Organizational Consequences and Individual Antecedents to Emotional Dissonance and Emotional Labor

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Summary: This study reports the results of two research surveys, conducted in big administrative entities and covering 158 and 233 employees respectively. It confirms some of the most important organizational consequences of emotional labor, showing that – generally – high levels of perceived emotional dissonance affect negatively job performance, commitment and satifaction. It also proves that individual differences play an important role as pre-requisites of emotional labor, thus mediating the effect of emotional dissonance on levels of job performance, job satisfaction and intention to quit. Researchers' interest by now has been focused almost entirely on "the big five" model. The results in these cases are often quite surpising, contradictory and far from encouraging. Here an alternative (more conservative) approach to measuring individual differences is used and the results show, for example, that performance of employees belonging to the "Thinking" type in Jung's typology, and scoring high on "Power" Schwarz's value dimension, is less affected by emotional dissonance than performance of their "Feeling" and "Low-power" colleagues. Emotional dissonance may cause different levels of emotional labor in different personalities and eventually may have different impact on their motivation and job performance.

Key words: emotional dissonance, emotional labor, job performance, individual differences.

JEL: M12, Z13.

1. Conceptual background

In the early 1980s, American sociologist Arlie Russell Hochschild, introduced the term emotional labor as a core element of a more general concept that later became one of the more promising fields in the contemporary studies of human emotions in organizational contexts. In her seminal book, she discusses that in many professions employees have to face and cope with the differences between felt and expressed emotions. This observation led Hochschild to the following definition of emotional labor: "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display for a wage" [Hochschild, A.,1983, p. 17].

The conflict or discrepancy between felt and expressed emotions was not an entirely new topic but previously emotional dissonance was viewed as caused by the demands of the job, from the standpoint of what Hochschild described as commercialization of feelings.

In some professions, there are activities that presuppose trust and enthusiasm on behalf of the jobholder (e.g., customer service) while in other professions the employee often meets with distrust and even hatred (e.g., tax collecting). For the sake of effective fulfillment of their duties, employees have to manage different emotions, the mismatch between their felt emotions and requirements of their job, organizationally desirable manifestations of emotions in the workplace, and the results of emotional dissonance.

Emotional dissonance is similar to cognitive dissonance, the latter being an uncomfortable feeling caused by simultaneously holding two contradictory ideas. Regarding the emotion of feeling uncomfortable, the lack of congruence between felt and expressed emotions may lead to guilt, anger, frustration, or embarrassment. When experiencing such discomfort, one seeks to neutralize or balance the discrepancy. For Hochschild, there are two possible approaches for achieving this: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting is a behavioral response where the actor does not go beyond ambition to demonstrate signs of unfelt emotions for the public to observe and interpret. This type of response can be likened to the theatrical concept of Brecht acting. Deep acting, on the other hand, focuses on the deeply felt feelings and includes attempts for internalization of the required, organizationally desirable emotion. This type of response can be likened to the theatrical concept of Stanislavski acting. In this case, one creates or invokes – with the help of imagination – thoughts, reflections, and memories in one's mental world from which the desired emotion is induced.

Hochschild suggests that emotional labor has negative consequences and formulated three scenarios with different implications for the organization and the individual. First, when the identification of the employee with the emotional requirements of the job has been taking place for a long period, the consequences may be burnout, stress, and de-personification. Second, if the employee is capable of distinguishing well enough between himself/herself as a feeling person and the job's requirements, the result may be less burnout. However, in this case, more cognitions about being phony or false can manifest in the individual because of either over-manifestation of a faked feeling or simply a poor acting performance. The third scenario implies self-alienation of the person from his/her own feelings and from the organizational scene, which is harmful to individual commitment, job satisfaction, and morale.

One of the points for which Hochschild has been criticized is the lack of adequate techniques for measuring emotional labor. Instead of addressing this deficiency, she proposed a list of professions that simply consist of considerable amounts of emotional labor.

Ashforth and Humphrey, who tended to focus more on behaviors rather than on underlying emotions, further developed Hochschild's concept [Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, pp. 88-116]. This behavioral bias is based on the idea that observable behavior has a direct impact on customers and that that an employee could just comply with the requirements for the purpose of expressing emotions without having to manage them. These authors stress the importance of rules of expression as a function of organizational and job-related norms, determining what emotional expressions are due in a given work situation. What is really felt by the employee is, to some extent, underestimated here. In fact, the explanation these two authors provide for emotional labor is that it is simply a factual expression of appropriate emotions. Thus, to what is referred to here as Brecht Stanislavki acting, Ashforth and Humphrey add the display of actually experienced emotions that are hardly emotional dissonances. In addition to and unlike

Hochschild, Humphrey and Ashforth believe that emotional labor can have positive as well as negative consequences. For instance, if the emotion displayed by the actor is perceived by an audience as sincere, compliance with the rules of expression is associated with success in job performance. To further Hochschild's negative consequences approach, the authors also discuss the case when the customer provokes unrealistic expectations.

Developing Ashforth and Humphrey's concept further, Morris and Feldman conclude that emotional labor is "an effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally preferred emotions during interpersonal interactions" [Morris & Feldman ,1996, p. 987]. The authors examine emotional labor as a multi-layer phenomenon and interpret it from the point of view of the emotions' social function. They disapprove of frequency as the only measure of intensity used by previous authors or the weight of emotional labor such as attention paid to rules of expression, diversity, and emotional dissonance.

The generalized explanatory scheme by Morris and Feldman includes their idea about the prerequisites and consequences of emotional labor [Morris & Feldman, 1997, pp. 257-275]. These authors espouse four prerequisites including (1) explicitness of rules of expression; (2) routine character of the task (mainly in terms of its repetitiveness); (3) job position autonomy; and (4) relative strength of the role receiver (focal person in the context of the role episode scheme). The consequences of emotional labor in this concept include (1) emotional exhaustion (burnout), (2) job satisfaction (position), and (3) role internalization.

As mentioned earlier, Morris and Feldman are not particularly engaged in proponents of surface and deep acting since they believe that the focus should be on the appropriate expression behaviour as this is what most organisations are interested in. This brings up the question of how employees deal with their own emotions in order to produce the organizationally desired emotional expression in the peripheral part of these authors' interests.

Alicia Grandey proposes a further way of interpreting emotional labor by modifying the works of other authors [Grandey, 2000, pp. 95-100]. According to her, emotional labor includes the regulation not only of emotional expression but also the feelings themselves, which correspond with Hoshchild's conceptualizations. An interesting element of Grandey's contribution is directing attention toward emotional events as a conceptual prerequisite for emotional labor. Within this conceptual framework, she incorporates elements from contributions of the authors before her: from Hoshchild – the two types of acting; from Ashforth and Humphrey – the rules of expression as a situational prerequisite for emotional labor; from Morris and Feldman – the frequency, the continuity, and the diversity as pertinent prerequisites.

At almost the same time that Grandey was publishing on the topic of emotional labor, Kruml and Geddes [2000, pp. 8-49] published their research based on the idea that emotional labor consists of two factors: emotional tension and emotional dissonance. Drawing on the understanding that the dissonance factor affects the degree to which employees display emotions that are in symphony with felt ones, the authors suggested that higher amounts of this factor lead to more surface acting while lower amounts lead to passive, deep acting or authentic display of emotions. To the contrary, high values of emotional tension can be viewed as a prerequisite for and measure of the active deep acting.

Unlike most of the authors mentioned above, Celeste Brotheridge believes that emotional

labor does not necessarily include emotional dissonance. She contends that employees who sincerely feel the requirement for display emotions do not register emotional dissonance and do not experience emotional labor. She points out that this is not an obstacle to the manifestation of dissonance through surface acting on the part of these employees [Brotheridge, 2003]. Among the most significant of Brotheridge's contributions is the development and validation of a tool to measure emotional labor.

Research of emotional dissonance and emotional labor remains relatively underdeveloped and authors who are interested in these areas are far from expressing methodological and theoretical accord. Their focus has been on internal states (emotional states and moods), psychological processes (surface and deep acting), external expression of emotions, rules of expression in organizational contexts, personal differences as a factor that brings about emotional labor, the consequences of dissonance, and labor in organizational and personal plans [Glomb & Tews, 2004, pp. 1-23].

From a pragmatic point of view, the following considerations are of greatest significance. The need for control over emotional expression through behaviour, language, and facial expression is the essence of a human civilization mechanism. This is especially evident organizationally where both common institutional and personal interests require compliance with the desirability of one emotional state or another. The experienced feelings and moods, however, are observable to a different degree and can coincide with those desired (rules of expression and adequacy). Attention should be drawn to the fact that there is a considerable difference between emotional tension and emotional labor. Tension represents the intensity of experiences while labor is related to the conscious impact on the experiences. Thus, understanding emotional tension as a phenomenon, prerequisite, and

consequence should consider the following options, circumstances, and scenarios:

1. It is possible that the experienced moods match the rules of expression. In this case, emotional tension exists in various degrees related to job requirements and individual characteristics. Emotional labor might be observed in cases when the desired expression intensity differs from the actual experience.
2. It is also possible that what is experienced does not coincide with the rules of expression (i.e., emotional dissonance exists). This presupposes the following two alternatives:
3. Suppressing the expression of what is felt in those cases when it is inadequate. Passive (without action) emotional labor is observed.
4. Displaying feelings and moods that differ from the experienced ones. The emotional labor is active and is expressed in two types of action: surface (only related to the means of expression) and deep (autosuggestion or learning the correct moods and feelings).
5. Differences should be expected in emotional tension in terms of positive/negative character of the experienced, suppressed, and acted emotional states.
6. Resultant feelings and moods are generated either when the emotional labor itself achieves success or results in failure and when the need for such labor is realized. The direction and the intensity of these resultant emotions will depend on the motivational orientation and the individual characteristics of the person.
7. As a whole, the emotional tension is a function of two groups of variables: personality (individual characteristics, motivation, values, and artistic qualities) and the environment (intensity, continuity, and frequency of the emotional dissonance and the strictness of the rules of expression).
8. In organizational and personal spheres lie the consequences of emotional tension; it is not necessary for them to be negative – they can vary from satisfaction on one extreme to burnout and

de-motivation on the other. Which one depends on the type of feeling and mood, the structure of the personality, the type and intensity of the emotional labor, and the value and motivational orientation of the employee and others.

2. Major findings of previous research

A review of influential empirical emotional dissonance and emotional labor studies starts with Morris and Feldman [1997, pp. 257-275] who suggest a positive relationship between emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion. An interesting attribute in their study is an attempt to find a relationship between emotional exhaustion and the frequency and continuity of emotional labor. However, results did not support their hypothesis. The explanation presented within the framework of the authors' theoretical model points out that, with its own consequences, emotional dissonance is a construct independent from emotional labor. It seems much more lucrative to reconsider the model, particularly the logical connection between dissonance and labor.

Studying the consequences of emotional dissonance, Abraham [1998, pp. 229-247] suggests a relationship with job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. The research demonstrates an intermediary function of social support for the relationship between satisfaction and dissonance (i.e., the negligible impact of emotional dissonance on the employees' satisfaction with higher levels of social support). In another study, the same author demonstrates the relationships between job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, emotional dissonance, and behavioural intention to quit [Abraham, R., 1999, pp. 441-455].

Brotheridge and Lee (2003) developed and validated an emotional labor scale. In the process of validation, they discovered that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are correlated with a surface acting sub-scale in their questionnaire. The explanation the authors present includes the idea that effort to conceal actual felt emotions or labor to express actual unfelt emotions comprises the main components of emotional labor. This is in contrast to deep acting where empathy and auto-suggestion result in fewer tension levels. This suggests that attention should be paid to the notions that acting and suppressing emotions are key elements of surface acting.

Given the evidence presented above, it is sufficient to conclude that research conducted so far illustrates a negative impact of emotional dissonance on job satisfaction. This is particularly important since job satisfaction is positively related to the quality of job performance, mainly as labor morale even though it cannot be claimed that this is a motivational determinant. Quite a few meta-analyses illustrate the importance of this correlation including those by Iaffaldano and Muchinsky [1985, pp. 251-273] and Petty, McGee, and Cavender [1984, pp. 712-721]. In other meta-analyses, Mathieu and Zajac [1990, pp. 171-194] and Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf [1994, pp. 15-23] found a small, positive correlation between company commitment and quality of performance.

Ultimately, if a correlation between emotional labor and satisfaction/commitment were established, this would imply a relationship with the quality of job performance through the facilitating function of satisfaction and commitment. Those emotions, which participate in emotional labor and emotional dissonance, can differ depending on the requirements of the professional field and the type of relationships providing the framework of the desired emotional expressions. A typical research target in this relation is activities such as client service or tax collector. In client service, enough evidence

exists to suggest suppressing negative emotions and acting on the positive ones contribute to emotional labor. For other jobs, the opposite may be true; that is, acting on the negative ones and suppressing the positive emotions. In principle, this statement seems logical, but its unconditional acceptance and axiomatic character can result in fallacies related to the difficulty of differentiating between positive and negative emotional states.

An independent topic in these studies is the search for individual differences as an antecedent to the ability to handle emotional labor (Brotheridge, 2003; Kring, Smith, & Neale, 1994; Tews & Glomb, 2003; Vey & Bono, 2003). Many of these studies base the idea of individual differences on the big five personality traits: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. In principle, there is a point to considering individual differences as a predisposition to the frequency and intensity of experienced emotional labor since the core of emotional dissonance is the incongruity between felt and displayed emotions. Individual characteristics may enhance or lower this incongruity. For example, people can differ from one another in terms of their aptitude to experience the emotions required of them. This gives rise to the idea outlined by many authors (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988, pp. 461-487; Morris & Feldman, 1996, pp. 986-1010) that studying such criteria for personnel selection leads to better conformity between the requirements of the work place and the personal characteristics of the applicant.

The thrust in the emotional dissonance research area is to determine whether individual differences influence people's ability to handle emotional labor and emotional dissonance (Brotheridge, 2003; Tews & Glomb, 2003; Vey & Bono, 2003). Unfortunately, such studies have been limited to customer service jobs and generally rely on the five-factor model of

personality. Whether different personalities result in different emotional dissonance levels across jobs is an important empirical question. This research addresses the question of such individual differences by studying debt collectors. The underlying rationale was this: since emotional dissonance involves incongruence between felt emotion and displayed emotion, personality attributes lessen the incongruence and emotional labor would decrease.

There is a clear need for every business to employ individuals who are well suited to the emotional requirements of the job. It is not difficult to suppose that organizations would do better if they attract and select candidates who are disposed to feel and display required emotions. Selecting employees based on their general tendency to experience certain emotions may lead to a better fit between an employee's expressive behaviors and work role requirements. So far, no extant research suggests a correlation between individual differences and emotional labor. A clear example of a rejected hypothesis of that type includes the research carried out by Diamond (2005). In that case, the problem does not lie in the lack of meaningful relationship, but rather in the model's parameters applied in studying the individual differences. This idea receives empirical support by the research outlined below.

3. Two empirical studies on some prerequisites and consequences of emotional dissonance

Two studies are reported here. The first, which included the National Agricultural Fund of Bulgaria, focuses on confirming the overall importance of emotional labor for job satisfaction and intention to quit. The second, which took place at the Ministry of Finance of Bulgaria, demonstrates the impact of emotional

labor on job satisfaction, commitment, and performance. It further clarifies the role of individual values and cognitive differences as pre-requisites to emotional labor.

The first study was conducted in June 2009 as a part of a larger project concerning human resources development, motivation, and strategy at the National Agricultural Fund of Bulgaria, a state agency administering the utilization of European agricultural, forest, fishing, etc. funds in the country. The study included 158 employees (60 % men and 40 % women). The Discrete Emotions Emotional Labor Scale (DEELS), developed and validated by Glomb and Tews (2004), was used to measure levels of emotional dissonance. The DEELS scale consists of three subscales: genuine expression, faking, and suppression. Since this study focuses on emotional dissonance resulting from differences between felt emotion and displayed emotion, only two of the three subscales, faking and suppression, were used in the study. Both subscales are comprised of 14 items with each item addressing a certain emotion ranging from irritation to enthusiasm. The DEELS scale has undergone rigorous validity testing. Alpha coefficients, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and criterion-related validity of the instrument have been tested and/or validated [Diamond, 2005].

Satisfaction was measured with four items from the Job Satisfaction Survey [Spector, P, 1985, pp. 693-713; Spector, P., 2001]. Using a 1 to 6 Likert scale, this subscale requires participants to indicate their agreement with several related statements. The four questions were summed for an overall measure of job satisfaction.

Intention to quit was measured with three statements requiring participants to assess their level of agreement on a 1 to 5 Likert scale. This three-item measure is based on Weisberg and Sagie's [1999, pp. 333-340]

work and were summed for an overall measure of intention to quit.

What this particular study strived to uncover was whether higher levels of emotional dissonance as perceived by the employees predicts lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of intention to quit. The latter is surmised to be influenced – both directly and indirectly – by emotional dissonance, lower job satisfaction, and other factors. More precisely, the hypotheses for this study were

H1: Emotional dissonance is positively correlated with intention to quit.

H2: Emotional dissonance is negatively correlated with job satisfaction

H3: Job satisfaction is negatively correlated with intention to quit.

It is expected that emotional dissonance – if causing high levels of emotional labor – will result in lower job satisfaction and higher intention to quit. Intention to quit is influenced both directly and indirectly by the dissonance through the satisfaction. Some valuable conclusions for human resources management and general management practices may be drawn from these relationships including the high economic price of increased levels of emotional labor. Similar studies typically examine the prerequisites of emotional labor, investigating two major directions: nature of work and individual differences. Researchers work primarily with professions in which traditionally high emotional dissonance is expected such as tax collectors, flight attendants, executive officers, etc. Promoted in this study is the concept that emotional dissonance is present in every organizational (and social) setting and the current research covers comparatively neutral jobs.

As far as individual differences as prerequisites of emotional labor are concerned, researchers' interests so far have focused almost entirely

on International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) constructs, specifically on the big five personality traits. The results in these cases are often surprising, contradictory, and far from encouraging [Diamond, 2005]. Because the Big Five traits are broad and comprehensive, they are not nearly as powerful in predicting and explaining actual behavior as are the more numerous lower-level traits. Many studies have confirmed that in predicting actual behavior the more numerous facet or primary level traits are far more effective [e.g. Mershon & Gorsuch, 1988; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001].

Shortcoming of many previous research attempts in the field includes the very direction in which individual differences have been conceptualized,

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

	Mean	St.dev	N
Intention to quit	7.7051	3.50340	156
Job satisfaction	9.2911	1.68282	158
Emotional labor	0.7469	0.75249	144
- Fake	1.0009	0.85702	140
- Hide	0.4306	0.72620	136

ignoring human values and motivation. Provoked by the nature of a profession, emotional dissonance may lead to different levels of personally experienced emotional labor, depending, for example, on the importance of feeling (vs. thinking) as the judging mechanism in the cognitive process, on valence of emotionality, and on individual preferences for social or

Table 2. Correlations

	Intention to Quit	Job Satis-faction	Emotional Labor	Hide	Fake
Intention to quit Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 156	-.710** .000 156	.192* .021 143	.222** .009 139	.081 .350 135
Job satisfaction Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.710** .000 156	1 158	-.227** .006 144	-.257** .002 140	-.102 .236 136
Emotional labor (Hide & Fake) Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.192* .021 143	-.227** .006 144	1 144	.891** .000 140	.856** .000 136
Hide Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.222** .009 139	-.257** .002 140	.891** .000 140	1 140	.517** .000 132
Fake Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.081 .350 135	-.102 .236 136	.856** .000 136	.517** .000 132	1 136

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

power and achievement needs. These would serve as far more productive frameworks for exploring individual differences as prerequisites of emotional labor than the big five model. Due to some organizational limitations, this idea couldn't be explored in the first study; with the second study, these concepts are revisited.

The major findings of the first study can be summarized as follows. Descriptive statistics can be seen in Table 1. Table 2 shows the correlation indices of the variables in the model.

The most important results of the correlation analyses demonstrate the following: (a) there is a statistically significant negative correlation between overall job satisfaction and employees' intention to quit (-0.710); (b) there is a statistically significant negative correlation between emotional labor and overall job satisfaction (-0.227); (c) there is a statistically significant positive correlation between emotional labor and intention to quit (0.192).

It is also obvious that the intention to quit and job satisfaction and hiding and faking emotions as two forms of emotional labor are not equally significant. Demonstrated here, suppressing felt emotions has a considerably stronger connection with intention to quit and job satisfaction than expressions of non-existent emotions, possibly due to different frequencies in this particular context.

For assessing the strength of the causal relationships between dependent and independent variables, regression analyses were performed and the results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Regression analyses

Independent variable	Dependent variable			
	R^2	F	Beta	t
Emotional Labor	Job Satisfaction			
	.051	7.68	-.227	-2.772
Emotional Labor	Intention to Quit			
	.037	5.411	.192	2.326
Job Satisfaction	Intention to Quit			
	.504	156.595	-.710	-12.514
Emotional Labor (managers)	Intention to Quit (managers)			
	-.050	.376	.174	.613
Emotional Labor (experts)	Intention to Quit (experts)			
	.005	1.527	.119	1.236
Emotional Labor (managers)	Job Satisfaction (managers)			
	-.065	.211	-.131	-.459
Emotional Labor (experts)	Job Satisfaction (experts)			
	.032	4.59	-.203	-2.144
Emotional Labor (men)	Job Satisfaction (men)			
	.013	.614	-.112	-.784
Emotional Labor (women)	Job Satisfaction (women)			
	.118	10.681	-.343	-3.268

Results confirm hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 suggesting the existence of a sufficiently strong correlation between the general emotional labor and the general job satisfaction and the intention to quit. The results also substantiate the strong interdependence between job satisfaction and the intention to quit, which other authors suggest. An interesting point that requires particular study is the issue regarding individual motivational orientation as a prerequisite for emotional labor. The conditions of this research did not allow for a confirmation of this correlation. Regression analyses carried out independently for managers and experts indicated an interesting and significant difference in the intensity with which emotional labor influences intention to quit of these two groups of people. The most important parameters of the results from the regressions of overall satisfaction on emotional labor for managers and experts and intention to quit on emotional labor are shown in Table 3. Another important issue is how gender impacts the relationship between emotional labor and job satisfaction. Two regressions carried out by gender illustrate a considerably stronger effect of emotional labor among women than among men. The most important result parameters of the regressions of overall satisfaction on emotional labor intention to quit on emotional labor by gender are shown in Table 3.

There are many factors influencing the climb of an employee up the corporate ladder to a leadership position, but there are several necessary ones such as high levels of intrinsic achievement and power motivation. From this point of view, it is reasonable to expect that it will be easier for employees on managerial positions to live through emotional labor since it is considered less important given the achievement of success and power. Each person's value system influences the way the focal individual accepts and experiences emotional dissonance and the judgment of whether emotional labor is worth the rewards. Value priorities such as power,

self-enhancement, and competitive success can attach positive but not negative bias to emotional labor if it ultimately leads to attaining core needs. For people with more altruistic and collective value system who are more concerned about harmony in relationships, being liked, etc., emotional labor may be more harrowing and have an impact on job satisfaction and intention to quit. A difference like that can be expected in connection with Jung's functions [Jung, C. G., 1971] operationalised, for example, in Myers Briggs Type Indicator [Myers, I. & P. Myers, 1995] or Keirsey Temperament Sorter [Keirsey, D., 1998]. The assessment/judgement component in these styles can be implemented mainly through mental or affective criteria (Thinking and Feeling types). For Thinking types, emotiveness and related ethical and aesthetic criteria are less importance than the normative (right/wrong) criteria. It is the opposite for Feeling types, which directly affect the importance with how these two types attach their emotions and, consequently, to emotional dissonance and emotional labor.

The second study was designed and carried out in 2010 in the central administration of the Ministry of Finance in Bulgaria. In addition to job satisfaction and intention to quit as dependent variables, job performance was added as another dependent variable. This was measured by calculating a mean of the last three items given to respondents on the existing performance evaluation system currently in use in the Ministry. The main goal of this second study was twofold: (a) to again examine the most important organizational consequences of emotional labor, and (b) to study the facilitating function that personality plays in respect to the impact of emotional dissonance on performance, satisfaction, and commitment. The main research hypothesis was that power and achievement motivations – the self-enhancing personality value characteristics as well as predominantly thinking judgment function under Jung's

cognitive typology – would lead to weaker or even negative effects on the emotional dissonance on the dependent variables and one's belonging to the self-transcendence value domain. In addition, the predominantly feeling portion of Jung's cognitive typology would impart greater impact of emotional dissonance on job performance, job satisfaction, and intention to quit**.**

Induced by the type of profession, emotional dissonance may lead to different levels of experienced emotional labor in a given respondent depending on how important feeling as a judging mechanism is in his/her cognitive process. This is due to the valence of emotion itself for the individual and whether the respondent gives priority to his/her relationships with people or power/success. This framework of human values would be a much more successful conceptual tool with respect to individual differences as a prerequisite for emotional labor with all its negative consequences.

For studying values, Shalom Schwartz' Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ) was used as described in the methodology of European Social Surveys (ESS) (Schwartz, S. 2007). For judging types (Thinking vs. Feeling), elements of Carl Jung's cognitive typology were used similarly to their implementation by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and in the Keirsey Temperament Sorter.

PVQ is a short, verbal portrait of different people and it describes goals, desires, and wishes that implicitly represent the importance of one principal value. For example, the assessment, "It is important for him/her to come up with new ideas and be an innovator. He/she loves doing things their own way," describes a person who gives priority to self-direction. "It is important for him/her to be rich. He/she wants to have a lot of money and luxurious and expensive things," describes a person with markedly authoritative values. By describing an individual with the goals

and desires he/she pursues, the verbal portraits detect values without necessarily identifying them explicitly from a respondent [Srull & Gaelick, 1983, pp. 108-121]. The 10 values used in PVQ are: self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism. For this study, power and achievement – comprising the self-enhancement index vs. benevolence and universalism as forms of the self-transcendence – are of specific importance.

For each portrait, respondents reply to the question, "whether this man resembles you?," on a 6-grade scale from "entirely like me" to "nothing like me." An option was provided for when the respondent does not know the answer or cannot decide.

PVQ consists of 20 items grouped into 10 indices, one for each principal value. The indices are arranged according to the belief that they provide more precise measurement than one single variable. The variables included in one index measure different aspects of the same dimension.

In the case of PVQ, the Cronbach's alphas calculated when validating the method are relatively low for some of the indices. This is due to two circumstances. First, the indices were selected and constructed in such a way as to cover different conceptual components of the same principal value rather than logically repeat each other as measures of a closely defined concept. For example, the authoritative items include wealth and power while universalism include concern for nature and understanding. If either the power or universalism indices included items that were close in meaning or conceptualization, the alpha coefficients would be higher but the notional width of each type of value would be worse covered. Second, each index includes only two questions, which is insufficient for achieving high alphas unless the

questions are nearly identical. When considering the small number of items used to measure each of the ten values and their heterogeneity required in this case, the alphas are sufficiently high. The alpha coefficients for the constructs collected in this study were: self-direction (0.49), stimulation (0.63), hedonism (0.67), achievement (0.69), power (0.44), security (0.62), conformity (0.58), tradition (0.37), benevolence (0.55), and universalism (0.58).

Corrections related to individual differences are required when using the scales since the totality of such differences ultimately results in the different ways in which respondents use the response scale. Some respondents disperse their answers along the entire width of the scales while others do not. Quite a few respondents tend to channel their answers in one or two directions (agreement – nearly all portraits resemble them, or disagreement – nearly all portraits

do not resemble them). To ignore these trends when answering the questions would result in drawing wrong conclusions that all values are essential to some respondents and there is not a single value that is essential to others. What is of interest is the relative importance of the ten principal values for each respondent, his/her value priorities. Since values function in a system, the importance of each value for the respective person or culture should be seen as an absolute, not a relative value compared to the importance of all other values for this person (Schwartz, 1996).

To study the individual characteristics of cognitive styles (as far as the judging function is concerned), Jung's paradigm was used (Jung, 1971), which is widely known and used in research of this kind. This paradigm underlies two recognized tools for measuring individual differences, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers & Myers,

Table 4. Demographics

Years with organization	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
under 5 years	41	17.6	17.6	17.6
5-10 years	65	27.9	27.9	45.5
11-15 years	43	18.5	18.5	63.9
16-20 years	24	10.3	10.3	74.2
21-25 years	18	7.7	7.7	82.0
26-30 years	18	7.7	7.7	89.7
above 31 years	24	10.3	10.3	100.0
Age				
20-30 years	55	23.6	23.6	23.6
31-40 years	98	42.1	42.1	65.7
41-50 years	42	18.0	18.0	83.7
51-60 years	35	15.0	15.0	98.7
above 61 years	3	1.3	1.3	100.0
Gender				
Male	52	22.3	22.3	22.3
Female	181	77.7	77.7	100.0
	233	100.0	100.0	

1989,1995) and the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey, 1998). Jung's typology contains two functions related to perception (sensing and intuition) and two (thinking and feeling) related to assessment of the information gathered. The judging functions describe the prevailing mechanisms with the help of which an attitude towards the perceived is built. Thinking types ground decision making and their assessment on a distant and impersonal base, relying on what seems reasonable, logical, consistent, and corresponding with a system of rules. Feeling types carry out the evaluation by identifying themselves with situations and other people, taking into consideration personal dimensions of the situation, and empathizing and looking for harmony and understanding. It should be emphasized that it is not a matter of ability but of preference; we cannot state, for example, that a Thinking type is more capable of showing logic than a Feeling type.

For the purposes of this study, a research methodology was developed to make distribution and collection of the questionnaire a simple matter. Sending out the questionnaires and collecting the completed ones was coordinated and implemented in collaboration with the employees from the human resources department at the Ministry of Finance. Approximately 340 individuals were identified as potential candidates for participation in the study. Of those identified, 241 surveys were returned with 233 surveys completed and included in the final study. Some of the demographics of this survey are shown in table 4.

In this study, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1a – Emotional dissonance is negatively correlated with job performance.

H1b – Emotional dissonance is negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction.

H1c – Emotional dissonance is positively correlated with intention to quit (i.e. lower commitment).

H2a – There is a weaker influence of emotional dissonance on a strong Thinking type than for a strong Feeling type. For the feeling type, the effect of emotional dissonance would be in the same direction as described in hypothesis 1.

H2b – For subjects scoring high on Power (demonstrating high levels on the power value dimension), the influence of emotional dissonance would be much weaker for a person with low scores on the power dimension.

The hypotheses were tested statistically with analysis of variance (ANOVA). For H1, the dependent variables performance, job satisfaction, and intention to quit were tested with the factor emotional dissonance (two levels – low and high). For H2, a four-factor model was tested. Emotional dissonance (low vs. high), Type Feeling vs. Thinking, Power (low vs. high), and sex (male vs. female) were included as factors. The dependent variables were the same as in H1. Some of the more important findings in this study are summarized below.

Emotional dissonance

The ANOVA demonstrated main effects of the factor emotional dissonance for all three dependent variables.

Dependent variable: performance (Table 5). Performance (3.3) was significantly higher for people with low emotional dissonance than for those with higher emotional dissonance (3.08) ($F_{1,\,217} = 5.981$, $p < 0.05$). This result supports H1a.

Dependent variable: job satisfaction (Table 6). Overall job satisfaction was significantly lower (4.25) when emotional dissonance is high than

Table 5. *Effect of emotional dissonance on performance*

Job performance				
Emotional dissonance	Mean	Standard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
– Low	3.30	.057	3.19	3.41
– High	3.08	.070	2.94	3.22

Table 6. *Effect of emotional dissonance on job satisfaction*

Job satisfaction				
Emotional dissonance	Mean	Standard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
– Low	4.50	.063	4.38	4.62
– High	4.25	.090	4.07	4.43

when the emotional dissonance is low (4.50) $(F_{1, 231} = 5.361, p < 0.05)$. This supports H2b.

Dependent variable: intention to quit (Table 7).
High emotional dissonance was positively correlated with higher tendencies to quit $(F_{1, 231} = 4.025, p < 0.05)$. This supports H1c.

Table 7. *Effect of emotional dissonance on intention to quit*

Intention to quit				
Emotional dissonance	Mean	Standard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
- Low	3.05	.081	2.89	3.21
- High	3.30	.096	3.11	3.49

Four-factor model. Independent variables: Emotional dissonance; Feeling/Thinking Type; Power; Gender. Dependent variable: Job performance

The ANOVA analysis suggests a main effect of emotional dissonance as well as main effects of the factors Thinking/Feeling and gender. Thinking types receive significantly higher performance appraisal results than Feeling types $(F_{1, 217} = 8.869, p < 0.01)$.

Interaction between Thinking/Feeling characteristics and emotional dissonance (Table 8).

There is a significant interaction between the factors thinking/feeling and emotional dissonance $(F_{1, 217} = 5.008, p < 0.05)$. This result supports H2a that there would be a weaker effect of emotional dissonance for the thinking type in comparison with the feeling, where high emotional dissonance led to lower performance figures. The difference between Feeling types with low emotional dissonance and Thinking types with both low and high emotional dissonance levels were very small. For feeling types with high emotional dissonance, employees had considerably lower performance results than the other groups.

Table 8. *Interaction between emotional dissonance and T/F – type*

Dependent variable: Job performance					
Emotional dissonance	T/F	Mean	Standard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
– Low	- F-type	3.168	.115	2.942	3.395
	- T-type	3.262	.111	3.042	3.481
– High	- F-type	2.626	.169	2.293	2.959
	- T-type	3.282	.096	3.093	3.471

Interaction between Emotional dissonance and Power values (Table 9).

There is significant interaction between emotional dissonance and power ($F_{1, 217}$ = 5.635, p < 0.05). This result supports H2b – the performance level of employees scoring high on power values was considerably influenced less by emotional dissonance, while people with low values on the power dimension had the typical profile – lower job performance with high emotional dissonance.

Table 9. Interaction between emotional dissonance and power as a value

Dependent variable: Job performance					
Emotional dissonance	Power	Mean	Standard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
				Lower Bound	Uppe Bound
– Low	- Low	3.32	.135	3.06	3.59
	- High	3.11	.085	2.94	3.28
– High	- Low	2.76	.172	2.43	3.10
	- High	3.14	.090	2.97	3.32

Table 10. Interaction between Emotional dissonance, Power and Gender

Dependent variable: Job Performance						
Emotional dissonance	Power	Gender	Mean	Stand-ard Error	95 % Confidence interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
– Low	Low	M	3.333	.251	2.838	3.829
		F	3.314	.100	3.117	3.511
	High	M	2.737	.146	2.450	3.025
		F	3.475	.089	3.301	3.650
– High	Low	M	2.429	.329	1.780	3.077
		F	3.100	.100	2.903	3.297
	High	M	3.050	.146	2.762	3.338
		F	3.238	.106	3.029	3.447

Three-way interaction – Emotional Dissonance – Power – Gender (Table 10).

There was a significant three-way interaction between emotional dissonance, power, and sex ($F_{1, 217}$ = 6.08, p < 0.05). In all but one group, there was the tendency for job performance to decrease when emotional dissonance increases. However, men with high values on the power dimension demonstrated just the opposite tendency – higher emotional dissonance was combined with better performance. In addition, men with low values on the power dimension were more influenced by the emotional dissonance factor than women in both high- and low-power groups.

As far as the dependence of job satisfaction and intention to quit on cognitive (judging) type, for value orientation and gender – on any given level of emotional dissonance – no statistically significant results were found. Interestingly, in all cases emotional dissonance was more important through its hiding than through its faking form.

4. Conclusion

The two studies described above warrant the following conclusions:

• High levels of perceived emotional dissonance negatively affect job performance, commitment, and satisfaction
• Individual differences play an important role as prerequisites of emotional labor, thus mediating the effect of emotional dissonance on perform-ance, commitment, and satisfaction. Performance of employees belonging to the Thinking type in Jung's typology and scoring high on Power is less affected by emotional dissonance than perform-ance of Feeling and low-power employees.

Emotional dissonance causes different levels of emotional labor in different personalities

and eventually impact motivation and job performance.

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