



Organizational injustice and emotional labor of hotel front-line employees

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ABSTRACT

Using equity and appraisal theories to integrate four dimensions of organizational justice and emotional labor, this study examines effects of organizational injustice and emotional labor. Perceptions of front-line hotel employees of customer injustice (interpersonal and informational), procedural and distributive injustice and their perceived effect on employees' emotional labor and subsequent job satisfaction were examined. Our finding suggests the distributive injustice had an effect on hotel employees' emotional labor, while effects of informational and procedural injustice on emotional labor were moderated by gender.

1. Introduction

Emotional work in organizations has been of increasing interest among researchers and practitioners (Zapf, 2002), as the service industry is becoming one of the major contributors to job growth in the United States. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, approximately 9 out of 10 new jobs are projected to be added in the service-providing sector from 2016 to 2026 (BLS, 2017). An increase in service-related jobs will lead to a stronger demand for friendly and professional services. Positive emotional displays are required and enforced in the work environment because they improve service interaction and company image (Grandey, Rupp, & Brice, 2015). Emotional regulation or displays for a salary is referred as *emotional labor* (EL) (Hochschild, 1983). A main emphasis of EL theory is that employees have to follow organizational display rules (Diedendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006). An organization's requirement to portray friendly emotions can create a gap or dissonance in what employees actually feel and the emotions they portray. With the increasing demands of EL and the subsequent burgeoning academic research, the majority of the literature is focused on EL and its consequents (Hülshager and Schewe, 2011). Some examples of EL consequents are burnout (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002), job satisfaction (Grandey, 2001), and emotional exhaustion (Chu et al., 2012). In more recent research EL is connected with reduction of racial disparity (Grandey, Houston III, and Avery, 2018), positive sides of emotional labor (Humphrey, Ashworth, and Diefendorff, 2015) and EL regulation strategies (Gabriel, et al., 2015).

However, research on the antecedents of emotional labor is very limited and is mainly theoretical in nature (Grandey, 2000; Morris and Feldman, 1996). It is generally accepted that emotional dissonance is created by stressful affective events such as conflict or injustice (Grandey and Brauburger, 2002). Despite the importance of

understanding source and dynamics of emotional dissonance and emotional responses to organizational injustice in the workplace setting, this research is largely ignored (Johnson et al, 2016). This article was motivated by research that covers customer injustice that is represented by two dimensions of organizational justice, interpersonal and informational (Rupp and Spencer, 2006; Rupp et al., 2008; Spencer and Rupp, 2009) and found significant effects of injustice on EL, but other two dimensions such as distributive justice that reflects norms of allocation such as promotion, salary, opportunity within an organization and procedural that reflects decision-making process by management (Colquitt, 2001) are not yet empirically tested. It is essential to understand dynamics that influences EL of employees that result from perceived organizational injustice whether from management or customers that can lead to increased emotional dissonance (Johnson et al., 2016) and subsequent deterioration of professional service (EL). It is especially important in the hospitality industry where friendly service is paramount. Also, in the hospitality industry with very frequent service encounters (Rupp and Spencer, 2006) where policies and procedures, managerial decisions and customer complaints could be potential sources of perceived injustice, emotional dissonance (EL) and consequent deterioration of the service (Grandey and Brauburger, 2002). Furthermore, understanding effects of injustice on EL will create a potential for implementing mitigating procedures that could improve employees' EL.

Thus, the main purpose of this study is to contribute to the research on the antecedents of EL and to empirically investigate the effects of all four facets of organizational injustice as antecedents of EL and effects of EL on job satisfaction among hourly-wage hotel employees in the United States. This is the first known to us paper that combines all four facets of organizational injustice, emotional labor and its subsequent effects on employees' job satisfaction. Moreover, this is first known to

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us attempt to make a theoretical connection among PJ, FJ and EL of employees in the hospitality industry. Finally, two moderating effects frequency of interaction and gender are proposed. In the hospitality industry service interactions are very frequent (Rupp and Spencer, 2006), however frequency of interaction varies based on the location of the employment. For example, a front desk employee interacts with customers more than a housekeeping agent, subsequently creating different exposure to the potential perceived injustice. Also, generally researchers agree that there are gender differences in the emotional responses to organizational justice evaluations (Khoreva and Tenhiälä, 2016; Dulebohn et al., 2016) and today's hospitality industry went through transformation in gender structure of employees (Petrović et al., 2014), where number of female employees rises at all levels of organizational structure (Pina et al., 2011; Campos-Soria et al., 2011). In the following sections literature is revised that justifies proposed predictions.

2. Literature review and hypotheses

2.1. Emotional labor

The term EL was coined by Hochschild (1983) in her book *The Managed Heart*. The book focuses on observations of flight attendants work, training, service requirements, and customer interactions and heralded the start of academic research on EL. While Hochschild (1983) looked at the real-life experiences and difficulties of employees in consistently portraying friendliness to hundreds of people during service interactions. Rafaeli and Sautton (1987) looked at the long-term benefits of EL for an organization, such as positive word of mouth or satisfaction. Ashworth and Humphrey (1993) described EL as a skill that can be trained and manipulated. On the contrary to the previous research they believed that like any other skills EL could be trained. Authors postulated that once the skill is trained, emotional expressions became effortless and could not be a source of stress or have adverse psychological effects. Morris and Feldman (1996) expanded the understanding of EL and proposed four facets: frequency and variety of emotional display, attentiveness to required display, rules, and emotional dissonance. The proposed key antecedents of EL are frequency, attentiveness, and variety. Morris and Feldman (1996) were consistent with Hochschild (1983) and proposed consequents such as emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction. Grandey (2000), in her work, proposed two additional EL facets: surface acting and deep action. Surface acting reflects the faking of desired emotion, such as a fake smile, while a service provider may feel sad or angry. Deep acting reflects genuine emotions, albeit positive emotions that a service provider may feel are not appropriate for a customer. For example, an employee spends many hours working, and by the end of a shift, starts to feel overwhelmed. During a service interaction, a provider may think of some positive event in his or her life (such as an upcoming vacation or going out with friends) and feels an uplifting emotion that he or she portrays toward the customer. Thus, while the emotion may be genuine, the origin of this emotion is unrelated to the customer event.

Rupp and Spencer (2006) examined customer interactional injustice and its effects on EL. In another study, Rupp, McCance, and Spencer, (2007) found direct and significant effects of customer informational and interpersonal injustice on employees' EL. This study was followed up by Spencer and Rupp (2009), where they found that a customer interactional injustice effects not only an employee directly involved in interaction, but also significant adverse effects of second-hand injustice on coworkers and increase of their EL as well.

An organizational justice consists of four facets: Distributive, Procedural, Interpersonal and Informational. *Distributive justice* (DJ) is focused on the justice of decision outcomes and is consistent with the goals of a particular situation, such as maximizing productivity or improving cooperation (Colquitt, 2001 p. 389). *Procedural justice* (PJ) is fostered through voice during a decision-making process or influence

over outcome or by adherence to fair process criteria such as consistency, lack of bias, correctness, representation, accuracy, and ethicality (Colquitt, 2001 p. 386). *Interactional justice* is defined as interpersonal treatment people receive as procedures are enacted (Colquitt, 2001 p. 386). It was originally introduced by Greenberg (1993) as organizational justice research progressed it was eventually split into two categories *informational* (IFJ) and *interactional* (IRJ) justice. IFJ reflects "the extent to which communication between supervisors and subordinates are clear, candid and sufficient (Spencer and Rupp, 2009 p. 430). IRJ reflects the degree to which those in authority treat individuals with dignity, respect, and politeness (Spencer and Rupp, 2009 p. 430).

An organizational injustice and EL could be connected using emotions theory and organizational justice theories. On the emotional side Arnold's cognitive theory where emotions are motivated by our appraisal of an object, although in this case appraisal of situation (Shields and Kappas, 2006). It can be linked to dynamics between EL and organizational justice. In this case "object" could be represented by customer, or organizational policies and procedures, where cognitive appraisal of the object will lead to emotional response and subsequent dissonance. On organizational side the perceptions of organizational justice are reinforced by referent cognitive theory (RCT) (Foldger, 19,861,993) and the Fairness theory (FT) (Foldger & Cropanzano, 1998, 2001) that were summarized by Zapata-Phelan et al. (2009) as follows: "both theories focus on cognition that lead one to appraise an event as either fair or unfair and effective reactions that result from it" (p. 94). Especially FT theory highlights cognitive evaluations of the unjust condition and ensuing affective reaction. However, while theories encompass relationship between perceived organizational injustice and EL, the relationship between, other two facets of organizational injustice such as procedural injustice (PI) and distributive injustice (DI) and its effects on EL have never been empirically tested. Finally, previous findings regarding a direct effect between customer interactional injustice and EL have not being tested in the hospitality industry. Chu and Murmann (2006) used the EL scale (HELS) in the hospitality industry and proposed two facets of EL emotional dissonance (ELD), which implies surface-acting, and emotional effort (ELE), which implies deep acting. Finally, while gender and intensity of interaction have been proposed as antecedents of EL (Morris and Feldman, 1996) they have never been tested as moderators of the relationship between injustice, work experience, and EL. Thus, on the basis of the proposed gaps in the literature, some relationships will be suggested below.

2.2. Procedural injustice

In organizational settings, when employees express their points of view, they expect their opinion to be heard carefully and completely. Giving full consideration to the opinion of an employee is the core of procedural justice (PJ) (Tyler, 1988), whereas a lack of such consideration from management will be perceived by an employee as a procedural misdeed and will thus be judged as unfair (Cohen, 1985). There is empirical support for this thinking. Folger (1977) found that the rate of perceived unfairness by employees is higher when managers ignore these employees' viewpoints than when managers do not give these employees an opportunity to express their viewpoint in decision-making. Moreover, management's consideration of an employee's viewpoint is the main reason for the perception of PJ. Greenberg (1986) found that a standard application of procedures is significant in fairness judgment. Consistency and timely decisions are also important in the determination of fairness judgment. Paradoxically, in a study by Sheppard and Lewicki (1987), employees did not want strict consistency regarding procedures, since they also wanted exceptions to be made.

Tepper (2001) found procedural injustice to be a significant predictor of psychological strain, such as emotional exhaustion and anxiety. Weiss et al. (1999) linked PJ to affective states, such as happiness,

pride, anger, and guilt. Although, the literature on the link between PJ and emotional labor is sparse. Since PJ is linked to emotional states (Weiss et al., 1999), it is logical to assume that an increase in emotions, such as anger and guilt, can lead to increased EL. For example, if a customer complains about an employee's service, PJ would be reflected if a manager did not give the employee an opportunity to express his or her feelings or to voice his or her side of the story in the conflict before making a decision (Colquitt, 2001). This would in turn engender emotions such as anger. Thus, it would increase acting (EL) in order to comply with the employer's requirements of service standards. Injustice in the situation will increase an employee's EL so as to provide friendly and "always with the smile" service. Based on the literature above, alternative hypotheses are proposed.

H1a. Procedural injustice positively affects the ELE of employees.

H1b. Procedural injustice positively affects the ELD of employees.

2.3. Interactional injustice

It is generally accepted that perceived justice in the workplace plays a significant role in employees' behavior and work outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001). For instance, employees who experience injustice show decreased work performance (Pfeffer and Langton, 1993) and stress-related outcomes such as psychological strain (Francis and Barling, 2005; Judge and Colquitt, 2004). Several possible sources of organizational injustice, such as management and customers, are proposed in this research.

According to Schat et al., 2006, injustice is more likely to result from those external to the organization, such as customers. Perceptions of injustice can come from unreasonable or irrational treatment, such as blaming an employee for assigning a customer to a smoking room, even though the customer failed to request a non-smoking room (Bies, 2001).

Such attitudes can create a sense of emotional dissonance in the employee, who has to maintain a professional and friendly appearance in the face of an unjust customer. Thus, maintaining a professional appearance in the face of injustice can make it more difficult for employees to perform and adhere to the required display rules. Granday et al. (2004) found that customer hostility increases employees' EL. Interactional injustice is a broader term than general aggression and hostility. A customer's behavior could be considered unjust, but may not be conveyed by anger. Injustice implies the lack of appropriate treatment of employees, suggesting that perceived interactional customer injustice by employees will lead to an increase in the employee's EL (Scarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008).

Colquitt (2001) separated interpersonal justice into Informational (IFJ) and Interactional injustice (ITJ) because both dimensions have shown independent effects, where IFJ represents truthfulness and ITJ represents respect (Colquitt 2001).

Spencer and Rupp (2006) connected customer interpersonal injustice using a Spencer and Carnevale (2003) scale. This EL scale measures "...the extent to which participants felt they had to exert effort in managing their emotions during interactions with the customers" (Rupp and Spencer, 2006, p. 974). In short, IFJ reflects the clarity of the information, while ITJ reflects the dignity of interactions between customers and employees. If customers display a lack of courtesy, are unclear in their communications, or do not explain their needs and wants, such distorted communication can create barriers to effective service. A lack of courtesy or dignity on the customer's side toward employees can engender feelings of resentment and degradation, emphasizing a gap between the required professional friendliness, stipulated in the company's policy, and the actual feelings of the employee.

Based on the above literature and discussion, the following alternative hypotheses are proposed:

H2a. Customer interactional injustice positively affects the ELE of employees.

H2b. Customer interactional injustice positively affects the ELD of employees.

H3a. Customer informational injustice positively affects the ELE of employees.

H3b. Customer informational injustice positively affects the ELD of employees.

2.4. Distributive injustice

Distributive justice (DJ) affirms an allocation of goods based on a person's merit within his community, thereby making common goods available. From a theoretical perspective, DJ acknowledges the contingency of social norms with regard to the distribution of resources (Bauzon, 2015 p. 197). DJ is explained by equity theory (Adams, 1963), where perceived outcomes, such as salary, promotion, opportunities etc., are judged by the amount of input, such as effort on the job. Howman (1961) expanded this theory, adding that the perceived input/output ratio is compared to that of peers or colleagues. Laventhal (1980) described it by saying that "...fairness in social relationships occurs when rewards, punishments, and resources are allocated in proportion to one's input or contribution" (p. 22). Thus, perceived unfairness could lead to negative feelings such as anger and resentment (Cropanzano & Foldger, 1989; Williams, 1999).

While DJ has never been linked directly to EL, it is strongly associated with emotive states (Hume, 2012; Smith, 2010) and is linked to negative emotions, giving it a strong potential for creating emotional dissonance and to have an impact on the EL of employees. For example, employees who feel that their jobs are "dead end" have no potential for career improvement, and no potential for improved financial standing may engender resentment, which will, in turn, increase the gap in emotions. A similar logical sequence could be applied to different DJ situations such as being passed up for promotions or salary increases.

Based on the reviewed literature and discussion above, the following alternative hypotheses are proposed:

H4a. Distributive injustice positively affects the ELD of employees.

H4b. Distributive injustice positively affects the ELE of employees.

2.5. Job satisfaction

Hochschild (1983), in her famous book, stated that managing positive emotions for an organization could be fundamentally unsatisfying. While early research supported the negative relationship between EL and job satisfaction (Pugliesi, 1999), as research on EL continued to evolve, the link between EL and job satisfaction was found to be significantly more complex.

Granday (2000) and Morris and Feldman, (1997) suggested that there are two facets of EL: deep acting and surface acting. They argued that "faking" positive emotions in surface acting increases employees' emotional dissonance and leads to decreased job satisfaction.

There is less support for the relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction. However, deep acting emphasizes a genuine positive feeling that an employee feels (which may not be related to a job or a customer) and portrays toward a customer, subsequently reducing emotional dissonance between what an employee feels and what he or she portrays. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) argued that deep acting or faking in "good faith" reduces the gap in employees' emotional dissonance, resulting in positive interaction with customers and, thus, positive work outcomes. Chu et al. (2012) empirically supported this notion and found a significant positive relationship between emotive effort (deep acting) and job satisfaction.

In the hospitality industry, faking in "good faith" is strongly emphasized through training. It is part of the "job description," and organizations select employees who have an affinity for service (friendly)

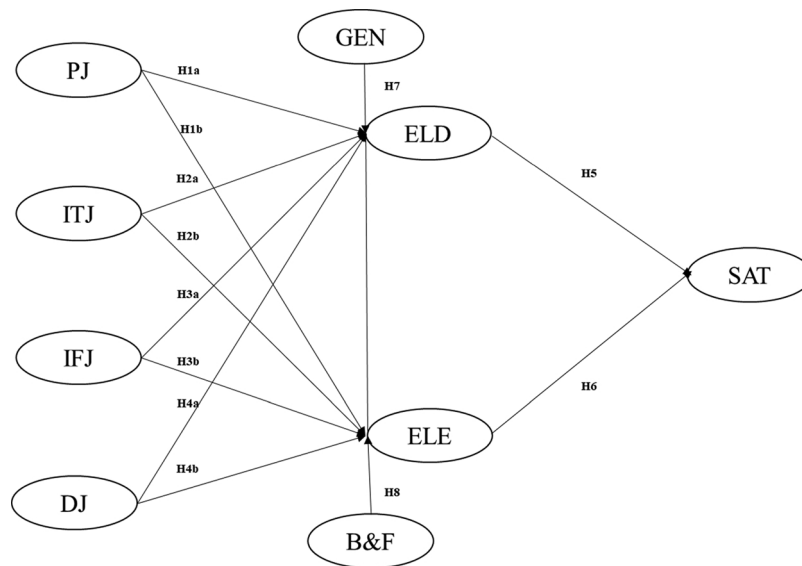


Fig. 1. Theoretical Model.

behavior. While, deep acting is not trained directly, it is indirectly emphasized in organizations' mission statements, and in employee training, there is a constant emphasis that service is what we do, thus emphasizing the need to fake in "good faith."

Based on the above literature review and discussion, the following alternative hypotheses are proposed:

Ha5. ELD (surface acting) will have a negative effect on job satisfaction.

Ha6. ELE (deep acting) will have a positive effect on job satisfaction.

2.6. Gender

Gender is extensively theorized as an antecedent of EL. [Hochschild \(1983\)](#) in her book indicated that due to the cultural and societal differences, females, more than males, adapt to emotional management. Women exhibit more attentiveness to emotional states and are more responsive to emotional cues in organizational settings ([Brody and Hall, 2008](#); [Domagalski, 1999](#)). [Grandey \(2000\)](#) theorized that gender will have a different impact on the emotive states of employees. The author argues that men will have greater difficulty in the service sector, managing their emotions due to their need to control. [Guy & Newman \(2004\)](#) found that females are more likely to be employed where "mothering" is required as part of the job description, such as family service counselor. [Maier, Mastracci, and Wilson \(2006\)](#) investigated EL in educational organizations and found that specifically female EL contributes to organizational productivity and reduces class turnover. [Johnson & Spector \(2007\)](#) conducted a study in customer service organizations and found that women are more likely to become emotionally exhausted than men.

[Kruml and Geddes \(2000\)](#) empirically found that women have higher possibilities of experiencing emotional dissonance. Since, they use surface acting as a segment of emotional labor. It is especially detrimental as it conflicts with a gender role ([Scott & Barnes, 2011](#)). Conversely, men are more emotionally restrained, a trait characteristic of Western culture ([Kring and Gordon, 1998](#)). As such, men tend to be more responsive to physical cues ([Pennebaker and Roberts, 1992](#)).

Based on the above literature, the following alternative hypothesis is proposed:

H7. Women will have smaller increases in EL than male according to the proposed antecedents.

2.7. Frequency of interaction

A proposition about the amount of an emotional interaction was originally advanced by [Morris and Feldman \(1996\)](#) based on research by [DePaulo \(1992\)](#) and [Saarni and VonSalisch \(1993\)](#). The proposition stipulated that the longer that employees needed to maintain their façade of positive and professional behavior, the harder it would be to perform and maintain the required attitude. Conversely, the more time an employee spends out of the customer's sight, the less maintenance will be required of the facial emotions.

The uniqueness of the hospitality industry and EL use is highlighted by the substantial difference in the frequency of interaction with customers in the back and front of the house. Thus, it was hypothesized that there could be substantial differences in perceived organizational injustice, EL, and job satisfaction. The frequency of EL dynamics was drawn primarily from [Morris and Feldman \(1996\)](#), who maintained that frequency of interaction would have a positive effect; the higher the frequency of emotional display required at work, the greater the chance that employees will experience conflict with their "true" emotions. [Grandey \(2000\)](#) supported this observation in her work on EL, stating that the higher the frequency of emotional display, the higher the emotional regulation. Furthermore, more frequent customer interactions will lead to a greater likelihood of dealing with difficult customers and of experiencing customer injustice. Finally, PJ and DJ reflect manager and company injustice, supporting [Grandey \(2000\)](#) proposition that not only can customers but also organizations/management can be sources of stress and the widening emotional gap. Thus, this study examined differences in the dynamics of managerial/organizational injustice effects on employees' EL in the front and back of the house.

Although the specific front- and back-of-the-house characteristics have not been empirically tested, theoretical evidence from [Morris and Feldman \(1996\)](#) suggests that the dynamics of the model could be different for back-of-the-house employees than front-of-the-house employees. Based on the above literature, the following alternative hypothesis is proposed.

H8. Employees who have more interactions with customers (front-of-the-house employees) will experience a higher level of EL than those who have fewer interactions with customers (back-of-the-house employees).

The proposed theoretical model is depicted in [Fig. 1](#).

3. Methodology

This study is limited to the hospitality industry, and the target population are hourly-wage hotel employees in the United States. A self-reported questionnaire was utilized to survey multiple properties in Central Florida. Questionnaires are especially important in accessing participants' emotional states. Specifically, surveys offer a number of advantages, such as gaining access to emotional states experienced in the past (Wallbott and Scherer, 1989). It is the only way in which subjects can disclose sensitive information, especially within an organizational setting where information is related to the feelings and subsequent emotions relating to current employment (Sudman and Bradburn, 1974). Due to the necessity of having a large sample size, only largescale hotels were used. This limited sampling to luxury and high-end hotels in Central Florida. Only hourly-wage employees who regularly interact with customers in the front and back of the house (hotel) were surveyed. Data was collected over period of six months.

All of the constructs in this study were adopted from previous research. The Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale (HELs) was developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006) to assess hospitality employees' performance in attending to customers and to identify the EL of hourly-wage employees. Organizational justice scales were adapted from Colquitt (2001 p.389) and were measured using 5-point scale with anchored of 1 = to a large extend and 5 = to a small extend. The satisfaction scale was adapted from Bacharach et al. (1991), and of all the satisfaction scales available, this was chosen because it "... emphasizes the match between expectations and perceived reality of the broad aspects of the job taken as whole" (1991, p. 45). Finally, binary scale was used for frequency of interaction, (1 = front-of-the-house, 2 = back-of-the-house interaction) and gender (1 = male, 2 = female). General demographic characteristics were used such as education, income, race, length of working experience and others,

Due to the multinational demographics of the area, the survey was conducted in English, Spanish, and Creole. During interactions with the management of the hotels in Central Florida, concern regarding questionnaire understanding was raised by the management of the hotels. According to them, back-of-the-hotel employees, such as housekeeping, dish washers, etc., will have difficulty understanding academic language surveys due to the complexity of language and a topic such as justice as well as the limited knowledge of English as a foreign language. A simplification technique was applied to a survey language, which did not alter the meaning of the test. Pharmaceutical companies and schools use this type of language simplification to streamline complicated (medical or academic) language for the general public and children. PhD specialist and president of the Plain Language Group, Dr. Deborah S. Bosley, was hired to adapt the language of the survey (Plain Language Group, 2015). Dr. Bosley is a Professor Emerita at UNC Charlotte and specializes in this technique.

In the next step, an English version of the survey was translated into Spanish and Creole. Spanish and Creole versions of the survey were translated directly, and back translation was applied to verify the contents of the survey.

A sample size of no less than 200 observations is recommended for SEM analysis (Hair et al., 2010). However, if a sample is larger than 400

observations, SEM modeling becomes more sensitive, making goodness-of-fit measurements poor. As a result, a sample between 200 and 400 is suggested (Hair et al., 2010). Similarly, Kline (2005) suggested that a sample size larger than 200 is sufficient to generate significant results and provide a sound basis for estimation. A final sample of 350 surveys was obtained, and the usable sample after data cleaning was N = 312.

4. Results

4.1. Demographic factors

The sample included 68.3% women and 24.2% men. A majority of the participants (43.1%) were 18–24 years old, followed by 24–34 (30.6%), while participants 55 and older comprised only 2.9% of the sample. Regarding the participants' education, the percentage of vocational/associate degrees was 32.4%, with 34% having obtained a college/university degree. Slightly more than half of the participants were white (51.8%), with the second largest category being Hispanic (22.5%). Responses were balanced regarding back-of-the-house and front-of-the-house place of work, with 57.8% and 42.2% occupying front- and back-of-the-house positions. Finally, experience was also quite balanced: less than one year (10.9%), 1–3 years (22.1%), 3–6 years (24.7%), 6–10 years (20.5%), and over 10 years (21.8%)

4.2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

A measurement model (CFA) is a first step in estimating the validity and reliability of a measurement prior to SEM analysis. The normality of the model was assessed with the SPSS/AMOS normality assessment option, using skewness and kurtosis. All variables were in the acceptable range of -2 to +2 for skewness and kurtosis, indicating normality within expectable limits (George and Mallery, 2010).

Descriptive statistics were performed on the latent variables using a mean standard deviation, with items averaged into scales and Cronbach's alpha for scale verification. Table 2 represents a correlation among the latent variables from a seven-factor model's standardized solution and provides nomological validity. Cronbach's alpha, a reliability measure used to verify scale reliability, is provided in column three. All variables have a reliability higher than 0.5 (Hair, 2010) and levels over .8, indicating very high levels of reliability (see Table 1).

The overall model showed a good fit within acceptable margins, with χ^2 (DF = 626) = 1013.566, RMSEA = 0.45 (CI = 0.040; 0.050, CFI = 0.951, TLI = 0.944, and IFI = .950). Chi-square statistics were significant; however, chi square is driven by sample size and is always significant in a sample exceeding 200. As this study's sample exceeded 300, we report the chi-square statistics, but do not use them in the model evaluation.

All unstandardized factor loadings were significant at p-value > 0.001. Statistically significant loading estimates provided a good estimate for convergent validity (Hair, 2010). The loadings and standard errors are provided in the Table 4.

An AVE value of 0.4 is also acceptable as a minimum benchmark as an indicator of convergent validity (Dimantopolus & Sigauw, 2000; Fraering and Minor, 2006). All AVE values met the threshold for

Table 1
Correlations and Reliability.

Variable	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PJ	2.23	0.841	0.900	1	.08	.10	.27	.11	.04	.03
IPJ	2.73	0.979	0.872	.29**	1	.37	.10	.19	.02	.01
IFJ	2.36	0.903	0.873	.31**	.61**	1	.15	.01	.02	.01
DJ	2.50	1.132	0.933	.52**	.32**	.39**	1	.16	.06	.05
SAT	3.55	1.146	0.928	−0.34**	−0.4*	−0.12*	−0.40**	1	.01	.01
ELD	3.02	0.772	0.812	0.22**	.17**	.15**	.26**	−0.08	1	.50
ELE	3.09	1.01	0.853	.17**	0.11	.12*	.23**	−0.19	.71**	1

Table 2
Items Loadings and Convergent Validity.

Variables	ELD	ELE	PJ	ITJ	IFJ	DJ	SAT
<i>Emotive Dissonance</i>							
I imitate/fake good mood when interacting with customers	0.552						
I fake/imitate the emotions I show when dealing with customers	0.674						
I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	0.728						
I display emotions that I am not actually feeling	0.691						
I have to cover up my true feelings when I am working with customers	0.639						
I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well	0.814						
I show the same feelings to customers as those that I feel inside	0.794						
<i>Emotive Effort</i>							
I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers		0.687					
When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires		0.817					
I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers		0.765					
I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers		0.809					
I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display emotions that I do not actually feel		0.595					
<i>Procedural Justice</i>							
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during these procedures?				0.727			
Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by these procedures?				0.697			
Have these procedures been applied consistently?				0.782			
Have these procedures been free of bias?				0.725			
Have these procedures been based on accurate information?				0.764			
Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by these procedures?				0.627			
Have these procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?				0.745			
<i>Interpersonal Justice</i>							
Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?							0.874
Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?							0.546
Has (he/she) treated you with respect?							0.877
Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?							0.925
<i>Informational Justice</i>							
Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?						0.749	
Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?						0.687	
Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?						0.843	
Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?						0.705	
Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?						0.754	
<i>Distributive Justice</i>							
Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?							0.754
Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?							0.861
Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?							0.846
Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?							0.910
<i>Satisfaction</i>							
<i>How satisfied are you with:</i>							
Your present job when you compare it to jobs in other organizations							0.922
The progress you are making toward the goals you set for yourself in your present position							0.828
The chance your job gives you to do what you are best at							0.816
Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job							0.891
Your present job in light of your career expectations							0.866
Average Variance Extracted	0.50	0.55	0.53	0.67	0.65	0.78	0.72

construct convergence (see Table 2).

All AVE estimates from Table 5 are greater than the corresponding interconstruct squared correlation estimates. Therefore, this test indicates that there were no issues with discriminant validity for this model (Hair et al., 2010).

4.3. Structural equation modeling (SEM)

After conducting CFA modeling as well as confirming the measurements and an acceptable fit of the measurement model, an SEM of the overall hypothesized model was conducted. The original model provided a satisfactory fit with (χ^2 (DF = 639) = 1013.566, RMSEA = 0.045 (CI = .040; 050, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.944, and IFI = .951).

A visual model is represented in Figure 1. Hypotheses H1ab, H2ab, H3ab were not supported. Hypotheses H4a ($\beta = 0.136$ $p < .040$) and H4b ($\beta = 0.153$ $p = .002$) were supported with the p value $< .05$, indicating that distributive justice has a significant effect on ELE and ELD. Moreover, hypothesis H6 ($\beta = -1.285$, $p < .001$) was confirmed, indicating a negative relationship between ELD (surface-acting) and job satisfaction. Finally, H7 was confirmed ($\beta = .776$ $p < .001$), suggesting a positive relationship between ELE (deep-acting) and job satisfaction (Fig. 2).

4.3.1. Multigroup analysis testing

A multigroup analysis was conducted to ascertain whether there was a difference in the model across the theorized subgroups. The first stage for testing measurement invariance was to confirm configured invariance (Hair et al., 2010). The second stage in testing measurement invariance was to build a constrained measurement model to test the construct level metric invariance by imposing cross-group equality constraints on the factor loadings. The metric invariance is a critical test of invariance and shows the cross-group validity beyond the basic factor structure. Although all the model fit indices were available, the main measure for model comparison was the chi-square difference significance level (Hair et al., 2010). If the chi-square test is not significantly different, the model is recognized as being equivalent across groups (Byrne, 2010).

4.3.2. Multigroup analysis: gender

There were two subgroups based on gender (male = 79 and female = 204). The overall model for the unconstrained model represented an acceptable model fit (χ^2 (DF = 1276) = 2064.667, RMSEA = 0.047 (CI = .047; 051, CFI = 0.896, TLI = 0.886, and IFI = .898). Following this was a test for metric invariance, which involves constraining each regression weight across groups. The chi-

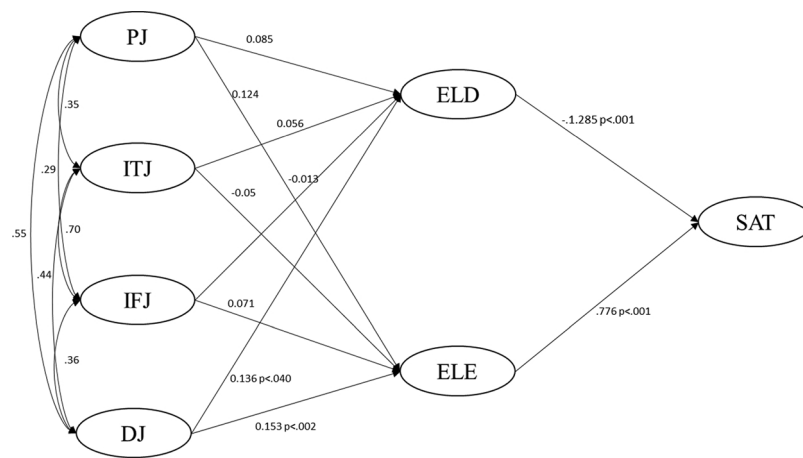


Fig. 2. Model Results.

Table 3
Chi-square Difference across Gender Groups.

	χ^2	DF	P-value
Base model	2064.667	1276	
Constrained model	2177.789	1312	
Difference	53.122	36	0.033

Table 4
Chi-square Difference across Groups by Path.

Path	χ^2	DF	P-value	Gender
PJ→ELE	2069.070	1277	> .05	Male
PJ→ELD	2066.629	1277	< .05	N.S.
IFJ→ELD	2071.245	1277	> .001	Male
ELE→SAT	2065.869	1277	< .05	N.S.
ELD→SAT	2066.422	1277	< .05	N.S.

square test was (χ^2 (DF = 1321) = 1312). A $\Delta \chi^2$ (DF = 36) = 53.122 p-value < .05). The results showed a significant difference between the models. To find which path was significantly different, each path was individually constrained. The results of the statistics are provided in Tables 3 and 4. Paths PJ to ELD and IFJ to ELD were significant for males, indicating more difficult emotive work for males.

4.3.3. Multigroup analysis: Front of the house and back of the house (F&B)

Following the same technique, the two subgroups (F & B) (front of the house = 175 & back of the house = 128) formed simultaneously with AMOS software for an examination using the group management function. The overall model for the unconstrained model represented an acceptable model fit (χ^2 (DF = 1269) = 1993.42, RMSEA = 0.044 (CI = .040; .047, CFI = 0.906, TLI = 0.896, and IFI = .908). Next, a test for metric invariance was conducted, which involves constraining each regression weight across groups. The chi-square test was (χ^2 (DF = 1305) = 2082.226). A $\Delta \chi^2$ (DF = 36) = 88.8060, p-value < .001). The result showed a significant difference between models. Thereafter, to find which path was significantly different, each path was individually constrained. The results of the statistics are provided in Tables 5 and 6. While the models are significantly different, individual paths were not significant.

5. Discussion

This study gives an insight into the dynamics of organizational injustice and EL in the hospitality industry. However, it did not replicate the results of Rupp and Spencer (2006) and Spencer and Rupp (2009).

Table 5
Chi-square Difference across Groups.

	χ^2	DF	P-value
Base model	1993.420	1269	
Constrained model	2082.226	1305	
Difference	88.806	36	0.0001

Table 6
Chi-square Difference across Groups by Path.

Path	χ^2	DF	P-value
PJ →ELE	1993.25	1269	N.S.
PJ →ELD	1995.03	1269	N.S.
IFJ→ELE	1995.03	1269	N.S.
ELE→SAT	1993.85	1269	N.S.
ITJ→ELE	1993.21	1269	N.S.
ELD→SAT	1993.42	1269	N.S.

Rupp and Spencer (2006) connected customer interpersonal injustice using Spencer and Carnevale (2003). This EL scale measures “...the extent to which participants felt they had to exert effort in managing their emotions during interactions with the customers” (Rupp and Spencer, 2006, p. 974). In their 2006 study, these authors used students for a preliminary study and call center customer service representatives for the main study. They found support for the effects of IJ and EL (Rupp and Spencer, 2006). In their 2009 study, Spencer and Rupp used an experimental design in a controlled environment, with students as their research subjects. They found that participants who were exposed to unjust customer behavior showed an increased use of EL. According to the authors, despite of an experimental design use, there was still uncertainty about how it would be applicable in the industry (Rupp and Spencer, 2006).

This is the first time that all four facets of organizational justice were tested on ELE and ELD in the hospitality industry. It could be speculated that this study, unlike the previous studies previous ones by Rupp and Spencer (2006) and Spencer and Rupp, (2009), was done specifically in hotels and that the dynamics of employee and customer interactions in the hospitality industry vary from those of experimental design on students or call centers representatives. Perhaps, in the presence of two other (procedural and distributive) justice scales, the two dimensions of interactional justice were diminished.

One unique finding of this study was the connection between DJ and an increase in EL. This suggests that an increase in distributive injustice leads to an increase in ELE and ELD. While this specific connection between DJ and EL was not empirically tested, it supports a logical conclusion from the past literature that justice could be perceived as an

effective event (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), thus linking it to EL. DJ is characterized by perceived equality or equality theory (Adams, 1965). Cropanzano and Folger (1989) were among the first to link DJ to emotive outcomes, suggesting that perceived unfair outcomes of DJ lead to negative emotions. This was supported by Cropanzano and Randall (1995), and Williams' (1999) experimental study found effects of DJ on negative emotions. EL is part of the job description and "work"; thus, stress resulting from perceived DJ has the potential to increase the effort needed to work or be productive in one's job so as to provide friendly and professional service to hotel guests. DJ was not empirically tested as having an effect on EL.

The study's results showed a statistically significant negative relationship between ELD and SAT. This suggests that employees' perceived differences between the emotions they feel and the emotions they portray (surface acting) decreases job satisfaction. This finding is supportive of similar findings on the effects of EL on job satisfaction (Chu et al., 2012; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Finally, job satisfaction is an essential component of overall psychological adjustment and well-being (Organ & Bateman, 1986). The hospitality industry is a service- and people-oriented business. Considering that dissatisfaction with the job has the propensity to "spill over," it is important that managers have a higher understanding and sensitivity as to how their employees feel at work (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001). Thus, job satisfaction is an essential factor in research on the organizational side of the hospitality industry in terms of increasing customers' perception of service quality (Hartline and Farrell, 1996).

The study showed a statistically significant negative relationship between ELE and SAT. This effect of EL on SAT was described by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987), that employees are conscious of emotion faking, but believe that such a requirement is part of the job, as it is done in "good faith." This was further developed by Stemmler (1997) work on emotive regulation, in which participants were urged to react to stressors in a detached manner, thereby decreasing negative psychological stimuli. However, research on the topic of ELE (deep acting) remains contradictory. Grandey (2000) hypothesized that the relationship will be negative since people with jobs that require high-level regulation tend to have low job satisfaction levels. Conversely, Chu et al. (2012) found positive relationships between ELE and JS. This emphasizes the point that management needs to have greater awareness of employees' levels of satisfaction and the corresponding levels of customer service.

There were several significant paths in the moderating effects of the emotive responses to organizational injustice and satisfaction between males and females. After conducting a path-by-path analysis, we found a significant difference for the path between PJ and ELE, where males exhibited higher levels of ELE than their female counterparts. Also, the path between IFJ and ELD was moderated, with males exhibiting higher levels of ELD in the presence of IFJ than their female counterparts. The interesting fact here is that PJ and IFJ did not have a significant effect on EL in the overall model.

While gender is extensively theorized as an antecedent of EL, we theorized that emotive perceptions might be different between males and females and that gender probably does not cause EL to fluctuate, but that, rather, it causes people to perceive stressors differently. Thus, gender was chosen as a moderator rather than as a predictor. According to Hochschild (1983), due to cultural and societal differences, females adapt to emotional management better than males. Brody (2000) emphasized the impact of social norms and their effects on emotional display. Social norms are learned at an early age and are influenced by stereotypes; for example, aggressive behavior is more accepted for men than women. From an early age, women are more adaptive to handling emotive dissonance and show positive emotions when disappointed, supporting Hochschild's (1983) proposition.

5.1. Theoretical contribution

The findings of this empirical research make a theoretical

contribution to, and increase the current level of knowledge in, the literature on organizational justice, EL, gender differences, the frequency of interaction, and job satisfaction.

First, in terms of theoretical contribution, this study contributes to the body of literature on EL and organizational injustice, especially given the paucity of research on organizational injustice within the literature. Rupp and Spencer (2006), in their research on the effects of customer injustice on EL, showed that customers are a viable source of justice. The authors suggested that future research should expand on injustice from multiple sources, such as supervisors and co-workers. In similar research, Spencer and Rupp (2009) expanded their work and took into account perceived injustice by customers toward co-workers and the subsequent increase in EL.

Second, this study expanded on organizational injustice as well as on customer injustice. The link between distributive justice and ELE and ELD was found. Moderating effects were also found. In the SEM model, gender moderated the effects of IFJ and PJ. Those effects were first investigated in the structural and casual relationship using SEM modeling, which has extended our understanding of the mechanism of the influence of antecedents on EL.

Third, this research improved the understanding of the EL of employees in the hospitality industry, who undergo stressful situations. Most of the empirical evidence on EL is conducted on employees who have authority over customers, such as nurses or school administrators (Chu, 2002). Fourth, the effects of PJ and IFJ were supported for male employees when gender was introduced as a moderating effect in the model. Males had increased ELE in the presence of PJ, thus supporting the proposition that perceived procedural injustice increases ELE. Also, ELD increased in the presence of IFJ, thus supporting the proposition that unclear communication by customers increases ELD in males. While gender is frequently used in studies involving EL, this is the first known study to moderate the effect of injustice on EL.

Finally, this study corroborated the findings by Chu et al. (2012), showing that ELE has a positive impact on job satisfaction and that ELD has a negative impact on job satisfaction. This empirically supports the consistency of the research and the importance on perceived job satisfaction among hospitality employees.

5.2. Managerial implications

The empirical results of this study provide beneficial suggestions for hotel managers and human resource departments on various aspects of human resource management: development, compensation, employee well-being, employee satisfaction surveys, and work environment. These practical implications could be beneficial for the development of high-performing organizations and the improvement of perceived satisfaction and compensation. DJ is "fostered where outcomes are consistent with implicit norms for allocation, such as equity and equality" (Colquitt, 2001, p. 386). It is associated mainly with satisfaction regarding an individual's own outcomes, such as pay, promotion, or compensation for work done and organizational involvement (Folger and Konovsky, 1989).

PDJ had an impact on the EL of both male and female employees. Perceptions are changeable, and management should take this into consideration. While salaries cannot be changed, DJ reflects not only a perceived monetary compensation, but also a reward or possible opportunity for work well done, esteem, and job security. Employees' perceptions of DJ add to psychological stress from a high level of effort (EL), and lack of an appropriate reward engenders emotional fatigue, subsequently increasing EL. This creates a closed circle of potential negativity and stress (Piccoli & Witte, 2015).

A potential solution to this concern could be two-fold. First, the keys to changing perceptions between an organization and employees are communication and the level of contact (Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Parker et al., 2001; Tanner and Otto, 2016). Thus, during regular meetings where managers discuss the goals of the day and problem-

solution issues, they should include acknowledgments of jobs well done, not only by the people who “walk an extra distance to help,” but also by those who do their job regularly and well.

Second, regular employee meetings should incorporate potential opportunities. Small goals should also be delineated, such as if one comes to work on time and does not call in for 30 days, one can have a free lunch at a hotel; and if one does so for 90 days, one can have a dinner with family or a day off. An achievable goal is also possible, whereby the company will partially pay for education, thus giving employees an opportunity to study and grow in the company. Employee goals should be evaluated as regularly as performance.

While it can be argued that hotels have practices that benefit employees, such opportunities are infrequent and somehow fade into the background of requirements of what employee must do to provide good service, and they are not voiced as frequently as job demands. The benefits of working for an organization should be articulated up front and should be communicated more frequently.

Procedural justice is concerned with the organizational decision-making process, which had a greater impact on male employees. According to the literature, women in general are subtler and seek to get along, while males possess stronger emotions and seek control (Fischer & Manstead, 1998). It does stand to reason that male employees will have greater difficulty with perceived procedural injustice. As an organizational representative, a supervisor has control in decision-making and in going against the natural desire to control, in general, which is typical of men rather than women. While human nature cannot be changed, studies reflect perception rather than fact, indicating that perception can be changed. To alleviate such perceptions, employees' well-being should be improved, in turn improving customer service. Moreover, male employees may need to meet with a manager on a one-on-one basis and engage in a conversation, where the employee's opinion will be taken into consideration and he or she can become part of the decision-making process, reducing the feeling that he or she no control over the situation.

Informational injustice had a greater effect on male employees' ELD (surface acting), also reflecting lack of control when a customer is not lucid or clear. Male hotel employees will benefit from higher training of ELE (deep acting), thereby resulting in less emotional stress (Grandey, 2000; Jung and Yoon, 2014). Alternatively, coping mechanisms should be taught during training – training in coping effects: such as reprisals (think of a situation where they feel nothing or behave in the way in which they are observed (a control condition). Perhaps for male employees, this would be more effective at reducing emotion-expressive behavior (Gross, 1998). A script for guest complaints could be provided for employees to fall back on. Still, some employees will find it more useful to have some ability to regulate the situation and subsequently reduce stress (Rupp and Spencer, 2006; Spencer and Rupp, 2009). Finally, management should be aware of emotive suppressors used by employees in stressful situations as well as the need for balance (procedural justice) when appraising an event.

Job satisfaction is a measure of employees' evaluation of the job and is used as a proxy for employee well-being at work (Grandey, 2000; West et al., 2014). It is generally accepted that happy employees make happy customers. At the beginning of their career, employees are genuinely friendly and happy to provide a great experience. As time goes by, extensive public contact and stress deplete enthusiasm and create a withdrawal behavior from the job aimed at preserving self-esteem (Hochschild, 1983). While EL is necessary in the hospitality industry, ELD (surface acting), rather than ELE (deep acting), creates those negative outcomes.

A potential solution to the problem is training employees in deep acting and coping mechanisms. Several propositions have been made by organizational psychologists, which have relevance in the hospitality industry. One advanced for male workers describes a reprisal and a control condition (Gross, 1998). A second (Parker and Axtell, 2001) suggests integration with suppliers or, in this case, integration with

customers, whereby employees see a situation from the customer's point of view and react less actively to the stressors. A third cites training of imagination, whereby employees may think of positive events and portray positive emotion toward employees (deep acting) (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Huang et al., 2015). This is also supported by Stravinsky (1965), what is called method acting, and follows the same logic.

Finally, the front and back of the house comprised significantly different models, but this difference was not significant in the path-by-path analysis. While frequency of interaction was proposed as a theoretical predictor of EL, we find that in case of perceived injustice there is an impact on EL whether it is frequent or not. In other words, housekeepers (back of the house) perceived injustice from management or customer will impact her/his EL in the same way as a front desk agent (back of the house). These results stand a reason, since memory could reproduce emotional data (Weelden, 1997), it is an impact that could influence emotional states, rather than their frequency.

6. Limitations

The strength of this study comes from data collected from hourly-wage employees of upscale hotels in Central Florida. It provides results for actual employee perceptions, rather than studying students or purchasing data, as the former can lack experience, and the latter may lack control over who takes the survey (are they really hotel employees?). However, this creates a limitation for data being collected in the area where a researcher could reach the hotel management and negotiate data collection, which limited the author to the Central Florida region.

Due to the magnitude of the sample of employees, necessary for SEM analysis, only large hotels with enough employees to survey were included in the study. Thus, the researcher was limited to upscale hotels, which have more rigorous training and selection.

Finally, the researcher made every effort possible to make the surveys anonymous (e.g., locked the survey box in the general area; unmarked envelopes and surveys; and online surveys, which employees could take in the privacy of their home). However, the data could not be collected in person, and no interaction with employees was allowed, thus creating the need for management involvement and creating potential bias in the survey responses (the responses were more positive).

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