AN EXAMINATION OF EMOTIONAL DISPLAY RULES USING
SITUATIONAL STRENGTH

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AN EXAMINATION OF EMOTIONAL DISPLAY RULES USING SITUATIONAL STRENGTH

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SUMMARY

Although emotions are an integral part of our work experience, we cannot always show our genuine feelings while on the job. Many workplaces have either implicit or explicit requirements for emotional expression (known as display rules), particularly in service contexts. However, little research has examined how the amount of pressure put on a worker to express or suppress certain feelings affects the individual. I argue that this aspect of display rules is an important but neglected component of the emotional labor experience. As situational strength is a broader literature of behavioral control generally, I used situational strength as a lens to examine display rules. I suggested that situational strength would either moderate relationships between display rules and employee emotional display and well-being, or be a better predictor of employee emotional display and well-being. I also investigated how supervisors affect situational strength of display rules with task-focused and person-focused leadership styles. Using paired surveys from full-time workers and their coworkers, my main hypotheses were largely unsupported. However, I found that positive emotion situational strength predicted positive emotion deep acting beyond positive display rules. Further, task-focused leadership and person-focused leadership related to emotion regulation and well-being. Several of these effects were mediated through situational strength of display rules. Results suggest leaders may be able to encourage deep acting and promote well-being by creating situations high in clarity and consistency but low in constraints.
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Emotions are part of our work lives. However, we cannot always show our genuine feelings while on the job. For example, we may arrive to work grumpy after fighting traffic, but have to smile to customers. Conversely, we may be ecstatic when finding out about a promotion, but may not be able to express it when talking to other coworkers who were competing for the position. Many workplaces expect workers to show positive emotions and hide negative emotions, particularly in service contexts. However, little research has examined how the amount of pressure put on a worker to express or suppress certain feelings affects the individual. For example, imagine a newly hired employee meeting the CEO for the first time or a hospital nurse breaking the news to a family about the loss of loved one. These situations each have specific emotions that are considered appropriate to be displayed and are important to one’s job performance. On the other hand, situations such as greeting a customer or chatting with a coworker have similar specific emotions that are encouraged to be expressed, but are less emphasized to employees as being particularly crucial to job performance. The degree of importance of regulating emotions has been ignored in existing literature. How does the amount of influence for these emotional displays affect employees and their work performance? Further, how is the importance of these displays communicated to employees? Can they be communicated in ways that are less likely to negatively affect the worker? This master’s thesis will aim to investigate these research questions that are unexamined in the existing literature.
To begin, I first give an overview of emotional labor with a focus on display rules. Next I explain situational strength and how this body of literature can expand empirical examination of emotional requirement. Then I present important points of connection between these research areas and state my hypotheses. Lastly, I describe how the leader may have an important role in communicating display rules and how this can be captured using a situational strength perspective. I conclude with my proposed research methods.

1.1 Emotional Labor

A large body of literature on emotional labor focuses on the effects of managing of one’s emotions as part of one’s work role (Grandey, 2000). Emotion regulation subsequently affects emotional expression, employee well-being and job attitudes, and organizational outcomes (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

1.1.1 The Process of Emotional Labor

The process of emotional labor begins with job-based emotional display requirements, as they are considered a central precursor for succeeding regulation, emotional display, and outcomes for the employee (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). These emotion requirements are often referred to as display rules, formally defined as the organizational expectations of the emotions that should or should not be displayed as part of one’s work role (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Display rules can be implicit or explicit and are often socially conveyed (Zapf, 2002). Researchers normally describe display rules as integrative (Wharton & Erickson, 1993), to both express positive emotions and suppress negative emotions, as these demands are
most common in service jobs. Emotional requirements can also involve neutral or negative displays (e.g., bill collectors; Sutton, 1991), but these are less commonly studied. Further, different discrete emotions may have different display rules (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009).

One emotional labor perspective draws on control theory (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004). With this outlook, display rules are conceptualized as the standard in the negative feedback loop. Workers compare self-perceptions of their emotional display to the display rule standard. If there is a discrepancy, individuals can either regulate their emotions or adopt a different standard for emotional expression. According to several theoretical perspectives, emotion regulation draws on a limited store of personal resources, such as attention and energy (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Hobfoll, 1989). Repeated use of these resources can result in depletion of self-regulatory resources and outcomes such as emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

Additionally, emotional dissonance can play a role in the emotional labor process. Emotional dissonance refers to the discrepancy between felt emotion and displayed emotions to meet display rules (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Hochschild (1983) argued that emotional labor is detrimental for employees because it requires one to be incongruent with the self. This sense of being inauthentic can lead to feelings of tension. Research using an incongruence framework finds strong associations of inauthenticity with burnout, job dissatisfaction, and depressed mood (Erickson & Wharton, 1997; Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2010; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012).
Several meta-analyses suggest that emotional labor is quite taxing, leading to reduced well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012). However, different emotion regulation strategies, such as surface acting and deep acting, have different outcomes. Surface acting refers to putting on an emotional mask, such as smiling despite what one is feeling, while deep acting refers to trying to genuinely feel the emotions one is expressing (Grandey, 2000). Surface acting has negative relationships with job satisfaction and positive relationships with stress and exhaustion (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013), while deep acting has no relationship or a weak negative relationship with well-being and appear to be less taxing over time (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Experience sampling studies further suggest daily emotion regulation, particularly surface acting, relates to daily negative mood (Scott & Barnes, 2011), fatigue (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Dalal, 2013), emotional exhaustion (Totterdell & Holman, 2003), job dissatisfaction (Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009), work-family conflict, and insomnia (Wagner, Barnes, & Scott, 2014). While these studies further confirm the depleting effects of controlling one’s emotional expression for a wage, they presume that the display rules remain stable and normally do not account for them.

A good deal of research on emotional labor has focused on the effects of emotion regulation strategies on person-level outcomes and potential moderators of the relationships. Considerably less attention has been given to how display rules are communicated and perceived in the workplace. As mentioned previously, display rules are an antecedent of emotional labor. Arguably, perceptions of these emotional requirements can affect subsequent regulation and employee outcomes. This said, my
thesis from this point forward will mainly focus on display rules in the emotional labor process.

1.1.2 Existing Research on Display Rules

Display rules have largely been studied in service contexts, in regards to their relationships with surface acting, deep acting, and employee outcomes, such as well-being, job satisfaction, stress, and emotional exhaustion. Cross-sectional studies find perceptions of display rules predict emotional displays, emotional labor strategy use, job satisfaction, physical health symptoms, and burnout of employees (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Grandey, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). These studies support the theoretical argument that display rules are important antecedents of the experience of working in emotionally laborious job. There seems to be only one existing study investigating display rules in situ. Using an event-sampling momentary approach, it was found that the presence of a positive, negative, or neural display rule predicted lower personal well-being compared to no display rule (Tschan, Rochat, & Zapf, 2005). This further suggests that display rules have direct effects on employees.

In one laboratory study using a call center simulation (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007), some students were instructed to only display positive emotions, such as friendliness and enthusiasm, while others were told to be themselves. Those given autonomy over their emotional display were less emotionally exhausted, and this was mediated by surface acting. Further, those with display autonomy performed better,
making fewer errors in a completing an order form task for the call. This study suggests that giving workers freedom over their expressions may be better for the well-being of the worker and even some aspects of their work performance. A similar study used a call center simulation and manipulated explicitness of positive display rules (Buckner & Mahoney, 2012). The authors found that simply two sentences instructing participants to be positive, polite, and enthusiastic led to higher positive display rule perceptions and higher amounts of deep acting. Similar to Goldberg and Grandey (2007), this study supports the notion that giving display rules leads to increased emotion regulation. It also indicates that display rules can be conveyed through short written guidelines, which has implications for how display rules may be communicated in organizations.

Differences in perceived display rules have also been studied based on employees’ power relative to varying targets (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009), and have been shown to change based on whether one is interacting with a customer, supervisor, subordinate, or coworker. Display rules for communicating with customers or supervisors, who have higher power over employees, most often involved complete suppression or partial suppression. Meanwhile, display expectations for interacting with coworkers, who have relatively equal power, most often involved partial suppression. This demonstrates in that in situations where the worker has low power, there are strong norms to partially or entirely suppress one’s true emotional reaction. This should have negative outcomes for the employee.

Existing work also suggests that personality may influence perceptions of display rules. Specifically, demands to express positive emotions seem to be more salient to extraverts, while demands to suppress negative emotions seems to be more salient to
those high in neuroticism (Austin, Dore, & O’Donovan, 2007; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). This implies that individual differences may play a part in understanding display rules.

1.1.3 Display Rule Measures

One way display rule research has been limited is through its measurement of the construct. The most commonly used measures of display rules assess demands on workers to express positive emotions and suppress negative emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). For example, an item describing the expression of positive emotions would be “To be effective in my job, I must act cheerful and sociable,” while an item regarding the suppression of negative emotions would be “To be effective in my job, I must suppress anger and contempt I may feel” (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). These items are assessed for frequency (from almost never occurs to occurs very frequently) and duration (when it occurs, it generally is very brief to is continuous (lasts full shift)). Similarly, the Emotion Work Requirements Scale (Best, Downey, & Jones, 1997; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), asks employees to rate the extent to which they are required to show or hide their emotions in order to be effective in their job in terms of frequency (from not at all to always required). An item for displaying positive emotions is “Expressing friendly emotions (e.g., smiling, giving compliments, making small talk),” while an item for hiding negative emotions is “Hiding your anger or disapproval about something someone has done (e.g., an act that is distasteful to you)” (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). These two measures appear to be the most commonly used in the existing Industrial-Organizational Psychology literature.
A less regularly used measure in the emotional labor literature is the Matsumoto et al. (2005) Display Rule Assessment Inventory (DRAI), which asks people to pick which emotion management strategy they would use in a given context. These can be asked in reference to different social situations and different discrete emotions. Strategies from the DRAI involve a more nuanced range of expression management with the strategies, specifically express, qualify, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, and mask. As this measure specifically asks about emotion regulation strategies, it allows for examination of how much genuine felt emotion employees are allowed to show. Research shows that across six emotions (anger, contempt, disgust, fear, happiness, and sadness), display rules at work involve less expression of these emotions compared to when people are not at work (Moran, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2013). This suggests that display rules are indeed stronger in work contexts compared to non-work contexts.

These existing measures evaluate perceptions of emotional display rules at work generally, particularly regarding frequency and duration. They do not specifically examine how important the display of emotion is to job performance or whether there are formal consequences for not showing particular emotions. I argue the degree of constraint on employees may be important to the experience of work and amount of depletion in which it results. This said, a more nuanced view of emotional display rules would be beneficial for the field.

1.2 Situational Strength

Display rules are one form of external control, specifically related to emotional display. One concept relevant to external control is situational strength, which refers to
implicit or explicit cues provided by the environment regarding the desirability of possible behaviors (Mischel, 1977; Meyer, Dalal, & Herminda, 2010). Situational strength is a fuller, richer examination of external control generally and therefore can contribute to the study of display rules. Despite apparent connection between display rules and situational strength, these two literatures have yet to be brought together.

Situational strength is posited to create psychological pressure to either engage in and/or refrain from particular behaviors. This psychological pressure is expected to reduce variance in relevant behavior and weaken the relationships between traits and related outcomes (Cooper & Withey, 2009; Mischel, 1973; 1977; Meyer et al., 2010). “Strong” situations are posited to create rather uniform perceptions regarding appropriate behavior through reinforcement, normative expectations, and an environment that supports learning suitable behaviors (Mischel, 1977; Beaty, Cleveland, & Murphy, 2001). Meanwhile, “weak” situations lack these characteristics and do not provide clear incentives, normative expectations, or support regarding appropriate behavior. This leads to more diverse impressions of allowable behavior.

Generally, this research area has focused on how personality traits may or may not be expressed depending on the strength of the situation (e.g., Beaty et al., 2001; Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009; Meyer et al., 2014; Smithikrai, 2008). Studies support the notion that in strong situations, there is low variability in people’s actions and therefore personality effects are less pronounced. Meanwhile, in weak situations, there is more variability in behavior and personality factors better predict behavior. Situational strength consequently acts as a moderator of the personality-behavior relationship (see Figure 1).
Figure 1 - Situational strength as a moderator of the personality-behavior relationship.

While the concept of situational strength has existed for several decades (e.g., Mischel, 1977), only more recently have researchers conceptualized a facet structure of situational strength: clarity, consistency, constraints, and consequences (Meyer et al., 2010). Clarity refers to the level in which cues regarding work responsibilities or requirements are accessible and understandable (Meyer et al., 2010). Consistency refers to the degree to which cues regarding work-related requirements are compatible with one another. Constraints refer to “the extent to which an individual’s freedom of decision and action is limited by forces outside his or her control” (Meyer et al., 2010, p. 126) and can be considered the reverse of autonomy (Meyer et al., 2009). Lastly, consequences refer to the how much decisions or actions have important positive or negative implications for any relevant person or entity. These four facets combined allow researchers to understand the full effects of situational strength.

Meyer and his colleagues recently developed a measure for these facets (Meyer et al., 2014). Considering this facet structure and measure is still recent, there is little
research to date on the differential effects of these facets. However, the facets (individually and combined) have been shown to moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), as well as the relationship between agreeableness and OCB (Meyer et al., 2014). In one study, Meyer and his colleagues rated situational strength based on various O*NET profiles and meta-analytically tested whether constraints and consequences would moderate the conscientious-performance relationship (Meyer et al., 2009). These two facets were found to be significant moderators: the criterion-related validity of conscientiousness was higher in typically weak occupations than typically strong occupations. A similar study also using O*NET profiles found that the constraints facet moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, with the relationship being stronger with low constraints (Bowling, Khazon, Meyer, & Burrus, 2015). Lastly, one recent study found that clarity, consistency, and consequences facets had a direct effect on OCB (Kelly & Meyer, in preparation). Further, these effects were mediated by state positive affect. Similarly, there were positive indirect effects of constraints and consequences, and a negative indirect effect of consistency, on counterproductive work behavior (CWB) through state negative affect. Workers’ affective reactions to situational strength suggests that the subjective experience of different situations is important to organizationally relevant behavior (i.e., OCB and CWB).

While the current situational strength literature mainly focuses on when personality effects are given the opportunity to manifest, its facet structure can contribute to other research areas. I suggest one such area is emotional display rules.

1.3 Potential Contribution of Situational Strength Applied to Display Rules
Based on the literature review just presented, I would argue that current empirical emotional labor research has only gone as far as examining situational direction or content in regards to display rules. Specifically, existing measures of display rules only account for frequency and/or duration regarding demands to display positive emotions or suppress negative emotions (e.g., Best et al., 1997; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Researchers have largely neglected the degree of importance or level of control placed on employees to follow rules for emotional expression and the unique effects of this amount of importance. This is an oversight, as this may be a crucial aspect of the subjective experience of emotional labor. Take for example, a new flight attendant calming an angry frequent flyer. In this case, it may be particularly salient that the new employee must suppress her negative feelings and remain even-tempered because of the potential consequences, such as complaints to her supervisor. This strong situation may be particularly draining for the worker, yet experiences as such are currently understudied in the emotional labor literature. This empirical gap can be addressed by studying how much pressure there is to display certain emotions in the workplace beyond measures of frequency and duration. Further, I believe situational strength can allow this behavioral constraint to be examined in a more sophisticated way. The facet structure can help indicate which aspects of display rules may be most taxing for workers. This said, I will use situational strength and its facets as a new lens to examine display rules and predict worker outcomes.

Existing theory suggests that specific display rules will lead to low intrinsic motivation, low job satisfaction, and high burnout (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004). I would suggest that it may not be the content of the display rules themselves (e.g., display
happiness, suppress anger), but the situational strength of those display rules that may lead to these negative effects. Additionally, the differing dimensions of situational strength (e.g., constraints, consequences) may be particularly important for predicting worker outcomes.

Existing work suggests that high amounts of emotional display monitoring can result in high burnout and dissatisfaction (Grandey, 2000) and external control of emotional expression may lead to reduced intrinsic motivation for the job (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Specific display rules, compared to general display rules, are expected to lead to less variance in emotional displays and better job performance (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004). Similarly, the explicitness of display rules has been suggested to impact emotion regulation (Morris & Feldman, 1996). These ideas closely align to the clarity dimension of situational strength. Further, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2004) argued that having to follow very specific display rules would make employees feel like they cannot respond to situations in a natural way. This relates to the constraints facet of situational strength.

I draw on the existing literature to propose that situational strength will moderate the relationship between display rules and regulation (see Figure 2), similar to how situational strength is found to moderate the relationship between personality and behavior (see Figure 1).
Hypothesis 1.1: The situational strength of display rules will moderate the effects of display rules on employees’ a) emotion regulation, b) emotional display, and c) well-being, such that stronger situations should lead to more consistent positive emotional display and more negative relationships with well-being.

To exemplify this hypothesis, I turn to the Goldberg and Grandey (2007) experiment mentioned previously. This study recognized that many service organizations have a “service with a smile” display rule, yet some organizations avoid explicit display requirements and instead encourage a “be yourself” mentality, giving display autonomy. In a call center simulation, the authors imposed positive display rules on one group and display autonomy on the other group. One could argue that Goldberg and Grandey (2007) experimentally manipulated the perceived strength of display rules, particularly through the constraint facet. As such, one group was given instructions to display positive emotions (strong situation) and the other was given instructions to be themselves (weak situation). Again, this study showed that students given display autonomy were less likely
to surface act and therefore were less emotional exhausted at the end of the experiment. This experiment provides some hopeful, although indirect, evidence for the proposed idea.

However, it could also be that situational strength is simply a better way to measure display rules. As an alternative to Hypothesis 1.1, I propose:

_Hypothesis 1.2: The situational strength of display rules will be a stronger predictor than display rules of a) emotion regulation, b) emotional display, and c) well-being, such that stronger situations should lead to more consistent positive emotional display and more negative relationships with well-being._

Further, the facets of situational strength should have distinct effects on worker performance and outcomes. As mentioned previously, existing work has proposed relationships that are related to facets of situational strength. For example, specificity and explicitness should positively relate to emotion regulation (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004; Morris & Feldman, 1996), both of which relate to clarity (Hypothesis 2). Having to follow very specific display rules may lead to less authentic responses (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2004) and feelings of constraint. This should have negative outcomes for intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3). It has been also suggested that high amounts of self-monitoring can result burnout and dissatisfaction (Grandey, 2000). Self-monitoring is likely to be particularly high if one is being watched by one’s supervisor or coworkers and rewarded and/or punished for certain behaviors. This should have subsequent effects on emotion regulation and well-being outcomes (Hypothesis 4).

With these ideas in mind, I propose:
Hypothesis 2: The clarity dimension of situational strength will positively relate to a) surface acting, b) deep acting, and c) emotional display.

Hypothesis 3: The constraints dimension of situational strength will negatively relate to a) showing genuine feelings, b) intrinsic motivation, and c) job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: The consequences dimension of situational strength will positively relate to a) surface acting and b) emotional exhaustion, and negatively relate to c) job satisfaction.

It is worthwhile to note that autonomy has shown to be an important moderator that can help minimize the negative effects of emotion regulation (Abraham, 1998; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Wharton, 1993). Some suggest autonomy is a buffer against stress because it provides cognitive and motivational resources (Grandey et al., 2005). However, this view conceptualizes autonomy as a moderator in the path from emotion regulation to stress, rather than as an antecedent of emotion regulation. An alternative perspective would suggest that employees with autonomy are more likely to violate organizational prescribed display rules when they conflict with their authentically felt emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1996). This second viewpoint is more in line with the present hypothesis, although it focuses on the choice to ignore display rules rather than the perceptions of them.

1.4 Leadership and Supervision
Various authors have pointed out that emotional display rules are often not explicitly stated by organizations (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Cropanzano, Weiss, & Elias, 2003; Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006) and instead exist as unwritten norms. Most companies therefore rely on social or professional expectations to communicate appropriate display norms (Zapf, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2006). This said, the emotional labor literature recognizes that there are environmental cues and social factors that create display rules (e.g., Wilk & Moynihan, 2005), but the ways in which these rules are communicated and perceived are relatively understudied (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). This is an important oversight, as display rules are a central precursor of emotional labor. Understanding this stage of the emotional labor process can contribute to theoretical and empirical examinations of emotion regulation. It is possible that the different ways emotional display rules are communicated can affect perceptions of strength. For example, explicit and highly formalized policy may create a strong situation compared to informal verbal guidelines or behavioral modeling. Further, this may have differential outcomes for the individual, possibly affecting emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction. However, this has yet to be rigorously examined.

This empirical gap also applies to situational strength research. Existing literature suggests that situational strength is based on perceptions (Meyer et al., 2014). However, there are many sources that provide information on the dimensions of the situation in the real-world. Formal policies and procedures, organizational mission statements, norms, job characteristics, and social information are all ways situational strength can be communicated (Meyer et al., 2009). The source of strength is a relevant concept to be empirically examined, although it has received relatively little attention.
One of the key mechanisms for learning appropriate emotional display rules in the workplace is socialization (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989; Sutton, 1991). Social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) contends that workers’ job attitudes and perceptions of job demands are influenced by what others around them think. This would suggest that employees’ perceptions of interpersonal demands such as emotional display rules depend on other people’s views (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). Leaders and supervisors may be especially influential in developing these perceptions, as they set expectations of what is important on the job (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Similarly, social learning theory (Bandura, 1971) suggests that learning can occur purely through observation in a social context. This modeling should create similarity in values in an organization (Weiss, 1978) and similar behavior (Weiss, 1977). It can be the supervisor’s responsibility to ensure subordinates observe appropriate display rules (Zapf, 2002). Therefore, supervisors can communicate the strength of display rules by placing importance on interpersonal job demands, either directly or through modeling, which should affect subordinates’ beliefs of implicit emotional display rules (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005; Zapf, 2002). Further, being that supervisors monitor subordinates and can give feedback in real-time, they can be particularly important for shaping norms and implicit beliefs.

Supporting the idea that display rules are at least partially socially determined, Diefendorff and Richard (2003) found that supervisors’ impressions of the need to suppress negative emotions on the job was positively related to employees’ perceptions of negative emotional suppression display rule in a variety of occupations. Surprisingly, this was not true for the display rule to express positive emotions. Similarly, Wilk and Moynihan (2005) found that the amount of importance supervisors placed on
interpersonal job demands (e.g., calming angry customers) predicted employee emotional exhaustion. Conversely, they also found that supervisor support was negatively related to emotional exhaustion. This suggests that supervisors can increase burnout by emphasizing the interpersonal demands or, on the other hand, help buffer the straining effects of emotional labor. It has also been found that display rules are shared on the unit level (Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, & Dahling, 2011), which may indicate the importance of socialization in creating these norms. Lastly, Diefendorff, Richard, and Croyle (2006) found that when people had more job-based interpersonal requirements, both employees and supervisors were more likely to rate emotional display rules as formal, in-role job requirements rather than extra-role requirements. Interestingly, employees more often rated display rules for suppressing negative emotion as in-role rather than extra-role behaviors compared to their supervisors. Despite support for the relationship between leadership and display rule perceptions, it is still unclear exactly how emotional display requirements are most often communicated by leaders (e.g., verbal directions, written guidelines, or behavioral modeling) and whether different forms of communication have distinct consequences for the employee.

Although there has been limited empirical work on the topic to date, leaders should be an important influence in creating a strong or weak situation (Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Chong Lim, & Saltz, 2011; Masood, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, 2006). There seem to be only two existing studies to date examining this proposition. Masood and colleagues (2006) suggest that transformational leadership (high versus low) combined with organizational culture (e.g., informal versus hierarchical) can generate strong versus weak situations. This was supported by the cross-sectional finding that in an adhocracy
climate more transformational leaders preferred weak situations and more non-transformational leaders preferring strong situations. Klein et al. (2011) argues that leaders high in task-focused leadership create a strong situation in a work team, while leaders high in person-focused leadership create a weaker situation. The authors suggested these two types of leadership would affect situational strength, which would moderate the relationship between diversity of values expressed and team conflict. This interaction was found for the values of work ethic and traditionalism.

Drawing on this existing work, I believe that leaders will be important source of emotional display rules strength. Following Klein et al. (2011), I propose that task-focused and person-focused leadership should affect the situational strength of display rules. Task-focused and person-focused leadership are two well-established leader behaviors that have been staples of leadership theory and research (Klein et al., 2011), as they have been incorporated into pivotal work such as the Michigan studies of leadership (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950), path-goal theory (House, 1971), and the managerial grid (Blake & Mount, 1963). Initiating structure and consideration, two important behaviors identified from the Ohio State leadership studies, similarly map on to these two types of leadership (Burke et al., 2006). Task-oriented leaders are considered to be those who are focused on accomplishing tasks. Leaders can achieve this by organizing activities, defining roles and tasks, maintaining formal standards, providing explicit deadlines, and creating performance standards (Klein et al., 2011). Initiating structure behaviors include specification of the way work is to be conducted, emphasizing goal attainment, and establishing clear channels of communication, all of which minimize role ambiguity and conflict (Burke et al., 2006). Task-focused leaders are expected to create
an environment that restricts subordinates from expressing their individual values (Klein et al., 2011). In line with Klein et al. (2011), I suggest:

**Hypothesis 5:** There will be a positive relationship between supervisors high in task-focused leadership and employee perceptions of display rule strength.

Relationship or person-focused leaders are more concerned about creating positive relationships with subordinates, such as the satisfaction, motivation, and well-being of followers. Person-focused leaders show warmth and consideration for their subordinates and justify individuals’ perspectives (Klein et al., 2011). Leaders high in consideration maintain close social relationships and aim to create group cohesion (Burke et al., 2011). Behaviors of those high in consideration include showing concern and respect for subordinates, listening to their problems, displaying empathy, treating others as equals, inviting participation in decision making, expressing appreciation and support, and encouraging open communication (Burke et al., 2011; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Klein et al., 2011). Again like Klein et al. (2011), I suggest that leaders high in person-focused leadership create a weak situation of display rules.

**Hypothesis 6:** There will be a negative relationship between supervisors high in person-focused leadership and employee perceptions of display rule strength.

In context of emotional labor occupations, a leader high in person-focused leadership may arguably be modeling appropriate behavior to employees. This could contribute to implicit display rules in the organization. While implicit display rules are important, they are likely to be perceived as a weaker situation compared to explicit display rules. However, true person-focused leaders care for their followers and therefore
are likely to encourage more authentic emotional responses. Employees may therefore choose to display more authentic emotion.

_Hypothesis 7: Person-focused leadership will be negatively related to surface acting._

Supervisors’ leadership style is also likely to affect emotion regulation, emotional expression, and individual well-being. With Hypotheses 2 through 4 I explained my expectations regarding strong display rules and employee outcomes. I would like to extend my predictions to effects of leadership style on similar outcomes. Existing work has demonstrated that followers are more satisfied and motivated by person-focused leaders, while task-focused leaders are seen as more effective (Judge et al., 2004). While task-focused and person-focus leadership are not opposite sides of a single continua, a meta-analysis has found only a weak average corrected correlation between the two (Judge et al., 2004). I suggest that task-focused leadership leads to strong display rules, which will result in surface acting, positive emotional expression, and emotional exhaustion, compared to person-focused leadership.

_Hypothesis 8: Task-focused leadership will be positively related to a) surface acting, b) emotional expression, and c) emotional exhaustion._

_Hypothesis 9: This relationship will be mediated by the situational strength of display rules._
CHAPTER 2.  METHOD

2.1 Participants

Because people may not be the most accurate at rating their own emotional expression, I used pairs of employees and coworkers in this study. Participants from a variety of professions were recruited through the Work Experience Lab participant database, through word of mouth, and posting on social media. Employees received $10 for completing the study and coworkers received $5. A total of 96 focal workers (64.58% female, 61.46% White, $M_{age} = 31.21$, $SD_{age} = 8.80$, $M_{tenure} = 3.86$, $SD_{tenure} = 3.98$, $M_{hours \text{ per week}} = 40.88$, $SD_{hours \text{ per week}} = 6.88$) and 91 coworkers participated in the study (63.73% female, 56.04% White, $M_{age} = 32.62$, $SD_{age} = 10.03$, $M_{tenure} = 4.36$, $SD_{tenure} = 4.23$, $M_{hours \text{ per week}} = 40.26$, $SD_{hours \text{ per week}} = 5.58$). There was a total of 88 matched responses between focal workers and coworkers.

2.2 Procedure and Measures

Both focal worker and coworker participants completed an informed consent and filled out a series of questionnaires. Focal workers rated the situational strength of emotional display rules, supervisor leadership styles, display rules, emotion regulation strategies, and the employee outcomes of emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and incivility. Coworker surveys assessed the emotional expression of their paired coworkers. Table 1 displays an organized list of which participants took which surveys.
Table 1 -- Type of survey and topics measured.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focal Worker Survey</th>
<th>Coworker Survey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>Emotional display of focal worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength of display rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion regulation strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-rated emotional display</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being outcomes (emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incivility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.1 Leadership style

Employees’ perceptions of their supervisors’ task-focused leadership and person-focused leadership will be measured using the initiating structure and consideration subscales from the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ-XII; Stogdill, 1963). Stems were changed for the target in reference to the focal worker (my supervisor). A sample item for initiating structure is “My supervisor lets group members know what is expected of them”, while a sample item for consideration is “My supervisor looks out for the personal welfare of group members.” Responses options range from 1 (Always) to 5 (Never). Reliabilities were good for both scales; initiating structure $\alpha = .87$, consideration $\alpha = .89$. 
2.2.2 Display Rules

I collected the Emotional Labor Scale (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000; see Appendix A), commonly used measures of emotional display rules, which is focused on frequency. An example item is “To be effective in my job, I must act cheerful and sociable.” Responses ranged from 1 (Almost never occurs) to 5 (Occurs very frequently). This scale has been shown to have positive relationships with surface acting (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005), deep acting (Diefendorff et al., 2011) and more physical health symptoms (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Reliabilities were good for display rules to show positive emotion $\alpha = .93$, and to hide negative emotion $\alpha = .97$.

2.2.3 Situational Strength

Focal employees reported the situational strength of display rules with a modified version of the Situational Strength at Work Scale (SSQ; Meyer et al., 2014). I adapted this measure to focus on emotional display rules in the workplace for both positive and negative emotion rules (see Appendix B). An example item is “On this job, specific information about responsibilities for showing positive emotions is provided.” Responses ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Employees responded to this questionnaire in reference to their own job for both positive and negative emotional display rules. The original version of this scale has been shown to have strong psychometric properties and moderate the relationships between individual differences and OCBs and CWBs (Meyer et al., 2014).

2.2.4 Emotion Regulation Strategies
Surface acting and deep acting were measured using modified items from Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005). These items are mainly adapted from Grandey’s (2003) surface acting and deep acting scales, and Kruml and Geddes’ (2000) emotive dissonance and emotive effort scales. This measure has been shown to relate to emotional exhaustion and turnover intent (Chau, Dahling, Levy, & Diefendorff, 2009). Items were rated from 1 (Strongly agree) to 5 (Strongly disagree). Items were adapted to reference emotion regulation for positive and negative emotions to match display rules. Sample items include “I put on an act of positive emotions in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way” for surface acting of positive emotion and “I try to avoid experiencing negative emotions around others at work” for deep acting of negative emotions.

2.2.5 Emotional Display

Both focal employees and coworkers used the emotion management behaviors scale developed by Diefendorff and Richard (2003) to rate the degree to which employees manage their emotional displays in the workplace. This scale has outside raters such as coworkers and supervisors assess the behavior of the focal employee regarding emotion management at work on a 7-point scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). An example item is “Remains positive at work even when he/she may be feeling otherwise.” Instructions and items were altered to reflect the referent (“I” if focal employee, or “my coworker” if the coworker). Reliabilities were good for both self-rated emotional display $\alpha = .81$, and coworker rated emotional display $\alpha = .86$.

2.2.6 Well-being Outcomes
Employee outcomes of emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction were examined. I used the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) subscale for emotional exhaustion with a 7-point Likert-type response scale, from 1 (Never) to 7 (Every day). A sample item is “I feel emotionally drained from my work.” This 5-item scale had good reliability, $\alpha = .85$. This scale is shown to consistently negatively relate to job satisfaction (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Intrinsic motivation was assessed with the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS; Gagné et al., 2015). This questionnaire asks why individuals put efforts into their current job from 1 (Not at all) to 7 (Completely). Drawing from self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), this questionnaire consists of subscales for different types of motivation: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation. This scale has been shown to relate to autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Gagné et al., 2015). A sample item for intrinsic motivation is “Because the work I do is interesting.” This 3-item subscale had good reliability, $\alpha = .91$.

Finally, job satisfaction will be measured using the three-item Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale (Cammann, Fichman, Henkins, & Klesh, 1979). For example, “In general, I am satisfied with my job.” Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). A meta-analysis has shown this measure positively relates to job performance and OCBs, and negatively relates to CWBs, turnover, and absenteeism (Bowling & Hammond, 2008). Reliability for this scale was sufficient, $\alpha = .89$. 
2.2.7 Incivility

Lastly, instigated incivility was measured with a measure by Blau and Andersson (2005). Items asked focal workers how often they were uncivil to others at work within the last year, from 1, *Hardly ever (once every few months or less)*, to 4, *Frequently (at least once a day)*. A sample item was “Put down others or were condescending to them in some way.” This scale has been shown to negatively relate to job satisfaction and positively to work exhaustion (Blau & Anderson, 2005). Reliability for this scale was good, $\alpha = .83$. 
CHAPTER 3. RESULTS

3.1 Preliminary Analyses

3.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis of situational strength

Because I altered Meyer et al. (2014)’s Situational Strength at Work Scale to fit positive and negative emotional display rules, I ran an exploratory factor analysis using an oblimin rotation to ensure my items were loading on the intended subscales. Table 2 displays the factor pattern matrix for the modified scale, showing that the items loaded onto eight subscales, divided into types of situational strength for both positive emotion rules and negative emotional display rules.
Table 2 -- Pattern matrix from exploratory factor analysis of situational strength of display rules measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
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<td><strong>-0.88</strong></td>
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<td>0.29</td>
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<td>0.32</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Internal consistency reliability estimates were greater than .80 for each facet
(positive emotion display rules: clarity = .97, consistency = .94, constraints = .90,
consequences = .92, negative emotion display rules: clarity = .95, consistency = .96,
constraints = .95, consequences = .87). To match display rules as they are traditionally measured, two global situational strength composites (positive emotion display rules \( \alpha = .94 \), negative emotion display rules \( \alpha = .96 \)) were also calculated. Following Meyer et al. (2014) and the arguments of Wainer (1976) and Dawes (1979) regarding the
effectiveness and elegance of linear, unit-weighted combinations, these two global composites for situational strength of positive and negative emotion rules were based on a simple average (mean) of each 28 situational strength items.

3.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis of emotion regulation

I also modified Diefendorff et al. (2005)’s measure for emotion regulation strategies to more specifically reflect the regulation of positive and negative emotion. Similar to situational strength, I ran an exploratory factor analysis using an oblimin rotation to ensure my items were loading as I would expect. Table 3 displays the factor pattern matrix for the modified scale, showing that the items loaded onto four subscales as expected. Furthermore, reliabilities were good for all four scales; positive emotion surface acting $\alpha = .95$, positive emotion deep acting $\alpha = .91$, negative emotion surface acting $\alpha = .95$, and negative emotion deep acting $\alpha = .89$. The two surface acting scales were highly correlated with one another, $r = .70$, although the two deep acting scales were only low to moderately correlated, $r = .31$. 


Table 3 -- Pattern matrix from exploratory factor analysis of modified emotion regulation measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 2</td>
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<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 3</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 4</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 5</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 6</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Surface Acting Item 7</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Deep Acting Item 1</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Deep Acting Item 2</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Deep Acting Item 3</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Deep Acting Item 4</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 1</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 2</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>-0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 3</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 4</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 5</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 6</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Surface Acting Item 7</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Deep Acting Item 1</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Deep Acting Item 2</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Deep Acting Item 3</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Deep Acting Item 4</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.93</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3 Descriptive analyses

Table 4 shows means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for the variables of interest. Using this correlation matrix, I first wanted to ensure that my dataset was replicating what is traditionally found in the emotional labor literature. As shown in Table 4, there are significant correlations between emotion regulation strategies and the well-being outcomes of interest. However, the patterns of effects are more consistent with
the existing literature for regulation of positive emotions. Positive emotion surface acting was significantly correlated in the expected directions for emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and incivility, but for negative emotion surface acting was significantly correlated only with emotional exhaustion. Neither were related to self-rated or coworker rated emotional display. Deep acting was not related to the outcomes of interest, except for a correlation of deep acting negative emotions with self-rated emotional display. These results generally align with findings in line with the literature, which finds surface acting but not deep acting is detrimental to the worker (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). However, it was unexpected that there were no significant correlations between surface acting and emotional expression.

Table 4 -- Descriptive Statistics and Correlations.

|                      | M    | SD   | 1    | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5    | 6    | 7    | 8    | 9    | 10   | 11   | 12   | 13   | 14   | 15   | 16   | 17   | 18   | 19   |
|----------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. Display rules - Show positive emotion | 3.89 | 0.93 | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 2. Display rules - Hide negative emotion | 3.14 | 1.02 | 18   | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 3. Situational Strength Positive emotion | 3.39 | 1.03 | .42** | .22* |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 4. Situational Strength Negative emotion | 3.36 | 1.12 | .37** | .24* | .77** | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 5. Initiating structure | 3.67 | 0.69 | .27** | .50*** | .50** | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 6. Consideration | 3.55 | 0.75 | .15 | .25** | .05 | .07 | .50** | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 7. Surface acting | 3.16 | 1.09 | .70** | .22* | .26* | .18 | .27** | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 8. Deep acting | 3.36 | 1.06 | .48** | .77** | .30** | 11   | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 9. Expressing genuine feelings | 3.66 | 0.86 | .06 | .55** | .05 | .08 | .18 | .22** | .66** | .12   | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 10. Surface acting - Positive emotions | 3.36 | 1.12 | .25* | .68** | .23* | .09 | .12 | .20 | .86** | .06 | .62** | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 11. Deep acting - Positive emotions | 3.61 | 1.02 | .20 | .32 | .41** | .23* | .31** | .20 | .10 | .73** | .07 | .04   | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 12. Surface acting - Negative emotions | 3.41 | 1.07 | .19 | .60** | .46* | .06 | .28 | .17 | .24** | .17 | .44** | .70** | 16   | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13. Deep acting - Negative emotions | 3.70 | 0.92 | .00 | .12 | .02 | .02 | .05 | .49 | .11 | .45** | .09 | .31** | .27* | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 14. Burnout - Emotional exhaustion | 6.28 | 1.36 | .01 | .42** | .16 | .11 | .14 | .25* | .59** | .09 | .67** | .20** | 19   | .03 | --   |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 15. Job satisfaction | 4.45 | 1.22 | .18 | .25** | .36 | .20 | .08 | .23* | .14** | .04 | .12 | .30** | .08 | .15 | .01 | .47** | --   |      |      |      |
| 16. Intrinsic motivation | 4.07 | 1.45 | .10 | .21* | .16 | .14 | .17 | .07 | .39** | .39 | .48** | .32** | .10 | .17 | .08 | .36** | .03** | --   |      |      |
| 17. Coworker rated emotional display | 5.34 | 0.79 | .16 | .01 | .24* | .11 | .11 | .10 | .62 | .36 | .15 | .05 | .14 | .15 | .31** | .24* | .31** | .30** | --   |      |      |
| 18. Coworker rated emotional display | 5.41 | 0.97 | .01 | .13 | .11 | .14 | .06 | .15 | .09 | .13 | .20 | .12 | .08 | .03 | .05 | .17 | .10 | .04 | .23* | --   |      |
| 19. Incivility | 1.69 | 0.57 | .04 | .22* | .21* | .20 | .02 | .17 | .27** | .03 | .11 | .31* | .09 | .04 | .11 | .33** | .20 | .17 | .21* | .29** | --   |

3.2 Situational Strength and Display Rules

With confidence that items were loading in a logical fashion and that the data seemed to be reasonably consistent with the existing literature, I began hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis 1 suggested that the situational strength of display rules would moderate the
effect of display rules on outcomes (Hypothesis 1.1) or would be a stronger predictor than display rules on outcomes (Hypothesis 1.2). Because I had several dependent variables within the same family (positive emotion regulation, negative emotion regulation, emotional expression, and well-being) I ran a series of multivariate regressions in an attempt to minimize type I error. If the multivariate model was significant, I then used univariate regressions to examine the effects in detail. Results of these univariate regressions are in Table 5, showing a model building approach to the effects of situational strength beyond display rules on emotion regulation. Model 1 shows the main effect of display rules on the outcome of interest. Model 2 displays the main effects of situational strength controlling for display rules. Finally, Model 3 displays main effects and interactive effects. A significant change in the variance explained by the regression step and a significant beta coefficient for an interaction term constitutes a moderating effect (Aiken & West, 1991; Baron & Kenny, 1986).

**Table 5 -- Univariate regressions of display rules, situational strength, and interactions predicting outcomes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Surface acting positive</th>
<th>Deep acting positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1: Main effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.34*</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2: Two main effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.25'</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3: Interactive effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules x Situational strength</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p <.001, ‘ p < .10
3.2.1 Emotion regulation

Because I divided my emotion regulation variables into both positive and negative, I used positive display rules and positive situational strength to predict positive emotion regulation. Multivariate regressions of positive display rules and positive situational strength predicting positive surface acting and positive deep acting were significant, Pillai’s Trace = 0.15, $F(2,88) = 7.85$, $p < .001$. Univariate tests are in Table 5, showing that situational strength accounted for significant variance beyond display rules in predicting positive emotion deep acting, but not surface acting. There were no interactive effects, Pillai’s Trace < 0.01, $F(2,87) = 0.15$, $p > .05$. For negative emotion regulation, multivariate results were non-significant for the effect of negative situational strength after controlling for negative display rules, Pillai’s Trace = 0.02, $F(2,88) = 0.90$, $p > .05$, as well as the interaction, Pillai’s Trace = 0.03, $F(2,87) = 1.19$, $p > .05$.

3.2.2 Emotional expression

I had two measures of emotional expression: one self-rated and one coworker rated. Therefore, I used multivariate regressions for the two outcomes. For positive emotion rules predicting emotional expression, there was a marginal effect of situational strength after controlling for positive display rules, Pillai’s Trace = 0.06, $F(2,80) = 2.63$, $p = .078$, and a significant interaction, Pillai’s Trace = 0.02, $F(2,79) = 3.88$, $p < .05$. Univariate results are in Table 6, showing an interaction for self-rated emotional expression but no interaction for coworker rated emotional expression. This interaction is displayed in Figure 3, illustrating a difference with situational strength when display rules are high.
More specifically, when display rules are high and situational strength is high, emotional expression is greatest. This is in line with expectations. There were no significant effects for coworker rated emotional expression. In testing the effects of negative emotion rules, there were no significant results of situational strength after controlling for negative emotion rules, Pillai’s Trace = 0.03, $F(2,80) = 1.11$, $p > .05$, nor a significant interaction, Pillai’s Trace = 0.02, $F(2,79) = 0.83$, $p > .05$.

**Table 6 – Univariate regressions of display rules, situational strength, and interactions predicting emotional expression.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Self-rated Emotional Expression - Positive</th>
<th>Coworker Rated Expression - Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$ $SE$ $\Delta R^2$ $B$ $SE$ $\Delta R^2$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1: Main effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.16$^{**}$ 0.10 0.027 0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2: Two main effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.07$^{'}$ 0.11 0.06 0.14</td>
<td>0.036$^{'}$ 0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.16 0.09 -0.13 0.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3: Interactive effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>-0.61 0.28 0.23 0.37</td>
<td>0.069$^{**}$ 0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>-0.70$^{*}$ 0.33 0.10 0.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules x Situational strength</td>
<td>0.22$^{**}$ 0.08 -0.06 0.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{**} p < .01$, $^{*} p < .05$, $^{'} p < .10$
3.2.3 Well-being

Next I examined effects of display rules and situational strength on the well-being outcomes of interest: emotional exhaustion, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction, again using multivariate regression. For positive emotion rules predicting this family of well-being variables, there was a significant effect of situational strength after controlling for positive display rules, Pillai’s Trace = 0.10, $F(3,87) = 3.19$, $p < .05$, but a non-significant interaction, Pillai’s Trace = 0.01, $F(3,86) = 0.36$, $p > .05$. Univariate results are in Table 7, although showing no significant effects of situational strength beyond display rules and no interactions. The significant effect in the multivariate analyses is likely due to the dependent variable of emotional exhaustion. In this case, when both situational strength and display rules were in the model, the direction of display rules
predicting emotional exhaustion switched from positive to negative. However, the effect of situational strength was not significant beyond the effects of display rules (although it was approaching significance, $p = .108$). The effects for negative emotions on these well-being outcomes were non-significant: main effects, Pillai’s Trace = 0.05, $F(3,87) = 1.47$, $p > .05$, interaction, Pillai’s Trace = 0.04, $F(3,86) = 1.05$, $p > .05$.

Table 7 -- Univariate regressions of display rules, situational strength, and interactions predicting well-being outcomes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion - positive</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction - positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$SE$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Step 1: Main effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Step 2: Two main effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Step 3: Interactive effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules x Situational strength</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.4 Incivility

Finally, I conducted univariate regressions to predict instigated incivility. Table 8 shows that positive situational strength significantly predicted incivility beyond display rules, although there was no interaction effect. Further, there were no effects predicting incivility beyond negative display rules, as shown in Table 8.
Table 8 – Univariate regressions of display rules, situational strength, and interactions predicting incivility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Incivility - positive</th>
<th>Incivility - negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$SE$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Step 1: Main effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Step 2: Two main effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.13*</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Step 3: Interactive effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational strength</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules x Situational strength</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .05$

3.3 Facets of Situational Strength

Hypotheses 2 through 4 were aimed at the facets of situational strength predicting emotion regulation strategies and specific well-being outcomes. Generally, I expected the facets of clarity, constraints, and consequences to positively to the use of emotion regulation strategies and emotional display. Meanwhile, I expected these same facets to negatively to well-being outcomes. Specific hypotheses are reviewed in the sections below. I had no hypotheses relating to the consistency dimension. I conducted these analyses using multivariate linear regression and did separate analyses for each facet. When predicting emotion regulation, I matched situational strength (for positive emotion or negative emotion) with the dimension of emotion being regulated (positive emotion or negative emotion).
3.3.1 Clarity

I expected that clear norms would relate to more emotion regulation and positive emotion display. As such, hypothesis 2 suggested that the clarity dimension of situational strength would positively relate to a) surface acting, b) deep acting, and c) emotional display. Multivariate regression for positive clarity was significant, Pillai’s Trace = 0.26, $F(4,79) = 6.86$, $p < .001$, but non-significant for negative clarity, Pillai’s Trace = 0.08, $F(4,79) = 6.86$, $p > .05$. Univariate tests showed a positive relationship between positive clarity and positive deep acting, $b = 0.21$, $t(90) = 3.45$, $p < .001$, as well as self-rated emotional display, $b = 0.12$, $t(90) = 2.56$, $p < .05$. There were no significant effects for positive surface acting or coworker rated emotional display.

3.3.2 Constraints

Because the facet of constraints should negatively relate to autonomy, I expected a negative relationship between constraints and intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. I ran multivariate tests because of the similarity between these outcomes. However, there were no significant relationships predicting these outcomes with either dimension: positive constraints, Pillai’s Trace = 0.02, $F(2,89) = 0.98$, $p > .05$, negative constraints, Pillai’s Trace = 0.02, $F(2,89) = 0.89$, $p > .05$.

3.3.3 Consequences

Because of the pressure and external motivation consequences can provide, I expected the consequences dimension of situational strength would positively relate to surface acting and emotional exhaustion, and negatively relate to job satisfaction. The
multivariate result was significant for both consequences for positive emotion, Pillai’s 
Trace = 0.17, \( F(3,88) = 6.19, p < .001 \), as well as negative emotion, Pillai’s Trace = 0.11, 
\( F(3,88) = 3.72, p < .05 \). Univariate follow up tests showed significant differences for 
surface acting: positive emotion, \( b = 0.20, t(90) = 2.60, p < .05 \), negative emotion, \( b = 
0.21, t(90) = 3.10, p < .01 \). For emotional exhaustion, only positive consequences was 
significant, \( b = 0.21, t(90) = 2.29, p < .05 \), as negative consequences was only marginal, \( b 
= 0.17, t(90) = 1.87, p = .065 \). There were no effects of consequences on job satisfaction.

**Leadership and Situational Strength**

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted relationships between supervisor’s leadership and 
situational strength of display rules. More specifically, I expected a positive relationship 
between supervisors high in task-focused leadership and employee perceptions of display 
rule strength and a negative relationship between supervisors high in person-focused 
leadership and employee perceptions of display rule strength. Table 9 shows the 
relationships of initiating structure and consideration predicting general situational 
strength and its facets for positive and negative emotion. Initiating structure positively 
related to situational strength of positive and negative emotions and all the facets except 
for constraints. Meanwhile, consideration only negatively related to the constraints facet 
and positively related to the consistency facet. These results are similar for both positive 
and negative emotion.

Table 9 also includes relationships between leadership and display rules as they 
are traditionally measured for comparison purposes. Initiating structure only shows a 
positive relationship with positive emotional display rules, and consideration only shows
a negative relationship with negative emotional display rules. The more nuanced approach of using the facets of situational strength suggest that these two types of leadership do have effects on both positive and negative display rules, but this may be misinterpreted if examined simply with display rules.

Table 9 – Leadership predicting situational strength.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Initiating structure</th>
<th>Consideration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion situational strength</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion situational strength</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion clarity facet</td>
<td>0.67**</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion clarity facet</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion consistency facet</td>
<td>0.79***</td>
<td>0.63***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion consistency facet</td>
<td>0.74***</td>
<td>0.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion constraints facet</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.34*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion constraints facet</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.40*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion consequences facet</td>
<td>0.60**</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotion consequences facet</td>
<td>0.57*</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive display rules</td>
<td>0.33**</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative display rules</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.31*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < .001, ** p < .01, * p < .05

Next, I tested the direct effects of leadership on emotion regulation strategies and well-being outcomes of interest. While I expected a negative relationship between consideration and surface acting (Hypothesis 7), I found only a marginal relationship for surface acting of positive emotions $b = -0.29$, $t(90) = -1.89$, $p = .062$, and no significant relationship with surface acting of negative emotions, $b = -0.19$, $t(90) = -1.27$, $p > .05$. Similarly, I did not find any main effects of initiating structure on surface acting of positive emotions, $b = -0.19$, $t(90) = -1.11$, $p > .05$, or surface acting of negative
emotions, $b = -0.09$, $t(90) = -0.54$, $p > .05$. I also had expected relationships between initiating structure on emotional expression, but did not find any, for self-rated emotional expression, $b = 0.13$, $t(90) = 1.05$, $p > .05$, or coworker rated emotional expression, $b = 0.09$, $t(82) = 0.58$, $p > .05$. Lastly, I expected a relationship between initiating structure and emotional exhaustion, but again found no relationship, $b = -0.28$, $t(90) = -1.36$, $p > .05$. Hypotheses 8a, 8b, and 8c, were therefore unsupported. Because there were no relationships between leadership behaviors and surface acting, emotional expression, or emotional exhaustion, I did not test mediation of situational strength of display rules (Hypothesis 9).

3.4 Exploratory Analyses

Overall, general situational strength for positive and negative emotion did not predict positive and negative emotion regulation beyond display rules. However, I was also interested in how the facets of situational strength may predict emotion regulation. For simplicity, I chose to use the general scales of emotion regulation (not divided by positive emotion or negative emotion, instead simply general surface acting, deep acting, and expressing genuine feelings) to conduct these analyses. Similar to my main hypothesis testing, I used multivariate regression to predict the effects of display rules and each facet of situational strength on the family of three types of emotion regulation. If the multivariate test was significant, I performed univariate tests.

3.4.1 Positive emotion rules

I found that all four positive emotion facets predicted emotion regulation beyond display rules: clarity, Pillai’s Trace = 0.12, $F(3,87) = 3.86$, $p < .05$, consistency, Pillai’s
Trace = 0.17, $F(3,87) = 5.93$, $p < .001$, constraints, Pillai’s Trace = 0.15, $F(3,87) = 5.29$, $p < .01$, and consequences, Pillai’s Trace = 0.22, $F(3,87) = 8.29$, $p < .001$. Table 10 displays the univariate effects of display rules followed by the effects of situational strength beyond display rules for showing positive emotion. While I knew these significant effect was likely driven by deep acting based on results in Table 5, Table 10 shows there were some effects predicting surface acting as well as expressing genuine feelings. Namely, the constraints facet predicts surface acting beyond positive display rules. Consequences seems to predict surface acting beyond display rules as well, but after Bonferroni correcting the alpha value, this is non-significant. Similarly, consistency predicts expressing genuine feelings, but this is non-significant after Bonferroni correction. Similar to the results shown in Table 5, situational strength predicts deep acting beyond display rules. These analyses show that the effect seems to be driven by clarity, constraints, and consequences.

Table 10 – Facets of positive situational strength beyond positive display rules predicting general emotion regulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Surface acting</th>
<th>Deep acting</th>
<th>Expressing genuine feelings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display rules positive</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Display rules positive</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity positive</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.22***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Display rules positive</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency positive</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.30***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Display rules positive</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints positive</td>
<td>0.34***</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Display rules positive</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequences positive</td>
<td>0.16*</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.32***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$
3.4.2 Negative emotion rules

For negative emotion rules, I found that only consistency, Pillai’s Trace = 0.09, $F(3,87) = 2.85, p < .05$, and consequences, Pillai’s Trace = 0.10, $F(3,87) = 3.30, p < .05$, predicted emotion regulation beyond the effects of negative display rules. Table 11 displays the effects of display rules followed by the effects of situational strength beyond display rules for hiding negative emotions. As shown in Table 11, the effect of situational strength beyond display rules is driven by effects on deep acting. Both consistency and consequences predict deep acting beyond the negative display rules. There were no effects of these two facets on surface acting or expressing genuine feelings.

Table 11 -- Facets of negative situational strength beyond negative display rules predicting general emotion regulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Surface acting</th>
<th>Deep acting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$SE$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.487***</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Display rules negative</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Display rules negative</td>
<td>0.76***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistency negative</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Display rules negative</td>
<td>0.73***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consequences negative</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

3.4.3 Leadership

In testing my hypotheses, I did not find relationships between consideration and
surface acting (Hypothesis 7) or between initiating structure and surface acting, emotional expression, or emotional exhaustion (Hypothesis 8). However, I wanted to examine if there were any relationships with other variables of interest. For simplicity, I used the general scales of emotion regulation (not divided into positive versus negative emotion) in these analyses. As shown in Table 12, there were several interesting direct effects between leadership behaviors and emotion regulation use as well as person-centric variables of interest. Namely, there is a marginal relationship of initiating structure with surface acting and expressing genuine feeling, as well as a significant relationship with deep acting and job satisfaction. Meanwhile, consideration is a significant predictor for surface acting, deep acting, expressing genuine feelings, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion. This suggests leadership does indeed have effects on emotion regulation use and well-being, although it only appeared when using the general emotion regulation scale.

**Table 12 -- Leadership predicting emotion regulation strategy use and well-being outcomes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Initiating structure</th>
<th>Consideration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>(SE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting</td>
<td>-0.29'</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting</td>
<td>0.56***</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing genuine feelings</td>
<td>0.23'</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.41*</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** \(p < .001\), ** \(p < .01\), * \(p < .05\), ' \(p < .10\)

In my main analyses I did not test mediation of situational strength of display rules
because there were no main effects of leadership on my identified outcomes of interest. However, the exploratory analyses showed some direct effects of leadership on other outcomes of interest, so I was now able to test Hypothesis 9. Because of the multiple facets of situational strength, I used results from testing Hypotheses 5 and 6 regarding relationships between leadership and facets of situational strength to guide these mediation analyses. Based on these results mentioned previously (see Table 9), I used an average of situational strength in testing mediation of initiating structure and the constraints facet of situational strength in testing consideration. This was done to minimize the number of analyses conducted. Results shown in Figures 4 through 7 are broken up into type of leadership and type of positive/negative situational strength. Although the direct relationships of leadership to situational strength and the direct effects of leadership on outcomes have already been presented, they are presented again in these figures for ease of interpretation.

Figure 4, which displays the relationships between initiating structure, situational strength of showing positive emotions, and outcomes, shows that situational strength of positive emotions is a significant mediator but only for deep acting. This is demonstrated by a significant relationship between situational strength and deep acting (b path) and a weaker relationship between initiating structure and deep acting after accounting for situational strength (comparing c path and c’ path). Situational strength was not a significant mediator in predicting expressing genuine feelings or job satisfaction. For surface acting, there seems to be a suppression effect: the effect of initiating structure on surface acting becomes stronger after accounting for situational strength and there is a significant relationship between situational strength and surface acting. This
unanticipated effect suggests that situational strength and initiating structure each account for unique and unrelated variance when predicting surface acting. Figure 5 displays the effects of situational strength of negative emotions, again with initiating structure and the outcomes of interest. There is a similar pattern of effects compared to those displayed in Figure 4; situational strength is a mediator, although this time there is only a marginal relationship between situational strength and deep acting. Again, there seems to be suppressor effect on surface acting, with the relationship between initiating structure and surface acting increasing after accounting for situational strength.

Figure 4 -- Average situational strength of positive emotion as a meditator of the relationship between initiating structure and outcomes.
Figure 5 — Average situational strength of negative emotion as a mediator of the relationship between initiating structure and outcomes.

Figure 6 examines the mediating effect of the constraints facet of situational strength of positive emotion in the relationship between consideration and person-centric outcomes. Results suggest that constraints partially mediate the relationships between consideration and surface acting, expressing genuine feelings, and emotional exhaustion, as shown by significant relationships between constraints and outcomes (b path) as well as a reduced beta coefficient in the total effect (comparing c path and c’ path). However, the effect of consideration on these three outcomes are still significant, suggesting partial mediation rather than full mediation. Lastly, Figure 7 displays similar findings using constraints for negative emotion. Results replicate for surface acting and emotional exhaustion, but not expressing genuine feelings, as shown by a non-significant relationship between constraints and expressing genuine feelings. With the negative emotion dimension of constraints, there appears to again be partial mediation of constraints with surface acting. However, the effect of consideration on emotional exhaustion after controlling for constraints is now marginal, which is suggestive of full
mediation. In the following section, I discuss these results in further detail and consider potential reasons behind my findings.

**Figure 6** -- Constraints facet of situational strength of positive emotion as a mediatior of the relationship between consideration and outcomes.

**Figure 7** -- Constraints facet of situational strength of negative emotion as a mediatior of the relationship between consideration and outcomes.
CHAPTER 4. DISCUSSION

The emotional labor literature posits that display rules are an important antecedent of emotion regulation, but I argue they are currently studied in a rudimentary way. Applying a lens of situational strength, I suggested that situational strength would be a better way of examining display rules or would moderate the effects of display rules in predicting emotion regulation and employee outcomes. Overall, my main hypotheses regarding situational strength as a better predictor of outcomes or a moderator were largely unsupported. There were a few significant results in the direction as expected, but they were not consistent. More specifically, results showed that positive emotion situational strength was a better predictor of deep acting for positive emotion and incivility beyond the effect of positive emotion display rules. However, this was not true of deep acting or incivility when using the negative emotion scales, nor were these results replicated for the other dependent variables of interest. It could be that deep acting and incivility may be affected differently than surface acting, emotional expression, and well-being. It could also be that needing to show positive emotions regularly is enough to impact surface acting, but only impacts deep acting when positive display rules have high situational strength. Similarly, people may react poorly to the psychological pressure created by a strong situation and respond by being uncivil to others at work. This is consistent with research showing that constraints, consistency, and consequences relate to CWBs and are mediated by negative affect (Kelly & Meyer, in preparation). However, these effects did not replicate for situational strength for negative emotions. Considering these inconsistent effects, the significant correlations between display rules and
situational strength are worth noting: there may not have been enough remaining variance for situational strength to account for after display rules were entered into the model.

It is surprising that situational strength did not seem to have effects on well-being outcomes of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, or intrinsic motivation. It is important to note that there were no main effects of positive display rules on these outcomes: there were only significant correlations of negative display rules. This is not consistent with Diefendorff and Richard (2003), which found significant relationships between both positive and negative display rules with job satisfaction. This study also found a positive relationship between display rules for positive emotions and coworker rated emotional display, which was also not replicated in the present study. Another study by Diefendorff and his colleagues (2011) found that a one-factor model of display rules were related to burnout and job satisfaction. However, it may be that the relationship between display rules and well-being are best examined as indirect effects through emotion regulation, as they are traditionally theorized in the literature. Supporting this notion, Grandey (2003) found non-significant correlations between display rules and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. It could be that the effect exists, but is relatively small: a meta-analysis of emotional labor found an effect of .09 of display rules predicting burnout (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). While significant, this effect is quite small, suggesting that it the effect may appear with increased power.

Furthermore, there were interesting findings when examining situational strength by facet. While the general scale of positive situational strength predicted deep acting beyond display rules, this relationship appeared to be driven by the facets of clarity, constraints, and consequences. Meanwhile, for negative emotion the effects on deep
acting were driven by consistency and consequences. Being that deep acting is considered less detrimental, it is important to understand the drivers to increase worker deep acting instead of surface acting. Further, the positive emotion facets of constraints and consequences predicted surface acting beyond display rules, but this did not hold true for the negative emotion facets. Lastly, only the consistency facet related to expressing genuine feelings. Taken together, this suggests that these types of emotion regulation operate through differing channels. To promote deep acting but not surface acting, perhaps organizations should communicate display rules using clarity and consistency while trying to minimize constraints and consequences. It is also worth noting that the general scale of emotion regulation may be a better scale than the emotion regulation scale divided into positive and negative emotions separately. As shown in the correlation matrix in Table 4, the general surface acting scale had slightly stronger relationships with emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation compared to the positive emotion or negative emotion subscales. For deep acting, there were no significant relationships between the general or positive or negative subscales and any of the outcomes of interest, except for one. This exception was for self-rated emotional display, although the negative emotion subscale had a slightly stronger relationship than the general scale.

In testing moderation, I found only one interaction of display rules and situational strength, which was for self-rated emotional expression. Results were in line with expectations, as emotional expression was highest when both display rules and situational strength were high. One interaction among many is not hopeful, suggesting situational strength of display rules may not have interactive effects as it may with personality.
These results suggest that situational strength is not best thought of as a moderator of display rules; instead perhaps situational strength of display rules is better understood as a more nuanced approach to examine display rules.

I also was interested in the effects of leadership, namely task-focused and person-focused leadership, on the situational strength of display rules. Similar to Klein et al. (2011), leadership significantly predicted situational strength of emotional display rules. I found that initiating structure predicted general situational strength and all of its facets except for constraints. However, the results were not as uniform for consideration. Instead, consideration predicted only consistency and constraints. While I hypothesized that consideration would negatively relate to situational strength, consideration had a positive relationship with the consistency facet. In hindsight this is logical, as a considerate leader should give consistent information to his/her followers. However, the anticipated relationship held for the constraints facets: there was a negative relationship between consideration and constraints. Further, I also expected there to be relationships between these two leadership styles with emotion regulation and well-being outcomes. However, I did not find any direct effects of initiating structure with surface acting, emotional expression, or emotional exhaustion, nor did I find any direct effects of consideration with surface acting. This was unexpected, as supervisor support and supervisor importance of interpersonal job demands have both been shown to relate to emotional exhaustion (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). I took a closer look at the relationships between supervisor leadership styles and outcomes in the exploratory analyses.

My exploratory analyses examined direct and potential mediated relationships between leadership style and employee outcomes in detail. I found that leadership
actually did relate to important employee outcomes and several of these relationships were mediated by situational strength. More specifically, there was a marginal relationship of initiating structure with surface acting and expressing genuine feeling, as well as a significant relationship with deep acting and job satisfaction. Situational strength mediated the effects of initiating structure on deep acting, but was a suppressor of the relationship between initiating structure and surface acting. This suggests that leaders high in initiating structure encourage deep acting by creating stronger situations, but that these stronger situations do not relate to surface acting. This is hopeful for leaders trying to encourage use of less detrimental regulation strategies at work – these leaders could create strong situations, perhaps particularly ones that are clear and consistent, to get their workers to engage in healthy emotion regulation. Furthermore, consideration was a significant predictor for surface acting, deep acting, expressing genuine feelings, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion. This may be because considerate leaders put less constraints on their followers’ emotional expression, as the constraints facet partially mediated the relationship between consideration predicting surface acting and emotional exhaustion. This was true for constraints in showing positive emotion and hiding negative emotion. Positive emotion constraints also partially mediated the relationship in predicting expressing genuine feelings, but this was not the same for negative emotion constraints. There were no mediated relationships with deep acting or job satisfaction, which suggests that the impact of consideration on these outcomes operates through another mechanism. Overall, these results indicate that having a considerate leader is very beneficial for the employee, leading to better well-being. It
seems this can be at least partially explained through creating weaker display rule constraints, but results suggest there are likely other mechanisms at play as well.

4.1 Limitations, Implications, and Future Directions

While a strength of this study was a sample of full-time workers with coworker reports, it was a cross-sectional study and relied mostly on self-reported information. In an attempt to minimize self-rated bias for emotional expression, I incorporated coworker reports of emotional expression. This is important considering I found low but significant correlation between the two. Further, I had a sample that was mainly white and female, which limits the generalizability of these findings. Similarly, display rules may not apply to every occupation. This study had a variety of occupations and fields, should extend future work more specifically to service workers to see if there are stronger effects. Lastly, this study could have benefitted from a larger sample size.

This study suggests that the facets of situational strength of emotional display rules could be a better way to examine emotion regulation, particularly for deep acting. I also found that leadership predicted several emotion regulation strategies and well-being outcomes, and that situational strength mediated many of these effects. However, future research should replicate and extend these findings, as well as examine them in greater detail with other outcomes. While situational strength could have an interactive effect with personality similar to the traditional situational strength literature, I did not examine this possibility here. Future work could investigate this prospect with personality traits such as agreeableness and extraversion. Being that existing literature has found that these two personality traits buffer the negative effects of emotion regulation (Judge et al.,
and that situational strength can impact positive and negative emotion (Kelly & Meyer, *in preparation*), this could be a fruitful avenue for future work. Future work should also examine the possibility of other mechanisms that may explain the relationship between leadership behavior and emotion regulation, as situational strength did not mediate all of the effects.

Understanding emotion regulation and its effects is an important issue in society due to the large and growing number of service workers both in the United States and across the world. Further research could also extend this idea to a variety of contexts, including different national cultures where the strength of emotional display rules may vary less (or more) by organization. It would also be interesting to examine strength of emotional display rules in situ, as display rules can vary by context (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). While there have been a number of experience sampling studies examining emotion regulation in the moment (e.g., Judge et al., 2009; Scott & Barnes, 2011; Totterdell & Holman, 2003; Wagner et al., 2014), none have examined how display rules may change throughout the day. Furthermore, there has only been one experience sampling study of situational strength (Kelly & Meyer, *in preparation*) to date. This area could benefit from a within-person examination of display rules and situational strength of display rules to understand how much these situations vary and how it affects the worker momentarily.
CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSION

The workplace contains implicit or explicit requirements for emotional expression, especially among service contexts. While there is a great deal of research on how regulating emotions affects the worker, little research has examined how the amount of pressure put on a worker to express or suppress certain feelings impacts the individual. In this study, I used situational strength as a broader literature of behavioral control generally to examine emotional display rules. Overall, I found that situational strength had no relationships to worker well-being outcomes beyond display rules, nor was it a moderator of display rules, with a few exceptions. I also investigated how supervisors affect situational strength of display rules with task-focused and person-focused leadership styles, finding that task-focused leadership positively related to situational strength but person-focused leadership only related to constraints and consistency. Partially through situational strength, leadership predicted emotion regulation and well-being. Results suggest leaders could encourage deep acting and promote well-being by creating situations high in clarity and consistency but low in constraints. Future work should continue to examine these ideas in a variety of contexts and a larger sample.
APPENDIX A. SELF-CREATED SITUATIONAL STRENGTH OF DISPLAY RULES ITEMS

A.1 Instructions

The next questionnaire asks you about your work-related responsibilities regarding showing positive emotions and hiding negative emotions. Think about your interactions with customers, clients, coworkers, supervisors, and anyone you interact with in your workplace. Think about each question separately, as there will be one set of questions about your responsibility to show positive emotions and another set of questions about your responsibility to hide negative emotions.

When we refer to positive emotions, we mean emotions such as feeling: happy, joyful, excited, satisfied, pleased, glad, calm, content, and relaxed.

When we refer to negative emotions, we mean emotions such as feeling: frustrated, annoyed, angry, distressed, alarmed, afraid, tense, sad, depressed, gloomy, bored, and droopy.

A.2 Items for showing positive emotions

5.1.2 Clarity

1. On this job, specific information about responsibilities for showing positive emotions is provided.

2. On this job, easy-to-understand information is provided about expectations for showing positive emotions.
3. On this job, straightforward information is provided about which positive emotions an employee needs to show to succeed.

4. On this job, an employee is told that showing positive emotions is expected.

5. On this job, precise information is provided about showing positive emotions to properly do one’s job.

6. On this job, specific information is provided about the importance of showing positive emotions.

7. On this job, an employee is told that showing positive emotions is expected from him/her.

5.1.3 Consistency

1. On this job, different sources of information regarding the importance of showing positive emotions on the job are always consistent with each other.

2. On this job, formal expectations to show positive emotions are consistent with each other.

3. On this job, all requirements for showing positive emotions are highly compatible with each other.

4. On this job, the importance of showing positive emotions remains completely consistent over time.

5. On this job, supervisor instructions for showing positive emotions match the organization’s official policies for showing positive emotions.

6. On this job, informal guidance on showing positive emotions typically matches official policies about showing positive emotions.

7. On this job, information on showing positive emotions is generally the same, no
matter who provides it.

5.1.4 Constraints

1. On this job, an employee is prevented from making his/her own decisions about whether to show positive emotions.

2. On this job, constraints prevent an employee from showing positive emotions in his/her own way.

3. On this job, an employee is prevented from choosing whether to show positive emotions.

4. On this job, an employee’s freedom to show positive emotions is limited by other people.

5. On this job, outside forces limit an employee’s freedom to show positive emotions.

6. On this job, procedures prevent an employee from showing positive emotions in his/her own way.

7. On this job, other people limit whether an employee can show positive emotions.

5.1.5 Consequences

1. On this job, an employee’s decisions to show positive emotions have extremely important consequences for other people.

2. On this job, very serious consequences occur when an employee fails to show positive emotions.

3. On this job, important outcomes are influenced when an employee shows positive emotions.
4. On this job, other people are put at risk when an employee fails to show positive emotions.

5. On this job, the negative effects of failing to show positive emotions are more harmful than they are for almost all other jobs.

6. On this job, showing positive emotions is more important than it is in almost all other jobs.

7. On this job, there are consequences if an employee fails to show positive emotions when he/she should.

5.2 Items for hiding negative emotions

5.2.1 Clarity

1. On this job, specific information about responsibilities for hiding negative emotions is provided.

2. On this job, easy-to-understand information is provided about expectations for hiding negative emotions.

3. On this job, straightforward information is provided about which negative emotions an employee needs to hide to succeed.

4. On this job, an employee is told that hiding negative emotions is expected.

5. On this job, precise information is provided about hiding negative emotions to properly do one’s job.

6. On this job, specific information is provided about the importance of hiding negative emotions.

7. On this job, an employee is told that hiding negative emotions is expected from
him/her.

5.2.2 Consistency

1. On this job, different sources of information regarding the importance of hiding negative emotions on the job are always consistent with each other.

2. On this job, formal expectations to hide negative emotions are consistent with each other.

3. On this job, all requirements for hiding negative emotions are highly compatible with each other.

4. On this job, the importance of hiding negative emotions remains completely consistent over time.

5. On this job, supervisor instructions for hiding negative emotions match the organization’s official policies for hiding negative emotions.

6. On this job, informal guidance on hiding negative emotions typically matches official policies about hiding negative emotions.

7. On this job, information on hiding negative emotions is generally the same, no matter who provides it.

5.2.3 Constraints

1. On this job, an employee is prevented from making his/her own decisions about whether to hide negative emotions.

2. On this job, constraints prevent an employee from hiding negative emotions in his/her own way.

3. On this job, an employee is prevented from choosing whether to hide negative
emotions.

4. On this job, an employee’s freedom to hide negative emotions is limited by other people.

5. On this job, outside forces limit an employee’s freedom to hide negative emotions.

6. On this job, procedures prevent an employee from hiding negative emotions in his/her own way.

7. On this job, other people limit whether an employee can hide negative emotions.

5.2.4 Consequences

1. On this job, an employee’s decisions to hide negative emotions have extremely important consequences for other people.

2. On this job, very serious consequences occur when an employee fails to hide negative emotions.

3. On this job, important outcomes are influenced when an employee shows negative emotions.

4. On this job, other people are put at risk when an employee fails to hide negative emotions.

5. On this job, the negative effects of failing to hide negative emotions are more harmful than they are for almost all other jobs.

6. On this job, hiding negative emotions is more important than it is in almost all other jobs.

7. On this job, there are consequences if an employee fails to hide negative emotions when he/she should.
REFERENCES


