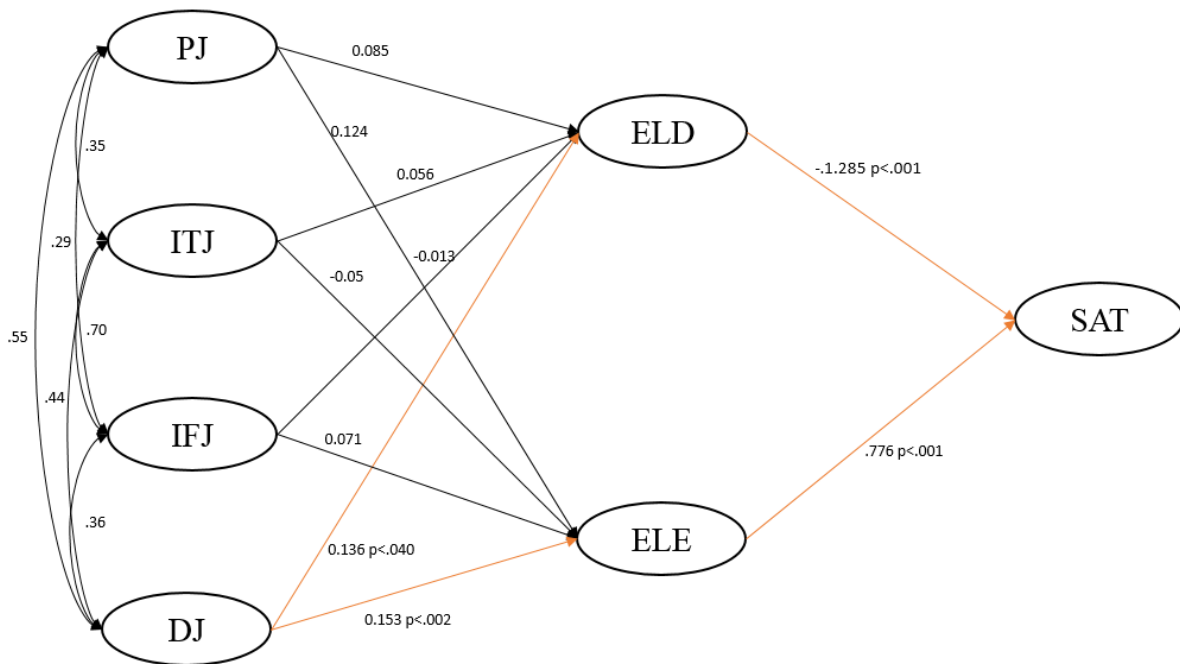


Figure 7 Structural Equation Modeling Overall Model on the Significant Relationships

Multigroup Analysis Testing

A multigroup analysis was conducted to see if there is a difference in the model across theorized subgroups. The first stage for testing measurement invariance is to confirm configuration invariance. This insures that proposed constructs are congeneric across groups. This technique is referred to as the totally free multiple group model because all parameters estimated separately; and are therefore, free to take on different values in each group (Hair et al., 2010). This unconstrained model becomes the baseline for comparison of subgroups. The second stage in the testing measurement invariance is to build a constrained measurement model which tests the construct level metric invariance by imposing cross-group equality constraints on the factor loadings. The metric invariance is a critical test of invariance and shows the cross-group validity beyond the basic factor structure. Although all model fit indices are available, the main measure for model comparison is Chi-square difference significance level (Hair et al., 2010). If chi-square test is not significantly different, the model is recognized as being equivalent across groups (Byrne, 1998).

Multigroup Analysis: Gender

Two subgroups based on gender (Male = 79 and Female = 204). Were formed in the AMOS software for examination using group management function. The overall model for the unconstrained model, model fit (χ^2 (DF= 1276) = 2064.667, RMSEA = 0.047 (CI = .047; .051), CFI = 0.896, TLI = 0.886, and IFI = .898), which represented acceptable model fit. Next, a test for metric invariance which involves constraining each regression weight across groups. Chi-square test was (χ^2 (DF=1321) = 1312). A $\Delta \chi^2$ (DF=36) = 53.122 p-value <.05). The results showed that there is a significant difference between the models. Next, to find which path is significantly different, the author constrained each path individually. Results of the statistics are

provided in tables 7 & 8. Path PJ to ELD and IFJ to ELD were significant for male, indicating harder emotive work for males.

Table 11
Chi-square difference across gender groups

	χ^2	DF	P-value
Base Model	2064.667	1276	
Constrained model	2177.789	1312	
Difference	53.122	36	0.033

Table 12
Chi-square difference across groups by path

Path	χ^2	DF	P-value	Gender
PJ→ELE	2069.07	1277	>.05	Male
PJ→ELD	2066.629	1277	<.05	N.S.
IFJ→ELD	2071.245	1277	>0.001	Male
ELE→SAT	2065.869	1277	<.05	N.S.
ELD→SAT	2066.422	1277	<.05	N.S.

Multigroup Analysis: Front of the house and Back of the house (F&B)

Following same technique, the two subgroups (F & B) with (Front of the house = 175 & Back of the house =128) formed simultaneously with AMOS software for examination using group management function. The overall model for the unconstrained model, a model fit (χ^2 (DF= 1269) = 1993.42, RMSEA = 0.044 (CI = .040; 047, CFI = 0.906, TLI = 0.896, and IFI =.908) which represented acceptable model fit. Next, a test for metric invariance which involves constraining each regression weights across groups. Chi-square test was (χ^2 (DF= 1305) = 2082.226). A $\Delta \chi^2$ (DF=36) = 88.8060, p-value <.001). The result showed that there is a significant difference between models. Next, to find which path is significantly different, the

author constrained each path individually. Results of the statistics are provided in tables 9 & 10.

While both models are significantly different, individual paths were not significant.

Table 13

Chi-square difference across gender groups

	χ^2	DF	P-value
Base Model	1993.42	1269	
Constrained model	2082.226	1305	
Difference	88.806	36	0.0001

Table 14

Chi-square difference across groups by path

Path	χ^2	DF	P-value
PJ-->ELE	1993.25	1269	N.S.
PJ-->ELD	1995.03	1269	N.S.
IFJ-->ELE	1995.03	1269	N.S.
ELE-->SAT	1993.85	1269	N.S.
ITJ-->ELE	1993.21	1269	N.S.
ELD-->SAT	1993.42	1269	N.S.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

Chapter introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and implications derived from the data analysis and results. First, the proposed constructs and casual relationships are reviewed. The structural relationships are discussed and findings of the research are compared with those of previous research. Second, the study's theoretical contributions and practical implications are described. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the research and suggestions for future research.

Discussion of research findings

Main effects

The study outlined twelve hypotheses examining the effects of organizational justice on employees' emotional labor and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Table 5.1 provides an overview of the study's hypotheses and their outcomes.

Table 15
Hypothesis outcomes

Number	Hypotheses	Outcome
Ha 1a	PJ will have positive effect on ELD	Not supported
Ha 1b	PJ will have positive effect on ELE	Not supported
Ha 2a	ITJ will have positive effect on ELD	Not supported
Ha 2b	ITJ will have positive effect on ELE	Not supported
Ha 3a	INF will have positive effect on ELD	Not supported
Ha 3b	INF will have positive effect on ELE	Not supported
Ha 4a	DJ will have positive effect on ELD	Supported as hypothesized
Ha 4b	DJ will have positive effect on ELE	Supported as hypothesized
Ha 5	ELD will have negative effect on SAT	Supported as hypothesized
Ha 6	ELE will have positive effect on SAT	Supported as hypothesized
Ha 7	Gender will have moderating effect among organizational justice, EL, and SAT	Supported as hypothesized for PJ and ELE; IFJ and ELD
Ha 8	Front of the house/Back of the house will have moderating effect among organizational justice, EL, and SAT	Partially supported. Models are significantly different between two groups. However, Individual paths between variables were not.

Hypothesis 1 (a b) looked at the relationship among PJ, ELD, and ELE. Support was not found for either hypothesis. This suggests that perceived PJ did not impact employees' ELD and ELE. PJ was originally introduced to organizational behavior by Greenberg and Folger (1985). In this study, it reflects formal decision-making by the management of hotels. While past research did not empirically test effects of PJ on EL, past literature linked PJ to negative emotions (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Leventhal et al. (1980) indicated that company procedures are considered fair based on the non-bias, accuracy, and ethical consistency of decisions. If, however, a procedural treatment is perceived as unfair, individuals are more likely to harbor anger and resentment (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Weiss, Suckow, and Cropanzano (1999) linked PJ to negative effective states, which in turn could potentially affect EL. In this study, we linked PJ to two facets of EL: ELE and ELD. While PJ was linked to negative emotions in prior studies, it has not been linked to EL before. However,

these hypotheses did not find support in this study; PJ did not have significant effect on ELE and ELD.

Hypothesis 2 (a b) looked at the relationship among ITJ, ELD, and ELE. These hypotheses were not supported. This suggests that perceived ITJ does not lead to increased ELE or ELD. IJ was introduced to the academic world by Bies and Moag in 1986. IJ reflects people's sensitivity to the quality of interpersonal treatment they received during organizational processes. While PJ reflects structure, interpersonal justice implies the manner of interactions and exercised authority (Bies, 1996). Colquitt (2001) separated Interpersonal Justice into IFJ and IJ, because these dimensions have shown independent effects. Rupp and Spenser (2006) connected customer interpersonal (in) justice using Spencer and Carnevale (2003). This EL scale measures "...the extent to which participants felt they had to exert effort in managing their emotions during interactions with the customers" (Rupp and Spenser, 2006, p. 974). In their 2006 study, the authors used students for a preliminary study and then call center customer service representatives for the main study. The authors found support for effects of IJ and EL (Rupp and Spenser, 2006). In their 2009 study, Spencer and Rupp used an experimental design in a controlled environment and used students for their research. They found that employees who were exposed to unjust customer behavior showed an increased use of EL. According to the authors, despite of an experimental design use, it was still uncertain how it will be applicable in the actual field (Rupp and Spenser, 2006).

This study used a HELS scale by Chu and Murrmann (2006), which also reflects EL effort. However, it did not replicate the results found in the Rupp and Spenser (2006) and Spencer and Rupp (2009) studies, and the hypothesis using the HELS scale for EL was not supported. This is the first time all four facets of organizational justice were tested on ELE and

ELD in the hospitality industry. It could be speculated that this study, unlike the previous ones by Rupp and Spencer (2006) and Spencer and Rupp, (2009), was done specifically in hotels, and that the dynamics of employee and customer interactions in the hospitality industry vary from those of experimental design on students or call centers. Perhaps, in the presence of two other (procedural and distributive) justice scales, two dimensions of interactional justice are diminished. While previous studies by Spencer and Rupp (2006; 2009) focused only on interpersonal and informational justice, perhaps the connection is more complicated and will be revealed with moderating effects, such as gender and F & B of the house.

Hypothesis 3 (a b) predicted that IFJ will have a positive effect on ELD and ELE. SEM analysis did not support this hypothesis. This finding suggests that IFJ is not linked to ELD or ELE. IFJ is a facet of the interactional justice proposed by Bies and Moag in 1986. Similarly to Hypothesis 2 (ab), this finding diverges from prior studies by Rupp and Spencer (2006) and Spencer and Rupp (2009). It can be speculated that the impact of IFJ, just like that of IJ on ELD and ELE, is diminished in the presence of DJ, and similarly to Hypothesis 2 (ab), dynamics of customer-employee relationships differ from those of students and call centers.

On the other hand, EL in this study is measured by HELS and is different from previous studies, perhaps indicating a unique interaction between employees and customers in the hospitality industry. Upscale hotel employees are extensively trained to create a positive and pleasant experience for guests. While customers' unjust behavior may put a strain on employees' EL, it may not be perceived by employees as such, due to selection and training. Upscale hotels have a competitive candidate selection process for a job, compared to other service jobs. Potential employees must have some experience with and affinity for service behavior. A hiring process at upscale hotels is rather complex, with multiple interviews, personality tests,

orientations, training, and evaluations to find the best candidates (Hayes and Niemeier, 2006), thus reducing perceived effects of IFJ. Finally, the dynamics between IFJ and EL might be more complex, and moderating effects of gender and F & B of the house could be present; this will be discussed in a later hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4 (a b) predicted that DJ will have a positive effect on ELE and ELD. These hypotheses were supported by SEM analysis. The study showed support for Hypothesis 4a: that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between DJ and ELE. Hypothesis 4b was also supported, showing a significant statistical relationship between DJ and ELD. This suggests that an increase in distributive (in) justice leads to an increase in ELE and ELD. While this specific connection between DJ and EL was not empirically tested, it supports a logical conclusion from past literature that justice could be perceived as an effective event (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) and subsequently links it to EL. DJ is characterized by perceived equality or equality theory (Adams, 1965). Cropanzano and Folger (1989) were among the first to link DJ to emotive outcomes, suggesting that perceived unfair outcomes of DJ lead to negative emotions. This was supported by Cropanzano and Randall (1995), and Williams' (1999) experimental study found effects of DJ on negative emotions. Conversely, stress from perceived distributive injustice (underpayment, under appreciation, etc.) negatively affects employees' productivity and job satisfaction (Greenberg, 1987; Mowday, 1991). EL is part of the job description and "work"; hence, stress resulting from perceived DJ has the potential to increase the effort needed to work or be productive in one's job to provide friendly and professional service to guests at a hotel. DJ was not empirically tested to have an effect on EL. However, effects of DJ on negative emotions and work outcomes led to the proposed hypothesis, that perceived injustice will increase ELE and ELD of employees. These hypotheses were supported by SEM model.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that ELD will have a negative effect on emotive satisfaction. The study's results showed a statistically significant negative relationship between ELD and SAT. This suggests that employees' perceived difference between the emotions they feel and the emotions they portray (surface acting) decreases job satisfaction. While there are many job satisfaction definitions, similarly to the study by Bacharach, Bamberger, and Conley (1991), we adopted a framework of operationalization of job satisfaction. Specifically, our aim was the degrees to which multiple dimensions of role stress serve as a direct obstacle to the fulfillment of job expectations. This finding is supportive of similar findings of the effects of EL on job satisfaction (Morris and Feldman, 1997; Grandey, 2000; Chu et al., 2012). While some argue that job satisfaction leads to higher productivity, this argument does not seem to be strong enough (Organ and Bateman, 1986). Several other reasons were proposed, such as value judgment and mental health. People spend a lot of time in the workplace and most people do not have an option not to work in order to cover the expenses of daily life. Given such circumstances, one would like to work in an environment that brings satisfaction, thus leading to perceived value judgment. Mental health, on the other hand, has an effect on different aspects of life. Considering the amount of time people spend working, dissatisfaction with one's job can tend to affect other aspects of one's life: family, leisure time, etc.

Finally, job satisfaction is an essential component of overall psychological adjustment and well-being (Organ and Bateman, 1986). The hospitality industry is a service- and people-oriented business. Considering that dissatisfaction with the job has the ability to "spill over," it is important that managers have a higher understanding and sensitivity as to how their employees feel at work (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001). Thus, job satisfaction is an essential factor for

research on the organizational side of the hospitality industry to increase customers' perception of service quality (Hartline & Farrell, 1996).

Hypothesis 6 predicted a negative relationship of ELE with job satisfaction. The study showed a statistically significant negative relationship between ELE and SAT. This effect of EL on SAT was described by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987), where employees are conscious of emotion faking, but believe that such a requirement is part of the job, as is "good faith". It was further evolved in the research by Stemmler (1997) on emotive regulation, where participants were urged to react to the stressors in a detached way subsequently decreasing negative psychological stimulus. However, research on the topic of ELE (deep acting) is contradictory. Grandey (2000) hypothesized that the relationship will be negative since people with jobs that require high-level regulation tend to have low job satisfaction levels. On the other hand, Chu et al. (2012) found positive relationships between ELE and JS. This emphasizes the point that management needs to have great awareness of employees' levels of satisfaction and subsequent levels of customer service.

Moderating effects

Two moderating effects were proposed in this study: gender and front/back of the house. Both moderators proved that there were significant differences between two groups.

Hypothesis 7 theorized that there will be a moderating effect in the emotive response to organizational (in) justice and satisfaction between males and females. This hypothesis was partially supported. Two models were significantly different at $p\text{-value} < .05$, thus supporting the hypothesis. After conducting a path by path analysis, we found a significant difference for the path between PJ and ELE, where males exhibited higher levels of ELE than their female

counterparts. Also, the path between IFJ and ELD was moderated, males exhibited higher levels of ELD in the presence of IFJ than their female counterparts. The interesting fact here is that PJ and IFJ did not have a significant effect on EL in the overall model.

While gender is extensively theorized as an antecedent of EL, we theorized that emotive perceptions might be different between males and females, and gender probably does not cause EL to fluctuate, but rather causes people to perceive stressors differently. Hence, gender was chosen as a moderator rather than predictor. According to Hochschild (1983), due to cultural and societal differences, females adapt to emotional management more than males do. Brody (2000) emphasized the impact of social norms and their effect on emotional display. Social norms are learned at an early age and are influenced by stereotypes; for example, aggressive behavior is more accepted for men rather than women. From an early age, women are more adaptive to handle emotive dissonance and show positive emotions when disappointed, supporting Hochschild's (1983) proposition.

Timmers, Fischer, and Manstead (1998) indicated that men and women have different reasons for emotive regulations. While women are more subtle and more concerned with getting along, men are more forceful, possess stronger emotions of anger and pride, and are more inclined to seek control. They are more susceptible to the feeling of injustice from persons of authority. Finally, Warton and Erickson (1993) argued that while both genders have negative effects from emotional management, men will suffer more when work norms require positive displays of emotions, while women will suffer most when work norms require emotional neutrality.

Grandey (2000) theorized that gender will have a different impact on the emotive states of employees. The author argues that due to their need to control, men will have greater difficulty in the service sector, where they must manage their emotions. Thus, empirical evidence supported the proposed moderating that males have a greater difficulty and increase in EL in the presence of IFJ and PJ.

Hypothesis 8 theorized that there will be a moderating effect in the model between front of the house and back of the house. The uniqueness of the hospitality industry and EL use is highlighted by a substantial difference in frequency of interaction with customers in the back and in the front of the house. Thus, the hypothesis theorized that there could be substantial differences in perceived organizational (in) justice, EL, and job satisfaction. The frequency of EL dynamics was mainly drawn from work by Morris and Feldman (1996). Those authors proposed that frequency of interaction would have a positive effect; the higher the frequency of emotional display required at work, the greater the chance employees will have conflict with their “true” emotions. Grandey (2000) supported this observation in her work on EL, stating that the higher the frequency of emotional display, the higher the emotional regulation. Furthermore, more frequent customer interactions will lead to greater chances of dealing with difficult customers and greater chances of experiencing customer injustice. Finally, PJ and DJ reflect manager and company (in) justice, supporting Grandey (2000) proposition that not only a customer but organization/management can be source of stress and widening emotional gap. Thus, this study looked into differences in dynamics of managerial/organizational injustice effects on employees’ EL in the back and front of the house.

This hypothesis was not supported. Although models were significantly different, with p-value $<.001$, individual paths did not have significant differences.

Theoretical contribution

The findings of this empirical research make a theoretical contribution to, and increase the current level of knowledge in, the literature on organizational justice, EL, gender differences, frequency of interaction, and job satisfaction.

First, in terms of theoretical contribution, this study contributes to the body of literature on EL and organizational (in) justice. The author is aware that current literature on organizational (in) justice is rather limited. Rupp and Spencer (2006), in their research on the effects of customer (in) justice on EL, showed that customers are a viable source of justice. The authors suggested that future research should expand on (in) justice from multiple sources, such as supervisors and coworkers. In similar research, Spencer and Rupp (2009) expanded their work and took into account perceived (in) justice by customers toward coworkers and the subsequent increase in EL.

Second, this study expanded on organizational (in) justice as well as customer (in) justice. The link between distributive justice and ELE and ELD was found. Moderating effects were also found in this study. In the SEM model, gender moderated the effects of IFJ and PJ. Those effects are first being investigated in the structural and casual relationship using SEM modeling, which has extended our understanding of the mechanism of influence of antecedents on EL.

Third, this research improved the understanding of EL of employees in the hospitality industry in stressful situations. Most of the empirical evidence on EL is conducted on employees who have authority over customers, such as nurses or school administrators (Chu, 2000). On the other hand, research on unjust behavior of customers and organizations is almost unexplored in

hospitality and very limited in organizational psychology. In this study, EL was measured through a HELS scale developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006), which is more relevant for the hospitality industry.

Fourth, this research did not confirm theorized effects of IFJ and IJ in the hospitality industry, but was supported in the research by Spencer and Rupp (2006; 2009). In their work, researchers used students for their study and call center employees, the authors indicated in their study limitations, they expressed a concern that the results may not be applicable in the industry when students were used for research. Thus, we could speculate that sample used in this study, actual hourly-wage hotel workers of upscale hotels, may not confirm studies done on students and may have different working dynamics with call centers. The upscale hotel industry is unique. Specifically, employment at upscale hotels has a competitive selection process, which involves multiple interviews, affinity and personality tests, extensive training, etc., to improve service for hotel guests, perhaps reducing the effect of perceived (in)justice overall for hotel employees.

However, the effects of PJ and IFJ were supported for male employees when gender was introduced as a moderating effect in the model. Males had increased ELE in the presence of PJ, thus supporting proposition that perceived procedural (in) justice increases ELE. Also, ELD increased in the presence of IFJ, thus supporting a proposition that unclear communication by a customer increases ELD in males. While gender is frequently used in studies involving EL, this is the first known study that moderates the effect of (in) justice on EL.

Finally, this study confirmed findings by Chu et al. (2012) that ELE has a positive impact on job satisfaction and ELD has a negative impact on job satisfaction. This empirically supports

consistency of the research and importance of perceived job satisfaction among hospitality employees.

Managerial implications

The empirical results of this study provide beneficial suggestions for hotel managers and human resources departments on various aspects of human resource management: development, compensation, employees' well-being, employee satisfaction surveys, and work environment. Those practical implications could be beneficial for the development of high-performing organizations and the improvement of perceived satisfaction and compensation. Distributive justice is "fostered where outcomes are consistent with implicit norms for allocation, such as equity and equality" (Colquitt, 2001, p. 386). It is associated mainly with satisfaction regarding an individual's own outcomes, such as pay, promotion, or compensation for work done and involvement in organization (Folger and Konovsky, 1989).

Perceived distributive (in) justice had an impact on EL of both male and female employees. Perceptions are changeable and management should take that into consideration. While salaries cannot be changed, distributive justice reflects not only a perceived monetary compensation, but also a reward or possible opportunity for work well done, esteem, and job security. Employees' perceptions of the DJ add to psychological stress from a high level of effort (EL), and lack of an appropriate reward creates emotional fatigue and subsequently increases EL. This creates a closed circle of potential negativity and stress (Piccoli and Witte, 2015).

A potential solution to this concern could be twofold. First, the keys to changing perceptions between an organization and employees are communication and the amount of contact (Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Parker, Axtell, and Turner, 2001). Thus, during regular

meetings where managers discuss goals of the day and problem-solution issues, they should include acknowledgments of jobs well done not only by the people who “walk an extra distance to help” but also by those who do their job regularly and well.

Second, include potential opportunities in regular employee meetings. Create small goals to achieve, such as if you come to work on time and do not call in for 30 days, you can have a free lunch at a hotel, and if you do so for 90 days, you can have a dinner with family or a day off; or set an achievable goal where the company will partially pay for education, thus giving employees an opportunity to study and grow in the company. Employee goals should be evaluated just as regularly as performance. Are they realistic? Can the company help you to achieve those goals? Do employees even have them? Those goals should be announced regularly to keep them fresh in the employees’ minds and subsequently achievable.

Management should keep in mind cost vs. return. Constantly late employees (withdrawal behavior), poor performance in the long run, and eventual turnover are far more expensive than lunch, a hotel stay, or help with college tuition. Those small steps could eventually bring larger benefits of reduced stress by showing realistic care and have a potential to grow confidence in the employees.

While an argument could be put forward that hotels have those practices of benefits for employees, those opportunities are infrequent and somehow fade into the background of requirements of what employee must do to provide good service, and they are not voiced as frequently as job demands. Benefits of working for an organization should be brought upfront as well and communicated more frequently. Perceived distributive (in) justice may not reflect actual

reality, but rather the need for communicating opportunities and keeping them far more visible and attainable.

Procedural justice is concerned with the organizational decision-making process, which had a higher impact on male employees. It is rather supported by the literature, where women in general are more subtle and seek to get along, while males possess stronger emotions and seek control (Fischer and Manstead, 1998). It does stand to reason that male employees will have a harder time with perceived procedural (in) justice. As an organizational representative, a supervisor has control in making a decision and going against the natural desire to control in general, which is typical to men rather than women. While human nature cannot be changed, a study reflects a perception rather than fact, indicating that perception could be changed. To alleviate such perceptions, improve employees' well-being, and subsequently improve customer service, male employees may need to meet with a manager one-on-one and have a conversation with a supervisor, where the employee's opinion will be taken into consideration and the employee can become a part of the decision-making process, reducing the feeling that the employee has no control over the situation. Finally, if significant conflicts are rather infrequent, perhaps meeting with a manager rather than a supervisor could be appropriate.

Perceived (in) justice can leave a poor lasting impression on employees, affecting their work performance. This could be alleviated with proper handling and explanation, thus removing an impression of perceived (in) justice and maintaining a healthy working environment.

Informational (in) justice had a greater effect on male employees' ELD (surface acting), also reflecting lack of control in the situation when a customer is not lucid or clear. Male hotel employees will benefit from higher training of ELE (deep acting), which results in less emotional

stress (Grandey, 2000), or coping mechanisms should be taught during training. Training of coping effects: such as reprisal (think of a situation where they feel nothing) or behave in the way like they are observed (a control condition); perhaps for male employees it could be more effective to reduce emotion-expressive behavior (Gross, 1998). Perhaps a script for guest complaining situations could be provided for employees to fall back on, while some employees will find it more useful to have some ability to regulate the situation and subsequently reduce stress (Rupp and Spencer, 2006; Spencer and Rupp, 2009).

Finally, management should be aware of emotive suppressors used by employees in stressful situations, and the need for balance (procedural justice), when appraising the event. Specifically, at this point of appraisal, perceptions of procedural (in)justice could take effect, without proper communication to an employee in a decision made by a manager regarding an event (ex: decision on customer complain), in turn potentially affecting future customer service. This is implied by Masterson's (2001) trickle-down model, where perceived injustice from management will take effect and could trickle down and effect employees' behavior toward customers.

Job satisfaction is a measure of employees' evaluation of the job and is used as a proxy for employee well-being at work (Grandey, 2000). It is generally accepted that happy employees make happy customers. At the beginning of their career, employees are genuinely friendly and happy to provide a great experience. As time goes by, extensive public contact and stress deplete that enthusiasm and create a withdrawal behavior from the job to preserve self-esteem (Hochschild, 1983). While EL is necessary in the hospitality industry, ELD (surface acting) creates those negative outcomes, rather than ELE (deep acting).

A potential solution to the problem is a training of deep acting and coping mechanisms in employees. Several propositions were made by organizational psychologists that have relevance in the hospitality industry. One described for male workers a reprisal and a control condition (Gross, 1998). A second, (Parker and Axtell, 2001) suggests integration with suppliers or, in this case, integration with customers, where employees see a situation from the customer's point of view and in react less actively to the stressors. A third cites training of imagination, where employees may think of positive events and portray positive emotion toward employees (deep acting) (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). This is also supported by Stravinsky (1965) with what is called method acting and follows the same logic.

Thus, the increasing importance of EL in the hospitality industry increases the need for updated training that goes beyond the current training of policies and procedures. Including proper training in emotional control (deep acting), organizational support (PJ and DJ) through communication, and more autonomy/control in customer conflict (IFJ) situations have a tremendous potential to improve employees' well-being, improve service, increase satisfaction, and improve customer-employee service interactions.

Lastly, the front of the house and the back of the house were significantly different models, but this difference was not significant in path by path analysis. Still, it gave enough information for the author to see that the dynamics of the back of the house and front of the house are different in employees' perception of PJ, IJ, and IFJ. It would be prudent to suggest cross-training and occasional rotation of employees (if possible). This will have several benefits: cross-training will improve employee skills, reduce tensions, improve understanding of other departments' workload, and increase teamwork.

Additionally, cross-training reduces turnover by keeping workers interested and motivated (Walker and Miller, 2011). While other service industries are limited in different departments for cross-training, hotels have great potential in this sector. Multiple departments that are involved in hotel operations are excellent resources for cross-training. For example: a front desk agent can help in the sales department or help the controller with paperwork. Housekeeping or maintenance staff could be trained as servers or hosts, giving better opportunities for the future; kitchen staff could be trained as housekeepers or servers.

These experiences will break a work routine, keep employee interest, and potentially improve job satisfaction.

Limitations

The strength of this study comes from data collected from hourly wage employees of upscale hotels in Central Florida. It provides results for actual employees' perceptions, rather than studying students or purchasing data, where the former can lack experience and the latter may lack control over who takes the survey (are they really hotel employees?). However, this creates a limitation for data being collected in the area where a researcher could reach management of the hotel and negotiate a data collection, hence limiting the author to the Central Florida region.

Additionally, the researcher met a very high rejection rate from the hotels when management saw a survey and read the questions of organizational justice and EL. Uncertainty and discomfort were frequently displayed. Management frequently voiced doubt about potential positive responses from employees. Meanwhile, management who were confident in their employees were supportive and genuinely wanted to know if "for some reason" their employees

have unjust feelings and dissatisfaction; this created a potential bias (external validity) that data was collected from hotels with more stable working environments.

Also, due to the magnitude of the sample of employees necessary for SEM analysis, only large hotels with enough employees to survey were used in the study. Hence, the researcher was limited to upscale hotels, which have more rigorous training and selection.

Finally, the researcher made all possible efforts to make surveys anonymous (locked survey box in the general area, unmarked envelopes and surveys, and online surveys which employees could take in the privacy of their home). However, an author was not permitted to collect data in person or interact with employees in any way, thus creating the need for management involvement and creating potential bias in the survey responses (answers are more positive).

However, the model has confirmed theorized paths and theorized path directions, which are supported by previous literature, subsequently reducing the author's assumption of potential bias.

Future Research

This study opens the potential to rather extensive future research. Antecedents of EL are highly understudied and extensive empirical research is needed on potential stressors that trigger EL. The Justice scale assumes that everybody has the same perceptions of justice; this may not be true and needs further investigation.

This study proposed only two moderators: gender and EL frequency (back of the house and front of the house). However, there are multiple reasons for perceived triggers of EL. For

example, cultural differences suggesting cross-cultural study, personality factors, and work experience are some of the potential effects that should be empirically tested.

Also, there are multiple EL scales which in turn can produce different results, thus creating a need for consolidation of the scale. Similar work was done by Colquitt for the justice scale used in this study that standardized justice research and established a reliable and valid scale for future research. This is not yet the case with EL, and scales need to be consolidated.

Finally, surveys are only testing the perceptions of employees and may not reflect the actual picture of organizational dynamics. Hence, the study of employees' exit interviews, actual turnover rate, and organizational policies and procedures using Big Data analysis could potentially shed different light on organizational training using actual behavior rather than assumed or reported.

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FOR ONLINE SURVEY PARTICIPANTS



EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: Emotional Labor and its Antecedents in the Hospitality Industry

Principal Investigator: Ms. Valeriya Shapoval

Faculty Supervisor: Dr. Abraham Pizam

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you.

- The purpose of this study is to evaluate effects of customer complaining behavior, organizational policies and finally work experience on Emotional Labor (friendly service) and job satisfaction of employees in the hotel industry
- Think about your interaction with a concerned/complaining customer and answer a survey which will take about 10 to 15 minutes. You do not have to answer every question or complete every task.
- You must be 18 years of age or older and are employed in the hotel industry of Central Florida to take part in this research study.
- This survey is *anonymous*, nobody including researcher or/and manager will be able to identify respondent.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints or think the research has hurt you, talk to Ms. Valeriya Shapoval, Graduate Student of Rosen College. University of Central Florida (407) 903-8252 or email at Valeriya.Shapoval@ucf.edu

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.

APENDIX B: IRB APPROVAL LETTER



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: Valeriya Shapoval

Date: July 13, 2015

Dear Researcher:

On 07/13/2015, the IRB approved the following minor modifications to activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Modification Type:	A revised survey has been uploaded and approved for use.
Project Title:	Emotional Labor and its Injustice antecedents in Hospitality Industry
Investigator:	Valeriya Shapoval
IRB Number:	SBE-15-11331
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the [Investigator Manual](#).

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Kanille Chay" followed by a horizontal line.

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