Abusive supervision and subordinate emotional labor: The moderating role of openness personality

Tsung-Yu Wu[1], Changya Hu[2]

[1]Department of Business Administration, National Taiwan University of Science and Technology
[2]Department of Business Administration, National Chengchi University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Tsung-Yu Wu, Department of Business Administration, National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, 43, Sec. 4, Keelung Rd., Taipei 106, Taiwan. E-mail: wu5815@ms15.hinet.net or tywu@mail.ntust.edu.tw

Abstract

We investigated the differential relationships between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies used by subordinates (surface acting and deep acting). Furthermore, we examined whether subordinates' openness personality moderated the above relationships. Using the questionnaire survey method, we collected data from 210 employees in China. The results of hierarchical regression showed that abusive supervision related positively to surface acting (regulating facial expression) but negatively to deep acting (regulating inner feeling). Openness personality moderated the relationships between abusive supervision and the two emotional labor strategies, such that the relationships were stronger for employees with lower openness. Findings of our study contribute to the literature on workplace emotions and negative leadership.

The researchers in the field of organizational behavior show a growing interest in exploring deviant managerial behaviors (e.g., Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Lipman-Blumen, 2005). One of the research streams concerns abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, & Giacalone, 2008). According to Tepper (2000), abusive supervision is the subordinates' perceptions of their supervisors' sustained display of hostile nonphysical behaviors toward them (p. 178), such as ridiculing, belittling, or yelling. Since the last decade, empirical studies on abusive supervision have accumulated evidence that abusive supervision leads to subordinates' psychological distress in the forms of emotional exhaustion, anxiety, depression, and job tension (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007; Tepper, 2000; Wu & Hu, 2009); undermines job attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Tepper et al., 2008); decreases job performance (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007); and elicits deviant workplace behavior (Dupré, Inness, Connelly, Barling, & Hoption, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Additionally, abusive supervision increases the cost to corporations because it increases absenteeism, turnover, legal costs, and health care costs (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). Clearly, abusive supervision is an important issue in the workplace that deserves continued scholarly investigation and managerial attention.

While most empirical studies have focused on the consequences of abusive supervision in terms of subordinates' well-being, job attitudes, and work-related behaviors, relatively less research has investigated subordinates' emotional reactions to abusive supervision. Although some organizational scholars have examined the ways in which the leadership process influences the emotions of its followers (Humphrey, 2002), the studies focused on how positive leadership behaviors (i.e., transformational leadership, facilitative leadership) relate to subordinates' emotional consequences (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). Little is known about subordinates' emotional responses to negative supervisory behaviors, especially about how subordinates regulate their emotions to cope with abusive supervision. As Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, and Carr (2007) pointed out, supervisors have higher status and power to allocate valued resources, and thus it is more practical for subordinates who rely on these resources to suppress their negative emotions and display positive ones in response to abusive supervision instead of directly confronting their supervisors at the risk of damaging their working relationships. Although Tepper's viewpoint is plausible, this issue has not been empirically examined in the abusive supervision literature.

To respond to the above research calls, we examined subordinates' use of emotional regulation strategies in response to

abusive supervision. We adopted the concept of *emotional labor*, the effort required to suppress inappropriate emotions and display appropriate emotions during interpersonal transactions in the workplace (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor involves the enhancement or inhibition of emotions in order to modify emotional expression within work contexts. According to Grandey's (2000) emotional labor model, negative events can increase employees' efforts to engage in emotional labor. These negative events may involve interactions with unfair customers as well as abusive supervisors (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008). While empirical studies conducted in the context of interacting with unjust customers generally supported Grandey's emotional labor model (Rupp, McCane, Spencer, & Sonntag, 2008; Spencer & Rupp, 2009), this model received mixed support in the context of abusive supervision. For example, Wu (2008) found that abusive supervision related positively to subordinates' emotional labor toward supervisors whereas Grandey, Kern, and Frone (2007) failed to identify a relationship between supervisor's verbal abuse and emotional labor demands. We offer possible reasons for the above inconsistency. First, Wu conceptualized emotional labor as involving the interactions with the *supervisor* while Grandey et al. (2007) considered emotional labor as *involving the interactions with the public* (i.e., dealing with external customers or the public in general). We argue that the conceptualization of emotional labor in Wu's study is more applicable to the current study because, in the context of abusive supervision, subordinates' emotional labor has a direct and specific target, the supervisor, not the general customers or the public. Second, both Grandey et al. and Wu considered emotional labor as a unitary construct. However, many scholars argued that the operationalization of emotional labor strategies could be categorized into two types, *surface acting* and *deep acting*. Surface acting refers to the efforts to change external emotional displays to meet the interpersonal expectation on the job, whereas deep acting refers to the efforts to change the internal feeling to actually feel the emotion that is expected on the job (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). The emotional labor literature has showed that these two strategies are distinct from each other and have differential relationships with their antecedents and outcomes (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004). Given that neither Grandey et al. nor Wu differentiated these two strategies in their conceptualization of emotional labor, we investigate whether the emotional labor model proposed by Grandey can be applied in the context of abusive supervision and whether abusive supervision relates differently to surface acting and deep acting.

In addition, our study also attempted to examine the moderating role of openness personality on the relationships between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies. We chose openness personality for two reasons. First,

one unique feature of openness personality is having the flexibility to modify the existing attitudes and behaviors in order to fit the new situation (Flynn, 2005) such as life change (Whitbourne, 1986) and organization change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). This feature is distinct from the other four traits in five-factor model (FFM) of personality. While other four traits in FFM have been examined in the emotional labor literature, openness to personality received little attention in previous emotional labor research (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005). Second, in the rapidly changing environment, organizations have to be flexible and responsive in order to gain competitive advantages. Consequently, employees in organizations are expected to be more open minded to adapt to the changes, various types of people, and different types of leadership styles (George & Zhou, 2001), including negative ones. Since interactions with supervisors are integral parts of employees' daily work activities, it is worthwhile to explore how openness personality influences the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional labor.

In summary, this study has two purposes: to explore the relationship between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies (surface acting and deep acting), and to examine the moderating effect of openness personality on these relationships. Our study can contribute to existing literature in three ways. First, previous emotional labor research has focused on service context. Our study extends emotional labor literature from service context to the supervisor–subordinate relationship. Our attempt is consistent with Morris and Feldman's (1996, p. 1004) notion that ". . . the concept of emotional labor can be generalized beyond frontline service roles to other organizational roles. . . ." Second, our study provides further evidence of the nomological network of surface acting and deep acting by exploring their differential relationships with abusive supervision. Third, workplace emotions research placed relatively little attention on openness personality compared to the other four traits in FFM of personality (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Our study fills the gap in the literature by considering openness personality as a moderator and shedding light on the boundary condition of abusive supervision–emotional labor relationship.

Literature review and hypotheses

Emotional labor in the supervisor–subordinate relationship

Emotional labor was first conceptualized by Hochschild (1983) as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and body display" (p. 7). She emphasized that emotional labor is "sold for a wage" and thus has "exchange value" in the commercial world (p. 7). Subsequent studies often focused on service transactions between

customers and service providers (Grandey et al., 2004; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). As such, the target toward which employees engage in emotional labor is always linked to outsiders of the organization (e.g., customers) rather than insiders of the organization, specifically the subordinate–supervisor dyad (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Grandey et al., 2007). We believe that the concept of emotional labor can be applied to a wide range of situations, from service encounters to interpersonal transactions between subordinates and supervisors, for three reasons.

First, Hochschild (1983) originally suggested that emotional labor resembles a marketplace commodity and has an exchange value that could be sold for a wage. She, as well as subsequent scholars, did not limit the emotional labor phenomenon to the service transaction between organizational insiders and external customers. In fact, any job role that involves interpersonal transactions, including staff employees who interact with coworkers and supervisors, requires, to a certain degree, emotional labor (Diefendorff et al., 2008; Hochschild, 1993). Past research has indicated that employees engage in emotional labor when interacting with supervisors. For example, Wichroski (1994) studied job roles of secretaries and showed that emotional labor is crucial for getting their tasks done more efficiently, including tasks involving social interaction with their boss. Lively (2000) studied the engagement of paralegals in emotional interaction with their supervisors, i.e., attorneys, and found that paralegals used several reciprocal emotion management strategies, including professionalism, deference, and caretaking, to deal with attorneys' emotions. Tepper (1995) argued that subordinates use several upward maintenance tactics when interacting with their supervisors. One of the identified regulative tactics that subordinates use involves regulating emotional displays. Accordingly, we argue that emotional labor indeed occurs in the interactions between subordinates and supervisors. Although we are aware of Grandey et al.'s (2007) argument that employees engage in emotional labor more frequently when dealing with customers rather than supervisors, this argument does not deny the fact that the concept of emotional labor is also applicable to subordinates' interactions with supervisors.

Second, from the perspective of social power, emotional labor in service encounters is similar to emotional labor in supervisor–subordinate relationships. Like the uneven exchanges between customers and employees, the relationship between supervisors and employees is also imbalanced (Grandey et al., 2007). Customers have the power to decide whether to buy the product and service from employees and thus have larger social power relative to employees. Similarly, supervisors have the position power to decide how to allocate resources, such as promotion and salary raise, to employees; thus, supervisors have larger social power compared to employees (Tepper, 2000, 2007). Because those with less power are expected to make more effort in emotional regulation compared to those with more power (Morris & Feldman, 1996), employees tend to engage in more emotional labor compared to customers just as subordinates tend to engage in more emotional labor compared to supervisors.

Third, in recent years, the field of emotional labor research has extended to negative aspects of customer behaviors. Many studies have investigated how employees regulate their emotions to deal with aggressive customers (Grandey et al., 2004; Spencer & Rupp, 2009). Similarly, an increasing number of leadership researchers have begun to consider the dark side of leadership behaviors, such as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007). According to Grandey's (2000) model of emotional labor, negative affect events are considered critical antecedents of emotional labor. Although both aggressive customers and abusive supervisors are sources of negative affect events, only aggressive customers received much research attention. However, since abusive supervision is pervasive in all occupations, research needs to examine the effect of abusive supervision on employees' well-beings (Tepper, 2000, 2007). Moreover, most service encounters involve only a one-time, relatively short interaction between an employee and a specific customer (Gutek, Bhappu, Liao-Troth, & Cherry, 1999). Therefore, the emotional labor in the service context may not be long lasting, even when an employee has to interact with an aggressive customer. In contrast, the interaction between a supervisor and a subordinate is likely to occur daily in the work context (Tepper, 2000). Since abusive supervision, by definition, is ongoing daily, not just occasional interaction at work (Wu & Hu, 2009), employees have to continuously engage in emotional labor when dealing with the same abusive supervisor. Therefore, abusive supervision can be perceived as a chronic antecedent to emotional labor whereas aggressive customers may be an acute antecedent to emotional labor. From this perspective, the effect of abusive supervision on emotional labor should be thoroughly considered.

Abusive supervision and emotional labor

Grandey (2000) posited that negative emotional events lead to more emotional regulation, specifically when these events result in emotions that are incongruent with the expectation of the organization. However, she did not further clarify whether the effect of negative events on surface acting is the same for deep acting. We propose that abusive supervision is positively related to employees' surface acting but negatively to deep acting for two reasons.

First, Zapf (2002) indicated that action theory can explain emotional labor process. Specifically, Zapf considered work activities as a sequence of actions directed by a hierarchical system of goals and subgoals. Within such a system, three levels of action regulations can be distinguished. The

highest level, *intellectual level*, involves complex action regulations such as situation analyzing, problem solving, decision making, and so forth. It entails a conscious process, follows a step-by-step information process mode, and requires cognitive resources. The middle level, *flexible action patterns level*, involves routine or scripted action regulations. Although this level is not as resource consuming as the intellectual level, it still requires some cognitive resources. The lowest level, *sensorimotor level*, involves automatic action regulations. It requires little conscious attention, follows a parallel information process mode, and consumes few cognitive resources. Surface acting can be categorized as a form of *response-focused emotion regulation*, which contains behavioral change strategies, such as faking or suppressing emotions. On the contrary, deep acting is a form of *antecedent-focused emotional regulation*, which includes cognitive change strategies, such as positive refocus (shifting attention to positive things) and perspective taking (reappraising the events from other person's viewpoint) (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2004). Based on action theory, surface acting can be considered at the flexible action level because merely faking emotional display is close to a routine process that requires little cognitive effort. On the contrary, deep acting can be regarded at the intellectual level because modifying inner feelings through cognitive change entails conscious control, which requires more cognitive effort (Zapf, 2002). In other words, deep acting requires purposefully invoking thoughts, images, and memories to generate expected emotions, not just displaying phony emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 93). In addition, emotional labor usually plays the role of a secondary task (e.g., service with a smile) in support of primary task (e.g., provide high-quality service performance). When the primary task is difficult and requires the utilization of a number of psychological resources (e.g., effectively dealing with aggressive customers), employees are more likely to adopt surface acting rather than deep acting, since deep acting requires more effort compared to surface acting (Ashman, 2008). If employees use deep acting instead of surface acting, they may need to shift a substantial amount of resources from primary task to emotional labor activity (secondary task), which may interfere with the completion of a difficult primary task (Zapf, 2002). In addition, at the intellectual level, deep acting operates in a sequential mode, and it cannot be easily performed parallel to other complex conscious processes (Frese & Zapf, 1994; Zapf, 2002). As such, employees are more likely to use surface acting rather than deep acting in face of difficult primary task. In the case of abusive supervision, when the severity or frequency of abusive supervision increases, the amount of resources required to deal with difficult supervisors also increases. Since employees still have to be assigned job responsibilities

(primary task) at the same time, they are more likely to act superficially and less likely to act deeply in front of their supervisors (secondary task), owing to the lack of psychological resources to engage in deep acting. The conservation of resources (CORs) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), which contends that people are motivated to obtain, retain, and protect resources, supports this argument. When individuals cope with job stressors, their resources are depleted, which results in psychological distress (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). To avoid resource loss, individuals may engage in coping strategies that consume minimal resources. In fact, abusive supervision can be considered a job stressor that requires resources expenditure (Harris et al., 2007; Wu & Hu, 2009). Subordinates who perceive higher levels of abusive supervision will engage in more surface acting than deep acting to deal with their supervisors because surface acting consumes fewer resources compared to deep acting.

Second, surface acting is *faking in bad faith*, which means that employees regulate their emotions just to keep the job instead of promoting the benefits of the organization. Faking emotions in bad faith often implies that employees do not commit to their organizations or jobs. Therefore, employees just pretend to display the required emotions while keeping the inner feelings unchanged. In contrast, deep acting is *faking in good faith*, which implies that employees have goodwill too and are willing to identify with their organizations or jobs. Consequently, employees change their emotions from inside out and display emotions that are consistent with their feelings (Grandey, 2000, 2003; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Abusive supervision may elicit injustice perceptions and negative feelings in the employees (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, 2000, 2007). Although employees hope to escape from their supervisors, because of the enduring nature of abusive supervision, the employees continue to suffer from mistreatment (Tepper, 2000). However, since the interaction is inevitable, employees may interact superficially with their supervisors in order to maintain a baseline level of supervisor–subordinate relationship while, at the same time, distancing themselves from the abusive supervisors. Such practice is referred to as *regulative tactics* (Tepper et al., 2007). Indeed, surface acting can be regarded as a form of regulative tactics (Tepper, 1995). That is, by faking emotions in bad faith, employees can pretend an acceptable emotional display in front of the supervisor while still maintaining the feelings of injustice and anger. In other words, employees have no intention to change the inner feelings toward their supervisors when they do not identify with their supervisors. As abusive supervision increases, it may be less likely for employees to perform deep acting. This is because when supervisors show a lot of criticism and rudeness and shout angrily at their subordinates, employees become preoccupied with considerable amount of negative experiences. In such circum-

stances, it is difficult for employees to fake emotions in good faith by taking the perspective of the abuser with whom they do not identify (perspective taking) or by shifting attention to positive things under the interference of negative experiences (positive refocus).

Some empirical studies have provided preliminary support for the above arguments in the context of customer encounters, showing that negative events from customers lead to more surface acting but less deep acting (Grandey et al., 2004; Rupp et al., 2008). For example, Grandey et al. (2004) showed that individuals who appraise customer aggression as highly stressful engage more in surface acting rather than deep acting, whereas individuals who appraise customer aggression as mildly stressful engage more in deep acting rather than surface acting. Rupp et al. (2008) demonstrated that interpersonal and informational injustices from customers are positively associated with employee surface acting but negatively with employee perspective taking (deep acting). Drawing on the above theoretical perspectives and empirical evidence, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a. Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee surface acting.

Hypothesis 1b. Abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee deep acting.

The moderating effect of openness personality

We propose that openness to experience serves as a moderator that weakens the relationship between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies for two reasons. First, past research showed that people high on openness to experience tend to effectively use coping strategies to handle life events (Judge et al., 1999; McCrae & Costa, 1986). Openness to experience also positively related to flexibility to accept or initiate change in both work and nonwork area (Whitbourne, 1986). Indeed, open individuals utilize a large range of coping strategies and prefer specially problem-solving strategy in response to stressful events, instead of using simply emotional regulation strategies to distance and avoid the stressors (Bouchard, 2003; Grant & Langan-Fox, 2007). In addition, open individuals prefer to show "rational expression of emotions" instead of concealing real feelings in response to interpersonal conflict (Marshall, Wortman, Vickers, Kusulas, & Hervig, 1994, p. 281). Specifically, they may question authority instead of suppressing thoughts and feelings in compliance with authority (Flynn, 2005; McCrae, 1996). In short, in response to stressors such as abusive supervision, individuals high on openness to experience are more likely to adopt a wider range of coping strategies, other than emotional regulation. Thus, openness to experience may weaken the associa-

tion between abusive supervision and emotional labor strategies used in response to abusive supervision, including both surface and deep acting.

Second, openness to experience is characterized by open-mindedness, tolerance, curiosity, inquisitiveness, and the willingness to accept new experience (Fitzgerald, 1966; Goldberg, 1992). These characteristics allow individuals to have a wider range of experiences, feelings, thoughts, and ideas (Flynn, 2005; George & Zhou, 2001), as well as increase their level of perceived coping ability (Grant & Langan-Fox, 2007). In CORs theory, such experiences and abilities are resources that may compensate for the resource loss in response to job stressor (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). Therefore, individuals high on openness to experience may have more resources to respond to abusive supervision. Although deep acting requires more resources (Zapf, 2002), recipients might be more likely to perceive it as authentic. This might increase positive interpersonal consequences and lead to more resource gains in the context of supervisor–subordinate interaction (Gardner et al., 2009). When individuals acquire more cognitive resources because of openness to experience, they may reconsider how to allocate resources to deep acting and surface acting. Based on action theory (Zapf, 2002), deep acting (intellectual level) consumes more resources compared to surface acting (flexible action patterns level). However, we argue that, after calculating the cost-effectiveness of these two emotional labor strategies, employees may realize that investing in deep rather than surface acting may help them acquire more resources, or at least help them avoid additional resource loss. Following the prediction of CORs theory (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001), employees will rethink the overall utilization of resources, increasing the allocation of resources to deep acting (more consuming but more rewarding) while decreasing the allocation of resources to surface acting (less consuming but less rewarding). Such reallocation of resources would reduce the likelihood of individuals to engage more in surface acting and less in deep acting under abusive supervision, which may weaken the association between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies. In short, high openness employees will have more resources, and thus they are more willing to and able to allocate more resources to deep acting under abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 2a. Openness personality will moderate the positive relationship between abusive supervision and surface acting such that the relationship will be weaker for individuals with a higher level of openness.

Hypothesis 2b. Openness personality will moderate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and deep acting such that the relationship will be weaker for individuals with a higher level of openness.

Method

Participants

We collected data from companies in Southeastern China. Participants were full-time employees with immediate supervisors. We contacted a human resources consultant who provided consulting services to several manufacturing companies located in Southeastern China. The consultant held training sessions for these companies on a regular basis and distributed the survey questionnaire after the training session. Since the questionnaire involved negative supervisory behavior, we assured participants that their responses would not be available to their supervisors or companies. Furthermore, participants were instructed to return the survey directly to the consultant. We distributed 300 questionnaires and received 238 questionnaires, reflecting a return rate of 80%. After excluding incomplete questionnaires, our sample included 210 participants. The average age of the participants was 26.10 years ($SD = 4.98$), the average tenure in the current organization was 3.18 years ($SD = 3.03$), and the average length of the participants' work-based relationships with the reported supervisors was 2.49 years ($SD = 2.78$). Of all the participants, 38.6% were male and 49.5% had a supervisor of the same sex. Most participants were in nonmanagement positions (57.1%), and 24.8% were first-line managers. The participants worked in various job functions, including manufacturing and quality control (44.8%), administration (18.1%), sales (14.3%), and research and development (7.6%).

Measures

Because Chinese is the native language of all respondents, all items were translated from English to Chinese using the back-translation approach suggested by Brislin (1980).

Abusive supervision

We used Tepper's (2000) 15-item questionnaire to measure abusive supervision on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*I cannot remember his/her ever using this behavior with me*) to 6 (*He or she uses this behavior very often with me*). A sample item is, "Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid." The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .90.

Surface acting and deep acting

We modified the emotional regulation scale developed by Grandey et al. (2004) to measure respondents' surface acting and deep acting. The original scale measures a service provider's emotional coping responses to negative interpersonal events. Items of this scale reflect surface acting and deep acting (positive refocus and perspective taking). To fit

the purpose of our study, we modified items by replacing the target of emotional labor from aggressive customers to abusive supervisors. We also added items adapted from Wu and Cheng (2006) to adequately measure the construct of surface acting and deep acting under the context of abusive supervision. The items used are listed in the Appendix. Participants responded to all items using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

To examine the psychometric properties of these items, we conducted a pilot study and obtained a sample of 113 full-time employees who have an immediate supervisor. These pilot participants had an average tenure in the current organization of 8.63 years ($SD = 7.99$), and 63.7% of the participants were female. The results of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) indicated that the two-factor model (surface acting vs. deep acting) fit the data well ($\chi^2_{(19)} = 38.85$, $p < .01$, NNFI = .95, CFI = .97, PGFI = .49, SRMR = .06). All items had significant factor loadings ($p < .01$) on the corresponding factors. Furthermore, we compared the two-factor model to a single-factor model where surface acting and deep acting were combined into a single "emotional labor" factor. The results showed that the single-factor model did not provide better fit than the two-factor model ($\chi^2_{(20)} = 75.42$, $p < .01$, NNFI = .88, CFI = .91, PGFI = .49, SRMR = .37). Furthermore, the chi-square difference between the one-factor model and the two-factor model was significant ($\triangle\chi^2_{(1)} = 36.57$), suggesting the scale reflects two rather than one emotional labor factors.

In addition, available empirical evidence also suggests that the deep acting contains various kinds of strategies, including mainly positive refocus and perspective taking (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2004). In our study, the items measuring deep acting reflect these two strategies. In order to examine whether positive refocus and perspective taking should be further differentiated, we conducted CFA to test two additional models: three-factor model (surface acting, positive refocus, and perspective taking) and two-factor model (surface acting and deep acting in which items under positive refocus and under perspective taking were both specified to reflect deep acting). The results showed that both models provided good fit to the data (three-factor model: $\chi^2_{(17)} = 34.38$, $p < .01$, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97, PGFI = .44, SRMR = .05; two-factor model: $\chi^2_{(18)} = 34.95$, $p < .01$, NNFI = .95, CFI = .97, PGFI = .47, SRMR = .05). Since the chi-square difference test indicated that the model fit of three-factor model was not significantly better than the model fit of the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = .57$, $p > .05$), we still adopted the two-factor model (surface acting and deep acting) in our current study. The Cronbach's alphas for surface acting and deep acting scales were .93 and .78, respectively, for the pilot sample; and .81 and .70 for the sample used for hypothesis testing.

Openness to experience

We used Saucier's (1994) 8-item adjective measure to assess participants' openness to experience. Example items included adjectives such as "creative" and "imaginative." We asked our participants to indicate how they feel these eight adjectives describe them. Each item was measured on a 9-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*extremely inaccurate*) to 9 (*extremely accurate*). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .71.

Control variables

Based on previous studies on abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Wu & Hu, 2009) and emotional labor (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996), we controlled for the participants' positive affectivity (PA), negative affectivity (NA), sex, tenure in the current organization, tenure with the supervisor, job level, and the supervisors' sex. Following the study by Wu and Hu (2009), we measured both PA and NA with four items selected from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The four items that measured PA were enthusiastic, determined, excited, and interested, and the four items measuring NA were distressed, upset, afraid, and scared. Wu and Hu found that the 4-item PA scale correlated highly with original 10-item PA scale ($r = .91, p < .01$), and the 4-item NA scale also correlated highly with original 10-item NA scale ($r = .84, p < .01$). Therefore, we argue that the use of this short version of PANAS instead of original full version of PANAS is reasonable. We asked participants to indicate on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*strongly*) their feelings in general. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .72 and .75 for PA and NA, respectively.

Analysis

To ensure the construct validity of all study variables, we first conducted a series of CFAs, following suggestions by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Next, following Baron and Kenny's (1986) suggestions, we used hierarchal regression analyses to test all hypotheses. To prevent collinearity issues, we centered the two antecedent variables while testing the hypotheses (Aiken & West, 1991).

Results

Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendations, we conducted CFAs on a four-factor model consisting of abusive supervision, deep acting, surface acting, and openness to experience. The chi-square value of the model was significant ($\chi^2_{(428)} = 943.52, p < .05$), and other practical fit indices fell within acceptable ranges (NNFI = .91; CFI = .92; PGFI = .67; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .08). The results of the CFAs suggest that all items had significant factor loadings ($p < .05$) on the corresponding factors except for one item that measured openness to experience (the adjective "complex"), providing partial support for the convergent validity of the four-factor model. We examined the discriminant validity using chi-square difference tests, constraining the correlation between each pair of latent constructs to one. The six chi-square difference values with one degree of freedom ranged from 131.06 to 344.88, providing support for discriminant validity.

Because the convergent validity was not fully supported, we ran an alternative four-factor model, dropping the item "complex." The alternative four-factor model had a significant chi-square value ($\chi^2_{(399)} = 898.47, p < .05$), and other practical fit indices fell within acceptable ranges (NNFI = .91; CFI = .92; PGFI = .67; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .08). We decided to retain the item in all subsequent statistical analyses and hypothesis testing for three reasons. First, we retained this item to ensure the completeness of the openness personality construct. Second, the correlation between the 8-item and the 7-item composite scores was .96 ($p < .01$). Third, the two composite scores had similar correlation patterns with other study variables. For example, openness to experience was not significantly related to abusive supervision and surface acting (8 items: $r = .07$ and $-.05$, n.s.; 7 items: $r = .03$ and $-.08$, n.s., respectively) but was positively related to deep acting (8 items: $r = .19, p < .01$; 7 items: $r = .20, p < .01$, respectively). Therefore, in the following paragraphs, we only reported the results with openness personality that was measured by eight items.

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations among the study variables. As can be seen in Table 1, abusive supervision related positively to surface acting ($r = .26, p < .01$) but negatively to deep acting ($r = -.21, p < .01$), which is consistent with our expectations.

The results of hierarchical regression analyses (Table 2) showed that abusive supervision relates positively to surface acting ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) but negatively to deep acting ($\beta = -.17, p < .05$) in step 2, supporting Hypothesis 1. Furthermore, Table 2 shows that the interaction between abusive supervision and openness to experience related significantly to surface acting ($\beta = -.17, p < .05$) and deep acting ($\beta = .25, p < .01$) in step 4. We followed Aiken and West's (1991) procedure to plot the significant effects. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, the relationships between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies were weaker for high openness personality individuals compared to low openness personality individuals. That is, openness to experience weakened the relationships between abusive supervision and the practices of emotional labor. Therefore, these findings supported Hypothesis 2.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix of Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Sex of subordinate	—	—											
2. Organizational tenure of subordinate	3.18	3.03	−.09										
3. Job level of subordinate	1.54	.74	−.29**	.43**									
4. Sex of supervisor	1.28	.45	.17*	−.14	−.24**								
5. Tenure with supervisor	2.49	2.78	−.12	.66**	.25**	−.15*							
6. Positive affectivity	2.96	.55	−.04	−.07	.07	−.08	.05	(.72)					
7. Negative affectivity	1.90	.55	.13	−.01	−.01	−.11	.06	.19**	(.75)				
8. Abusive supervision	1.51	.60	.03	.24**	.08	−.13	.15*	−.10	.19**	(.90)			
9. Openness	5.82	.96	−.10	−.10	.14*	−.01	−.12	.34**	.03	.07	(.71)		
10. Deep acting	4.35	.76	.03	−.04	.00	.03	−.06	.37**	−.04	−.21**	.19**	(.70)	
11. Surface acting	2.95	1.02	−.06	.05	−.03	−.03	.01	−.17*	.23**	.26**	−.05	−.04	(.81)

Note. N = 210. Values on the diagonal are Cronbach's α. Sex was coded as 1 = men and 2 = women. Tenure was calculated in terms of year. Job level was coded as 1 = staff, 2 = low-level manager, 3 = midlevel manager, 4 = high-level manager.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2 Results of Regression Analyses

	Surface acting				Deep acting			
Predictors	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Control variables								
Negative affectivity	.34**	.29**	.29**	.29**	−.13	−.08	−.08	−.08
Positive affectivity	−.21**	−.19*	−.18*	−.17*	.43**	.40**	.38**	.37**
Sex of subordinate	−.09	−.09	−.09	−.12	.07	.07	.07	.11
Seniority of subordinate	.07	.04	.03	.03	−.07	−.07	−.02	−.02
Job level of subordinate	−.06	−.05	−.04	−.05	.10	.09	.07	.08
Sex of supervisor	.03	.04	.05	.03	.13	.12	.12	.13
Tenure with supervisor	−.04	−.05	−.05	−.07	−.01	−.01	.00	.02
Predictor								
Abusive supervision		.17*	.18*	.22*		−.17*	−.18*	−.24**
Moderator								
Openness			−.02	.01			.06	.06
Interaction								
Openness × AS				−.17*				.25**
Total R^2	.13**	.16**	.16**	.18**	.20**	.23**	.23**	.29**
Adjusted R^2	.09	.12	.16	.18	.17	.19	.19	.24
F	3.49	3.72	3.29	3.55	5.83	5.83	5.24	6.29
ΔR^2	.13**	.03*	.00	.03*	.20**	.02*	.00	.06**

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Discussion

Previous studies on negative events and emotional labor strategies focused more on negative events induced by organizational outsiders such as aggressive customers (Grandey et al., 2004; Rupp & Spencer, 2006) and ignored important negative events induced by organizational insiders such as abusive supervisors. Although negative leadership and its relationship with emotional labor is an emerging research area (Grandey et al., 2007; Wu, 2008), previous studies did not follow Grandey's (2000) emotional labor model to distinguish emotional labor into two different strategies: surface acting and deep acting. In the present study, we aimed to bridge the literatures on abusive supervision and emotional labor by exploring differential relationships between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies. We also identified openness to experience as a meaningful moderator of the above relationships. As predicted, abusive supervision was positively associated with surface acting but negatively with deep acting. In addition, subordinates' openness to experience weakened the relationships between abusive supervision and two emotion labor strategies such that the relationships were weaker for individuals with a high level of openness to experience. We discuss our research findings as follows.
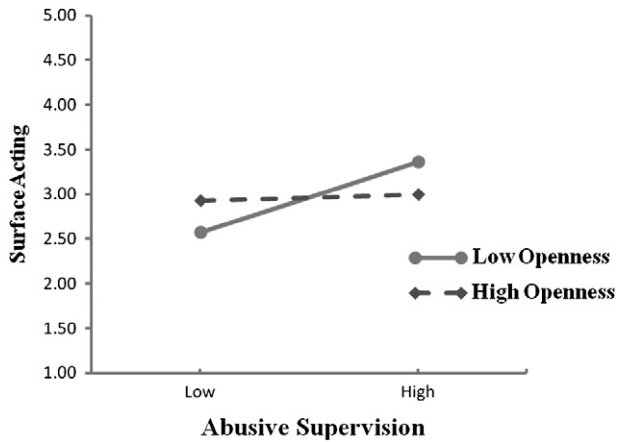
Figure 1 Moderating effect of openness to experience personality on the relationship between abusive supervision and surface acting.
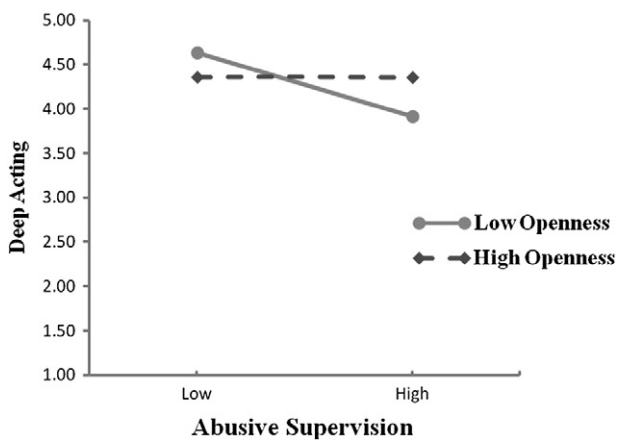

Figure 2 Moderating effect of openness to experience personality on the relationship between abusive supervision and deep acting.

First, unlike some previous studies that reported a positive relationship between surface acting and deep acting (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002, $r = .27$, $p < .01$; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002, $r = .30$, $p < .01$; Grandey, 2003, $r = .43$, $p < .01$), our study failed to identify a significant relationship between surface acting and deep acting ($r = -.04$, $p > .05$). Since both surface acting and deep acting reflect the construct of emotional labor (Grandey, 2000), we expected these two emotional labor strategies to correlate positively to a certain degree. One potential reason for such unexpected finding may be that the participants in previous studies on emotional labor were frontline service employees whose targets of emotional regulation were mostly customers. Since "service with a smile" is the crystal clear basic emotional display rule of service work (Johnson & Spector, 2007), when service employees engage in emotional labor strategies, they are more likely to obey the role expectation specified by the

emotion display rules, regardless of surface acting or deep acting. This may explain why many available studies found a positive relationship between surface acting and deep acting. However, under abusive supervision, there is no specific display rule that would guide employees about how to react when they face negative interpersonal events resulting from their interaction with their supervisors. Therefore, employees do not have a clear role expectation or social cues to guide their selection of emotional labor strategies. As a result, the potential relationship between surface acting and deep acting is attenuated.

Second, our study followed Grandey et al. (2004) and used positive refocus and perspective taking to represent the concept of deep acting. This raised a question whether openness to experience moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and positive refocus in the same way as it moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and perspective taking. To explore this issue, we conducted two additional moderated hierarchical regression analyses to examine whether the moderating effects of openness to experience are different for the above two relationships. When conducting these additional analyses, we used the same analytical approach that we used to test Hypothesis 2. The results showed that the moderating effects of openness to experience were similar in the two abusive supervision–emotional labor relationships (positive refocus: $\beta = .23$, $p < .01$; perspective taking: $\beta = .19$, $p < .05$). The moderating effects were similar to the pattern shown in Figure 2, such that the above two relationships were weaker for employees high on openness to experience. The results suggested that when subordinates have a higher tendency of openness to experience, abusive supervision was less likely to relate negatively to subordinates' engagement in shifting their focus to positive things, as well as taking the viewpoint of their supervisors.

Finally, Table 1 showed that the mean of abusive supervision was low ($M = 1.50$), which was consistent with previous research on abusive supervision (e.g., Hoobler & Brass, 2006, $M = 1.50$; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007, $M = 1.82$; Tepper, 2000, $M = 1.38$). This low base rate implies that distribution of the data is not normal, which violates the normal assumption of ordinary least squares regression. To examine whether nonnormality may affect the results of statistical analyses, we followed Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) and Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, and Marrs (2009) by transforming the negatively skewed data using the strategy of normalizing ranks (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The results of hierarchical regression remained the same, that is, the predictive effect of abusive supervision ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$) on surface acting were significant, supporting Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 2a. The predictive effect of abusive supervision ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$) and the interaction ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) on deep acting were also significant, supporting Hypothesis 1b and Hypothesis 2b. The above

analyses imply that the negatively skewed distribution of abusive supervision data should not lead to a serious bias in the findings of our study.

Managerial implication

Our study has some practical implications. First, the results showed that employees are more likely to engage in surface acting than deep acting under abusive supervision, because surface acting is a less demanding way to deal with difficult interpersonal events compared to deep acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Zapf, 2002). However, past research has shown that surface acting leads to more profound negative consequences than does deep acting (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006; Grandey, 2003). Tepper et al. (2007) also argued that, in the short term, people may suppress their emotions (surface acting) to avoid abusive supervision. Nonetheless, in the end, the chronic effect of abusive supervision may result in more severe psychological distress. Therefore, we suggest that, for the sake of long-term health, employees should adopt more deep acting strategies to cope with negative interpersonal events such as abusive supervision. Given that deep acting requires more cognitive effort in dealing with difficult situations, organizations can provide employees with training on how to increase their emotional regulation skills in the supervisor–subordinate relationship. As employees are taught to use more deep acting strategies when interacting with supervisors, they are less likely to experience resource-depleted symptoms, such as emotional exhaustion (Rupp & Spencer, 2006).

Second, our study demonstrated that openness to experience weakens the relationship between abusive supervision and two emotional labor strategies. As mentioned previously, people higher on openness utilize a large range of coping strategies when dealing with stressors and are not limited only to emotional regulation strategies (Grant & Langan-Fox, 2007). Thus, when such people face abusive supervision, their abundant coping repository may allow them to cope with abusive supervision more flexibly. Since individual's personality is unlikely to change to a great extent, organizations can teach employees various coping strategies to handle interpersonal stress. By doing so, employees may learn the most flexible and effective way to respond to abusive supervision. Indeed, research has shown that coping flexibility can be promoted through worksite stress management training program (Cheng & Cheung, 2005; Kaluza, 2000).

Limitations

First, the same individuals self-rated all of the variables, and thus our study may have the issue of common method variance. However, we believe that common method variance does not cause serious problems in our study for the following reasons. First, some researchers argue that common method variance may not cause a serious bias (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Spector, 1987, 2006). Furthermore, when the purpose of the study is to explore the moderating effect, common method bias is less likely to explain this effect (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Second, had the problem of common method variance posed serious bias in this study, we would expect that the correlations among the study variables would have similar strength and direction. However, as can be seen in Table 1, abusive supervision and surface acting were positively correlated whereas abusive supervision and deep acting were negatively correlated. Besides, openness correlated significantly only with deep acting, not surface acting. Such findings provide further evidence that common method variance may not pose serious bias on our findings. Third, the results of CFA supported the discriminant validity of the study variables, which reduces the possibility of common method variance as a general factor behind all study variables. Finally, we followed the suggestion of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) by adding additional variables (PA and NA) in the regression model to control the effect of common method variance. The results showed that all hypotheses were still supported, which implies that common method variance is not likely to affect our findings.

Although we may collect multiple sources of data and ask the supervisor to rate their own abusive behaviors to avoid common method variance, it may raise another problem in this study. That is, it is unlikely for supervisors to report their abusive supervisory behaviors owing to the social desirability bias. Such response bias is common when respondents are asked to rate their own workplace deviance (Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2002). Furthermore, abusive supervision is likely to be sustained because the supervisors are not aware that their behaviors are perceived as abusive (Tepper, 2000). Therefore, the supervisors may underreport their abusive leadership behaviors. In addition, previous research on aggression often focused on the victim's perspective because aggression is in the "eye of the beholder." That is, when subordinates perceive that the supervisors abuse them, they will respond to the perceived abuse (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007, p. 1165). This may explain why Tepper (2000) conceptualized abusive supervision as subordinate's perception instead of supervisor's self-report. Taken together, even though common method variance may exist, it is still more appropriate to rate abusive supervision by subordinates rather than supervisors.

Second, our study adopted a cross-sectional research design, which may introduce the problem of causal confusion. For example, one potential causally reversed explanation would be that subordinates' surface acting led to a greater level of perceived abusive supervision while subordinate's deep acting resulted in a reduced level of perceived abusive supervision. However, Grandey's (2000) emotional labor model clearly explains that negative emotional events (e.g., abusive supervision) lead to emotional labor, and this

perspective is evidenced in many empirical studies (Rupp et al., 2008; Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Wu, 2008). Therefore, it is more reasonable to propose that abusive supervision serves as an antecedent of surface acting and deep acting, not the reverse. Nevertheless, future research that would use a longitudinal research design to explore the casual relationship between abusive supervision and emotional labor would be able to address the problem of causality.

Third, given that one of the items measuring openness did not have a significant factor loading, we conducted additional analyses measuring openness using seven items with significant factor loadings. The results of the hypotheses testing remain unchanged, and all hypotheses were supported (Hypothesis 1a: $\beta = .17$, $p < .05$; Hypothesis 1b: $\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$; Hypothesis 2a: $\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$; Hypothesis 2b: $\beta = .22$, $p < .01$). Therefore, we argue that the convergent validity of the item should not pose a severe threat to the internal validity of our findings.

Finally, drawing on action theory (Zapf, 2002) and CORs theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), we used the concept of resources as the basis of inference throughout this study. However, we did not include variables that directly reflect the concept of resources. Therefore, further research may consider resources as a variable and explore its role in the relationship between abusive supervision, emotional labor, and openness personality.

Future research directions

We identify some future research directions based on our findings. First, the construct emotional labor strategies may comprise more complicated and not just dichotomous categorization (surface acting and deep acting) used in our study. Previous literature suggested that emotional regulation strategies can be categorized into antecedent-focused regulation and response-focused regulation (Grandey, 2000). Gross (1998) proposed that antecedent-focused regulation can be further divided into situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and cognitive change. The above five emotional regulation strategies can be applied to the interaction with difficult customers (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002) as well as with aggressive supervisors (Diefendorff et al., 2008). In our study, surface acting can be categorized as a type of response-focused regulation. Deep acting can be categorized as a type of antecedent-focused regulation because it contains positive refocusing and perspective taking, corresponding to attentional deployment, and cognitive change. Since our study did not consider additional two categories of antecedent-focused regulation (situation selection and situation modification), future research can consider multifaceted emotional regulation strategies when investigating subordinates' emotional responses to abusive supervision.

Second, in addition to emotional labor strategies, subordinates can also use a confrontative strategy to deal with abusive supervision. That is, subordinates may express anger toward supervisors directly or voice their feelings in modified ways (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986). In fact, previous studies on negative events found that when people face stronger negative interpersonal events in the workplace, they are more likely to express anger directly (Grandey et al., 2004). Accordingly, future studies that examine emotional regulation in the workplace may also incorporate the concept of venting in the research model and examine whether the use of different types of emotional regulation is contingent on the strength of negative events that individuals experience.

Third, our study focused on subordinate's emotional regulation strategies toward supervision's mistreatment, which is limited to the dyadic relationships between these two persons: supervisor and subordinate. Indeed, emotion in organization is a social influence process; an employee's emotional responses to a negative interpersonal event will also shape others' emotions, behaviors, and cognitions, involving multiple people in the *emotional cycle process* (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Such a process can also be applied to the delivery of emotional labor strategies (Spencer & Rupp, 2009). For example, when a subordinate suffers from abusive supervision, this subordinate may undertake emotional labor strategies to reduce supervisor's mistreatment. Other subordinates who witness the emotional exchange process may infer that the supervisor has a hostile character and is losing his temper at that point. In order not to be another victim of displaced aggression, these subordinates may also engage in emotional labor when interacting with the supervisor. Given that the leadership is often in the context of a group setting, the effect of emotional labor may spill over to the other group members. In this context, how other group members respond to a negative interpersonal event that happens to other members in the group deserves more research attention. Future research may take the perspective of emotional cycle when examining the interpersonal process involved in emotional labor.

Fourth, although our study focused on subordinates' emotional labor in dealing with abusive supervision, some scholars argue that subordinates may also display abusive behaviors toward supervisors (Dupré et al., 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) and that supervisor may need to engage in emotional labor when dealing with abusive subordinates (Gardner et al., 2009). Therefore, it would be interesting to explore supervisors' emotional labor in response to subordinates' abusive behaviors and the differences between supervisors and subordinates' emotional labor toward abusive behavior. In addition, Aryee et al. (2007) found that supervisors' perceptions of injustice will carry over to abusive supervision toward subordinates through a trickle-down process.

Future research can explore whether an upper level manager's abusive supervision toward a lower level manager will affect the lower level manager's abusive supervision toward subordinates as well as investigate the trickle-down process of emotional labor.

Finally, future research can investigate other potential moderators of the relationship between abusive supervision and emotional labor. For example, quality of leader–member exchange (LMX) relationship refers to the degree of mutual trust, respect, liking, or reciprocal influence between supervisor and subordinate (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), and it may be considered as a type of resources. It would be interesting to explore whether LMX, as a resource, may compensate for the resource loss caused by abusive supervision and thus weaken the abusive supervision–emotional labor relationship, as proposed by CORs (Hobfoll, 1989). Alternatively, given that LMX indicates a positive relationship, contrary to abusive supervision, subordinate may feel confused when experiencing both high LMX and severe abusive supervision. Under such conflicting circumstances, could LMX result in more resources loss and thus strengthen the abusive supervision–emotional labor relationship, as proposed by the domain exacerbation interaction perspective (Duffy et al., 2002)? Examination of the interaction between LMX and abusive supervision on employee outcomes can highlight the complexity of supervisory behavior and employee reactions.

Conclusion

Our study showed that abusive supervision relates positively to a subordinate's surface acting but negatively to deep acting and that the subordinate's openness to experience personality weakens these relationships. Since past research on emotional labor focused mainly on service encounters, our study extends the concept of emotional labor to the supervisor–subordinate dyadic relationship and broadens the application scope of emotional labor. Moreover, although plenty of empirical studies on abusive supervision have demonstrated the negative consequences of abusive supervision, little is known about the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' emotional labor strategies. To fill this gap, our study links supervisors' abusive behaviors and subordinates' emotional labor strategies. In short, our study contributes to the field of emotional labor as well as the literature on abusive supervision.

References

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 411–423.

Aryee, S., Chen, Z. X., Sun, L.-Y., & Debrah, Y. A. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 191–201.

Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (1993). Emotional labor in service roles: The influence of identity. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*, 88–115.

Ashman, I. (2008). Deep acting and bad faith: A Sartrean treatment. *International Journal of Work Organization and Emotion*, *2*, 288–304.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173–1182.

Beal, D. J., Trougakos, J. P., Weiss, H. M., & Green, S. G. (2006). Episodic processes in emotional labor: Perceptions of affective delivery and regulation strategies. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 1053–1065.

Bouchard, G. (2003). Cognitive appraisals, neuroticism, and openness as correlates of coping strategies: An integrative model of adaptation to marital difficulties. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, *35*, 1–12.

Brislin, R. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-culture psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 389–444). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Brotheridge, C. M., & Grandey, A. A. (2002). Emotional labor and burnout: Comparing two perspectives of "people work." *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *60*, 17–39.

Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2002). Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7*, 57–67.

Cheng, C., & Cheung, M. W. L. (2005). Cognitive processes underlying coping flexibility: Differentiation and integration. *Journal of Personality*, *73*, 859–886.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Crampton, S., & Wagner, J. (1994). Percept-percept inflation in microorganizational research: An investigation citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, *79*, 67–76.

Diefendorff, J. M., Croyle, M. H., & Gosserand, R. H. (2005). The dimensionality and antecedents of emotional labor strategies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *66*, 339–359.

Diefendorff, J. M., Richard, E. M., & Yang, J. (2008). Linking emotion regulation strategies to affective events and negative emotions at work.

Journal of Vocational Behavior, *73*, 498–508.

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 331–351.

Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., Connelly, C. E., Barling, J., & Hoption, C. (2006). Workplace aggression in teenage part-time employees. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 987–997.

Fitzgerald, E. T. (1966). Measurement of openness to experience: A study of regression in the service of the ego. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *4*, 655–663.

Flynn, F. J. (2005). Having an open mind: The impact of openness to experience on interracial attitudes and impression formation. *Personality Processes and Individual Differences*, *88*, 816–826.

Folkman, S., Lazarus, R., Dunkel-Schetter, C., DeLongis, A., & Gruen, R. J. (1986). Dynamics of a stressful encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping, and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*, 992–1003.

Frese, M., & Zapf, D. (1994). Action as the core of work psychology: A German approach. In H. C. Triandis & M. D. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 4, pp. 271–340). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Gardner, W. L., Fischer, D., & Hunt, J. F. (2009). Emotional labor and leadership: A threat to authenticity? *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*, 466–482.

George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 513–524.

Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the big-five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, *4*, 26–42.

Goldberg, L. S., & Grandey, A. A. (2007). Display rules versus display autonomy: Emotion regulation, emotional exhaustion, and task performance in a call center simulation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*, 301–318.

Gosserand, R. H., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2005). Emotional display rules and emotional labor: The moderating role of

commitment. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*, 1256–1264.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotional regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*, 95–110.

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "the show must go on": Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*, 86–96.

Grandey, A. A., & Brauburger, A. L. (2002). The emotion regulation behind the customer service smile. In R. G. Lord, R. J. Klimoski, & R. Kanfer (Eds.), *Emotions in the workplace: Understanding the structure and role of emotions in organizational behavior* (pp. 260–294). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Grandey, A. A., Dickter, D. N., & Sin, H. (2004). The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 397–418.

Grandey, A. A., Kern, J. H., & Frone, M. R. (2007). Verbal abuse from outsiders versus insiders: Comparing frequency, impact on emotional exhaustion, and the role of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*, 63–79.

Grant, S., & Langan-Fox, J. (2007). Personality and the occupational stressor-strain relationship: The role of the big five. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*, 20–33.

Gross, J. J. (1998). Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: Divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 224–237.

Gutek, B. A., Bhappu, A. D., Liao-Troth, M. A., & Cherry, B. (1999). Distinguishing between service relationships and encounters. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*, 218–233.

Hareli, S., & Rafaeli, A. (2008). Emotional cycles: On the social influence of emotion in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *28*, 35–59.

Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., & Zivnuska, S. (2007). An investigation of abusive

supervision as a predictor of performance and the meaning of work as a moderator of the relationship. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*, 252–263.

Harvey, P., Stoner, J., Hochwarter, W., & Kacmar, C. (2007). Coping with abusive supervision: The neutralizing effects of ingratiation and positive affect on negative employee outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*, 264–280.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *The American Psychologist*, *44*, 513–524.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *50*, 337–370.

Hobfoll, S. E., & Shirom, A. (2001). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace. In R. T. Golembiewski (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational behavior* (2nd ed., pp. 57–80). New York, NY: Marcel Dekker.

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Hochschild, A. R. (1993). Preface. In S. Fineman (Ed.), *Emotion in organization* (pp. 36–57). London: Sage.

Hoobler, J. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Abusive supervision and family undermining as displaced aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 1125–1133.

Humphrey, R. H. (2002). The many faces of emotional leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*, 493–504.

Johnson, H.-A. M., & Spector, P. E. (2007). Service with a smile: Do emotional intelligence, gender, and autonomy moderate the emotional labor process? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *12*, 319–333.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Pucik, V., & Welbourne, T. M. (1999). Managerial coping with organizational change: A dispositional perspective. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*, 107–122.

Kaluza, G. (2000). Changing unbalanced coping profiles—a prospective controlled intervention trial in worksite health

promotion. *Psychology and Health*, *15*, 423–433.

Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, *24*, 43–72.

Lipman-Blumen, J. (2005). *The allure of toxic leaders: Why we follow destructive bosses and corrupt politicians—and how we can survive them*. Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.

Lively, K. J. (2000). Reciprocal emotion management: Working together to maintain stratification in private law firms. *Work and Occupations*, *27*, 32–63.

Marshall, G. N., Wortman, C. B., Vickers, R. R., Kusulas, J. J. W., & Hervig, L. K. (1994). The five-factor model of personality as a framework for personality-health research. *Personality Processes And Individual Differences*, *67*, 278–286.

McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Anderson, R. D. (2002). Impact of leadership style and emotions on subordinate performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*, 545–559.

McCrae, R. R. (1996). Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, *120*, 323–337.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1986). Personality, coping, and coping effectiveness in an adult sample. *Journal of Personality*, *54*, 385–405.

Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 1159–1168.

Morris, J. A., & Feldman, D. C. (1996). The dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of emotional labor. *Academy of Management Review*, *21*, 986–1010.

Pirola-Merlo, A., Hartel, C., Mann, L., & Hirst, G. (2002). How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climates and performance in R&D teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*, 561–581.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 879–903.

Rafaeli, A., & Sutton, R. I. (1987). Expression of emotion as part of the work role.

Academy of Management Review, *12*, 23–37.

Rupp, D. E., McCane, A. S., Spencer, S., & Sonntag, K. (2008). Customer (in)justice and emotional labor: The role of perspective taking, anger, and emotional regulation. *Journal of Management*, *34*, 903–924.

Rupp, D. E., & Spencer, S. (2006). When customers lash out: The effects of customer interactional injustice on emotional labor and the mediating role of discrete emotions. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 971–978.

Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-markers: A brief version of Goldberg's unipolar big-five markers. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *63*, 506–516.

Schaubroeck, J., & Jones, J. R. (2000). Antecedents of workplace emotional labor dimensions and moderators of their effects on physical symptoms. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*, 163–183.

Spector, P. E. (1987). Method variance as an artifact in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: Myth or significant problem. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *72*, 438–443.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Method*, *9*, 221–232.

Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Anger, guilty, and conflicted: Injustice toward coworker heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 429–444.

Tepper, B. J. (1995). Upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and nonmentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 1191–1205.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*, 178–190.

Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *33*, 261–289.

Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Henle, C. A., & Lambert, L. S. (2006). Procedural injustice, victim precipitation, and abusive supervision. *Personnel Psychology*, *59*, 101–123.

Tepper, B. J., Henle, C. A., Lambert, L. S., & Giacalone, R. A. (2008). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational deviance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*, 721–732.

Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., Lockhart, D. E., & Carr, J. C. (2007). Abusive supervision, upward maintenance communication, and subordinates' psychological distress. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*, 1169–1180.

Thau, S., Bennett, R. J., Mitchell, M. S., & Marrs, M. B. (2009). How management style moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance: An uncertainty management theory perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *108*, 79–92.

Totterdell, P., & Holman, D. (2003). Emotion regulation in customer service roles: Testing a model of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *8*, 55–73.

Tripp, T. M., Bies, R. J., & Aquino, K. (2002). Poetic justice or petty jealousy? The aesthetics of revenge. *Organization Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*, 966–984.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*, 1063–1070.

Whitbourne, S. K. (1986). Openness to experience, identity flexibility, and life change in adults. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*, 163–168.

Wichroski, M. A. (1994). The secretary: Invisible labor in the work world of women. *Human Organization*, *53*, 33–41.

Wu, T.-Y. (2008). Abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion: The mediating effects of subordinate justice perception and emotional labor. *Chinese Journal of Psychology*, *50*, 201–221.

Wu, T.-Y., & Cheng, B.-S. (2006). The effect of interactions among job involvement, ability of regulating other's emotion, and emotional labor on emotional exhaustion. *Chinese Journal of Psychology, 48*, 69–87.

Wu, T.-Y., & Hu, C. (2009). Abusive supervision and employee emotional

exhaustion: Dispositional antecedents and boundaries. *Group and Organization Management, 34,* 143–169.

Zapf, D. (2002). Emotion work and psychological well-being: A review of the literature and some conceptual considerations. *Human Resource Management Review, 12,* 237–268.

Appendix

Items of Surface Acting and Deep Acting

In your experience with the direct supervisor, when the supervisor treated you in a way that annoyed you, what would you do to deal with the emotions elicited by your supervisor?
Surface acting
*1. I tried to fake my feelings.
 2. I tried to hold back my emotions, not to express them.
 3. I tried to suppress my negative feelings instead of venting.
 4. I tried to hide my real feelings as if I wore a mask.

Deep acting
*1. I tried to look at the positive side of things to change how I feel. (positive refocus)
*2. I attempted to focus on happier things. (positive refocus)
*3. I tried to see things from the supervisor's point of view. (perspective taking)
*4. I tried to reinterpret what the supervisor said or did so that I would not take their actions personally. (perspective taking)

 Note. The five items marked with an asterisk are adopted from Grandey et al. (2004). The remaining three items are adopted from Wu and Cheng (2006).