A Study on the Relationships among Passion, Emotional Labor, and Employee Outcomes: Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analysis

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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to examine the relationships among passion, emotional labor, and employee outcomes and explore the moderating roles of organizational-level service climate and individual traits, such as proactive personality and prosocial motivation. The study statistically analysed 164 valid data collecting from the tourism-related industry in Taiwan. The results of hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) revealed that harmonious passion and deep-acting were negatively related to emotional exhaustion, and that organizational-level service climate was negatively related to emotional exhaustion. In addition, deep acting and individual traits (i.e., proactive personality and prosocial motivation) were positively related to service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. However, organizational-level service climate, proactive personality, and prosocial motivation did not have moderating effects. Conclusion and implications were provided.

JEL classification numbers: M10
Keywords: Passion, Emotional labor, Emotional exhaustion, Service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

1 Introduction

A person’s emotions are usually considered private feelings. Given the increasingly fierce competition in enterprises, service—an intangible
product—has attracted significant attention. With the rapid growth of the service economy, many service organizations have focused on how to serve customers and generate revenues through proper emotional expression by employees (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Tsai, 2001). Contact employees in service settings are usually expected to follow explicit and implicit display rules on acceptable and prescribed expressions (Grandey, 2003; Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). The phenomenon of contact employees making an effort to adjust their emotions to face interactive objects at work (e.g., clients, customers, and patients) is called emotional labor (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labor based on the role of front-line service employees in the contact process with customers. Emotional labor is an action that expresses appropriate emotion; this so-called action means the emotional expression to meet organizational requirements.

Contact employees generally respond to organizational expectations with either surface acting or deep acting, which have been identified as the two most commonly used emotional labor strategies to deal with display rules (Hochschild, 1983; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Zapf, 2002). Although contact employees generally recognize the importance of customer service, their internal feelings, however, are not always congruent with their roles when interacting with customers. Therefore, surface acting occurs when employees only alter their outward emotional displays without changing their true feelings. In contrast, deep acting involves the efforts of employees to change their internal feelings for consistency with the display rules (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Kiffin-Petersen, Jordan, and Soutar (2011) empirically examined the big five personality traits, emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, and citizenship behaviors in a service setting. They found that emotionally unstable individuals tend to act outwardly, causing emotional exhaustion, whereas agreeable and extraverted individuals tend to engage more in deep acting, increasing citizenship behaviors. Using the research by Kiffin-Petersen et al. as a basis, this study aims to view passion (harmonious and obsessive) as the dispositional antecedent of emotional labor. The relationship between passion (harmonious and possessive) and emotional labor has not been widely investigated. The present study predicts that passion may influence the emotional labor strategy (surface or deep acting) that contact employees use.

With respect to the psychological and behavioral outcomes of emotional labor, emotional exhaustion is one of the most frequently cited negative consequences of emotional labor (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Maslach,
1982). However, service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as a behavioral consequence of emotional labor are rarely explored. Therefore, this study seeks to identify the effects of emotional labor (surface and deep acting) on emotional exhaustion and service-oriented OCBs. Moreover, based on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), service climate can be regarded as an important external resource for an individual, whereas proactive personality and prosocial motivation can be viewed as an individual’s important internal resources. As no known studies have simultaneously explored service climate, proactive personality, and prosocial motivation, this research seeks to investigate these moderating roles. The research results should broaden managers’ knowledge on how personal traits (i.e., passion), emotional labor, along with situational (i.e., service climate) and individual factors (i.e., proactive personality and prosocial motivation), affect contact employees psychologically (i.e., emotional exhaustion) as well as behaviorally (i.e., service-oriented OCBs).

2 Literature Review and Hypotheses

2.1 Emotional labor

The term “emotional labor” first appeared in the book *The Managed Heart* written by Hochschild (1983). Unlike physical labor or cognitive labor, which requires the physical and cognitive contribution of employees to make profits, emotional labor mainly shows proper emotional expression through emotional display rules made by employees to satisfy customers, achieve high-quality service, and build a popular enterprise image. Based on the role of front-line service employees in the contact process with customers, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labor as an action that expresses appropriate emotion; and the so-called action means the emotional expression to meet organizational requirements. Hochschild (1983) proposed that emotional labor workers usually have three types of characteristic: (1) face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public; (2) organizations that require employees to show a special emotional state in front of customers; and (3) emotional labor that enables organizations to assume a certain degree of control over the emotional activities of employees through training or monitoring.

In service industries, many service organizations have explicit and implicit emotional display rules (Groth et al., 2009; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Although contact employees acknowledge that they are required to comply with the organizational display rules, their feelings are not always consistent with
the roles they play. According to emotional regulation theory and Hochschild (1983), contact employees can use surface acting or deep acting to make emotional adjustment to show appropriate emotions and behaviors. Surface acting refers to employees showing appropriate emotion through facial expression, language, and gesture but not necessarily feeling the same in their hearts. Previous research has revealed that the incompatibility between felt and displayed emotions can lead to emotional dissonance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983). Deep acting requires employees to adjust their inner feelings and express such emotions in external behaviors to achieve internal and external consistency (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011). These two types of strategy can help employees show the emotion that organizations require.

Conservation of resources (COR) theory holds that positive personal characteristics (e.g., self-esteem, confidence, etc.) are internal resources that help an individual to avoid suffering from emotional pressure (Hobfoll, 1989), reduce wasted effort, and regulate individual emotion. Among these characteristics, passion (harmonious and obsessive) has not been explored as an antecedent of emotional labor and hence is examined in the subsequent sections.

2.2 Passion and emotional labor
Passion has been discussed in the field of philosophy for many years. However, it is only in the 21st century that passion has been studied in the field of organizational behavior. The definition of passion by Vallerand et al. (2003) is widely cited in the literature. Passion is “a strong inclination toward a self-defining activity that individuals like (or even love), that they value (and thus find important), and in which they invest time and energy” (Vallerand et al., 2010: 291).

Vallerand et al. (2003) proposed a dualistic model of passion and categorized it into harmonious types, passion and obsessive passion, based on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). People with harmonious passions internalize their activities in an environment where they have autonomy (Mageau et al., 2009). Although the activity occupies a significant space in a person’s identity, it is not overpowering, and activity engagement remains under the willful control of and is harmonious with other aspects of the person’s life (Vallerand et al., 2003). Therefore, people with harmonious passions engage in their passion and in other activities with an openness that is favorable to positive experiences (Hodgins & Knee, 2002).

By contrast, obsessive passion occurs when people feel they are coerced to invest
in the activity (Mageau et al. 2009). The individual is usually compelled to undertake their activity because many possibilities are associated with it, such as the maintaining one’s value or self-worth (Mageau et al., in press). Consequently, the activity is overvalued, is prioritized above all other aspects of an individual’s life, and occupies a disproportionate space in the person’s identity (Vallerand et al. 2003).

Previous studies have indicated that harmonious passion can help generate ideas (Amabile et al., 1996; Rietzschel, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2007), and promote an individual’s well-being and organizational commitment (Carpentier, et al., 2012; Forest et al., 2012; Forest, Mageau, Sarrazin, & Morin, 2011). Based on the findings of previous research, this paper deduces that once contact employees with a harmonious passion decide to incorporate passion into an activity, they will identify strongly with and have preference for this activity. Undertaking this activity makes them happy and produces a positive emotion, thus facilitating their deep acting. However, contact employees with an obsessive passion are forced to undertake an activity because of external pressure (e.g., organizational requirements). Obsessive passionate employees are less likely to be happy with participating because of the excessive dedication they would devote to the activity. As a result, contact employees with an obsessive passion may be more inclined to adopt surface acting because of their low enthusiasm for the activity. This study posits that different types of passion may lead to employees using different types of emotional strategies. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Harmonious passion is positively related to deep acting, whereas obsessive passion is positively related to surface acting.

2.3 Emotional labor and emotional exhaustion

Contact employees are required to perform emotional labor at work to improve the positive views of customers on service quality. Under long-term excessive emotional demand, contact employees may suffer job burnout. The main symptoms include emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982). Emotional exhaustion is the first symptom and a main cause of job burnout (Maslach, 1982).

Emotional exhaustion is a chronic state of physical and emotional exhaustion resulting from excessive work and/or personal demands and constant stress (Wright & Cropanzano, 1988). It depicts a feeling of being emotionally worn out by one’s work (Zohar, 1997). It reflects both physical fatigue and a sense of feeling psychologically and emotionally exhausted. In the work setting, when employees surface act, the discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions
generates emotional dissonance. Eventually, pretense causes emotional exhaustion (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Conversely, employees who use deep acting as an emotional regulation strategy (i.e., the congruence between felt and displayed emotions) increase authenticity and thus reduce the potential for emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

This study proposes that employees who perform surface acting have a high possibility of experiencing emotional exhaustion, whereas those who engage in deep acting have a less likelihood of generating emotional exhaustion. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion, whereas deep acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

2.4 Passion and emotional exhaustion

Carbonneau, Vallerand, Frenette, and Guay (2008) examined more than 490 experienced teachers and found harmonious passion to be negatively related to burnout and obsessive passion for work to be positively associated with burnout. Moreover, Carpentier et al. (2012) found that people who are obsessively passionate about their activities experience high levels of psychological distress, whereas those who are harmoniously passionate experience enhanced well-being. As emotional exhaustion is a primary component of emotional labor, consistent with Carbonneau et al. (2008) and Carpentier et al. (2012), the present study develops the following hypothesis:

H3: Harmonious passion is negatively related to emotional exhaustion, whereas obsessive passion is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

2.5 Moderating effects of service climate on the relationship between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion

2.5.1 Service climate

An employee’s work environment may have intangible norms or a work climate. Therefore, the service climate of an organization may influence the service behavior of its employees. Service climate is a collective and shared phenomenon, delineating the perceptions or beliefs of employees in managerial practices, procedures, and behavior that are supported and rewarded with regards to the effective delivery of customer service (Schneider et al., 1998). Schneider and Bowen (1993) found that when employees detect the existence of a strong service climate in their organization while providing external services, they tend to
provide high-quality products and services to promote the corporate image and show their loyalty to the organization.

2.5.2 Direct and moderating effects of service climate
COR theory states that employees are encouraged to obtain resources to compensate for the fatigue of resources associated with work demands. Contact employees in the service sector undertake an important emotional labor and invest in emotional resources to offer good service. Service climate informs contact employees that service quality is important to the organization and that employee service efforts are supported and rewarded (Schneider et al., 1998; 2002). These compensatory resources are associated with burnout and are consistent with COR theory. COR theory is especially valuable to understanding burnout (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Burnout is more likely to occur when “there is an actual resource loss, a perceived threat of resource loss, a situation in which one’s resources are inadequate to meet work demands, or when the anticipated returns are not obtained on an investment of resources” (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998: 487). Service climate is an important organizational resource for contact employees who meet work demands related to customer interaction (Lam et al., 2010). Contact employees will be more involved if they perceive that the required effort for customer service is truly recognized, rewarded, and supported. By contrast, burnout is more likely to occur if the support associated with service climate is absent. In accordance with these ideas, Martin (2008) observed that service climate is a significant resource for university staff, increasing job satisfaction and reducing job-induced tension.

As emotional exhaustion is a major symptom of burnout, the study predicts that service climate may moderate the relationship between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion. That is, when service climate is popular in the organization, both surface- and deep-acting contact employees realize that high-quality service can easily accumulate positive work experience. Customers who gain from the positive experience will evaluate the employees positively. This feedback will encourage employees to improve their performance in later service (Katz & Kahn, 1978). A positive service climate decelerates emotional exhaustion and moderates the effect of emotional labor on emotional exhaustion. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:
H4-1: Service climate is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
H4-2: The relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion will be weakened by the service climate, such that the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion will be weakened when service climate is high.
H4-3: The relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion will be strengthened by the service climate, such that the relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion will be strengthened when service climate is high.

2.6 Emotional labor and service-oriented OCBs

Many service industries have given increasing attention to the relationship between employees and customers, expecting employees to actively publicize company advantages to customers and others outside the company. The behavioral expression of employees also affects the company image (Bowen & Schneider, 1985; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). Therefore, service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have acquired a crucial role in the service industry (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1997).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) indicated that contact employees occupy the intersection between customers and the organization, representing the organization to the external customers and conveying its overall impression to them. Therefore, during service encounters, contact employees must display appropriate emotions to make customers feel respected. Deep-acting contact employees dedicate themselves to changing their internal feelings to match their required external emotional expression. Such employees not only deliver good performance but also exceed work requirements in service provision; that is, service-oriented OCBs meet customer demand, and customers regard the emotional expression as authentically in good faith (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Surface-acting employees also engage in service-oriented OCBs. However, such employees may conform to display rules only outwardly to retain their jobs but not to authentically meet customer demands or help the organization attain its goals (Grandey, 2003).

This study proposes that service-oriented OCBs relate more strongly to deep acting than to surface acting.

H5: The relationship between deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs is stronger than that between surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs.
2.7 Moderating effects of proactive personality on the relationships between emotional labor and service-oriented OCBs

2.7.1 Proactive personality
A proactive personality motivates proactive behavior in the workplace. A proactive personality is the degree to which individuals have active role orientations (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Highly proactive employees identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, and persevere until they produce meaningful changes. Less proactive people are passive and reactive, preferring adaptation to the initiation of changes (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Prior research has empirically linked proactive personality to several desirable outcomes. For example, using a Singaporean sample, Chan (2006) reported that proactive personality was positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance among individuals with high levels of situational judgment effectiveness. Using a three-wave longitudinal study involving 146 Hong Kong Chinese employees from various organizations, Kim, Hon, and Crant (2009) found that proactive personality was positively related to employee creativity.

2.7.2 Direct and moderating effects of proactive personality
Previous research suggests that employees who have this trait engage in additional job activities beyond those required in their formal roles (Bateman & Crant 1993; Parker 1998). Although many studies have shown a positive relationship between proactive personality and OCBs (Fuller & Marler, 2009), little empirical work has specifically investigated the relationship with service-oriented OCBs. The present study predicts that contact employees with proactive personalities are motivated to lead to contribute, enhancing their willingness to provide discretionary contributions in the form of service-oriented OCBs. For example, contact employees make timely responses to customer queries, treat customers politely, and show a positive and conscientious attitude to serve customers. Contact employees positively or voluntarily give recommendations to organizations or colleagues to improve the service to meet the continuously changing requirements of customers. They also do things that are favorable for the organization’s image and positively promote the services or products of their organization (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, the present study predicts a positive relationship between proactive personality and service-oriented OCBs.

Compared with surface-acting employees, deep-acting employees with a proactive personality can make customers feel respected, happy, and secure. Their service quality gives customers a good impression. Contact employees with such a trait voluntarily assist colleagues to identify and support the organizational products or
services, and aspire for the organization to develop toward a positive direction. They are also proud to be a member of the organization. Owing to low internalization of the required organizational rules, surface-acting employees that have a proactive personality are less likely to engage in service-oriented OCBs. According to this deduction, the following hypotheses were developed:

H6-1: Proactive personality is positively related to service-oriented OCBs.

H6-2: The relationship between surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be weakened by a proactive personality, such that the relationship between surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be weakened when proactive personality is high.

H6-3: The relationship between deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be strengthened by a proactive personality, such that the relationship between deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be strengthened when proactive personality is high.

2.8 Moderating effects of prosocial motivation on the relationships between emotional labor and service-oriented OCBs

2.8.1 Prosocial motivation

Prosocial motivation is a timely topic given the international growth of the service sector and the emergence of teamwork. Both trends have increased the interpersonal interactions of employees and provided new work relationships in which employees can experience and express prosocial motivation (Grant, 2007; Kanfer, 2009). Prosocial motivation is an altruistic desire. Individuals attempt to understand the preferences, values, and demands of other people (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). They hope to help and contribute to others without expecting anything in return.

Prosocial motivation is important because of its great impact on the work behavior and job performance of employees. Previous research suggests that prosocial motivation can drive employees to take the initiative and lead (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), help co-workers (Rioux & Penner, 2001), and persist in meaningful work (Grant et al., 2007). Prosocial motivation also enables employees to gain more credit for proactive behavior, such as helping, voice, issue-selling, and taking charge (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009).

2.8.2 Direct and moderating effects of prosocial motivation

Although the relationship between prosocial motivation and service-oriented
OCBs has not been empirically tested, this study posits that prosocial motivation is positively related to service-oriented OCBs. As the high prosocial motivation represents the desire of people to help others and the aspiration to maintain a valuable group relation (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, & Stocks, 2008), the present study predicts that prosocial motivation moderates the relationship between emotional labor and service-oriented OCBs. The following hypotheses are developed:

H7-1: Prosocial motivation is positively related to service-oriented OCBs.

H7-2: The relationship between surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be weakened by the prosocial motivation, such that the relationship between surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be weakened when prosocial motivation is high.

H7-3: The relationship between deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be strengthened by the prosocial motivation, such that the relationship between deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs will be strengthened when prosocial motivation is high.

According to the hypotheses, the proposed model is shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: The proposed model](image-url)
3 Methods

3.1 Participants and procedures
The scope of this study focused on the front-line personnel in the tourism industry; contact employees currently working in hotels, travel agencies, and restaurants were selected as research objects. These employees fit the Hochschild (1983) definition of emotional labor workers. To examine the research hypotheses, the study adopted a matching questionnaire approach. The “employee questionnaire” included questions on passion, surface act, deep act, emotional exhaustion, service climate, proactive personality, prosocial motivation, service-oriented OCBS, and demographic questions (i.e., gender, age, and organizational tenure). The “supervisor questionnaire” included questions on service-oriented OCBS and demographic aspects. The question items in the employee questionnaire were randomized to “reduce any potential ordering effects” (Neubert et al., 2008: 1225). Except for the demographic control variables (i.e., gender, age, and tenure), all variables in this study were assessed on a five-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

The study adopted convenient sampling; in other words, the hotels and travel agencies that signed internship cooperation agreements with the school were requested to assist in randomly distributing the questionnaires to their front-line employees. The managers of hotels and travel agencies agreed to help with this. Moreover, through friends and relatives of the researcher, the owners of restaurants also agreed to help distribute the questionnaires. A total of 260 questionnaires were sent to 30 companies; 184 questionnaires were returned, of which 164 were effective, and 20 were invalid; therefore, all these accounted for a response rate of 63.08%. In terms of demographics, 78.7% of the respondents were female; 76.2% of the respondents were aged between 25 and 35; and 76.1% of the respondents had a college/bachelor’s degree.

3.2 Measures
Passion is “a strong inclination toward a self-defining activity that individuals like (or even love), that they value (and thus find important), and in which they invest time and energy” (Vallerand et al., 2010: 291). Passion, comprising harmonious passion and obsessive passion, will be measured on a 14-item scale adopted from Vallerand and Houlfort (2003). Items on the harmonious passion scale include “This activity allows me to live a variety of experiences” and “This activity allows me to live memorable experiences.” Items on the obsessive passion scale include “My mood depends on me being able to do this activity” and “I am emotionally
dependent on this activity.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for harmonious passion and obsessive passion were .836 and .870, respectively.

*Emotional labor* is front-line service employees in the contact process with customers' express appropriate emotional expression to meet organizational requirements (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotional labor, consisting of surface acting and deep acting, will be measured on an 11-item scale adopted from Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005). Items on the surface-acting scale include “I disguise real internal feelings as if wear a mask to show emotion that meets the work requirement” and “I fake proper emotions in dealing with customers.” Items on the deep-acting scale include “I do my best to experience the emotion I am required to express to customers” and “I do my best to diagnose customers with empathy.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for deep acting and surface-acting scale were .884 and .910, respectively.

*Emotional exhaustion* is a chronic state of physical and emotional exhaustion resulting from excessive work and/or personal demands and constant stress (Wright & Cropanzano, 1988). Emotional exhaustion will be measured on a five-item scale adapted from Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996). Items on the emotional exhaustion scale include “I am exhausted after one day’s work” and “I feel too mentally and physically exhausted to work.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale were .914.

*Service-oriented OCBs* is an extension of organizational citizenship behavior that comprises various spontaneous behaviors beneficial to service organizations (Bettencourt et al., 2001). Service-oriented OCBs will be measured on a 16-item scale adopted from Bettencourt et al. (2001). Items include “Regardless of circumstances, is exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers” and “Contributes many ideas for promotions and customer communication.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale were .926.

*Organizational-level service climate* is a collective and shared phenomenon, delineating the perceptions or beliefs of employees in managerial practices, procedures, and behavior that are supported and rewarded with regard to the effective delivery of customer service (Schneider et al., 1998). Service climate will be measured on a three-item scale adopted from Kelley (1992) to study service climate at the organizational level. Sample items included “In this organization, consistent service performance is important” and “In this organization, a reputation for good service is emphasized.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale were .923.

*Proactive personality* is a dispositional tendency to take personal initiative across a range of activities and situations (Crant, 2000). Proactive personality will be
measured on a 10-item shortened version scale of Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999), which was originally developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). Sample items include “I am constantly on the look-out for new ways to improve my life” and “No matter what the odds, if I believe in something, I will make it happen.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale were .857.

Prosocial motivation refers to an employee’s tendency to care about benefiting others, and is thus perhaps best conceptualized in terms of prosocial values, or placing importance on protecting and promoting the well-being of others in general (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Prosocial motivation will be measured on an eight-item scale adopted from Gebauer et al. (2008). Sample items include “Supporting other people makes me very happy” and “I feel indebted to stand up for other people.” The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scale were .772.

4 Main Results

4.1 Hierarchical linear modeling analysis (HLM)

This study used HLM6.08 for analysis. Before conducting HLM, it was first verified the feasibility of aggregation that requires within-group agreement and between-group variation (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000b). If there is no uniformity within the group, the integration of the data within the group is not meaningful, and the commonly used indicator is rwg (within-group interrater reliability) (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). If the inter-group variability is not supported, the presence of the network effect cannot be examined (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000b). The commonly used indicators are ICC (1) (intra-class correlation (1)) and ICC (2) (intra-class correlation (2)) (Bliese, 2000). The average rwg of the service climate is calculated to be 0.865, greater than the average value of 0.6 (James, 1982) to 0.7 (Mathieu & Schulze, 2006), showing that the pooling procedure is reasonable. This study also showed that the ICC (1) of the service climate was 0.150, conforming to the standard of 0.12 (James, 1982), and that the ICC (2) was 0.461, lower than the standard of 0.6 (Bliese, 2000). However, ICC (2) is susceptible to sample size because of the Spearman-Brown formula (Bliese, 2000). In this study, the returned questionnaires came from around 30 organizations, resulting in a lower ICC (2). Hence, a variety of indicators should be used to determine whether the data is suitable for aggregation (Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992). Comparing the rwg and ICC (1), the two indicators are relatively unaffected by the sample size. It is thus reasonable that this study aggregates the individual level variables of the service climate into organizational level variables.
In this study, the null hypothesis was first used to test whether emotional exhaustion varies within different organizations. As can be seen from Table 1, the average of the emotional exhaustion of each employee within an organization was 2.534. The inter-group variance of each employee’s emotional exhaustion within an organization was .040, the intra-group variance was .437, and the ICC was 8.4% [.040/(.040 + .437)] indicating that the variance of employee emotional exhaustion 8.4% came from inter-group variance, and 91.6% [.437/(.040 + .437)] came from intra-group variance. Therefore, ordinary least square cannot be used alone, and must consider the characteristics of inter-group differences and conduct an in-depth HLM analysis (Cohen, 1988).

4.2 Hypotheses testing
Table 1 shows that harmonious passion had significant positive effects on deep acting ($\beta = .232, p < .01$), and that obsessive passion did not have significant effects on surface acting ($\beta = .047, p > .05$). Such results partially support for H1. In Table 2, deep acting had significant negative effects on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.262, p < .05$) whereas surface acting had significant positive effects on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .143, p < .05$), hence supporting for H2. In Table 3, harmonious passion had significant negative effects on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.553, p < .001$) whereas obsessive passion did not have significant effects on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.140, p > .05$), hence partially supporting for H3. Table 4 exhibits that random coefficient regression model 1-1 (H1-1) gave $\gamma_{40}$ of .293($p < .01$), indicating that harmonious passion had significant positive effects on deep acting and, therefore, H1-1 is supported. Random coefficient regression model 1-2 (H1-2) gave $\gamma_{50}$ of .123 ($p > .05$) indicating that obsessive passion did not have significant positive effects on the surface acting and therefore, H1-2 is not supported. Random coefficient regression model 3-1 (H3-1) gave $\gamma_{40}$ of −.634 ($p < .001$) indicating that there was significant negative impacts on emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H3-1 is supported. The random coefficient regression model 3-2 (H3-2) yielded a $\gamma_{50}$ of −.098 ($p > .05$) indicating that obsessive passion did not have significant effects on the emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H3-2 is not supported.
Table 1: Regression analysis: H1

<table>
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<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1: Deep acting</th>
<th>Model 2: Surface acting</th>
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<td>Independent variable</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Harmonious passion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obsessive passion</td>
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</table>

\( R^2 \)  
Adjusted \( R^2 \)  
\( \Delta R^2 \)  
\( F \)  
3.737***  
2.045

Notes: \( N = 164, ^* p < .05; ^{**} p < .01; ^{***} p < .001 \)

Table 2: Regression analysis: H2

<table>
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<th>Variable</th>
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<td>Age</td>
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<td>Deep acting</td>
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<td>0.143*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surface acting</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.143*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( R^2 \)  
Adjusted \( R^2 \)  
\( \Delta R^2 \)  
\( F \)  
1.554  
1.330

Notes: \( N = 164, ^* p < .05; ^{**} p < .01; ^{***} p < .001 \)

Table 3: Regression analysis: H3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1: Emotional exhaustion</th>
<th>Model 2: Emotional exhaustion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>−0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>−0.033</td>
<td>−0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonious passion</td>
<td>−0.553***</td>
<td>−0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obsessive passion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( R^2 \)  
Adjusted \( R^2 \)  
\( \Delta R^2 \)  
\( F \)  
6.339***  
0.965

Notes: \( N = 164, ^* p < .05; ^{**} p < .01; ^{***} p < .001 \)
Table 4: Hierarchical linear modeling analysis: H1 and H3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Null model</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 1-1 (H1-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 1-2 (H1-2)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 3-1 (H3-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 3-2 (H3-2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept γ₀₀(τ₀₀)</td>
<td>2.534***</td>
<td>3.753*** (0.001)</td>
<td>2.646*** (0.054)</td>
<td>2.464*** (0.066**)</td>
<td>2.519*** (0.064**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender γ₁₀</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age γ₂₀</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
<td>-0.050</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education γ₃₀</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonious passion γ₄₀</td>
<td>0.293**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obsessive passion γ₅₀</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ²</td>
<td>2.534***</td>
<td>3.753*** (0.001)</td>
<td>2.646*** (0.054)</td>
<td>2.464*** (0.066**)</td>
<td>2.519*** (0.064**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviance</td>
<td>342.302</td>
<td>233.553</td>
<td>402.019</td>
<td>330.488</td>
<td>345.686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that the random coefficient regression model 2-1 (H2-1) yielded a γ₄₀ of .069 (p < .01), indicating that surface acting had significant positive effects on emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H2-1 is supported. Random coefficient regression model 2-2 (H2-2) yielded a γ₅₀ of −.567 (p < .01), indicating that deep acting had significant negative effects on emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H2-2 is supported. Intercepts-as-outcome model 4-1 (H4-1) yielded a γ₀₁ of −.033 (p > .05), showing that service climate did not have significant effects on emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H4-1 is not supported. Slope-as-outcome model 4-2 (H4-2) yielded a γ₁₁ of −.314 (p > .05) indicating that service climate did not have moderating effects on surface acting and emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H4-2 is not supported. Slope-as-outcome model 4-3 (H4-3) yielded γ₃₁ of −.579 (p > .05), indicating that service climate did not have moderating effects on deep acting and emotional exhaustion and, therefore, H4-3 is not supported. Table 6 exhibits that random coefficient regression model 5-1 (H5-1) yielded a γ₄₀ of −.088 (p < .05), indicating that surface acting had a significant negative effect on service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H5-1 is not supported. Random coefficient regression model 5-2 (H5-2) yielded a γ₅₀ of .329 (p < .01), indicating that deep acting had a significant positive effect on service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H5-2 is supported. Random coefficient regression model 6-1 (H6-1) yielded a γ₆₀ of .571 (p < .001), indicating that proactive personality had a significant positive effect on service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H6-1 is...
supported. Random coefficient regression model 6-2 (H6-2) yielded a γ41 of .064 (p > .05), indicating that the proactive personality had no moderating effect on surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H6-2 is not supported. Random coefficient regression model 6-3 (H6-3) showed that γ51 was 0.051 (p > .05) indicating that proactive personality had no moderating effect on deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H6-3 is not supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 2-1 (H2-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 2-2 (H2-2)</th>
<th>Intercepts-as-outcome model 4-1 (H4-1)</th>
<th>Slope-as-outcome model 4-2 (H4-2)</th>
<th>Slope-as-outcome model 4-3 (H4-3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept γ00</td>
<td>2.703*** (0.056**)</td>
<td>2.409*** (0.065**)</td>
<td>2.647*** (0.051*)</td>
<td>2.693*** (0.062**)</td>
<td>2.399*** (0.074**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender γ10</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>−0.113</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age γ20</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>−0.032</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>−0.041</td>
<td>−0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education γ30</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>−0.055</td>
<td>−0.046</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service acting γ40</td>
<td>0.069**</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.216**</td>
<td></td>
<td>−0.558**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting γ50</td>
<td></td>
<td>−0.567**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service climate γ61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>−0.033</td>
<td>−0.129</td>
<td>−0.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep-acting × service climate γ41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>−0.314</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep-acting × service climate γ51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>−0.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ²</td>
<td>0.406</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviance</td>
<td>345.143</td>
<td>338.830</td>
<td>351.660</td>
<td>345.633</td>
<td>337.768</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Companies N = 30; Employees N = 164, *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 7 shows that random coefficient regression model 7-1 (H7-1) yielded a γ60 of .231 (p < .05) indicating that prosocial motivation had a significant positive effect on service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H7-1 is supported. Random coefficient regression model 7-2 (H7-2) showed that γ41 was 0.127 (p > .05) indicating that prosocial motivation had no moderating effect on surface-acting and service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H7-2 is not supported. Random coefficient regression model 7-3(H7-3) yielded a γ51 of −0.104 (p > .05) indicating that prosocial motivation had no moderating effect on deep-acting and service-oriented OCBs and, therefore, H7-3 is not supported.
Table 6: Hierarchical linear modeling analysis: H5 and H6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 5-1 (H5-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 5-2 (H5-2)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 6-1 (H6-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 6-2 (H6-2)</th>
<th>Random coefficient regression model 6-3 (H6-3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept γ_{00}(τ_{00})</td>
<td>3.459*** (0.002)</td>
<td>3.692*** (0.013*)</td>
<td>3.788*** (0.023*)</td>
<td>3.756*** (0.029*)</td>
<td>3.868*** (0.029)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender γ_{10}</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age γ_{20}</td>
<td>0.132**</td>
<td>0.105*</td>
<td>0.112**</td>
<td>0.106**</td>
<td>0.096**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education γ_{30}</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting γ_{40}</td>
<td>-0.088*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting γ_{50}</td>
<td>0.329**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive personality γ_{60}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting × Proactive personality γ_{41}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting × Proactive personality γ_{51}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ²</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviance</td>
<td>200.935</td>
<td>188.395</td>
<td>148.256</td>
<td>146.810</td>
<td>141.691</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Companies N=30; Employees N=164. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Table 7: Hierarchical linear modeling analysis: H7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Random coefficient model regression model 7-1(H7-1)</th>
<th>Random coefficient model regression model 7-2(H7-2)</th>
<th>Random coefficient model regression model 7-3(H7-3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept γ_{00}(τ_{00})</td>
<td>3.503*** (0.001)</td>
<td>3.501*** (0.208***)</td>
<td>3.714*** (0.017)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender γ_{10}</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age γ_{20}</td>
<td>0.136**</td>
<td>0.123***</td>
<td>0.100**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education γ_{30}</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting γ_{40}</td>
<td>-0.460</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting γ_{50}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prosocial motivation γ_{60}</td>
<td>0.231*</td>
<td>-0.205</td>
<td>0.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting × Prosocial motivation γ_{41}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting × Prosocial motivation γ_{51}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ²</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.166</td>
<td>0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviance</td>
<td>199.345</td>
<td>200.850</td>
<td>185.114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Companies N=30; Employees N=164. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001
5 Discussion

Although there is little empirical research linking passion and emotional labor, the present study found that contact employees with a harmonious passion would identify more strongly with job tasks and produce a positive emotion, hence facilitating their deep acting. Such results are in line with the initial prediction of the study. The research results also show that while surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion, deep acting was negatively related. Such findings are consistent with the following studies. In the work setting, when employees surface act, the discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions generates emotional dissonance. Eventually, pretense causes emotional exhaustion (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Conversely, employees who use deep acting as an emotional regulation strategy (i.e., the congruence between felt and displayed emotions) increase authenticity, and, thus, reduce the potential for emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Moreover, the findings that the negative relationship between harmonious passion and emotional exhaustion and the positive relationship between obsessive passion and emotional exhaustion are in line with Carbonneau et al. (2008), who found harmonious passion to be negatively related to burnout and obsessive passion for work to be positively associated. With regard to service climate, Martin (2008) observed that this is a significant resource for university staff, increasing job satisfaction and reducing job-induced tension. Similarly, the results reveal that a positive service climate did decelerate emotional exhaustion, but it did not moderate the effect of emotional labor on emotional exhaustion. Thus, such results were partially supported.

In addition, no known studies have explored emotional labor and service-oriented OCBs. This research, proposing that service-oriented OCBs relate more strongly to deep acting than to surface acting, was supported by the research results. Deep-acting contact employees are more likely to exceed work requirements in service provision; in other words, service-oriented OCBs meet customer demand, and customers regard the emotional expression as being authentically in good faith (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Surface-acting employees also engage in service-oriented OCBs. However, such employees may conform to display rules only outwardly to retain their jobs but not to authentically meet customer demands or help the organization attain its goals (Grandey, 2003). With respect to proactive personality and prosocial motivation, little empirical work has investigated their direct relationships with service-oriented OCBs. As indicated in the literature, contact employees with these two traits will positively promote the services or
products of their organization (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000), have the desire to help others, and have the aspiration to maintain a valuable group relationship (Batson, Ahmad, Powell, & Stocks, 2008). The results have met the original assumption of this study.

6 Conclusion and practical implications

With the rapid growth of the service economy, many organizations now focus on how to serve customers and create revenue through employees’ appropriate emotional expressions. The present study contributes to the extant emotional labor literature by examining the relationships among passion, emotional labor, and employee outcomes and exploring the moderating roles of organizational-level service climate and individual traits, such as proactive personality and prosocial motivation. The results of this study could provide managers in tourism-related industries with a valuable reference and make them aware that, in a high pressure working environment, employees with a harmonious passion trait are more likely to meet the organizational requirements for an appropriate emotional performance. Deep-acting employees could decrease emotional exhaustion phenomenon and are more willingly to show service-oriented OCBs. Moreover, employees with proactive personality and prosocial motivation traits are more likely to show service-oriented OCBs that are beneficial to the organization.

Important practical implications are that industry managers should develop appropriate hiring policies based on the desired traits (i.e., harmonious passion, proactive personality, and prosocial motivation) of service employees, and create an on-going positive service climate in the workplace to promote high-quality service and ultimately improve the organization’s overall performance.

References


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