EMOTIONAL DEMANDS-ABILITIES (ED-A) FIT, EMOTIONAL LABOR, AND RESOURCE DEPLETION

by

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Abstract

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Perceived emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit, defined as a perception of the congruence or fit between emotional demands of a job and abilities to fulfill these demands (Diefendorff, Greguras, & Fleenor, 2016), has been recently introduced to the area of management research. The main goal of this study is to test how a service employee's psychological ownership of a job (POJ) predicts his or her ED-A fit and whether/how ED-A fit is related to emotional labor and depletion. I also look into the underlying mechanism by testing the mediation effect of commitment to display rules (CDR) on the relation of POJ to ED-A fit. Further, I examine how employee-customer identification (ECID) moderates the nature of the relationship of POJ through CDR to ED-A fit. Last, I test the sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit and the moderation effect of ECID on the indirect relationship of POJ to emotional labor and depletion. Participants were recruited via Prolific, an online crowdsourcing company. Regression analyses and Hayes' (2018) PROCESS Models were mainly used to test the hypotheses. Research findings of this study are expected to contribute to research on emotional labor and fit perception as well.

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Dedication

To my daughter, Michelle J. Lee, my father, Dongwon Lee, and my mother, Heesoon Kim. I wish Michelle shall understand that I love her and have been feeling sorry for having not shared much time with her.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The young trainee … wrote on her notepad, "Important to smile. Don't forget smile." (Hochschild, 1983, p. 4)

Arlie Hochschild (1983) coined emotional labor, which means managing one's feeling to commercial uses. With its introduction she argues that how well an employee meets emotional demands of a job is closely linked to customer satisfaction, job performance, and organizational competitiveness. Although the early concept of emotional labor was limited to service workers, recent research has shown that the fit between emotional job-demands and abilities to fulfill them plays an important role in predicting an employee's work attitudes and behaviors across several occupational types (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). Thus, an organization and its members which better understand the emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit and its possible antecedents and consequences, will more likely strengthen and improve an organization's and an individual's competitiveness.

For the past two decades, many studies have adopted the job demands-control (JD-C) theory (Karasek, 1979) and the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) in understanding and explaining the relationship of emotional job-demands to other variables along with personal abilities and resources. Based on two heterogeneous backgrounds of stress and motivation research (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011), the JD-C and JD-R model propose that the negative effect of job demands (i.e., emotional demands of a job) on organizational outcomes can be attenuated or even positively converted when an employee's resources (i.e., knowledge, abilities, skills) better match those demands. Based on these two theories, previous research has used two independent measures of emotional demands

of a job and an individual's abilities. Research with these assessments suggests that more favorable outcomes occur for an individual and an organization when an employee's abilities better fit emotional demands of a job (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, & Fischbach, 2013). Further, this finding is comparable to what has been found and argued by research on several types of fit such as person-organization (P-O) fit, person-group (P-G) fit, and person-job (P-J) fit; better fit results in more positive outcomes.

Although research on emotional labor to date has increasingly enlarged and improved our knowledge of it, the advent of the new concept of emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit is expected to further research and knowledge on emotional labor and fit perception as well, thereby providing new opportunities and challenges for researchers in organizational behaviors (OB). Recently, Diefendorff, Greguras, and Fleenor (2016) introduced the notion of perceived emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit, defined as an individual's perception of the congruence or fit between emotional demands of a job and his or her abilities to fulfill these demands, together with its new measure. Since the construct of perceived ED-A fit is a recently conceptualized variable, only a few studies have been conducted up to date. Hence, there is much room for research on this new construct. Especially, given Hochschild's (1983) emphasis of the relation of emotional job-demands to an individual's abilities to meet them and the importance of their fit for organizational effectiveness and an employee's performance (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015), it is important and helpful for both researchers and management practitioners to discover possible predictors, consequences, and the underlying mechanism of perceived ED-A fit along with theoretical development and application.

First, as far as possible predictors of perceived ED-A fit are concerned, it is essential to research an individual's attitudes to his or her job (i.e., psychological ownership of a job; Pierce,

Kostova, & Dirks, 2001). As Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016) conceptualize, ED-A fit refers to an individual's judgment of the degree to which an individual successfully meets emotional demands required in his or her job. Accordingly, to measure a perceived ED-A fit is to evaluate an individual's perception of the match or fit between him- or herself and their occupational characteristics (Humphrey et al., 2015). Therefore, in attempts to find predictors of ED-A fit, it is necessary to look into how a perception of one's job influences one's assessment of how well one can fulfill emotional demands required in that job.

In this study, I test the effect of an individual's psychological ownership (PO) of a job on his or her perceived ED-A fit. Psychological ownership of a job (POJ) refers to an individual's thought and belief that the job is "Mine" including various aspects of the job (Pierce et al., 2001). According to Pierce and colleagues (2001), PO motivates people to invest more energy and resources to the target of ownership (i.e., a job). PO also reflects a feeling of efficacy which makes people believe that they are better able to control or influence the target of ownership (Dawkins, Tian, Newman, & Martin, 2017). Thus, POJ is expected to lead an individual to evaluate their perception of ED-A fit more favorably because POJ may improve an individual's ability to fulfill emotional demands of a job or can make him or her believe that they are better fulfilling, or controlling, those emotions. Through investigating a possible relationship of POJ to ED-A fit, this study will contribute to the area of research on ED-A fit as it shows the causal link between an individual's attitude towards an emotional occupation and his or her evaluation of how well they meet emotional requirements of a job.

Second, considering the fact that the concept of ED-A fit has been recently introduced and thus research has not yet tried to investigate a mechanism underlying the relationship between any of its antecedents and a perception of ED-A fit, research to find a mediator in this

relationship will contribute to future studies on ED-A fit. As Baron and Kenny (1986) argue, a mediation variable plays a role to reveal why or how a predictor has an effect on an outcome variable. Therefore, it follows that finding a mediator in the relationship of a possible predictor (i.e., POJ) to ED-A fit can better clarify a causal direction in this relation. Furthermore, an understanding of the mechanism of ED-A fit will help researchers better understand the relations of ED-A fit to work attitudes and behaviors as ED-A fit's outcome variables.

To find possible mediators in the POJ-ED-A fit relationship, it is important to note that emotional demands of a job vary depending on display rules of a job. For example, employees working in a service sector (i.e., salesperson, waiter/waitress, etc.) are usually required to display positive emotions to customers, those with a caring job (i.e., nurse) are to show sympathy, or even sadness, and those with a control job (i.e., guard) are to demonstrate anger and even aggressive emotions (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). As a result, an individual's judgment of how able he or she is to meet emotional demands of a job is basically contingent on how well they perform display rules of a job. Given the positive characteristics of POJ in relation to a target job, an individual's POJ will positively influence an individual's commitment to display rules and thereby improve his or her evaluation of ED-A fit. Thus, in this study I test whether and how commitment to display rules mediates the relationship of POJ to ED-A fit.

Third, it is important to look into how an employee's ED-A fit influences his or her work attitudes and behaviors. Regarding an employee's work behaviors in relation to emotional job-demands, Hochschild (1983) suggests surface acting and deep acting as two major forms of emotional labor to cope with emotional job-demands. In this regard, Grandey (2003) emphasized the importance of understanding of how employees behave in satisfying emotional requirements of a job and how these behaviors relate to their emotional depletion. Additionally, Kristof-Brown

and her colleagues (2005) suggest that the investigation of effects of different fit types (i.e., P-O fit, P-G fit, P-J fit, etc.) on other individual outcome variables (i.e., customer-oriented behavior, emotional exhaustion) can contribute to revealing a true effect of fit perception on an employee's attitudes and behaviors at work. Therefore, I test the effect of an individual's perception of ED-A fit on those two types of emotional labor and emotional exhaustion.

Last, but more importantly, this study examines the underlying mechanism of the aforementioned whole process from POJ to emotional labor and depletion. I expect that employees' POJ will have an effect on their emotional labor and exhaustion first through CDR and then via their ED-A fit, sequentially. In addition, in this study a personal difference in employee-customer identification (ECID) is considered as a boundary condition for those indirect relationships. ECID refers to the degree to which an employee identifies him- or herself with their customers (Anaza & Rutherford, 2012). By applying the concept of ECID to the context of emotional labor (i.e., service industries), this study attempts to examine how an individual's difference moderates the effect of POJ on ED-A fit as well as the relations of POJ to emotional labor and exhaustion via CDR and ED-A fit.

To sum up, the present study has four main goals in attempts to conduct research on a newly developed construct, that is, perceived ED-A fit. First, it probes how an employee's psychological ownership of a job (POJ), which represents an individual's attitude toward a job, influences his or her evaluation of the fit between emotional job-demands and their abilities to meet those demands. Second, it attempts to reveal the underlying mechanism in the POJ-ED-A fit relation by testing a mediator role of CDR. Third, it looks into the effect of an individual's ED-A fit on his or her emotional labor and exhaustion. Last, it examines not only the mediation effect of CDR on the relation of POJ to ED-A fit, but also the sequential mediation effect of

CDR and ED-A fit on the whole processes from POJ to emotional labor and depletion, while simultaneously considering a boundary condition of ECID for those relationships. Thus, this study will contribute to the area of research on perceived ED-A fit by revealing its job-related antecedent, its underlying mechanism, its relation to emotional labor and depletion and a boundary condition of ECID in those relationships. Taken together several relations among aforementioned variables in this study, the research model is suggested in Figure 1 (See Appendix A for the research model in Figure 1).

In the following chapters, I will first review all of existent studies as for ED-A fit. Only a few studies have been conducted on this construct because the concept of ED-A fit was recently developed by Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016). Second, I will discuss the important findings from previous research on emotional job-demands and personal resources which represent an individual's abilities to meet those demands. Review of these empirical findings and their implications can offer a broader comprehension of the association of emotional job-demands with abilities to fulfill these demands. Third, I will review key characteristics of POJ and important findings in previous research on POJ together with a concept of CDR. Fourth, I will provide a theoretical argument and hypotheses as for the effect of ED-A fit on surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion. Last, the simple mediation hypothesis and the sequential mediation model of CDR and ED-A fit will be proposed as a research model of this study while including an individual's difference in ECID as a boundary condition in this model.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this chapter, I review the literature of perceived ED-A fit. Given the fact that the construct of perceived ED-A fit was recently introduced by Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016), I review all the past studies which are unpublished in a journal and briefly mention the concept of, research findings of, or future directions for ED-A fit research. The summary of these studies is provided in Table 1 (See Appendix A for Table 1).

Perceived ED-A fit

Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016) are the first who introduced and empirically validated the construct of perceived ED-A fit, although their research on it has been already cited in other studies (i.e., Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Humphrey et al., 2015) while Diefendorff and his colleagues' (2016) article was in press. They define the perceived ED-A fit as an individual's perception of fit or congruence between emotional demands of a job and his or her abilities to meet those demands. It is generally considered that emotional job-demands can include feeling rules, emotional display rules, demands needed to regulate emotion, and the frequency, duration, and intensity of events or situations that elicit emotions in individual employees (Brief & Weiss, 2002). According to Diefendorff and colleagues (2016), Emotional abilities can include an individual's personality traits, dispositional affectivity, emotional cognition and regulation capability, emotional expressivity and intelligence, and coping skills. More importantly, the key facet of emotional abilities is an individual employee's belief of whether he or she has an ability to fulfill emotional demands required in their job.

As seen in Table 1, Diefendorff and colleagues (2016) showed in their study that the construct of perceived ED-A fit is distinctively valid in comparison with other person-

environment (P-E) fit constructs such as job demands-abilities (D-A), needs-supplies (N-S), person-organization (P-O), person-group (P-G), and person-supervisor (P-S) fit. They also demonstrated that perceived ED-A fit can incrementally predict some of key work attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, need satisfaction, work tension, burnout, job performance, and felt inauthenticity.

Gabriel and her colleagues (2015) tested whether perceived ED-A fit plays a role of an antecedent in differentiating among five emotional labor profiles such as non-actor, low-actor, surface-actor, deep actor, and regulator. As a result of their latent profile analysis, perceived ED-A fit was found to distinguish between non-actor and other emotional labor profiles such as low-, surface-, deep-actor and regulator whereas it was not statistically significant in discriminating among these four profiles.

Using the measure of perceived ED-A fit invented by Diefendorff et al. (2016), Ahmed (2018) tested in her master's thesis whether its effect on job satisfaction and customer service behavior is mediated by emotional regulation strategies such as natural expression, deep acting, and surface acting. She found that natural and deep acting strategies significantly mediate the effect of perceived ED-A fit on job satisfaction and customer service behavior, while surface acting is not significant in mediating its effects on both outcome variables.

More recently, Hwang and Han (2019) investigated the mediation effect of perceived ED-A fit on the relationship between positive psychological capital (PsyCap) and emotional displays based on the JD-R theory. Using a sample of airline ground staff and supervisors, they found that perceived ED-A fit significantly mediates the effect of PsyCap on emotional expressions such as friendly and warm emotional display. Furthermore, they found that customer-related social stressors moderate the effect of ED-A fit on positive affective expression

such that the relationship between ED-A fit and positive display becomes stronger when employees experience more customer-related social stressors.

In addition to these empirical studies, Grandey and Gabriel (2015) made a brief comment in their review on emotional labor abilities that perceived ED-A fit is one of new approaches in the area of emotional labor research together with Diefendorff and colleagues' (2016) findings. Humphrey and colleagues (2015) also briefly introduced Diefendorff and colleagues' (2016) and Gabriel and colleagues' (2015) findings in their review on emotional labor.

Emotional Demands and Personal Resources

Before discussing the hypothesized model concerning ED-A fit, I review previous studies which addressed emotional demands and abilities to fulfill them independently, and summarize main findings and outcomes from these studies. This review is helpful to better understand how the fit between emotional job-demands and abilities to meet them is related to an employee's work attitudes and behaviors. Although past researchers dealt with these two constructs independently, they essentially argue that a fit or match between emotional job-demands and abilities has a positive (negative) effect on desirable (undesirable) work attitudes and behaviors, while their misfit causes negative outcomes for individuals, leading to decreased performance. The summary of these studies is proposed in Table 2 (See Appendix A for Table 2).

Research on Emotional Demands and Job Resources

As Table 2 shows, previous research which deals with emotional job-demands and job resources separately suggests that the interaction of these two variables plays a key role in predicting an employee's work attitudes and behaviors. It applies and extends the JD-C theory (Karasek, 1979) to implying the effect of fit between emotional job-demands and abilities on

organizational outcomes. The JD-C theory argues that, when an employee is able to fulfill his or her job demands, they are more likely to experience less physical and psychological strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), thereby demonstrating a high level of job performance and satisfaction. Likewise, past studies which measured emotional demands of a job and an employee's abilities to meet them independently have shown that an employee's abilities (i.e., emotional intelligence, job control, autonomy, self-esteem, optimism, etc.) can attenuate the negative effect of emotional demands on burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Le Blanc, Bakker, Peeters, van Heesch, & Schaufeli, 2001; Peng, Wong, & Che, 2010; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), distress (Tuckey & Hayward, 2011; Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2012), and work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al, 2013). These findings suggest that the fit between emotional demands of a job and abilities to meet them plays an important role in determining an employee's work attitudes and behaviors.

However, there is a difference between the construct of perceived ED-A fit (Diefendorff et al, 2016) and the fit which is indirectly derived from separate measures of emotional job-demands and an employee's abilities. Although emotional job-demands and abilities in the latter case of an indirect fit are measured by a respondent, namely, an employee, the fit between those two constructs is ultimately analyzed by a researcher. Therefore, this indirectly derived fit does not consider an employee's own evaluation or judgment of the fit between emotional demands of a job and his or her abilities to meet those demands.

Diefendorff and colleagues (2016) are focused on how an individual evaluates or perceives a fit between those two constructs. According to Kristof-Brown and Billsberry (2013), perceived ED-A fit belongs to a direct fit perception, while a derived fit is an indirect fit which is computed on the basis of independent measures of an employee and his or her work environment

(Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). They argue that these two constructs are complementary for each other, but what the direct fit perception measures is different from what the construct of indirect fit assesses. Moreover, direct fit perception (i.e., ED-A fit) is considered to be a better measure of an individual's decision making and play a role of a better predictor of various outcomes (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

Psychological Ownership (PO)

Psychological ownership (PO) is an individual's perception that one possesses a target object regardless of the physical existence of that target object (Pierce et al., 2001). In other words, PO represents the degree to which one feels that a target object is one's own thing. For example, people can have the psychological ownership towards various objects such as a toy, a seat in a restaurant, a strategic idea, a specific job, an entire organization, etc. (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2009; Gelman, Manczak, & Noles, 2012). Thus, an employee can form a perception or feeling that his or her current job is their own possession, that is, psychological ownership of a job (POJ), including various factors of that job (Dawkins et al., 2017; Pierce et al., 2001).

According to Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks (2001, 2003), three motives work for people to develop their PO. These motivational forces are efficacy, self-identity, and a sense of possessing a space. First, efficacy, or self-efficacy, refers to an individual's belief that he or she has an ability or power to do a given task (Bandura, 1997). A sense of power or control over a target object of ownership can increase self-efficacy which in turn should improve PO of that object (Pierce, O'Driscoll, & Coghlan, 2004). Second, a target object of ownership functions as a symbol with which people define and identify themselves (Dittmar, 1992; Rousseau, 1998). As

proposed in the social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), it is a basic motivational need for people to identify themselves with their work environment or its related factors. Through the process of identifying the self with a target object of ownership, people can better clarify a sense of the self, develop PO of that target, and perceive the target object as their extended self (Pierce et al., 2003). Last, the third motive of PO is a need for belongingness. People tend to possess a target object to meet their belongingness need (Ardrey, 1966; Avey et al., 2009). For example, an organizational member's need for belongingness is satisfied when he or she perceives or feels that they are the owner of their organization. Further, they may satisfy the need for belongingness to the company through forming PO towards their job, department, or whole organization (Avey et al., 2009).

These motives of an individual's PO (i.e., efficacy, self-identity, territorial possession) contribute to the emergence of PO through three underlying causes. As the main causes of PO, Pierce and his colleagues (2001) originally propose an individual's ability to control a target object of possession, intimate knowledge of the target, and investment of the self into it. When people can use and control certain objects, they perceive those objects as part of themselves (Dixon & Street, 1957; McClelland, 1951). Similarly, Furby (1978) argues that people think of a target object as part of themselves to the degree which they can control it. Therefore, employees will develop their job-oriented PO, namely POJ, as they make more use of and exercise more control over their job or job-related factors.

People also form their PO towards a target object to the extent which they acquire knowledge of the target and thereby become more familiar with it (Pierce et al., 2001). As they build up more information and knowledge of a target object based on their relation to that object, they perceive more of the self as combined with it, resulting in a higher level of PO towards it. In

addition, Pierce and colleagues (2001) emphasize that both the intensity and the length of a person-object relationship play an important role in determining an individual's PO of a target object. Thus, an employee will shape POJ as they are assigned a certain job, spend more and more time in performing it, come to know more of it, and thereby perceive it as part of themselves.

Third, PO can be formed through an investment of physical and psychological energy into a certain object such as a certain job, a strategic plan, and an organization (Jussila & Tuominen, 2010; Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce & Jussila, 2011). Once people spend their effort and energy in making a certain object, they feel that they own that object (Locke, 1690). It is because they regard the object which they create as the representation of themselves or part of themselves (Pierce et al., 2001). Thus, an employee can and will develop his or her POJ through investing their mental and physical energy into their job and its various factors.

Many studies have been conducted on the effect of PO on an individual's attitudes and behaviors along with PO's motivational influence. Research has shown that an individual's PO has a positive effect on desirable work attitudes. For example, PO has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment (Mayhew, Ashkanasy, Bramble, & Gardner, 2007; Sieger, Bernhard, & Frey, 2011) and to enhance an employee's organizational commitment and self-esteem (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

Concerning its relation to work behaviors, Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) show that PO positively affects job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The positive effect of organizational members' PO on their OCB was also found among public workers (Park, Song, Yoon, & Kim, 2013). Some studies show its positive effect on organizational members' knowledge sharing (Han, Chiang, & Chang, 2010; Peng & Pierce, 2015), strategic behaviors

(Ikävalko, Pihkala, & Kraus, 2010), and emotional laborers' caring behavior (Kaur, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2013), while other studies show its negative impact on their burnout (Kaur et al., 2013). As found in previous research, an employee's PO is positively related to desirable work attitudes and behaviors. In this regard, Pierce and Jussila (2011) argue that job-oriented PO can lead employees to experience a positive emotion in relation to their job and to evaluate their job and job contexts more favorably.

Still, despite much research on PO, many management scholars are requesting to further research and theories on the effect of PO on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors together with possible boundary conditions for the PO-work outcome relationship (Avey et al., 2009; Dawkins et al., 2017; Wang, Law, Zhang, Li, & Liang, 2019). Indeed, it seems difficult to find empirical studies on the relationship between the PO of employees in various service sectors (i.e., call-center workers, sales representatives, waiter/waitress) and their perception towards other organizational factors and work attitudes and behaviors although researchers in the area of medical care (i.e., nurse) have relatively much conducted PO-related studies. Hence, in this study I pay attention to the effect of a service worker's POJ on diverse organizational outcomes; especially, on a service worker's evaluation of his or her ED-A fit which has been recently invented and introduced in the OB area.

Chapter 3: Hypothesis Development

ED-A fit and PO of a job (POJ)

Perceived emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit refers to an individual's evaluation or judgment of the match between emotional demands required in a job and an individual's abilities to fulfill those demands (Diefendorff et al., 2016). As one of P-E fit perceptions, ED-A fit functions as a complementary fit in that people form a perception of ED-A fit when they believe that they can offset requirements of their environment (Kristof, 1996). Job demands can be viewed as these environmental requirements which an employee should fulfill and vary depending on his or her job and work role. A perception of how well an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities fit those demands refers to an individual's evaluation of demands-abilities (D-A) fit (Edwards & DeRue, 2002). In the same vein, Diefendorff and colleagues (2016) view ED-A fit as a facet-focused D-A fit at a job-level in that ED-A fit addresses specific work-related activities or tasks such as serving customers in a restaurant, answering consumers' calls at a call-center, and guiding visitors in an amusement park; it focuses on how well an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities match a variety of emotional demands of his or her job; and it reflects an individual's job and job related factors (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Although research on ED-A fit is short of empirical findings due to its recent advent, a few of studies offer a fundamental insight into the relationships of ED-A fit to important organizational variables. First, as discussed in reviewing past studies of ED-A fit, perceived ED-A fit holds its discriminant validity compared to other types of fit such as D-A, needs-supplies (N-S), and person-group (P-G) fit (Diefendorff et al., 2016). Second, research has shown that ED-A fit significantly predicts some of key organizational variables such as job satisfaction, burnout, and job performance (Diefendorff et al., 2016) and that it affects job satisfaction and

customer service behavior through emotional regulation strategies (i.e., natural and deep acting; Ahmed, 2018). Third, ED-A fit plays a role of the mediator which links positive psychological capital (PsyCap) to emotional displays such as friendly and warm emotional expressions (Hwang & Han, 2019). Thus, some of key work attitudes and behaviors are found to be influenced by an individual's perception that he or she is able to successfully meet and fulfill emotional demands of their job. Indeed, these findings support the main argument of fit research that better fit results in better outcomes for organizations and employees.

Given the fact that research on ED-A fit is at its early stage with only a few findings about its relation to other variables, it is necessary to find its possible predictors and an underlying mechanism of its relations to other important variables. In this regard, I start with Hwang and Han's (2019) research which shows that PsyCap can play a role of ED-A fit's antecedent. Further, I draw on the mere ownership effect (Beggan, 1992), the theory of JD-R (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), and conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) to better comprehend how an individual's POJ affects his or her ED-A fit.

Hwang and Han (2019) tested the effect of PsyCap on a service employee's emotional expressions such as delivery of positive affect and negative moods to customers through ED-A fit. They found that PsyCap has a positive effect on ED-A fit and, through ED-A fit, positively influences a service worker's positive emotional display, or positive affective delivery. In their study, emotional laborers (i.e., service employees) with a high level of PsyCap were found to more effectively react to and deal with job requirements (i.e., emotional job-demands), thereby forming a more favorable perception of ED-A fit. Hwang and Han (2019) argue that four components of PsyCap such as efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004) can make people enhance their confidence in addressing difficulties at work

(efficacy), find better alternative options and solutions to fulfill job requirements (hope), recover themselves more easily from challenges and adversities at a workplace (resilience), and keep their positive belief for future outcomes and results (optimism), thus motivating people to put more energy into their job and more favorably evaluating the congruence between emotional job-demands and their abilities to fulfill those demands, namely, ED-A fit.

An employee may also form a better perception of ED-A fit by POJ which refers to a sense of owning a job and job-related factors (Pierce et al., 2001). Specifically, people may more favorably evaluate the fit between emotional demands required in a job and their abilities to meet these demands because of the mere ownership effect of POJ on an individual's judgment of a job and job-related characteristics. According to Beggan (1992), the mere ownership effect explains that simply owning an object makes an owner of the object evaluate it and its other attributes (i.e., quality, value, and attractiveness of an object) more favorably and attractively. Further, when people possess an object, they consider the object as part of themselves and then the object owned by them serves as a means by which they define themselves (Belk, 1988; James, 1890). Beggan (1992) also argues that this psychological link of an object to the self activates a self-enhancement bias, thus leading an owner to evaluate or perceive the object and its attributes as more positive and attractive. In other words, as proposed by a self-enhancement bias that people tend to rate their own personalities and abilities more positively (Krueger, 1998), people perceive or evaluate the object as being more favorable and attractive because they regard it as what represents and defines themselves. Tajfel and Turner (1986) also argues that people tend to more positively perceive and evaluate an object which is similar to or identified with them.

Research has shown the evidence of the mere ownership effect on forming a positive or favorable evaluation of a target object of ownership. For example, when Heider (1958) argues

the effect of mere ownership on an individual's preference of an object, he draws on Irwin and Gebhard's (1946) studies. Irwin and Gebhard (1946) found in their empirical studies with children aged eight to nineteen that most of children demonstrated a higher level of liking of an object which they owned than other unowned objects. Hoorens and her colleagues (1990) and Nuttin (1985) found that people form a greater liking of alphabet letters used in their name. In addition, as argued by Beggan (1992), some research on the endowment effect (Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1990; Morewedge, Shu, Gilbert, & Wilson, 2009; Reb & Connolly, 2007; Shu & Peck, 2011) shows the mere ownership effect in an indirect way. The endowment effect suggests that people are less likely to exchange an object with other things but more likely to keep holding it once they own it (Kahneman et al., 1990). These studies show that people evaluate or perceive the same amount of a gain and a loss as being different. More specifically, people tend to judge a loss of a certain amount more negatively, while they rate a gain of the corresponding amount more positively (Tversky & Kahneman, 1992). Indeed, Shu and Peck (2011) revealed that the endowment effect leads an individual to place more value on his or her possessions via a psychological ownership. Although the endowment effect assumes a contextual restriction (i.e., selling or exchange condition) concerning an object of ownership, research has shown that a more positive or favorable evaluation of an object is made simply when the object is possessed.

As discussed above, an employee with a high level of POJ will form a more favorable evaluation of their ED-A fit by perceiving their job and its emotional demands as having more positive characteristics (i.e., beneficial, rewarding, helpful for a career) than negative factors (i.e., frustrating, stressful, difficult) and at the same time judging their related abilities (i.e.,

skills, knowledge) to meet these demands as more positive as well. Therefore, considering the positive effect of POJ on ED-fit, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: An individual's POJ is positively related to his or her perceived ED-A fit.

POJ and Commitment to Display Rules (CDR)

An individual's commitment leads him or her to show behavioral and attitudinal consistency (Becker, 1960) and the construct of display rules in emotional labor studies refers to organizational norms and standards for appropriate emotional expressions to others (Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006; Goldberg & Grandey; 2007). Accordingly, commitment to display rules (CDR) can be conceptualized as an individual's motivational state to consistently deliver to his or her counterparts a set of particular emotions which an organization regards as desirable and effective for organizational success. Similarly, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) define CDR as an intention which motivates people to make more efforts to persistently express "organizationally desired emotions" even in a challenging situation.

Although it is generally considered that most of organizations require its members to deliver positive emotions to customers, an organization's display rules can differ in its contextual conditions under which organizational members engage in emotional labor. For example, some service workers (i.e., servers in a restaurant, guides at an amusement park, sales representatives) are typically required and trained to express positive emotions to customers. Other service workers who engage in caring jobs (i.e., doctors, funeral directors) or social control professions (i.e., police, judges, bill collectors) are oftentimes supposed to demonstrate different emotions such as sympathy and concern or aggressive emotions, respectively. These different emotional requirements may restrict the generalizability of research on emotional display rules as well as

emotional labor across organizational and occupational types. However, in that CDR means the extent to which an employee is motivated to be committed to an organization's display rules regardless of a category of emotional labor (Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008), research on CDR will make more contributions to emotion research by offering more generalizable insight into an understanding of emotional labor.

CDR can be more clearly defined from the perspective of the construct of commitment (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Commitment to a particular target is conceptualized as a psychological state which motivates people to maintain and strengthen their attitudinal and behavioral consistency in relation to a target object (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1991). For example, people with a high level of organizational commitment are more likely to feel more congruence between their personal values and goals and those of their organization, maintain their organizational membership, and engage in behaviors viewed as helpful for their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997). Concerning the relationship between commitment to an organization and the psychological ownership of an organization, Vandewalle, Van Dyne, and Kostova (1995) found that an employee's PO of an organization positively influences their commitment to the organization and thereby affects their extra-role behavior at workplaces. By the same token, CDR can be conceptualized as a psychological state which motivates people to maintain and strengthen their attitudinal and behavioral consistency in relation to emotional display rules in workplaces.

As suggested in the relationship between organization-based PO and organization-oriented commitment, I expect that a service employee's POJ can affects his or her CDR because display rules and POJ are all grounded in the same target, namely, their job and its related aspects. Specifically, a service employee's POJ can have a positive effect on his or her display

rules commitment. Similar to Vandewalle and colleagues' (1995) finding, Mayhew and her colleagues (2007) more recently found that the PO of an organization positively influences an employee's commitment to an organization. They argue that people with a high level of organization-based PO consider their organization as an extended part of themselves (Pierce, Rubenfeld, & Morgan, 1991) and thus think of the disconnection between an organization and them as a loss of the self. Hence, these people are more committed to their organization so that they can keep their connection to an organization and avoid an unfavorable outcome, that is, a loss of the self. In this regard, Florkowski (1987) argues that employees who experience organization-based PO from a profit-sharing policy are more likely to form an increased commitment to their organization. Pierce and his colleagues (1991) also propose that the PO of an organization plays a key role to predict organizational commitment and, through it, affects work attitudes and behaviors in a positive way. Thus, as organization-based PO is tied to organization-oriented commitment, emotional laborers (i.e., service workers) with a high level of POJ are expected to show a high level of commitment to display rules because job-based PO and job-oriented commitment are both formed around a same job and the emotional display rules of a job are a key factor of their emotional job (Hochschild, 1983).

Job-based PO, namely POJ, may positively affect CDR because POJ functions as one of important psychological resources from the perspective of Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources (COR) model. According to Hobfoll (1988, 2002), the COR theory assumes that people are basically motivated to "obtain, retain, and protect resources." It argues that people experience stress when they perceive possible or real loss of resources or when they do not recover the previous level of resource reservoirs after expending a certain amount of resources. As Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) propose, POJ reflects one's control of a job, familiarity with a

job, and perception of a job as the extended self. People with a high level of POJ are motivated to maintain or enhance their control of, intimacy with, and identity with a job. To achieve and maintain this level of motivational resources (i.e., controllability, intimate knowledge, self-identity), they will likely put more energy and efforts to follow display rules and remain persistent in expressing these emotional requirements even under challenging contexts. By doing so, they can feel that they control a job, come to know a job more intimately, and keep self-identity with a job. In addition, as Mayhew and her colleagues (2007) argue about the relationship between organization-based PO and organizational commitment, CDR will prevent those high in POJ from experiencing a loss of the self and disconnection from their job by maintaining their perception of a job as an extended part of themselves (Pierce et al, 1991). Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2: An individual's POJ is positively related to his or her CDR.

CDR and ED-A fit

Research on emotional labor has shown that a perception of display rules has a significant effect on an employee's use of emotional regulation strategies, job performance, work attitudes, and psychological well-being. For instance, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that a perception of display rules is linked to a sense of personal accomplishment. They revealed that an employee's perception of positive display rules is positively related to his or her personal accomplishment when they engage in a deep acting which is the emotional regulation strategy to align desired emotional displays to an individual's internal feeling, while surface acting which means modifying only external expressions is related to an employee's burnout. Rafaeli and Sutton (1991) showed that although much research was focused on positive emotional display

and related display rules, the police's and bill collectors' perception of display rules regarding the use of contrasting emotions (i.e., positive and negative emotion) predict their job performance (i.e., compliance from others). Diefendorff and Richard (2003) also found that an employee's perception of display rules leads to a high level of job satisfaction and more positive ratings by colleagues of his or her emotional expressions on the job. As shown in these studies, it is generally argued that employees endeavor to fulfill emotional demands of a job when they perceive an organization's norms or standards for emotions which an organization requires for its effectiveness and competitiveness.

As suggested above, a perception of display rules of an organization has a significant effect on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, emotional exhaustion). However, as Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) argue, an employee's CDR can play a more critical role in the relationship between display rules and work attitudes and behaviors. They found that, even when faced with more display rules required by an organization, people with a high level of CDR make more use of emotion regulation strategies (i.e., natural expression, deep acting) to meet emotional display requirements and express positive affect. As a result, it will lead to better job performance and organizational effectiveness. They also found that CDR is negatively correlated with an employee's surface acting, while positively with deep acting. This finding implies that CDR can keep employees from experiencing emotional dissonance, or can reduce it, by motivating him or her to consistently align their authentic emotions to what an organization requires its employees to display towards customers, that is, display rules.

By decreasing emotional dissonance, CDR may lead employees to perceive a better fit between emotional demands of a job and their abilities to fulfill those demands. During the

process of emotional labor towards customers, employees constantly compares their emotional expressions with an organization's norms and standards of emotional display to ensure that they are displaying appropriate emotions to their customers (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). When they perceive a discrepancy between their emotional display and the standards or requirements of emotional displays through this evaluative comparison, they adopt emotion regulation strategies to decrease this perceived gap (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Further, because an individual with a high level of CDR is more motivated to, consistently and persistently, align his or her emotional displays to desired display rules (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005), they are likely to experience less discrepancy between emotions displayed by them and those required by their organization. As a result of reduced or less discrepancy between emotional display and display rules, they will likely perceive or believe that they are more able to meet emotional demands of a job. Therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: An individual's CDR will be positively related to ED-A fit.

ED-A fit and Emotional Labor and Depletion

As for how an employee's ED-A fit influences his or her emotional labor and depletion, I argue that a perception of more favorable ED-A fit formed by POJ motivates employees to engage in the more authentic form of emotional labor, that is, deep acting, while it prevents them from engaging in response-focused emotional labor, surface acting. Further, I argue that a perception of better ED-A fit results in less emotional depletion because an individual who perceives a more favorable ED-A fit is more likely to experience less emotional dissonance and thereby less likely to lose psychological resources.

According to Hochschild (1983), most of service workers engage in emotional labor toward customers mainly through surface acting and/or deep acting. She defines surface acting as one of the emotional labor strategies in which service employees deceive their customers about their actual feeling, while they do not deceive themselves. In contrast, deep acting is defined as another method of emotional labor in which these employees try to align their actual feeling to a set of emotions required in their job by transforming the former to the latter.

Grandey (2000) argues on the basis of Gross' (1988) process model that surface acting conforms to response-focused emotional regulation as an employee who engages in surface acting is focused on managing observable expressions by adjusting or faking his or her displayed emotions. In contrast, she argues that deep acting represents antecedent-focused emotional regulation as an employee who engages in deep acting tries to modify their situational perception or emotional response to their situation. Furthermore, based on the model of emotional labor (Grandey, 2000), she suggests that employees are more likely to experience emotional depletion (i.e., emotional exhaustion) when they are overly engaged in the processes of surface acting and deep acting, possibly resulting in negative outcomes for an individual's physical and mental health as well as organizational effectiveness.

ED-A fit, Surface Acting, and Deep Acting

As for ED-A fit and its impact on emotional labor, I argue that when employees perceive that emotional demands of their job do not match their abilities to meet those demands, they are more likely to engage in response-focused emotional regulation, or surface acting, by focusing on managing observable expressions by faking their emotional expressions.

Earlier, I explained that a perception of ED-A fit refers to an individual's evaluation of the congruence between emotional demands required in his or her job and their abilities to meet those requirements. Accordingly, employees who are low in ED-A fit are more likely to perceive a larger gap or more discrepancy between their emotional job-demands and abilities to satisfy these demands. Specifically, these employees will more likely experience this discrepancy and gap when their job requests them to display a set of emotions which do not match with their natural emotional tendencies (Diefendorff et al., 2016) or with their abilities to express those emotions. In these contexts, those low in ED–A fit may need to display emotions which they have to express against their true selves or to spend more physical and psychological effort to deliver in the way desired by an organization. For example, waiters or waitresses who are less agreeable may have to continuously have a smile towards customers; nurses who are low in their emotional stability (or high in neuroticism) may have to keep calm in an emergency situation; and sales representatives high in introversion may have to continuously display positive emotions to their customers. Thus, employees who are low in ED–A fit may become faced with situations in which they have to subdue their actual feelings and emotions and to engage in inauthentic emotional display towards customers.

About the relationship of discrepancy in a fit perception or misfit to inauthentic emotional display, there are previous studies which provide indirect evidence to show the effect of misfit on surface acting. According to Kammeyer-Mueller and colleagues (2013) and Mesmer-Magnus and colleagues (2012), employees high in negative affect tend to engage more in surface acting which represents the inauthentic form of emotional labor, while those high in positive affect perform more deep acting. Given these findings, it follows that employees with a poor fit perception, or a larger discrepancy in ED-A fit, will experience negative affect more often than

will their counterparts who have a better ED-A fit, thereby engaging more in inauthentic emotional expression, namely, surface acting. Indeed, these findings and argument are consistent with the outcomes of fit research that better fit results in more favorable outcomes for individual employees.

In contrast, when employees have a high level of ED-A fit, they are more likely to engage in deep acting which is more authentic emotional display, while less likely to deceive their actual feelings and fake their emotional expressions toward customers. As opposed to reasoning about the relation of a poor ED-A fit and surface acting, employees high in ED-A fit will likely to perceive a good match, or less discrepancy, between emotional demands of a job and their abilities to fulfill these demands. Further, these employees will more likely encounter situations in which emotional demands required in their job are less inconsistent with their abilities to express those emotions. As a result, an employee with a good ED-A fit is more likely to display more genuine emotions by aligning their internal feelings to displayed emotions. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4: An individual's ED-A fit will be negatively related to surface acting.

Hypothesis 5: An individual's ED-A fit will be positively related to deep acting.

ED-A fit and Emotional Exhaustion

I further argue that an employee's ED-A fit has a negative effect on his or her emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is one of the signs of burnout which is caused by an employee's excessive involvement in customer interactions at work (Grandey, 2000). I expect that ED–A fit is negatively related to emotional exhaustion as an employee with a less favorable or poor ED-A fit is more likely to experience the depletion of an individual's physical and

mental energy. As Diefendorff and colleagues (2016) argue, an employee's perception of poor ED–A fit should place a greater need for an employee to "monitor and manage the emotional aspects of one's work" (2016: 20), possibly leading to more consumption of an individual's physical and mental resources otherwise used to perform a job. Thus, employees who have a perception of a poor fit or less favorable ED-A fit are likely to experience emotional exhaustion more easily than those with a more favorable perception of ED-A fit. Therefore, I hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 6: An individual's ED-A fit will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Commitment to Display Rules (CDR) as a Mediator

As developed earlier in the relationship of POJ to ED-A fit (Hypothesis 1), POJ to CDR (Hypothesis 2), and CDR and ED-A fit on the basis of a causal inference for a mediation process (Baron & Kenny, 1986), I expect that an employee's CDR mediates the effect of POJ on ED-A fit. Specifically, employees with a high level of POJ will be motivated to be more committed to display rules desired at work. Then, CDR will lead these employees to better fulfill emotional job demands such as positive emotional expressions towards customers by actively using emotion regulation strategies even under a pressure of more emotional requirements. For example, CDR motivates an employee to engage more in deep acting and thereby will likely result in less of emotional dissonance which may signal that he or she is more able to meet emotional demands of their job. Also, by strengthening the alignment between emotional displays and display rules, CDR will increase the possibility of these employees experiencing more of successful emotion regulation and more fulfillment of emotional job demands. Thus, even with more of emotional job demands, an employee with a high level of POJ will get a high

level of CDR and thereby form a perception of a better fit between emotional demands of a job and abilities to meet those demands. Thus, CDR is expected to mediate the relationship between POJ and ED-A fit.

In addition, as for whether emotional display rules are regarded as job demands or requirements, Diefendorff, Richard, and Croyle (2006) conducted an empirical study with college students working as part-timer and their managers and supervisors. They found that most of part-time workers and their managers consider emotional display-related behaviors to be organizationally required behaviors. This finding suggests that employees and their managers view emotional display rules as formal requirements of a job which are desired in their organizations. Zapf and Holz (2006) and Loi and colleagues (2016) also argue that emotional display rules are an organization's norms of an interpersonal interaction and they function as job demands for emotional laborers. Therefore, employees should perceive that they are more able to meet emotional job demands as they align more of their emotional expression to display rules which are desired or required at workplace.

Taken together, I hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 7: An individual's CDR will positively mediate the effect of POJ on ED-A fit.

Sequential Mediation of CDR and ED-A fit

As explained in the review of psychological ownership (PO), POJ has been found to positively influence desirable work attitudes and behaviors. According to Vandewalle and colleagues (1995), the construct of POJ reflects an individual's perception of responsibility for, interest in, and extended self-identity with a target job of PO. These characteristics of POJ can make people form more positive attitudes and engage more in desirable behaviors, while

reducing negative outcomes in workplaces. For example, research has shown that POJ has a positive effect on employees' work engagement (Ramos, Man, Mustafa, & Ng, 2014), customer-oriented behaviors (Kaure et al., 2013), job satisfaction (Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011; Peng & Pierce, 2015), and job performance (Mayhew et al, 2007; Wagner, Parker, & Christiansen, 2003), while it decreases their emotional exhaustion (Kaur et al., 2013).

Considering the positive effect of POJ on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors, the hypothesized relation of POJ to ED-A fit via CDR, and the proposed relations of ED-A fit to two forms of emotional labor as well as emotional exhaustion, I expect that CDR and ED-A fit sequentially mediate the effect of POJ on surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion. Similar to the results of research on the effect of POJ on work attitudes and behaviors, research on a fit perception indirectly suggests the positive effect of ED-A fit on desirable work attitudes and behaviors and the negative impact of ED-A fit on undesirable ones (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). For example, Kristof-Brown and her colleagues (2005) found in their meta-analysis of fit constructs that P-J fit has a positive correlation with positive organizational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance) and a negative correlation with negative work attitudes and behaviors (i.e., intent to quit, strain, turnover). As ED-A fit will cause employees to experience less emotional dissonance and discrepancies between emotional displays and display rules, it is more likely to increase genuine emotional display (deep acting), while decreasing inauthentic emotional expression (surface acting) and emotional burnout (emotional exhaustion).

To sum up, I expect that an employee's psychological ownership of a job will positively affect his or her commitment to display rules and, in turn, their commitment to display rules will improve ED-A fit. Then, these employees' ED-A fit will (1) negatively affect surface acting, (2)

positively influence deep acting, and (3) negatively impact emotional exhaustion. Thus, I propose the sequential mediation as follows:

Hypothesis 8a: CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the negative relationship between POJ and surface acting.

Hypothesis 8b: CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the positive relationship between POJ and deep acting.

Hypothesis 8c: CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the negative relationship between POJ and emotional exhaustion.

Employee-Customer Identification (ECID) as a Moderator

As hypothesized in the indirect relationship of POJ to those outcome variables through CDR and ED-A fit, I am mainly focused on an employee's attitude towards a job and the characteristics of a job. Specifically, I argue that POJ will activate a motivational process that leads an employee to experience CDR and thereby to form a perception of better ED-A fit. As a result of this process, an employee will engage in more authentic emotional labor (i.e., deep acting) and less likely experience a depletion of emotional resources. That said, I expect that the nature of these processes may be also influenced by relational factors which are focused on customers in that the service worker-customer relation is indispensable for the success of emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983). Given that a customer plays an important role in the success of service organizations (Anaza, 2015; Mittal & Lassar, 1996), I consider how the relationship of POJ to emotional labor and exhaustion via CDR and ED-A fit is affected by the degree to which an employee perceives a sameness with his or her customers, namely, employee-customer identification (ECID; Korschun, Bhattacharya, & Swain, 2014). In this regard, Cardador and

Pratt (2018) argue that management scholars have paid little attention to ECID despite its importance for organizational competitiveness. Indeed, Anaza (2015) mentioned that even marketing research has only recently started attending to the concep of ECID.

ECID is defined as the degree to which an employee identifies him- or herself with their clients and customers in workplaces (Anaza & Rutherford, 2012). Generally, employees who have a positive interpersonal relationship with customers are more likely to elicit more favorable responses (i.e., satisfaction, organizational loyalty) from their customers (Anaza, 2015). Then, these positive outcomes will motivate employees to engage in more positive, or authentic, service attitudes and behaviors, possibly leading to more benefit and competitiveness for organizations. For instance, Anaza and Rutherford (2012) found that employees with a high level of ECID engage in more of positive customer-oriented behaviors (i.e., improving a service quality) to satisfy customers' needs along with a higher level of job engagement than do those with a low level of ECID. Employees who got trained by an organization to better understand and accept customers' values and needs are found to be more committed to service works and job demands (Cardador & Pratt, 2018; Peccei & Rosenthal, 2000). Then, it follows that ECID should lead employees to show more desirable attitudes and behaviors at work by strengthening or enhancing their motivation to engage in jobs and to fulfill job-demands required for customer satisfaction. Commitment to job demands (i.e., emotional display rules), in turn, will lead to better ED-A fit by attenuating or removing emotional dissonance and discrepancy between what they have to demonstrate and what they actually feel from emotional labor.

Findings and implications of ECID research are in line with the main idea of the identity theory. Identity theory argues that people form a perception of the self through the meanings which they value on the basis of role relationships with other people (Stryker & Burke, 2000). In

this regard, Cardador and Pratt (2018) argue that, although social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) distinguishes employees and customers as in-group and out-group members respectively, customers can be viewed as essential to an employee's formation of the self-identity, especially in the case that an employee's roles at work are focused on customer service, which stands for emotional labor. As the identity theory suggests, once ECID is formed in a workplace it will differently affect an employee's motivational, attitudinal, and behavioral factors (Stets & Burke, 2000) to the degree which ECID becomes strong or weak.

Accordingly, I expect ECID to play a role of a moderator at the first stage where POJ is hypothesized to affect CDR, in turn leading to a perception of ED-A fit. Through this moderation process, ECID will positively contribute to positive outcomes for a more authentic form of emotional labor and indirectly reduce emotional exhaustion at work. Thus, I hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 9: ECID moderates the positive effect of POJ on CDR such that the effect of POJ becomes stronger when ECID is high.

Hypothesis 10a: The indirect negative relation between POJ and surface acting through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.

Hypothesis 10b: The indirect positive relation between POJ and deep acting through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.

Hypothesis 10c: The indirect negative relation between POJ and emotional exhaustion through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.

Chapter 4: Research Methods

Strategy for Data Collection

This study adopted a longitudinal research design in which participants responded to multiple survey questionnaires in multiple waves. This method of data collection can help this study to minimize possible common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) and to ensure causal inferences in the research model. Thus, this study adopted a four-wave survey design with a one-week time interval between each wave. Accordingly, the entire period for data collection amounted up to four weeks in total.

Study participants were recruited through Prolific which is an online crowdsourcing company. Through its messaging system, I sent a recruitment e-mail to theses participants in each wave. To obtain a quality dataset and minimize a possible loss of participants during the research period, I limited participation to only those employees with an approval rate of 90% or above from all prior tasks which they had received via Prolific. In addition, study participants were limited to only adult service workers whose nationality is the United States and who spend most of their workday interacting with customers. To motivate those workers to continue to participate not only in the first survey but also following surveys during an entire survey process, I offered participants a given amount of financial reward from $ 1.30 to $ 1.80 when they had completed each survey. After their responses to four questionnaires were collected from Time 1 to Time 4, these responses were matched with a participant's unique identification number assigned by Prolific.

Researchers may criticize that research findings and outcomes from the sample of service workers have a limited generalizability to other workers of non-service jobs and organizations in

various industries. But using service workers as a main sample in this study is still of benefit with respect to this study design and even the generalizability of research outcomes and findings.

First, given the fact that the research model and its proposed hypotheses are based on emotional labor-related variables (i.e., emotional demands-abilities fit, commitment to display rules, surface acting, deep acting), service employees are more appropriate to test the model of this study and its proposed hypotheses. These employees frequently encounter customers during their work time and are required to follow an organization's display rules at work. In this context they are generally considered to engage in emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting) and thereby called as an emotional laborer (Hochschild, 1983). Hence, using service employees as a target sample will improve similarity or congruence with the characteristics of main variables used in this study. As a result, this match between participants and variables in this research will be helpful to approach a better estimation of effect sizes.

Second, sampling service workers is still beneficial in generalizing outcomes and findings of this research although there may be some critiques regarding a limited generalizability of knowledge on service sectors to other occupational areas. Not only does service work involves emotional factors, but most of jobs and works generally include emotional labor and related components, and these factors are closely related to performance in most of jobs (Avey, Renz, & Watson, 1998). Indeed, research has shown that many organizational members think that displaying appropriate emotions is part of their roles at work (Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006). Accordingly, it follows that outcomes and findings from this sample are applicable and generalizable to other work environments. Those results will further help researchers and practitioners to better understand and address organizational phenomena in relation to emotional labor.

Although a meta-analysis study on ED-A fit does not exist because ED-A fit has been recently introduced, five empirical studies on it show that the absolute value of correlation coefficients of ED-A fit with other variables (i.e., job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, commitment to display rules, psychological capital, etc.) ranges from .12 to .53. Following Cohen's (1988) standard of effect size and recommendation of power, I considered the medium effect size and set up the value of power for this study at .80. With this conventional rule, the threshold of a sample size was considered to be at least 240 service workers in the moderated multiple regression method (Stone-Romero & Anderson, 1994).

Sample Description

The sample of participants were made up of employees who are currently working in various service industries. Also, this study restricted participation to only adult service workers in the United States who spend most of their workday interacting with customers.

At Time 1, participants were asked to respond to items measuring their levels of POJ, employment status, work type, work hours, demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, educational level), and control variables (i.e., job tenure, negative affect). At Time 2, one week after the first survey, they were asked to respond to items assessing their ECID and CDR at work. At Time 3, one week after the second survey, they were asked to respond to items assessing perceived ED-A fit. Last, the survey at Time 4, one week after the third survey, asked them to respond to items evaluating the level of their surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion. In each survey questionnaire from Time 1 to Time 4, participants were asked to answer a measure of CDR and that of ED-A fit to conduct a cross-lagged panel analysis for testing causal relations between CDR and ED-A fit. In addition, multiple items for attention check were used in every

survey questionnaire to screen out careless respondents. Diverse items to check a change in their work status (i.e., hold the same job, work for the same company) were included in the survey questionnaires from Time 2 to Time 4.

A total of 631 customer service employees completed our time 1 survey. Of those 631 respondents, twenty-one (21) respondents were considered to carelessly respond to the survey (i.e., they failed to pass at least one of three attention check items). As a result, 610 respondents who successfully completed the survey at Time 1 were contacted via Prolific one week later and invited to participate in the second survey. Five hundred thirty-nine (539) respondents finished the survey at Time 2. But thirty-eight (38) were deleted. Among these respondents, thirty-five (35) had a change in their job or organization, and three (3) failed an attention check. Accordingly, five hundred one (501) individuals who offered usable data at Time 2 were re-contacted one week later and invited to participate in the third survey. At Time 3, four hundred fifty-five (455) individuals completed the third survey. Out of 455 individuals, thirty-three (33) were removed because eleven (11) individuals failed an attention check and twenty-two (22) has a change in their work status. Four hundred twenty-two (422) participants who provided usable data at Time 3 were contacted one week later and invited to participate in the last survey. At Time 4, three hundred eighty (380) completed the last survey. But seventeen (17) individuals were removed due to their change in work status (14) and careless responses (3). Thus, the final sample was comprised of three hundred sixty-three (363) service workers who produced usable data at all four time points, resulting in a response rate of 45.4% compared to 800 respondents at Time 1.

The final sample was 47.7% male and 52.3% female respondents. Their average age was 35.1 years old and those respondents between 21 and 40 years old were 68.6% of the sample.

5.5% indicated they were between 18 and 20 years old, and 25.9% indicated they were over 40 years old. Participants with a bachelor's degree were 52.9%, high-school graduates were 24.5%, and those with a master's degree were 17.4%. The majority of participants (76.8%) worked from 20 to 40 hours per week. The average work hours per week of the sample was 38.4 hours (*SD* = 8.76). Eighty-two (82) respondents (22.6% of the sample) indicated that they work over 40 hours a week. The average job tenure of the sample was 6.59 years (*SD* = 7.64). Those who had been working in their current job less than one year were 16% and those from one to five years were 45.4%. 20.1% participants had been working in their current job for more than five to ten years, and 18.5% respondents were over 10 years in their job tenure with a current job. The majority of respondents (66.7%) mainly interacted face to face with customers, while 16.5% and 16.8% of the sample mainly interacted with customers on the phone and though e-mail and text messaging, respectively.

Measures

Unless differently noted, participants were asked to answer survey questions on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) concerning the extent to which they agree or disagree with each question based on their previous experience at workplaces. The full questionnaire of following measures is attached onto Appendix B (See Appendix B for all the measures used in this study).

Dependent Variables

Surface Acting (SA). SA was measured with seven items which were invented by Grandey (2003). Example items include "I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an

appropriate way," "I fake a good mood when interacting with customers," and "I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job." A higher score in this measure represents that a participant fakes his or her required emotions more than do those with a lower score in this measure. Respondents' responses to these items were averaged to form an overall score for surface acting. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability of this measure was 0.96.

Deep Acting (DA). DA was measured with four items. Three items were adopted from Brotheridge and Lee (2003) and one item from Grandey (2003). Example items include "I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers," "I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward customers," and "I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers." A higher score in this measure represents a higher level of deep acting. A respondent's responses were averaged to form an overall score for deep acting. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.94.

Emotional Exhaustion (EE). EE was measured with six items which were invented by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and provided by Wharton (1993). Example items include "I feel emotionally drained from my work," and "I feel burned out from my work." These items originally ask the frequency of experiencing EE. To reduce a respondent's burden, I adapted the original anchors (0 = Never felt this way while at work, to 6 = feel this way every day) in this measure to be compatible with a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) used for the other measures in this study. A higher score in this measure represents a higher level of emotional exhaustion. A respondent's responses were averaged to form an overall score for deep acting. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.94.

Independent Variable

Psychological Ownership of a job (POJ). POJ was measured by six items which Brown, Pierce, and Crossley (2014) adapted on the basis of Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Sample items are "I sense that this job is MINE," "The work I do at this organization is MINE," and "I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for the work that I do." Thus, high scores represent that a respondent feels a high level of psychological ownership of his or her job. Item responses were averaged to form an overall score for a respondent's POJ. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.96.

Mediation Variables

Commitment to Display rules (CDR). CDR was measured with eight items. Five items were adopted from Wang, Liao, Zhan, and Shi (2011). They adopted this measure from Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) based on the goal commitment measure which Hollenbeck, Klein, O'Leary, and Wright developed (1989). Three items in the original measure are a reverse-coded item. In this study, they were positively rephrased and then added to the five original items. Sample items are "When serving customers, I am committed to conforming to my company's customer service rules," and "I think these service rules given by my organization are good to comply with." Positively re-worded items are "When serving customers, I take these service rules seriously," "I care about conforming to these service rules," and "When serving customers, it is difficult for me to give up these service rules." It resulted in a total of eight items for this measure. Item responses were averaged to form an overall score for a respondent's CDR after reverse-coding three original reverse items. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.91.

Perceive emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit. ED-A fit was measured with three items developed by Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016). They invented this measure by adapting the demands-abilities fit scale of Cable and DeRue (2002). All three items are 1) "The match is very good between the emotional demands of my job and my personal skills," 2) "My ability to manage my emotions is a good fit with the requirements of my job," and 3) "My personal abilities and background provide a good match with the emotional demands that my job places on me." Thus, high scores represent that a respondent has a high level of a fit perception of their emotional job-demands and abilities to meet them. Item responses were averaged to form an overall score for a respondent's ED-A fit. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.91.

Moderation Variable

Employee-Customer Identification (ECID). ECID was measured with five items which Anaza and Rutherford (2012) adopted from Korschun (2008). These items reflect the relational aspects of an employee identification with customers. Items include "I identify with my customer," and "I feel good to be of service to my customers." Thus, high scores represent that a respondent strongly identifies him- or herself with customers who he or she serves. Item responses were averaged to form an overall score for a respondent's ECID. With the sample of this study, the internal reliability for this measure was 0.88.

Control Variables

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), it is important to note that researchers should consider a participant's age in studies on emotion-related variables (i.e., emotional

exhaustion). As a psychological ownership of a job plays a role of a key independent variable in this study and emotional labor is closely linked to negative affect and gender (Scott & Barnes, 2011), a participant's job tenure, negative affect, and gender were considered as control variables. Accordingly, a participant's age and job tenure were measured with an open-ended question, while his or her negative affect was measured with 10 items of negative affect from the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Not at All to 5 = Extremely. Then, responses to these items were averaged to form an overall score for a respondent's general negative affect. Last, gender was measured with two choices of male versus female.

Chapter 5: Results

Data Analyses

This chapter provides the results of data analyses in this study. First, I conducted preliminary analyses to determine descriptive statistics for all of variables used in this study by using SPSS 25. These analyses include means, correlation coefficients, and standard deviations together with the internal reliabilities of each measure.

Second, all constructs in this study were measured on the basis of self-reports. This may result in a problem of common method bias although most of main variables were measured at different points in time. In this regard, I confirmed the distinctiveness of research variables by running confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with AMOS 23. I compared the research model proposed in this study with other alternative models by adapting the number of factors to alternative models. As a result, I found out that a set of fit indices of an originally hypothesized model is better than those of alternative models.

Third, I conducted a series of regression analyses to test Hypothesis 1 to 6. These hypotheses include several direct relations between key variables such as those between POJ and ED-A fit, POJ and CDR, CDR and ED-A fit, ED-A fit and EE, ED-A fit and SA, and ED-A fit and DA. To test these direct relationships, I regressed a dependent variable measured in a later wave on an independent variable measured in an earlier wave. For example, ED-A fit measured at Time 3 was regressed on POJ at Time 1, and CDR at Time 2 was on POJ at Time 1. The same procedure of a regression analysis was repeatedly applied to aforementioned relations among other variables.

Fourth, I used Hayes' (2018) PROCESS Model 4 with 10,000 bootstrap iterations to test Hypothesis 7 of whether CDR significantly mediates the effect of POJ on ED-A fit. The

increased number of bootstrap samples reduces sampling error for the confidence interval (Hayes, 2009). Hence, I used 10,000 bootstrap samples with a confidence interval (CI) at 95 % level.

Fifth, I used Hayes' (2018) PROCESS Model 6 with 10,000 bootstrap iterations to test Hypothesis 8 of whether CDR and ED-A fit sequentially mediate the effect of POJ on emotional exhaustion (EE), surface acting (SA), and deep acting (DA). As applied in testing Hypothesis 7, I used 10,000 bootstrap samples with a confidence interval (CI) at 95 % level.

Sixth, I used a hierarchical regression analysis to test Hypothesis 9 of whether employee-customer identification (ECID) moderates the effect of POJ on CDR such that the effect of POJ on CDR becomes stronger when ECID is high. These outcomes showed that there is no significant moderation effect of ECID on the relationship between POJ and CDR.

Nevertheless, I continued to run Hayes' (2018) PROCESS Model 83 with 10,000 bootstrap iterations for Hypothesis 10 to review the possible patterns of relations and the sizes of numeric values among variables. Hypothesis 10 suggests the moderation effect of ECID on the indirect relationship between POJ and three dependent variables such as EE, SA, and DA via two sequential mediators of CDR and ED-A fit. As implied in the outcomes of Hypothesis 9, analytic results for Hypothesis 10 showed no significance. I put more explanation on these outcomes in the section titled "Hypothesis Tests."

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations for all variables are displayed in Table 3 (see Appendix A for Table 3).

Age is found to be significantly correlated with all other variables except for deep acting. On the basis of Cohen's (1988) suggestion, age (*M* = 35.06, *SD* = 11.02) shows a medium size of a positive correlation coefficient with a psychological ownership of a job measured at Time 1 (T1, *r* = .29, *M* = 35.06, *SD* = 11.02) and with ED-A fit (*r* = .28, *M* = 5.29, *SD* = 1.36) at Time 3 (T3). An employee's job tenure is found to be significantly correlated with POJ (T1), CDR (*M* = 5.55, *SD* = 1.17) at Time 2 (T2), and ED-A fit (T3). It is positively correlated with POJ (T1, *r* = .17), CDR (T2, *r* = .13), and ED-A fit (T3, *r* = .16), while negatively correlated with surface acting (T4, *r* = - .12, *M* = 4.41, *SD* = 1.65). In addition, POJ (T1) is found to be significantly correlated with all main variables such as employee-customer identification (T2, *M* = 4.38, *SD* = 1.35), commitment to display rules (T2), ED-A fit (T3), SA (T4), and DA (T4, *M* = 4.53, *SD* = 1.49). As expected in Hypothesis 1, POJ (T1) is found to be highly correlated with ED-A fit (T3, *r* = .49). CDR (T2) also shows a positive correlation with ED-A fit (T3, *r* = .32) and DA (T4, *r* = .31), while it is shown to be negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion (T4, *r* = - .24, *M* = 4.12, *SD* = 1.69) and SA (T4, *r* = - .23). Last, as hypothesized in the research model, ED-A fit (T4) is found to be negatively correlated with EE (T4, *r* = - .46) and with SA (T4, *r* = - .29), while positively correlated with DA (T4, *r* = .32).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is basically an analytic method by which a researcher can test how well constructs in a research model are represented by variables and data actually used in it. According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010), it is important to note that a researcher should specify the number of factors and assign variables to these factors on the basis of a theory before he or she gets any results. In addition, independent variables (POJ), mediation variables (CDR, ED-A fit),

and dependent variables (EE, SA, DA) were measured at different time points with a moderation variable (ECID) being assessed together with the first mediation variable (CDR) at Time 2. Although most of the measurements in this study occurred at different points in time, there still exists the possibility of common method bias (Podsakoff et al, 2003). Thus, I ran CFAs to determine how well the hypothesized research model matches with a set of the actual data collected via Prolific.

To evaluate measurement models by CFA, I used the chi-square (χ^2) with a degree of freedom (*df*), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Basically, a low value of χ^2 statistic indicates that a model represents the actual data well. But it is problematic that as the size of a sample increases, χ^2 value becomes bigger. TLI compares the normed χ^2 statistic for a null model with a specified one. It is generally accepted that the value of TLI which is close to one (1) indicates a model with good fit. CFI plays a role of an incremental fit index. Its value ranges from zero (0) to one (1) and its higher value represents a model with better fit. Further, CFI indices are more desirable in testing a fitness of measurement models as they are relatively insensitive to model complexity (Hair et al, 2010). Typically, the value of CFI which is over .90 indicates a model with good fit. RMSEA is one of the most often used indices. It indicates how well a given model does not only represent a population, but also an actual sample. A lower value of RMSEA is generally considered to indicate good fit. Last, SRMR is considered as it is helpful for a researcher to compare fit across models. Generally, lower SRMR values indicate better fit.

Along with these fit indices, multiple CFAs were conducted. First, I conducted a CFA by including all items comprising the measures of a psychological ownership of a job, commitment

to display rules, employee-customer identification, emotional demands-abilities fit, emotional exhaustion, surface acting, and deep acting. This measurement model with seven-factors represented a good fit to the data (χ^2 = 1895.90, *df* = 719, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .06). I compared the fit of this seven-factor model to three different models which were comprised of six-factors. The first six-factor model was set up to load all items of emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) on one factor (χ^2 = 3184.07, *df* = 725, TLI = .81, CFI = .83, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .11). Most of fit indices indicated that the seven-factor model has a better fit than the first six-factor model. Since surface acting and emotional exhaustion were found to be highly significantly correlated at .58, I compared the seven-factor model to another six-factor model with items of surface acting and emotional exhaustion loading onto one factor. The theorized measurement model with seven factors showed a set of better fit indices than did the second six-factor model (χ^2 = 3206.94, *df* = 725, TLI = .81, CFI = .82, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .09). In addition, I compared the proposed measurement model to another six-factor model with items of POJ and ED-A fit loading onto one factor since both POJ and ED-A fit are conceptually grounded in an individual's perception of a job. The theorized measurement model with seven factors still showed better fit indices than did the third six-factor model (χ^2 = 2531.77, *df* = 725, TLI = .86, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .09). In addition, I tested a chi-squared difference among these models to check whether the seven-factor model fits the data significantly better than the others. First, the seven-factor model was compared with one-factor model. The result showed that the former model indicated a significantly better fit to the current data than did the latter one ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 8454.72, Δdf = 21, $p < .001$). Then, the seven-factor model was compared with the other six-factor models. The results showed that the former model indicated a significantly better fit to the current data than did the first six-factor model with

surface acting and deep acting loading on one factor ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 1288.16, Δdf = 6, p < .001), than did the second six-factor model with surface acting and emotional exhaustion loading on one factor ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 1311.04, Δdf = 6, p < .001), and than did the last six-factor model with ED-A fit and psychological ownership of a job loading on one factor ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 635.86, Δdf = 6, p < .001).These comparisons of the proposed measurement model with other alternative models alleviated the possibilities and concerns of common method bias. Further, those fit indices indicated that the model hypothesized in this study represents the actual data better than do other alternative models. I include all fit indices and outcomes of CFAs in Table 4 (See Appendix A for Table 4).

Hypothesis Tests

In this section, I provide the summary of testing hypotheses in Table 5 and all analytic outcomes with different analytic methods in Table 6 to 9 (see Appendix A for Table 5 to 9).

Direct Relationship

I tested a set of the hypothesized direct relationships using regression analyses after controlling for a service employee's age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect.

Hypothesis 1 predicts that a service employee's psychological ownership of a job positively affects his or her perceived emotional demands-abilities fit. To test Hypothesis 1, I regressed a perception of ED-A fit measured at Time 3 on a psychological ownership of a job (POJ) measured at Time 1. As Table 6 shows, a service employee's POJ significantly predicts his or her ED-A fit (b = .31, p < .001). Thus, the result provides support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that a service employee's POJ positively influences his or her commitment to display rules (CDR). To test Hypothesis 2, I regressed CDR measured at Time 2

on POJ measured at Time 1. As a result, a service employee's POJ significantly predicts his or her CDR (b = .13, p < .001). Thus, the result provides support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicts that an employee's CDR has a positive effect on his or her ED-A fit. To test Hypothesis 3, I adopted a hierarchical regression analysis. I entered all of four control variables - age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect - in the first step, then entered a service employee's POJ at Time 1 in the second step, and last entered his or her CDR at Time 2 in the third step. As displayed in Table 6, a service employee's CDR explains significant incremental variance in his or her ED-A fit (b = .15, ΔR^2 = .01, p < .01) over the variance of ED-A fit explained by POJ (ΔR^2 = .10, p < .001). Therefore, the result of this hierarchical regression analysis provides support for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4, 5, and 6 predicts the effect of a service employee's ED-A fit on two types of emotional labor, namely, surface acting (SA) and deep acting (DA), and emotional exhaustion (EE), respectively. To test all these hypotheses, I used a set of hierarchical regression analyses. As conducted in testing Hypothesis 3, I entered all of four control variables in the first step, next entered POJ measured at Time 1 in the second step, then entered CDR at Time 2 in the third step, and last entered ED-A fit at Time 3. Three separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for SA, DA, and EE. Table 7 shows that a service employee's ED-A fit explains significant incremental variance in his or her emotional exhaustion (b = - .40, ΔR^2 = .07, p < .001) and deep acting (b = .24, ΔR^2 = .03, p < .001) over the variance of ED-A fit explained by POJ and CDR. But this analysis failed to find the effect of ED-A fit on surface acting (b = -.14, p = .051). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 and 6 are supported, while Hypothesis 4 are not supported in this study.

Mediation effect

Hypothesis 7 predicts the mediation effect of CDR that a service employee's CDR mediates the association between an employee's POJ and ED-A fit. To test Hypothesis 7, I used the PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2018) which tests the mediation effect based on a non-parametric approach. Hayes PROCESS Model uses a bootstrapping method which repeatedly creates samples from the data set and make causal inferences from those samples. If the bootstrap confidence interval (CI) at 95% does not include zero (0), it can conclude that the statistical inference is significant (Hayes, 2018; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). I used Hayes PROCESS Model 4 with 10,000 resampling processes to test the unstandardized indirect effect (denoted as *ab*) of CDR in Hypotheses 7.

As aforementioned, Hypothesis 7 predicts the mediation effect of CDR in the relationship of POJ to ED-A fit. In Table 8 (See Appendix A for Table 8), the result of the PROCESS Model 4 indicates that the indirect effect of POJ on ED-A fit via CDR is significant (*ab* = .02, 95% CI = [.003, .045]). Thus, the result of Hayes PROCESS analysis provides support for Hypothesis 7. In other words, a service employee's commitment to display rules significantly mediates the effect of POJ on ED-A fit.

Hypothesis 8a, 8b, and 8c predicts the sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit in the relationship of POJ to surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion, respectively. To test these serial mediation processes, I used Hayes PROCESS Model 6 with 10,000 resampling processes. Hypothesis 8a predicts that the negative relationship between a service employee's POJ and surface acting is sequentially mediated first via commitment to display rules and then via ED-A fit. Hypothesis 8b and 8c represent the same sequential mediation processes in predicting the effect of POJ on an employee's deep acting and emotional exhaustion,

respectively. The results of Hayes PROCESS Model 6 in Table 8 indicates that the indirect effect of POJ on surface acting through CDR and then ED-A fit is not significant (*ab* = − .003, 95% CI = [− .008, .000]). However, the indirect effect of POJ on deep acting through CDR and ED-A fit is statistically significant (*ab* = .005, 95% CI = [.001, .012]). The effect of POJ on emotional exhaustion through CDR and ED-A fit is also significant (*ab* = − .01, 95% CI = [− .019, − .001]). Thus, Hypothesis 8b and 8c are supported, while Hypothesis 8a are not.

Moderation Effect

Hypothesis 9 predicts that the positive relationship between a service employee's psychological ownership of a job (POJ) and his or her commitment to display rules (CDR) becomes stronger for those who are high in employee-customer identification (ECID). To test Hypothesis 9, I used a hierarchical regression analysis with an interaction term (POJ *ECID) created by multiplying a mean value of POJ with that of ECID. First, I entered all of four control variables in the first step, next entered POJ measured at Time 1 in the second step, then entered ECID at Time 2 in the third step, and last entered an interaction term (POJ*ECID).

Table 6 shows that, as tested for Hypothesis 1, a service employee's psychological ownership of a job has a significant effect on his or her commitment to display rules (See Appendix A for Table 6). However, it is not found with the current data used in this study that their ECID significantly moderates the effect of POJ on CDR (*b* = - .03, *p* =.245). Thus, Hypothesis 9 is not supported with the dataset used in this study. But as seen in Figure 2, I draw and place the plot below to complete my dissertation study (See Appendix A for Figure 2). Given this outcome, Hypothesis 10 was not expected to be significantly supported by the same

dataset. Nevertheless, I conducted a Hayes PROCESS analysis to complete my analyses and review the patterns of relations among research variables.

Moderated Mediation Effect

Hypothesis 10a, 10b, and 10c predicts that a service employee's ECID moderates the indirect relationship between his or her POJ and SA, DA, and EE, respectively, such that the sequential mediation effect of POJ on these three dependent variables through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger for those employees who are high in ECID. To test these three hypotheses, I repeatedly ran Hayes PROCESS Model 83 for SA, DA, and EE with 10,000 resampling processes with a respondent's age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect entered as a set of covariates. As implied in the outcomes of Hypothesis 9 and shown in Table 6, the results indicates that Hypothesis 10a, 10b, and 10c are not significantly supported with the current data set used in this study as the interaction term of POJ and ECID is lack of its significance in testing each of these hypothesis. These outcomes are placed on Table 9 (See Appendix A for Table 9).

To sum up, the results indicates that all direct relationships, the mediation effect of CDR, and the sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit are significant except for the direct and indirect relationship with surface acting. As aforementioned, it is not found with the current dataset that ECID moderates the direct relationship between POJ and CDR and the indirect relationships between POJ and all dependent variables. Thus, a service employee's psychological ownership of a job significantly predicts his or her commitment to display rules and ED-A fit; commitment to display rules is positively related to ED-A fit; ED-A fit is positively related to deep acting, while negatively to emotional exhaustion; and CDR significantly mediates the effect of POJ to ED-A fit. Further, it is found that CDR and ED-A fit have a significant sequential

mediation effect on the relationship of POJ to deep acting and emotional exhaustion. Figure 3 displays the standardized path coefficients for all relationships with significant paths flagged with asterisks (See Appendix A for Figure 3).

Supplemental Analyses: Cross-Lagged Path Model (CLPM)

To supplement my regression analyses testing the causal relation between a service employee's commitment to display and ED-A fit over time, I adopted the cross-lagged path model (CLPM; Kearney, 2017) based on a structural equation modeling by Amos 24. When it comes to a time lag between measurements occurring in a study, Dormann and Griffin (2015) argue that using relatively short time lags may be more helpful for researchers to find "essential information" on the hypothesized causal relation over time. Accordingly, I measured a commitment to display rules and ED-A fit at four time points with a one-week interval between each time point and ran the multiple sets of CLPMs with different time intervals in measuring CDR and ED-A fit. To model synchronous correlations, I set up the exogenous latent variables to covary and the error terms of the endogenous latent variables to covary. I further controlled for stability effects to infer a causal direction using the cross-lagged effects (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Kearney, 2017).

With these restrictions on each CLPM, I tested a model with a one week interval between Time 2 and 3, two models with a two-week interval between Time 1 and 3 and between Time 2 and 4, and the last model with a three-week interval between Time 1 and 4. Table 10 shows that the first model with a one-week time interval represented a good fit to the dataset used in this study (χ^2 = 614.106, *df* = 201, TLI = .933, CFI = .941, RMSEA = .075, SRMR = .044), while other models showed relatively a poor fit (See Appendix A for Table 10).

For the cross-lagged effect of commitment to display rules on ED-A fit, the first model with a one-week interval and the third model with a two-week interval of Time 2 and 4 are not significant. However, the cross-lagged effect of CDR on ED-A fit is found to be significant in two other models; the model with a two-week interval of Time 1 and 3 (β = .414, p < .001) and the model with a three-week interval of Time 1 and 4 (β = .444, p < .001). In these models, it is found that the cross-lagged effect of ED-A fit on CDR is also significant with a smaller effect size; the cross-lagged effect of ED-A fit on CDR in the model with a two-week interval of Time 1 and 3 (β = .324, p < .001), and that in the model with a three-week interval of Time 1 and 4 (β = .293, p < .001). These outcomes are placed in Table 11 (See Appendix A for Table 11).

These results suggest that, rather than setting up a short time interval, it may be better for a researcher to make a causal inference for these constructs with a longer time interval. In addition to the sequential mediation analyses, these cross-lagged panel analyses provide additional support that commitment to display rules predicts ED-A fit over time.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

Summary of Findings

In this study, I did not examine only the relationship between a psychological ownership of a job and a perception of ED-A fit via commitment to display rules, but also the effect of ED-A fit on surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, I looked into the sequential mediation that the entire process from POJ to two forms of emotional labor and exhaustion is mediated through CDR first and then ED-A fit. To test these relations, I conducted simple and hierarchical regression analyses, and Hayes PROCESS analyses together with a supplementary analysis of a cross-lagged panel model.

I hypothesized that a service employee's POJ is positively associated with his or her perception of ED-A fit and that their POJ is positively related to their commitment to display rules. Next, to explain whether and to what degree these employees' perception of ED-A fit affects their emotional labor strategies, I hypothesized that these employees' perception of ED-A fit positively affects their dep acting, while negatively influencing surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Then, I proposed a mediation role of CDR in the relationship between POJ and ED-A fit and further a sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit on the relationship of POJ to two strategies of emotional labor and exhaustion. In addition, I hypothesized the moderation role of a service employee's employee-customer identification in these direct and indirect relationships.

First, the results indicate that a service employee's perception of ED-A fit is significantly predicted by his or her psychological ownership of a job. Specifically, I found that these employees' POJ significantly positively increases their ED-A fit after controlling for their age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect. Given the fact that no research on this relationship has

been yet conducted since Diefendorff and colleagues (2016) recently introduced the concept of a perceived ED-A fit, this is the first empirical research to demonstrate the association between POJ and ED-A fit. Further, I found its underlying mechanism by revealing the mediation role of commitment to display rules in this relationship.

Second, as for the relationship of a service employee's ED-A fit to two emotional labor strategies and emotional exhaustion, I found that a perception of ED-A fit has a significant effect on their antecedent-focused emotional display, that is, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion. The results of regression analyses indicate that ED-A fit significantly positively increases deep acting as an antecedent-focused emotional strategy (Grandey, 2003), while the effect of ED-A fit is found to be not significant on surface acting as a response-focused strategy. Further, I found that ED-A fit significantly decreases an employee's emotional exhaustion. These results support Diefendorff and colleagues' (2016) findings of the effect of ED-A fit on burnout and are consistent with Gabriel and colleagues' (2015) argument of the relation of a level of ED-A fit to emotional regulation.

Last, but more importantly, I found the sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit on the relationship between POJ and deep acting as well as emotional exhaustion. Using Hayes PROCESS Models, I found empirical support that the relationships of POJ to deep acting and emotional exhaustion are sequentially mediated via CDR first and then ED-A fit for customer contact service employees. To better ensure the causal inference of this sequential process, I collected the key measures involved in this process across four time points. Furthermore, I recruited customer contact service employees in diverse occupational settings to make up the sample used in this study. Thus, my findings are considered to better ensure the causal inference

of this sequential mediation process. In the following sections, theoretical contributions, practical implications, and limitations of this study are discussed with my suggestions for future research.

Theoretical Contributions

When starting this study, I paid attention to the fact that there are much room for research on perceived ED-A fit because this construct has been recently introduced to the area of management research (Diefendorff et al., 2016). Although researchers understand how a perception of fit between emotional job-demands and abilities to meet these demands influences work attitudes and behaviors, prior studies have used an indirect measurement of the fit or match between those two constructs by first measuring job demands and abilities independently, next computing their fit mathematically, and then analyzing the effect of the fit between them on emotional labor (Bakker et al, 2005; Peng et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Xanthopoulou etl al., 2013). Given the fact that an indirect measurement of fit is different from a perception of ED-A fit measured directly from individuals, we have little understanding of its effect on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors in relation to emotion labor. Hence, my goal was to reveal possible antecedents of ED-A fit, its impact on emotional labor strategies and emotional depletion, and further an underlying mechanism of its relations to other important factors. To this end, I recruited a sample of customer contact service employees and adopted a longitudinal research design. By analyzing the longitudinal data collected from this sample, I confirmed a sequential mediation model of ED-A fit as proposed in Figure 3.

In this section, I review three main contributions of this study to research on ED-A fit, extension of P-E fit research, and research on the association of a psychological ownership of a job with emotional labor strategies and emotional depletion.

This study contributes to a better understanding of a perceived ED-A fit by revealing the impact of ED-A fit on two different forms of emotional labor, the relationship between a psychological ownership of a job and ED-A fit, and the role of ED-A fit in the whole link of POJ to emotion-based outcomes. The results of this study provide the empirical evidence of whether and how ED-A fit increases a more authentic emotional display (deep acting) as implied in previous research (Diefendorff et al, 2016; Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2015; Grandey, 2003), and reduces employees burnout (emotional exhaustion) as is consistent with findings of prior studies which used an indirect measurement of fit computed mathematically with independent measures of job-demands and abilities. Furthermore, this study uncovers whether and how a service employee's attitude toward a job plays a role of an antecedent of ED-A fit by empirically testing the effect of POJ on ED-A fit and how this relationship works via an employee's commitment to display rules. In addition, this study shows how the process from an employee's attitude towards a job to his or her emotional labor and exhaustion is activated by examining the sequential mediation. Specifically, the effect of POJ on two different forms of emotional labor and emotional burnout is mediated via CDR first and then ED-A fit. Thus, this study expands research on a perception of ED-A fit by providing new findings along with the empirical research outcomes of the relationship between ED-A fit and job-related factors. The visual demonstration of these indirect relationships is depicted in Figure 1 and Figure 3 (See Appendix for Figure 1 and 3).

The second contribution of this study is to expand the research area of person-environment (P-E) fit. In conceptualizing the construct of perceived ED-A fit, Diefendorff and his colleagues (2016) clarify that ED-A fit is featured as "a facet-level, job-based, demands-abilities form of P-E fit" (2016: 3). In this regard, Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) argue

that research on how different types of fit (i.e., P-O fit, P-G fit, P-J fit) influence other individual variables can contribute to unveiling a true impact of a perception of these fit on an employee's work attitudes and behaviors. As clarified in the conceptualization of ED-A fit, perceived ED-A fit reflects an individual's perception of job-related characteristics and a congruence between these characteristics and the self, which belong to person-environment (P-E) fit. Thus, this study contributes to expanding the research area of P-E fit by uncovering the association between ED-A fit and other job-related variables as well as emotion-based variables. Specifically, I provide the empirical evidence with respect to the links among ED-A fit, a psychological ownership of a job, commitment to display rules, emotional labor strategies, and emotional exhaustion. These findings extend research on P-E fit by adding more empirical outcomes about a job-based demands-abilities fit perception at a facet level.

The third contribution of this study is to suggest additional possible directions for future research on psychological ownership. Researchers have emphasized a possible target of psychological ownership, a boundary condition to change the nature of its influence, and occupational and organizational design in relation to psychological ownership (Peng & Pierce, 2015; Pierce et al., 2001; 2003). Although some researchers have tried to apply the concept of psychological ownership to different occupational sectors (i.e., nurse), these attempts seem to have some limitation on generalizability due to their focus on employees working only in a medical area (i.e., Kaur et al., 2013; Adamson, E., 2014). In this study, I recruited customer contact service employees working in various work contexts. In this regard, this study suggests another possible direction for future research on psychological ownership by revealing its link with emotional laborers' work attitudes and behaviors coupled with their fit perception at a job

level. Thus, this study shows benefits of conducting research about service employees' emotional labor in relation to a psychological ownership of a service job and a service organization.

Limitations and Future Research

With this dissertation as beginning, I plan to further my research on ED-A fit in relation to an employee's emotional display, customer-oriented service behaviors, and deviant behaviors at work. Furthermore, I expect that there are several possible directions for future research. In this section, I make some suggestions for future research and discuss limitations to be addressed for those future studies.

First, there is some limitation in relation to the nature of the method of data collection and measurements of a participant's responses based on a longitudinal approach. All data used in this study were collected at four points in time with a one-week interval between each time point. To collect and analyze participants' responses to a measure of ED-A fit (Diefendorff et al., 2016) and commitment to display rules for the purpose of cross-lagged panel models, the same items of a measure of ED-A fit were repeatedly used on the survey questionnaires in four waves. Hence, testing effect as one of the main threats to validity and reliability (Cook & Campbell, 1979) may have been occurred for some of those respondents who participated in the second, third, and fourth survey. That is, it is possible that some of these participants may have remembered some or all items used in a measure of ED-A fit and CDR on the survey questionnaire at Time 2, 3, and 4 following the survey at Time 1, possibly leading to a lower validity and reliability in repeatedly measuring these variables. To minimize such contamination and acquire a set of reliable data, steps were taken in designing the study. I changed the location of a measure of ED-A fit and CDR on each survey questionnaire. For example, a measure of ED-A fit was placed on

the later part of the survey at Time 1, while it was located around the middle of the second survey at Time 2. Likewise, the same treatment was applied to CDR. In addition, several different questions and items were asked before and after these measures, thereby possibly making it difficult for respondents to remember these two measures at different points in time. Further, I used participants' responses to CDR measured at Time 2 and those to ED-A fit at Time 3 in regression analyses and Hayes PROCESS macro to test all the hypotheses, while measurements of CDR and ED-A fit repeatedly collected throughout all time points were only used for supplementary analyses of cross-lagged panel models (CLPMs) with a set of analytic restrictions required to ensure a causal inference of CLPMs. Thus, I expect a testing effect to be, if ever, minimal in this study.

Second, participants' responses to all measures were collected from a single online crowdsourcing platform, called Prolific. Accordingly, there may exist question on the representativeness of users of a given online platform to ensure the validity of our statistical conclusion. As range restriction threatens what a research model is intended to represent through relations among variables when analyzed with data from a single organization (Sackett & Yang, 2000), it may have occurred in this study because all data were from users of a single online platform. However, as for using online panel data, Walter and colleagues (2018) found in their meta-analysis study that both traditional and online approach to data collection produce similar effect sizes of organizational variables. Further, participants in this study are a current employee working in diverse business sectors, possibly minimizing the impact of this problem. That said, future research should recruit research participants extensively from different sources to examine and replicate the model hypothesized in this research.

Third, all data in this study were collected from the same individuals and thereby may have caused common method variance (CMV; Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P., 2012). On this point, Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003) suggest "potential remedy is to separate the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables" (2003: 887). Specifically, they suggest that researchers can minimize CMV by measuring an independent variable and a dependent variable at different points in time. Accordingly, I consider common method bias to be minimal in this study since I adopted a longitudinal study design and measured all variables at different points in time. In addition, I addressed this concern by conducting multiple CFAs to evaluate the distinctiveness of those variables in this study. The outcomes of CFAs indicate that my measures are sufficiently distinct and less subject to CMV. That said, future research can consider collecting data from different sources (e.g., managers, customers) and validating the findings in this study with those data.

Fourth, this study did not succeed in finding out a significant moderation effect of employee-customer identification on the direct and indirect relationship among main variables. Although there are significant correlations among an independent variable "POJ," another variable "CDR" used as a mediator in this study, and a moderation variable "ECID" with each correlation coefficient indicating a medium to big size (r = .45, p < . 01; r = .24, p < .01; for the correlation between POJ and ECID and that between ECID and CDR, respectively), the results of a hierarchical regression analysis do not show a significant moderation effect of ECID on the relationship between POJ and CDR (b = -.03, β = -.287, p = .245). Another regression analysis shows that ECID has a significant direct effect on CDR (b = .285, β = .329, p < .05) after controlling only for age, gender, and job tenure, not for a respondent's negative affect although this analysis do not show a significant moderation effect of ECID on that relation. Given the fact

that the statistical test of a moderation effect examines whether a product term of two variables, an independent variable and a moderator, predicts the dependent variable over and above those two variables (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991; McClelland & Judd, 1993), as Judd, Kenny, and McClelland (2001) caution, it is possible that measurement error may have occurred and thereby nullify a moderation effect tested with the current sample in this study. Or there is also a possibility of confounding variables which I was not able to identify in relation to customer contact service employees as the current sample was made up of these employees in diverse work contexts. In this regard, I suggest that researchers take this issue into consideration for their future research on ED-A fit as well as emotion-based variables.

Practical Implications

Although this study has some limitations as explained above, its findings provide several knowledge and insights for management practitioners and their organizations in diverse service industries. First, this study provides the empirical evidence that, as seen in Table 3, 6, and 7, a customer contact service employee's ED-A fit is positively influenced by his or her commitment to display rules and thereby leads them to engage more in deep acting and to reduce emotional depletion. Thus, by putting more efforts and resources into following emotional display rules required in their service job, service employees can increase their perception of fit between emotional job-demands and abilities to fulfill those requirements. Furthermore, when these employees perceive a better ED-A fit, they are more likely to put in effort to engage in more authentic emotional display, that is, deep acting and less likely to experience emotional exhaustion as they perceive less emotional discrepancies between emotional demands of their service job and their abilities to meet those demands. Of note, it is important that customer

contact service employees should clearly understand what display rules are requested for them to interact with their customers at work since their commitment to emotional display rules follows a perception of these rules.

Second, the findings of this study demonstrate that service employees' psychological ownership of a customer contact job can motivate these employee to engage in more authentic emotional display (i.e., deep acting) by elevating their commitment to display rules and their perception of fit between emotional job-demands and their abilities to meet those demands. Service employees who engage in deep acting are more likely to elicit positive feelings from their customers as emotional expressions based on deep acting is perceived as more authentic than those from surface acting (Hochschild, 1983). As a result, customers will likely feel more satisfied with these employees' services offered to them and, in turn, will not only cause increased financial benefits, but also bring an increased reputation for those organizations which those employees work for.

Third, this study suggests the empirical evidence that service employees are less likely, or unlikely, to experience emotional burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion when they have a high level of a psychological ownership of their job as their POJ reduces discrepancy in their perception, or emotional dissonance, between emotional job-demands and their abilities via their increased commitment to display rules. Employees' burnout can bring about several negative outcomes not only for an individual employee but also for his or her organization (Grandey, 2000). For example, research shows that emotional exhaustion is negatively related to an employee's job satisfaction (Lewig & Dollard, 2003), thereby causing him or her to quit a job (Grandey & Melloy, 2017), and decreases their in-role performance (Lavelle et al., 2019), while increasing deviant behaviors at workplaces (Van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010). Further,

research also shows that those service employees who experience emotional exhaustion are more likely to reduce positive emotional expression (Grandey, 2003), possibly leading to decreasing an organization's performance, reputation, and competitiveness. As a result, organizations with more of these employees will likely struggle not only to address financial cost required to recruit and train replacement employees and new hires, but also to cope with possible legal complaints with dissatisfied customers.

Fourth, as seen in the results of a sequential mediation analysis in Table 8, the findings of this research show that service employees' commitment to display rules increases their ED-A fit and, through an increased ED-A fit, motivates employees to engage more in deep acting, while preventing them from experiencing emotional exhaustion. Thus, through diverse management practices such as service training programs, reward practices, employee assistant programs, and other personnel practices, service organizations can increase their service employees' commitment to display rules which they consider to be desirable at workplaces. Of note, given the fact that employees' perception of display rules required by the organization must precede their commitment to those rules, organizations should ensure that they do not concentrate only on improving the motivational state of their employees to commit to a job, but also invest more of organizational resources to clarify those display rules and train customer contact service employees for those rules.

Conclusion

As employees' emotional labor and person-environment (P-E) fit are one of the key factors both for their job performance and organization's competitiveness (Grandey, 2000; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), a perception of ED-A fit can play a role of the important vehicle

both for an individual employee and an organization to successfully perform their tasks and thereby achieve their goals. Nevertheless, ED-A fit has not yet garnered much attention from management researchers and practitioners due to its recent introduction into the area of management research. In this study, I do not pay attention only to the link between employees' attitude towards a job and a perception of ED-A fit, but also to the effect of ED-A fit on emotional labor and depletion. The results of this research reveal that an employee's psychological ownership of a job enhances a perception of ED-A fit; commitment to display rules serves as an underlying mechanism of this relationship; perceived ED-A fit leads employees to engage in more authentic emotional labor while decreasing their burnout; and this whole process is mediated via commitment to display rules first and next ED-A fit. In addition, this study shows the benefit of a longitudinal approach to studying the sequential links between emotion-based variables and other job-related factors. I look forward to more researchers and practitioners getting interest in this research area and joining its research.

Appendix A: Figures and Tables

Figure 1. Research model

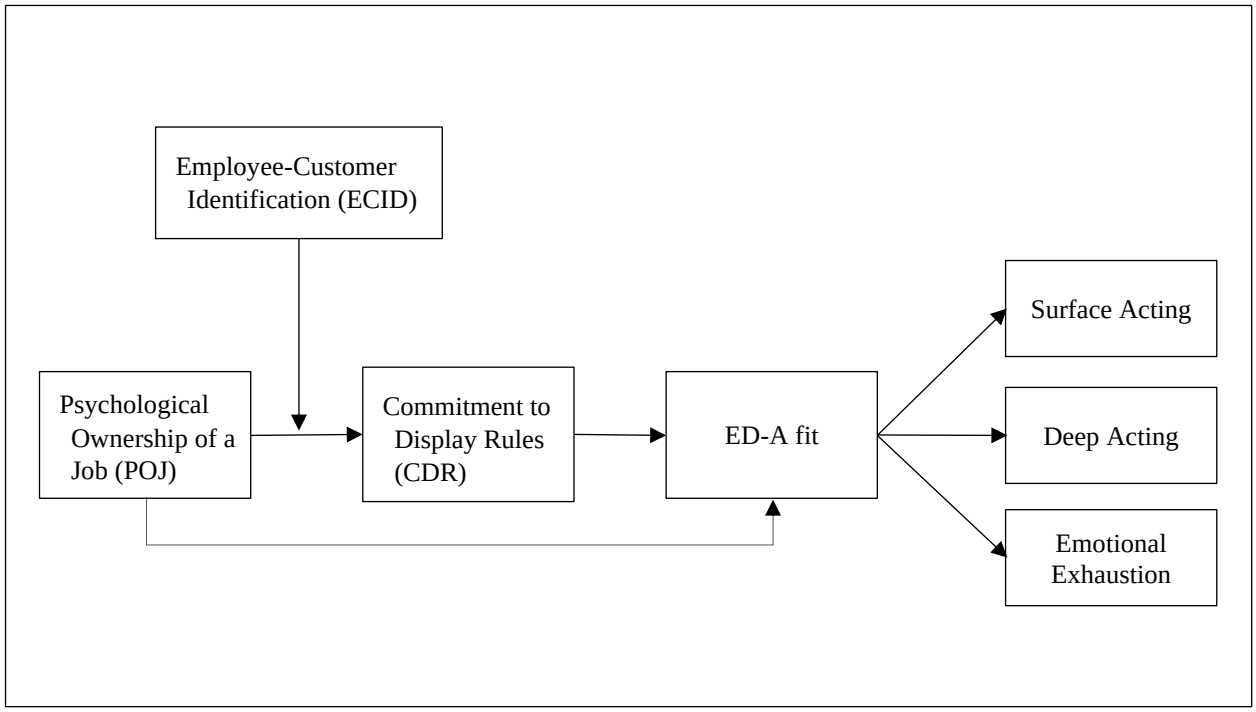


Figure 2. Moderation effect of employee-customer identification

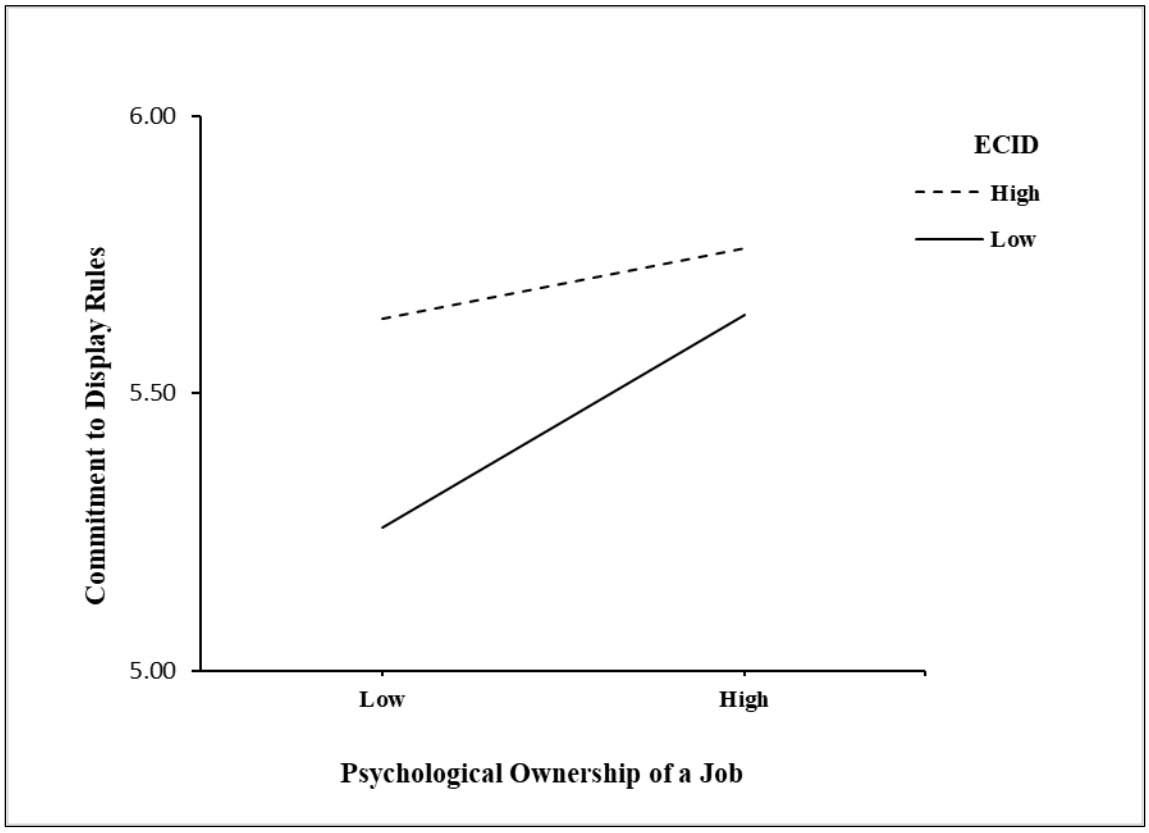
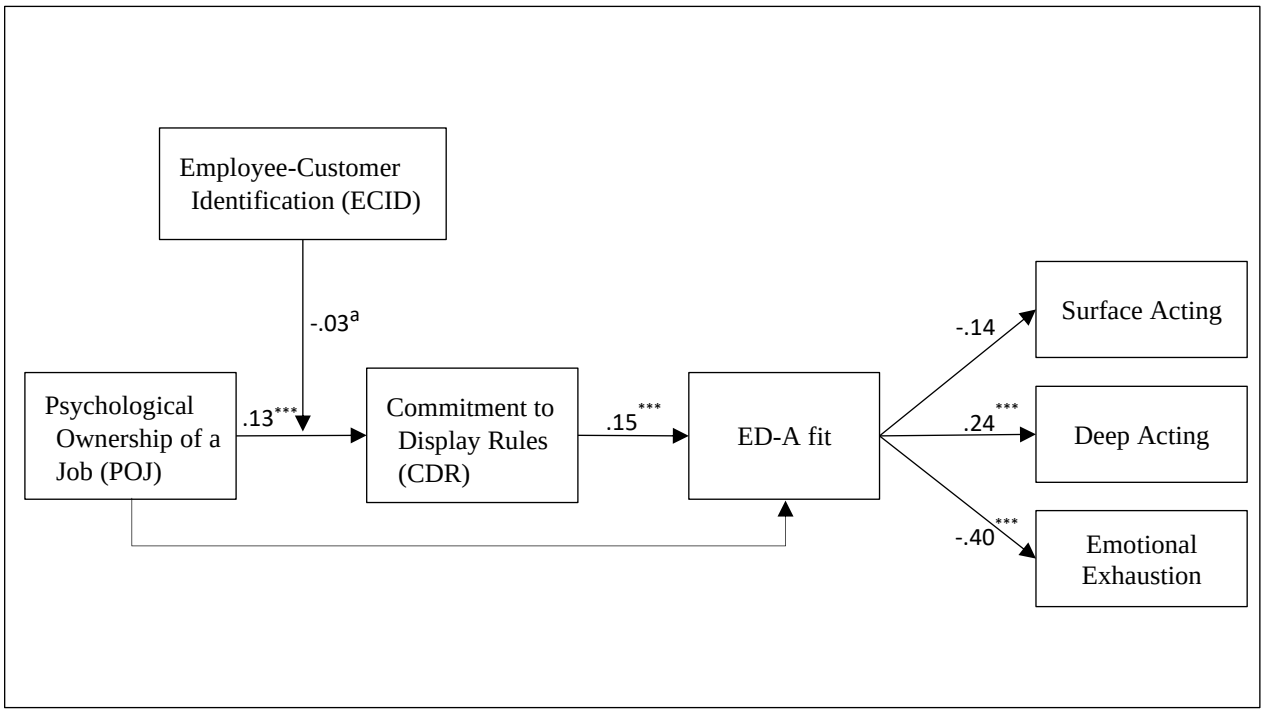


Figure 3. Path coefficients in the research model



Note: N = 363. All coefficients are unstandardized ones from regression analyses of the direct relation between corresponding variables except for the coefficient of ECID. a = Unstandardized coefficient of the moderation effect of ECID.
*** $p < .001$.

Table 1. Research on perceived ED-A fit

NO.	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator	Measurement	Sample	Theory	Outcomes	Author(s) & Year
1	ED-A Fit	·Five emotional labor profiles (Non/Low/Surface/Deep Actor, Regulator) *Non actor using extremely low levels of both surface and deep acting; Low actor using similar levels of both strategies which are not moderate or high; Regulator high in both strategies			Direct measurement of the perceived ED-A Fit	·Study 1: Service workers (n=692, U.S.) ·Study 2: Service workers (n=552; 88% Chinese)	Person-centered approach (Wang & Hanges, 2011)	·Study1: ED-A Fit distinguishes between non-actor and other emotional labor profiles (low/surface/deep actor and regulator), but no differentiation among these four profiles ·Study 2: Findings same as in Study 1 *Analytic method used: Latent profile analysis	Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras (2015)
2	ED-A Fit	·Study 1: JS, Work Tension (WT), Intent to Quit (ItQ), Autonomy (Competence, Relatedness) Need Satisfaction (ANS, CNS, RNS) ·Study 2: JS, ItQ, Felt Inauthenticity (FI), Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Supervisor Performance Rating (SuPR; Archival data), Self-Performance Rating (SePR)			Direct measurement of the perceived ED-A Fit	·Study 1: Full time employees across industries (n=179, 92% Chineses) ·Study 2: Western managers (n=1,111; 53% Caucasian)	·Direct fit perception and demands-abilities fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002) ·JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001)	·Study 1: ED-A Fit positively significantly predicts JS, ANS, CNS, and RNS, while negatively significantly predicting WT with no significant relation to ItQ. ·Study 2: ED-A Fit positively significantly predicts SuPR and SePR, while negatively significantly predicting FI and EE with no significant relation to JS and ItQ.	Diefendorff, Greguras, & Fleenor (2016)
3	Psychological Capital (PsyCap)	·Positive Affective Delivery (PAD) ·Breaking Character (BC)	ED-A Fit	Customer-related Social Stressors (CSS) *Moderating paths between IV, ED-A Fit, and all DVs	Direct measurement of the perceived ED-A Fit	Service staff in airline companies (n=209, Taiwanese)	·JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001)	·ED-A Fit positively significantly mediates the relationship of PsyCap to PAD ·The effect of ED-A Fit on PAD is significantly moderated by CSS such that its relation to PAD becomes stronger with high CSS ·ED-A Fit positively significantly predicts PAD, while negatively influences BC	Hwang & Han (2019)

NO.	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator	Measurement	Sample	Theory	Outcomes	Author(s) & Year
4	ED-A Fit	·Job Satisfaction (JS) ·Customer-Oriented Behaviors (COB)	Emotional regulation (Deep/Surface/Natural Acting)	Commitment to Display Rules *Moderating paths between Natural Expression and all DVs	Direct measurement of the perceived ED-A Fit	Service workers at hotels (n=160, U.S.)	·JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) ·Conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 2001)	·Natural acting positively significantly mediates the relationship of ED-A Fit to JS ·Deep and natural acting positively significantly mediate the relationship of ED-A Fit to COB	Ahmad, U. S. (2018)
5	Customer Injustice (CIJ)	Customer-Oriented Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB-C)	·Emotional Exhaustion (EE) ·Surface Acting (SA)	ED-A Fit	Direct measurement of the perceived ED-A Fit	Service workers (n=182)	·JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) *The authors implicitly use the JD-R model in this study.	·ED-A Fit negatively significantly affects EE ·The effect of CIJ on EE is significantly moderated by ED-A Fit such that its positive relation to EE becomes stronger with high ED-A Fit ·The indirect relationship between CIJ and CWB-C through EE and SA is significantly more positive with high ED-A fit	Lavelle, Rupp, Herda, Pandey, & Lauck (2019)
6	Non-empirical study							·Brief introduction of a new approach to directly measure the perceived ED-A fit	Grandey & Gabriel (2015)
7	Non-empirical study							·Brief explanation of Diefendorff et al.'s (2016) and Gabriel et al.'s (2015) findings	Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff (2015)

Table 2. Research on emotional demands and job resources

NO.	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator	Measurement	Sample	Outcomes	Author(s) & Year
1	Emotional Demands (ED)	·Emotional Exhaustion (EE) ·Depersonalization (DP)		·Job Control (JC) ·Susceptibility to emotional contagion (SEC)	Separate measurements of ED, EE, DP, JC, and SEC	·Medical Care Providers (n=816, Dutch)	·The effects of ED on EE and DP are significantly moderated by SEC such that its positive relations to EE and DP become stronger with high SEC	Le Blanc, Bakker, Peeters, van Heesch, & Schaufeli (2001)
2	Emotional Demands (ED)	·Emotional Exhaustion (EE) ·Cynicism (CY) ·Professional Efficacy (PE)		·Autonomy (AU) ·Relationship with Supervisor (RS) ·Performance Feedback (PF)	Separate measurements of ED, EE, CY, and PE	·Faculties (n=1,012, 84% permanent employees, Netherlands)	·ED is positively related to EE, CY, but negatively to PE ·The effect of ED on CY is significantly moderated by AU and PF such that its positive relation to CY becomes weaker with high AU and PF	Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema (2005)
3	Emotional Demands (ED)	·Emotional Exhaustion (EE)		·Self-Esteem (SES) ·Optimism (OP) ·Self-Efficacy (SEF)	Separate measurements of ED, EE, SES, OP, and SEF	·Employees (n=714, Dutch)	·SES, OP, and SEF do not moderate the relationship between ED and EE	Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli (2007)
4	Emotional Demands (ED)	·General Burnout (BO)	·Deep Acting (DA) ·Surface Acting (SA)	·Emotional Intelligence (EI; 1st stage)	Separate measurements of ED, EE, SES, OP, and SEF	·Insurance Salesperson (n=418, Chinese)	·The effects of ED on DA and SA are significantly moderated by EI such that its positive relations to DA and SA become stronger with high EI ·The interaction effect of ED and EI on BO is significantly mediated by DA and SA	Peng, Wong, & Che (2010)
5	Emotional Demands (ED)	·Psychological Distress (PD) ·General Burnout (BO)		·Global Emotional Resources (GER) ·Camaraderie (CM; work-specific resources)	Separate measurements of ED, PD, BO, GER, and CM	·Fire fighters (n=547, Australians)	·The effects of ED on PD and BO are significantly moderated by CM such that its positive relations to PD and BO become weaker with high CM ·ED is not significantly interacted with GER	Tuckey & Hayward (2011)

NO.	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator	Measurement	Sample	Outcomes	Author(s) & Year
6	·Emotional Demands (ED)	·Workgroup Distress (WD)		·Psychological Safety Climate (PSC) ·Emotional Resources (ER)	Separate measurements of ED, WD, PSC, and ER	·Police Officers (n=139, Australians)	·The effects of ED on WD is significantly moderated by ER only when PSC of a unit is high such that its positive relation to WD becomes weaker with high ER only when PSC is high	Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann (2012)
7	·Emotional Demands (ED)	·Work Engagement (WE)		·Self-Efficacy (SEF) ·Optimism (OP)	Separate measurements of ED, WE, SEF, and OP	·Employees (n=163, Netherlands)	·The effects of ED on WE is significantly moderated by SEF such that its positive relation to WE becomes stronger with high SEF ·SEF is negatively related to WE when ED is low ·ED is not significantly interacted with OP	Xanthopoulou, Bakker, & Fischbach (2013)
8	·Emotional Demands (ED) ·Job Control (JC)	·Self-reported Insomnia Symptoms (SIS)			Separate measurements of ED and SIS	·Nurses (n=3035, Brazilians)	·Those with high ED and low JC show a higher level of SIS ·Those with high ED and low JC show a significant increase in SIS when combined with low social support *Analytic method used: Logistic regression with odds ratios	Portela et al. (2015)
9	·Emotional Sensitivity Demands (ESD) ·Emotional Display Demands (positive-PED, negative-NegD, neutral-NeuD)	·Job Satisfaction (JS) ·Need for Recovery (NR)	·Emotional Dissonance (EDSSN)	·Age (Ag) *Age is considered to serve as a proxy of one's ability to fulfill emotional demands of a job.	Separate measurements of ESD, PDD, NegDD, and NeuDD	·Employees of senior care homes (n=141, Germans)	·The effect of NeuD on EDSSN is significantly moderated by Ag such that its positive relation to EDSSN becomes stronger with young employees, but not with old ones ·The effects of ESD on JS and NR are significantly moderated by Ag such that its positive relation to JS becomes stronger among young employees; its positive relations to NE becomes stronger among old employees ·PED significantly indirectly influences JS only among older employees	Scheibe, Stamov-Roβnagel, & Zacher (2015)

NO.	IV	DV	Mediator	Moderator	Measurement	Sample	Outcomes	Author(s) & Year
10	·Emotional Demands (ED)	·Emotional Exhaustion (EE)		·Teaching self-Efficacy (TSE)	Separate measurements of ED, EE, and TSE	·Primary school teachers (n=551, Australians)	·Deep Acting is used as one sub-dimension of ED. ·The effect of ED (Deep Acting) on EE is significantly moderated by TSE such that its positive relation to EE becomes stronger with low TSE	Tuxford & Bradley (2015)
11	·Emotional Demands (ED)	·Suicidal Ideation (SI)		·Job Control (JC)	Separate measurements of ED, SI, and JC	·Service workers (n=1,999, Koreans)	·Those with high ED and both high and low JC show a higher level of SI than those with low ED and high JC *Analytic method used: Logistic regression with odds ratios	Yoon, Jeung, & Chang (2016)

Table 3. Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age (T1)	35.06	11.02											
2. Gender (T1)	.52	.50	.06										
3. Job tenure (T1)	6.59	7.64	.53**	.02									
4. NA (T1)	1.70	.66	-.21**	.01	-.13*	(.91)							
5. POJ (T1)	5.23	1.57	.29**	.06	.17**	-.33**	(.96)						
6. ECID (T2)	4.38	1.35	.19**	.09	.04	-.26**	.45**	(.88)					
7. CDR (T2)	5.55	1.17	.22**	.12*	.13*	-.27**	.28**	.24**	(.91)				
8. ED-A Fit (T3)	5.29	1.36	.28**	.08	.16**	-.44**	.49**	.40**	.32**	(.91)			
9. EE (T4)	4.12	1.69	-.15**	.00	-.03	.37**	-.31**	-.26**	-.24**	-.46**	(.94)		
10. SA (T4)	4.41	1.65	-.26**	.03	-.12*	.34**	-.24**	-.26**	-.23**	-.30**	.58**	(.96)	
11. DA (T4)	4.53	1.49	-.01	.07	.07	-.14**	.30**	.43**	.31**	.32**	-.18**	-.21**	(.94)

Note: $N = 363$. Reliabilities are shown in parentheses. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3; T4 = Time 4. NA = Negative affect; POJ = Psychological ownership of a job; ECID = Employee-customer identification; CDR = Commitment to display rules; ED-A fit = Emotional demands-abilities fit; EE = Emotional exhaustion; SA = Surface acting; DA = Deep acting.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4. Results of CFA and Chi-square difference test

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	*p*	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	*p*	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
7 factor model	1895.907 (719)	.000				.909	.916	.067	.060
6 factor model[a]	3184.070 (725)	.000	1288.16	6	.000	.812	.825	.097	.113
6 factor model[b]	3206.944 (725)	.000	1311.04	6	.000	.810	.823	.097	.088
6 factor model[c]	2531.769 (725)	.000	635.86	6	.000	.862	.872	.083	.085
1 factor model	10350.630 (740)	.000	8454.72	21	.000	.280	.317	.189	.181

Note. N = 363. a = Surface acting and deep acting were loaded on one factor. b = Surface acting and emotional exhaustion were loaded on one factor. c = ED-A fit and psychological ownership of a job were loaded on one factor.

Table 5. Summary of testing hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significance	Analytic method
H 1: POJ → ED-A fit An individual's POJ is positively related to his or her perceived ED-A fit.	O	Regression
H 2: POJ → CDR An individual's POJ is positively related to his or her CDR.	O	Regression
H 3: CDR → ED-A fit An individual's CDR will be positively related to ED-A fit.	O	Regression
H 4: ED-A fit → Surface acting An individual's ED-A fit will be negatively related to surface acting.	X (P = .051)	Regression
H 5: ED-A fit → Deep acting An individual's ED-A fit will be positively related to deep acting.	O	Regression
H 6: ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion An individual's ED-A fit will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	O	Regression
H 7: POJ → CDR → ED-A fit An individual's CDR will positively mediate the effect of POJ on ED-A fit.	O	Hayes M. 4
H 8: Sequential mediation effect of CDR and ED-A fit on DVs		
H 8a: POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Surface acting CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the negative relationship between POJ and surface acting.	X	Hayes M. 6
H 8b: POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Deep acting CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the positive relationship between POJ and deep acting.	O	Hayes M. 6
H 8c: POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion CDR and ED-A fit will sequentially mediate the negative relationship between POJ and emotional exhaustion.	O	Hayes M. 6
H 9: ECID moderates the effect of POJ on CDR ECID moderates the positive effect of POJ on CDR such that the effect of POJ becomes stronger when ECID is high.	X	Regression
H 10: ECID moderates the indirect effect of POJ to DVs via CDR and ED-A fit		
H 10a: ECID * [POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Surface acting] The indirect negative relation between POJ and surface acting through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.	X	Hayes M. 83
H 10b: ECID * [POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Deep acting] The indirect positive relation between POJ and deep acting through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.	X	Hayes M. 83
H 10c: ECID * [POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion] The indirect negative relation between POJ and emotional exhaustion through CDR and ED-A fit becomes stronger when ECID is high.	X	Hayes M. 83

Note: O = Significant; X = Not significant. H = Hypothesis. M = Model. All results are based on a two-tail test

Table 6. Results of regression analysis 1

	Commitment to display rules (T2)				Emotional demands-abilities fit (T3)		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Age (T1)	.02**	.01	.01	.01	.02***	.01*	.01
Gender (T1)	.25*	.23*	.21	.22	.18	.13	.10
Job tenure (T1)	.002	.002	.003	.003	.002	.001	.001
Negative affect (T1)	-.42***	-.33***	-.31***	-.30***	-.82***	-.61***	-.56***
POJ (T1)		.13***	.10*	.21*		.31***	.29***
ECID (T2)			.09	.25			
POJ (T1) × ECID (T2)				-.03			
Commitment to display rules (T2)							.15**
R^2	.11***	.14***	.15	.15	.23***	.34***	.35**
ΔR^2		.03***	.008	.003		.10***	.01**

Note: N = 363. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3; T4 = Time 4. POJ = Psychological ownership of a job; ECID = Employee-customer identification. Control variables include age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect. All tests are two-tailed. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7. Results of regression analysis 2

	Emotional exhaustion (T4)				Surface acting (T4)				Deep acting (T4)			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Age (T1)	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.004	-.03***	-.03***	-.03**	-.03**	-.01	-.02**	-.03***	-.03***
Gender (T1)	.02	.06	.09	.13	.14	.15	.19	.20	.22	.18	.10	.08
Job tenure (T1)	.02	.02	.02	.02	.007	.007	.008	.008	.02	.02	.02	.02
Negative affect (T1)	.92***	.77***	.72***	.49***	.74***	.66***	.61***	.53***	-.34**	-.14	-.03	.10
POJ (T1)		-.22***	-.20***	-.09		-.11*	-.09	-.05		.29***	.24***	.17***
CDR (T2)			-.16*	-.10			-.16*	-.14			.33***	.30***
ED-A fit (T3)				-.40***				-.14[a]				.24***
R^2	.15***	.18***	.19*	.26***	.15***	.16*	.17*	.18[a]	.04*	.11***	.17***	.20***
ΔR^2		.04***	.01*	.07***		.01*	.01*	.009[a]		.08***	.06***	.03***

Note: N = 363. Unstandardized coefficients are reported. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3; T4 = Time 4. POJ = Psychological ownership of a job; CDR = Commitent to Display Rules. Control variables include age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect. All tests are two-tailed. a = The effect of ED-A fit (T3) on Surface acting (T4) is significant when it is tested with a one tail test (p = .051 by a two tail test).

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

Table 8. Results of mediation analysis by Bootstrap method

	Coefficient	95% CI	
Direct and indirect effects of POJ on emotional demands-abilities (ED-A) fit			
POJ → ED-A fit	.29***	.224,	.385
POJ → Commitment to display rules (CDR) → ED-A fit	.02*	.003,	.045
Direct and indirect effects of POJ on surface acting			
POJ → Surface acting	-.05	-.166,	.069
POJ → CDR → Surface acting	-.02	-.045,	.002
POJ → ED-A fit → Surface acting	-.04	-.089,	.001
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Surface acting	-.003	-.008,	.000
Direct and indirect effects of POJ on deep acting			
POJ → Deep acting	.17**	.069	.278
POJ → CDR → Deep acting	.04*	.011	.079
POJ → ED-A fit → Deep acting	.07*	.028	.117
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Deep acting	.005*	.001	.012
Direct and indirect effects of POJ on emotional exhaustion			
POJ → Emotional exhaustion	-.09	-.200,	.028
POJ → CDR → Emotional exhaustion	-.01	-.035,	.006
POJ → ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion	-.11*	-.173,	-.066
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion	-.01*	-.019,	-.001

Note: N = 363. POJ = Psychological ownership of a job measured at Time 1. CDR and ED-A fit were measured at Time 2 and 3 respectively. Surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion were measured at Time 4. Coefficients are unstandardized. CI = confidence interval. Control variables include age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$, two-tail tests.

Table 9. Results of moderated mediation analysis by Bootstrap method

	Coefficient	95% CI	
Conditional indirect effects of POJ on surface acting			
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Surface acting			
Low employee-customer identification (–1 *SD*)	-.003	-.008,	.0002
Average employee-customer identification	-.002	-.006,	.001
High employee-customer identification (+1 *SD*)	-.001	-.006,	.003
Conditional indirect effects of POJ on dee acting			
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Deep acting			
Low employee-customer identification (–1 *SD*)	.004	.0002,	.012
Average employee-customer identification	.003	-.001,	.009
High employee-customer identification (+1 *SD*)	.001	-.004,	.008
Conditional indirect effects of POJ on emotional exhaustion			
POJ → CDR → ED-A fit → Emotional exhaustion			
Low employee-customer identification (–1 *SD*)	-.007	-.019,	-.001
Average employee-customer identification	-.005	-.014,	.001
High employee-customer identification (+1 *SD*)	-.002	-.014,	.007

Note: $N = 363$. POJ = psychological ownership of a job measured at Time 1. CDR = commitment to display rules measured at Time 2. ED-A fit = emotional demands-abilities fit measured at Time 3. Surface acting, deep acting, and emotional exhaustion were measured at Time 4. Coefficients are unstandardized. CI = confidence interval. Control variables include age, gender, job tenure, and negative affect.

Table 10. Summary of model fits for Cross-Lagged Panel Models (CLPMs)

Model	Interval	χ^2	*df*	*p* value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
[T 2 & T3]	1 week	614.106	201	.000	.941	.933	.075	.044
[T 1 & T3]	2 weeks	1063.875	205	.000	.865	.848	.108	.144
[T 2 & T4]	2 weeks	681.969	201	.000	.935	.925	.081	.043
[T 1 & T4]	3 weeks	1142.218	205	.000	.861	.844	.112	.155

Note: *N* = 363. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3; T4 = Time 4.

Table 11. Comparison of CLPMs

Model	Interval	With correlations among error terms		
		b	β	*p* value
[T 2 & 3]	1 week			
CDR (T 2) → EDA fit (T3)		-.002	-.001	.972
EDA fit (T 2) → CDR (T3)		.048	.055	.121
[T 1 & 3]	2 weeks			
CDR (T 1) → EDA fit (T3)		.880***	.414***	< .001
EDA fit (T 1) → CDR (T3)		.372***	.324***	< .001
[T 2 & 4]	2 weeks			
CDR (T 2) → EDA fit (T4)		.019	.015	.700
EDA fit (T 2) → CDR (T4)		.086**	.106**	.005
[T 1 & 4]	3 weeks			
CDR (T 1) → EDA fit (T4)		1.022***	.444***	< .001
EDA fit (T 1) → CDR (T4)		.308***	.293***	< .001

Note: N = 363. b = Unstandardized coefficients; β = Standardized coefficients. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; T3 = Time 3; T4 = Time 4. CDR = Commitment to Display Rules; EDA fit = Emotional Demands-Abilities fit. All tests are two-tailed. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix B: Measures and Items

All measures used in this research are offered as below. ® stands for a reversed item. Unless differently noted, participants were asked to answer survey questions on a 7-point Likert scale concerning the extent to which they agree or disagree with each question.

The 7-point Likert scale used in this study is as follow:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Neutral,

5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Moderately Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Psychological Ownership of a Job (POJ; Brown, Pierce, & Crossley, 2014)

I sense that this job is MINE.

I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this job.

I sense that this is MY job.

I sense that the work I do as part of my job is MINE.

I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for the work that I do.

The work I do at this organization is MINE.

Employee-Customer Identification (ECID; Anaza & Rutherford, 2012; Korschun, 2008)

When someone praises my customers, it feels like a personal compliment.

When I talk about my customers, I usually say ‘‘we’’ rather than ‘‘they.’’

When someone criticizes my customers, it feels like a personal insult.

I identify with my customers.

My customer’s satisfaction is my satisfaction.

I am interested in what others think about my customer.

Commitment to Display rules (CDR; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005)

When serving customers, I am committed to conforming to my company's customer service rules.

I think these service rules given by my organization are good to comply with.

When serving customers, I take these service rules seriously.

I care about conforming to these service rules.

When serving customers, it is difficult for me to give up these service rules.

When serving customers, it is hard to take these service rules seriously. ®

Quite frankly, I don't care if I conform to these service rules or not. ®

When serving customers, it would not take much to make me abandon these service rules. ®

Perceived Emotional Demands-Abilities fit (ED-A fit; Diefendorff, Greguras, &Fleenor, 2016)

The match is very good between the emotional demands of my job and my personal skills.

My ability to manage my emotions is a good fit with the requirements of my job.

My personal abilities and background provide a good match with the emotional demands that my job places on me.

Emotional Exhaustion (EE; Maslach & Jackson; 1981)

I feel emotionally drained from my work.

I feel used up at the end of the work day.

I dread having to get up in the morning and facing another day on the job.

I feel burned out from my work.

I feel frustrated by my job.

I feel I am working too hard at my job.

Surface Acting (SA; Maslach & Jackson; 1981)

I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.

I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.

I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with customers.

I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.

I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.

I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.

I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.

Deep Acting (DA; Maslach & Jackson; 1981)

I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers.

I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward customers.

I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.

I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.

Question items used for attention check

Please answer Strongly Agree. This question is to screen out random clicking.

I am not random clicking answers. Please select Neutral for this question.

I am not random clicking answers. Please select Strongly Agree.

For control purposes, please select Moderately.

For control purposes, please select Neutral.

Control Variables

Age: _____

Gender (Choose one)

Male Female

Race (Choose one)

White African-American Native American Hispanic Asian Other

Education (Choose one):

Less than High school

High school diploma

2 year college degree (ex. Associate's degree)

4 year college graduate (Bachelor's degree)

Graduate (Master, PhD) degree

Work hour: On average, how many hours per week do you work?

_____ hours (ex. 30 hours, or 36.5 hours)

Job Title

_____ (ex. Server at a restaurant, Hair stylist)

Job Tenure

How long have you worked on your current job?

_____ year(s) _____ months (ex. 1 year 5 months)

Organizational Tenure

How long have you worked with your current employer?

_____ year(s) _____ months (ex. 1 year 5 months)

Workload

How many customers do you usually serve or encounter per day?

_____ (ex. 10 customers)

Type of Service Delivery

In which way do you usually offer services for your customers? (Choose one)

Face-to-face Non face-to-face (ex. by phone, text, email, or etc.)

General Negative Affectivity

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1 = very slightly or not at all 2 = a little 3 = moderately

4 = quite a bit 5 = extremely

Scared _____	Afraid _____	Upset _____
Distressed _____	Jittery _____	Nervous _____
Ashamed _____	Guilty _____	Irritable _____
Hostile_____		

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