

**DO EMOTIONAL LABOR STRATEGIES MEDIATE THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND
LEADER-MEMBER SOCIAL EXCHANGE?
-A STUDY IN INDONESIA**

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Abstract

The aim of the present study is to investigate how the level of emotional labor with the public is performed differently from those performed to the colleague and also to examine the relationship among emotional intelligence, emotional labor and leader member social exchange. Data were collected through self-report questionnaires (N=316), targeting groups of employees in the headquarter office and several other offices of Directorate General Customs and Excise, Indonesia.

The findings indicate that there is a significant difference in the level of surface acting with colleague and surface acting with the public. The result also shows that deep acting with colleague mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange however surface acting with the public does not mediate the relationship. Management implications of the findings, limitations, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: emotional labor, emotional intelligence, leader-member social exchange, mediation

JEL Classification: M100 Business Administration: General, M120 Personnel Management

Resumo

O objetivo do presente estudo é investigar de que forma o nível de trabalho emocional com o público é realizado de forma diferente daquele executados com o colega, examinando assim a relação entre trabalho emocional-inteligência, emocional e de troca social com o membro líder. Os dados foram adquiridos por meio de questionários de auto-relato (n = 316), através da segmentação de um grupos de funcionários no escritório da sede e vários outros escritórios da Direcção-Geral das Alfândegas e Impostos Especiais de Consumo, na Indonésia.

Os resultados indicam que há uma diferença significativa no nível da superfície de atuação e com o colega de superfície ao interagir com o público. O resultado mostra ainda que a atuação profunda com colega medeia a relação entre inteligência emocional e líder-membro do intercâmbio social entanto que a interação com o público não gere o relacionamento. As implicações de gestão, limitações e sugestões das conclusões para futuras pesquisas são discutidas neste estudo.

Palavras-chave: trabalho emocional, inteligência emocional, o intercâmbio social líder-membro, mediação

JEL Classification: M100 Business Administration: General, M120 Personnel Management

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1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Directorate General of Customs and Excise (DGCE) in Indonesia is an Agency (Echelon I) under Ministry of Finance which has a very important role for the national economy. The role is getting important due to the rapid development of international trade, which would be more complex with the establishment of ASEAN¹ Economic Community (AEC) in December 2015. In general, AEC promotes a highly integrated economy with free flow of goods, services, and capital, which are implemented gradually until 2025 (ASEAN, 2015). That role is manifested in the form of duties: collecting revenue to finance national development, facilitation of trade to support the efficiency of the supply chain of international trade, fiscal incentives to promote growth and protect investment in the country, as well as to protect the public from the entry of goods that are harmful to the security and disrupt public health (Performance Report, 2014). With the increasing public demands on performance of government agencies, the achievement of organizational goals has always been a priority for all top leaders in DGCE.

Starting from the reform process undertaken by the Ministry of Finance, DGCE continues to make improvements, especially in service area. Employees are trained to understand and internalize Practical Service Level Agreement (SLA) in their everyday jobs in several job position especially the job that interact directly with public. SLA is a standard of service that has been agreed in the form of action, spoken language, body language, including appearance and attitude. This particular standard becomes display rule that must be performed when they interact with customer.

According to scholars, performing emotions that are specified and desired by organizations is called emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983). It requires employees to suppress their genuine emotions in order to display emotions which are consistent with work role expectations (Glomb and Tews, 2004). Although emotional labor may be helpful for the organization, there has been recent work suggesting that managing emotions for pay may be

¹ ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) is an organization of countries in Southeast Asia set up to promote economic growth, political stability, and cultural development in the region (www.asean.org). Currently, ASEAN has ten members: Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Brunei Darussalam, Vietnam, Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Cambodia.

detrimental to the employees. Therefore, it is necessary for the organization to be aware of the negative outcomes of performing emotional labor on employees.

Emotional labor has been conceptualized primarily as a duty of front line service employees (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002). In later research, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) in their study of emotional labor, found that managers' frequency of performing emotional labor was higher than that of physical laborers and matched that of sales/service workers and human service workers. Hochschild (1983) argued that organizations developed feeling rules that specified the emotions that employees should feel in what scholars called as display rules. In the level of organization, in order to display the appropriate emotions, employees might have to regulate their internal emotional states as well (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as a relationship-based leadership theory is based on the premise that leaders form a unique exchange relationship with each follower (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975). This theory of leadership has roots in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and proposes that high quality relationships are characterized by trust, respect, loyalty, liking, intimacy, support, openness, and honesty (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Organization should learn how to develop and maintain high quality LMX, because it has been linked to a variety of positive organizational outcomes. In a meta-analytic review, Gerstner and Day (1997) were able to demonstrate that job performance, satisfaction with supervision, overall satisfaction, commitment, role clarity, and member competence were all significant correlates of LMX. Results from other studies offered support for a relationship between LMX and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), perceived organizational support (Wayne, Shore and Liden, 1997), turnover intent (Kim, Lee and Carlson, 2010), job satisfaction, organizational feedback, supervisor feedback, role conflict (Harris, Harris and Eplion, 2007), trust, respect, and obligation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Emotions have been recognized as comprising an integral component of leadership-related processes and outcomes (Fisk and Friesen, 2011). Since the introduction of LMX theory, modern emotion theory has recognized the important role that emotions play in the development and maintenance of interpersonal relationship (Fischer and Manstead, 2008; Frijda and Mesquita, 1994; Keltner and Haidt, 1999).

1.2. Research Questions

With the increasing role of DGCE as previously mentioned, it is important to always provide good services for the public. In this study, therefore, we want to get deep understanding on emotional labor performed with public and with colleagues and emotional labor's role in the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange of the employees in DGCE. By so doing, we hope that we may have insight how to manage and improve employee's well-being and leader-member exchange quality for the employees in DGCE who are facing increasing emotional demands in their work to provide high quality public service. Thus, the present study aims to answer this question: do employees in DGCE perform higher level of emotional labor with public than they do with colleague? And to what extent the emotional labor influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange in the DGCE?

1.3. Structure

Following this chapter, we will first review the existent literatures regarding emotional labor, emotional intelligence, leader-member social exchange and the relationship among them to develop the theoretical framework of the present study. In the third chapter, we will explain the methodology used in the present study. In more details, we will describe sampling, procedure, and analysis strategy used in this study. Finally, we will present the results of our research, discuss the management implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

2. Literature Review

This chapter reviews the relevant construct pertaining to the study. The origins and development of the emotional intelligence, emotional labor as well as Leader-Member Social Exchange are discussed to develop a theoretical framework of the study.

2.1. Emotional Intelligence Theory

There are three major conceptions of emotional intelligence in the literature. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined Emotional Intelligence (EI) as “a form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action.”

Goleman (1995), based on Salovey and Mayer’s definition, identifies five emotional competencies:

- The ability to identify and name one's emotional states and to understand the link between emotions, thought and action
- The capacity to manage one's emotional states – to control emotions or to shift undesirable emotional states to more adequate ones
- The ability to enter into emotional states (at will) associated with a drive to achieve and be successful
- The capacity to read, be sensitive to and influence other people's emotions
- The ability to enter and sustain satisfactory interpersonal relationships.

Bar-On (1997) developed a Bar-On emotional intelligence model. The model describes EI as an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and behaviors that impact intelligent behavior. He also developed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory™ (EQ-i™), which was designed to study, assess and strengthen emotional and social competencies.

Emotional intelligence involves the capacity to carry out reasoning in regard to emotions, and the capacity of emotions to enhance reasoning. More specifically, EI is said to involve the ability to perceive and accurately express emotion, to use emotion to facilitate thought, to understand emotions, and to manage emotions for emotional growth. A number of related concepts exist, including emotional competence, emotional creativity, and empathic accuracy (Bracket *et al*, 2004).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) argue that emotional intelligence abilities enable individuals to recognize, understand and manage emotions in themselves and others that contribute better relationships in the workplace. In agreement with Mayer and Salovey, Cooper (1997) asserted that many of the people with a higher Intelligence Quotient (IQ) (therefore considered intellectually more intelligent) would not consistently succeed in their personal or professional life, due to the scarcity of control over their emotions, or, opposite to this, they could manage a full control over their emotions and anxiety, but not be able to emotionally “tune in” with the others.

EI has been shown to relate to many different organizational and life outcomes. Wong and Law (2002) argued that individuals with high EI may use their abilities to manage emotions in order to develop good social relationships. In organizational context, the good social relationship can be associated with high quality leader-member exchange. Other studies have demonstrated a relationship between EI and ethical behavior (Deshpande and Joseph, 2009), drug and alcohol use, positive and negative relations with friends, care of physical appearance (Brackett, Mayer and Warner, 2004). As far as work outcomes, EI has been linked to performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (Carmeli and Josman, 2006), and job burnout and job satisfaction (Weng *et al.*, 2011).

2.2. Emotion Labor Theory

The concept of emotional labor was first introduced by Hochschild (1983), but the actual definition of the construct has evolved through the years, and many versions have been proposed. Hochschild (1983) originally defined emotional labor as the purposeful control of feelings in order to outwardly demonstrate an appropriate facial and body display. This control could be managed by using either surface acting, in which the outward expression was altered, or deep acting in which the actual emotion felt was altered through re-appraisal or directly conjuring the appropriate feeling.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) focused their definition of emotional labor on the actual behaviors performed during a service interaction. They took more of an impression management approach to emotional labor, defining it as the contrived display of appropriate emotional responses in service encounters. Morris and Feldman (1996) defined emotional labor as the “effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions to display appropriate emotions”

Grandey (2000) attempted to integrate those separate definitions into a comprehensive definition of emotional labor. She noted that the common thread in all three definitions was the idea that emotional labor involved the regulation of emotion in order to benefit the employing organization. She argued that emotional labor involved the regulation of feeling and expression in order to meet organizational goals.

In general, employees can manage emotions to meet work role demands through two major processes—surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting was described by Hochschild (1983) as disguising what we feel, or visually pretending to feel what we do not. Zapf (2002) suggested that surface acting is the physical attempt to conceal emotional dissonance. They described surface acting as the employee's attempt to manage physical or visible displays of emotion. For example, a call centre operator must demonstrate a friendly, polite and helpful voice when a customer calls even when she is having a problem.

Surface acting often may be interpreted as superficial and insincere by customers (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Zapf, 2002). Such customer's perceptions not only are detrimental to the organization-customer relationship, but also to the health of the portrayer of the insincere emotion (Morris and Feldman, 1997; Abraham, 1998; Pugliesi, 1999; Zapf *et al.*, 1999; Grandey, 2000; Zapf *et al.*, 2001; Erickson and Ritter, 2001; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Totterdell and Holman, 2003). Due to the incongruence between internal feelings and external expressions, surface acting not only appears phony to observers, but can result in emotional dissonance and therefore, high levels of stress and burnout for the actor (e.g., Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Erickson and Wharton, 1997; Schaubroeck and Jones, 2000).

Deep acting is trying to modify feelings to match the required displays (Hochschild, 1983). She considered deep acting as a step above surface acting in that the employee not only attempts to fool the customer with his or her emotional display, but also considers it an attempt at self-deception. For example, a call centre operator is performing deep acting when she is sad but she tries to be feeling positive. This employee not only controls his or her physical display, but endeavors to modify internal thoughts and feelings (i.e., emotional dissonance) in order to fulfill expectations of emotional display (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002). While surface Acting has been described as “acting in bad faith” as it involves going through the motions, deep acting has been described as “acting in good faith” as it involves trying to experience the emotions (Grandey, 2003).

In a meta-analysis study, Hulsheger and Schewe (2011) found that deep acting as well as surface acting predicts well-being and performance outcomes. In another meta-analysis study, Kammeyer-Mueller, *et al.*, (2013) found that surface acting have a pattern of negative relationships with work outcomes of job satisfaction and stress/exhaustion (but not with job performance), whereas deep acting have a pattern of positive relationships with all of these work outcomes.

The early definitions of emotional labor focused on modifying one's emotions in front of the public, or in the customer service context (Hochschild, 1983). In the customer service context, employees are often required to display certain emotions (e.g., through smiling, pleasant tone of voice) although they may not be feeling that particular positive emotion (e.g., if a customer is surly). Thus, customer service contexts may elicit surface acting, a form of emotional labor, where employees plaster on the organizationally prescribed emotional response even if they are not feeling that emotion (Allen, Pugh, Grandey, and Groth, 2010).

Recently, Ashforth and Humphrey (2012) noted that a trend in the emotional labor research has been to extend the examination of emotional labor beyond service workers. They argued emotional labor takes place in a wide variety of jobs because our roles at work are replete with social expectations and thus emotions are inevitably experienced. This view is consistent with Diefendorff, Richard, and Croyle (2006) who argued display rules such as acting friendly to others and suppressing annoyance are requirements of most jobs.

Emotional labor might not only take place between employees and clients or customers but also between coworkers as well as between leaders and followers (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros, 2007; Gardner, Fischer, and Hunt, 2009). Therefore, it is also necessary for the newer research to consider the differences between internal or external customer contact roles and other roles and the implications these differences may have for the development of display rules, the performance of emotional labor, and tendencies toward identification (Ashfort and Humphrey, 1993). They argued that display rules are less likely to regulate internal co-workers than those who are external customers because usually there is a written or official rule that regulate employees to be displayed to external customers but not with the internal customers. Therefore we propose that:

H1a: The level of surface acting with public is higher than surface acting with colleague

H1b: The level of deep acting with public is higher than deep acting with colleague

2.3. Leader Member Exchange, Leader Member Social Exchange Theory

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) is a theory of leadership that originally emerged from the works of Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975). Labeled as the vertical dyad linkage (VDL), the VDL approach is based on the degree of latitude (i.e., negotiation latitude) that supervisors grant their subordinates in negotiating work roles (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975), and it is different with each subordinate (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). A review of LMX studies published in the last 10 years reveals two different theoretical conceptualizations of LMX: vertical dyad linkage (VDL) and social exchange theory (Bernerth *et al.*, 2007). While VDL is based on the degree of latitude that supervisors grant their subordinates in negotiating work roles (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975), social exchange theory, proposes that recipients of positive actions experience a sense of indebtedness (Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003). Indebtedness is reduced when the recipient of positive actions returns an equivalent action to the donor (Settoon, Bennett and Liden, 1996).

Although they are sometimes used simultaneously and/or interchangeably, the two conceptualizations are not the same. The VDL conceptualization of LMX (that was used to develop early LMX scales including LMX7), is based on the premise that leaders test subordinates through a series of role-making episodes in which subordinates demonstrate their competence (Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Liden and Maslyn, 1998). In contrast, the social exchange conceptualization of LMX places no such restrictions on leader–member relations. Subordinates do not have to prove their competence or trustworthiness before engaging in exchanges. Social exchange simply implies as individuals act in ways that benefit others, an implicit obligation for future reciprocation is created (Bernerth *et al.*, 2007). Hence, equivalence of the counter gift is left to the giver; there is an expectation of a future action, but exactly what or when this action will occur is unclear. Therefore, social exchange is a more behaviorally-oriented construct and therefore more observable and concrete than general feelings. (Bernerth *et al.*, 2007).

Kuvaas (2012) suggested that LMX relationships can be characterized as both social and economic. Social LMX relationships, on the one hand, are characterized by a long-term orientation, where the exchanges between leaders and followers are ongoing and based on feelings of diffuse obligation, and less in need of an immediate “pay off” (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Economic LMX relationships, on the other hand, have more

marketplace, transactional, and contractual character, and do not imply long-term or open-ended and diffuse obligations. Rather, the exchanges rest upon downward influence, formal status differences and discrete agreements and they demand repayment within a particular time period, involve economic or quasi-economic goods, and are motivated by immediate self-interest (Blau, 1964; Shore *et al.*, 2006; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2011). In such relationships, emphasis is on the balance between what one gets from the relationship and what one gives. That is, an employee can go beyond the call of duty, but not unless he or she knows exactly what to get in a relatively immediate return (Kuvaas, 2012).

Indonesia, according to Hofstede (2005) is classified as having large-power distance, collectivist, short-term-orientation, weak uncertainty-avoidance, and feminine culture. As Indonesia upholds the value of collectivism, Indonesian people put group interest above individual interest. It also affects leaders-subordinates relationship which is basically moral, like family interaction (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). In other words, the leader-member exchange relationship in Indonesia would be more social exchange oriented.

In this study, we use LMSX partly because it is more suitable to adopt the LMSX scale in Indonesian context due to the national culture, and partly because the measures of LMX are criticized for poorly representing the social exchange content on which LMX theory is built (e.g., Bernerth *et al.*, 2007; Schriesheim, Castro, and Cogliser, 1999). Bernerth and colleagues have developed a new social exchange-based measure of LMX, labeled LMSX. Evidence for convergent and divergent validity of the newly developed LMSX measure with current LMX scales (LMX 7, LMX-MDM), and incremental validity in predicting work outcomes (e.g., performance, commitment) over current scales can be found in Bernerth *et al.* (2007).

2.4. Relationship among Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labor and Leader-Member Social Exchange

Graen and Uhl-Biehn (1995) stated that emotional exchange is an important characteristic of high quality leader-member exchange. Emotional intelligence abilities are largely concerned with managing interpersonal relationships (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Since the LMX relationship is inherently a process of social interaction (Liden *et al.*, 1993), it would seem to follow that emotional intelligence has some role to play, especially in social situations where emotional feelings and displays are important. Employees with high emotional intelligence are better at using their emotions in managing their relationship with

their supervisors (Sy *et al.*,2006). Similarly, Johnson and Spector (2007) proposed that emotional intelligence is the fundamental ability that allows an employee to successfully perform emotional labor.

In a large-power distance country like Indonesia (Hofstede, 2005), subordinates need to work according to the instructions of their supervisors and the supervisors are directive. Thus, the interactive process of emotional labor between the supervisors and the subordinates in their daily work is very high. Humphrey (2012) suggested that supervisors show appropriate external mood so as to exert some influence on subordinates' emotion, motivation and job performance. In other words, both managers and subordinates perform emotional labor to develop high quality relationships (Halbesleben and Bowler, 2007).

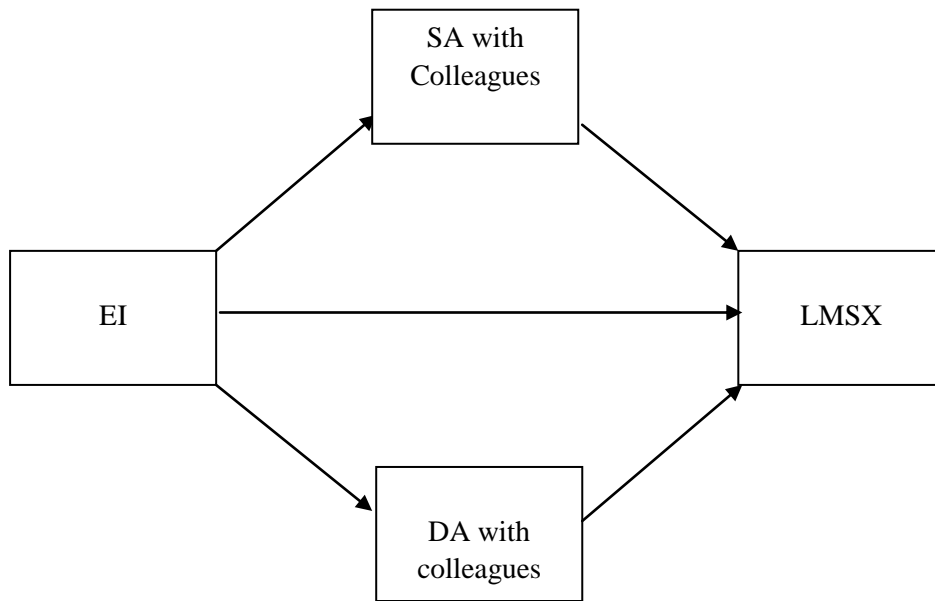
We propose that surface acting and deep acting with colleague will partially mediate the relationship between EI and LMSX. According to Conservation of Resources (COR) model, individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources, including objects (e.g., homes, clothes, food), personal characteristics (e.g., self-esteem), conditions (e.g., being married or living with someone provides social support, more financial security), and energies (e.g., time, money, and knowledge) (Hobfoll,1989). Emotional intelligence as a resource is positive in managing interpersonal relationships (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). As LMSX is an interpersonal relationship between leaders and followers, then we argue that surface acting and deep acting with colleague help to activate emotional intelligence's impacts on LMSX by managing upwards. Therefore, we propose partial mediation in the model because EI still has direct effect on LMSX.

H2: Emotional intelligence is positively related with Leader Member Social Exchange

H3: Surface acting with colleague will partially mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and Leader-member social exchange.

H4: Deep acting with colleague will partially mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and Leader-member social exchange.

Figure 1. Proposed mediation model



3. Research Method

3.1. Sampling and Procedure

In this study, the population is all employees of Directorate General of Customs and Excise. Currently, this institution has approximately 13,000 employees that are working at 147 offices. This study is using convenience sampling method by distributing the questionnaires to the headquarter office and several other offices.

The data collected in this research contain 359 responses, which were obtained through both online and offline. Online questionnaires were distributed to employees working in several offices which accounted for 106 responses. The online questionnaire is developed using Google Docs Survey, so that they can be distributed to the respondents through the Internet (by email, social media, and other Internet-based communications). The offline questionnaires were distributed directly to several departments in the headquarter office, which accounted for 253 responses. After data screening, there are only 316 useable responses that will be used in further analysis in this research.

3.2. Measures

All details of measures used in the employees' questionnaire can be found in Appendix.

3.2.1. Emotional Intelligence

The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) is used to measure EI (Wong and Law, 2002). The WLEIS is a 16-item scale designed to measure the four branches of EI as originally proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997). Although the factors in the WLEIS are meant to assess the four proposed by Mayer and Salovey, there is a slight difference. In the WLEIS, the subscale of perceiving emotions is assessed by the two factors of self-emotion appraisal and others' emotion appraisal. The items assessing self-emotion appraisal are also associated with the Mayer and Salovey counterpart of knowledge of emotions. Each item is scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Each branch of the WLEIS is assessed via four items. In the full sample of participants in this study, the reliabilities of 16-items was .885. Sample items from the WLEIS include "I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions" and "I am a self-motivating person".

3.2.2. Emotional labor

Emotional labor were assessed by eight items from Grandey's Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (2003), originally developed by Brotheridge and Lee (2002). Surface acting items were assessed by five items (e.g., "Put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way"), and deep acting items by three items (e.g., "Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show"), on a response scale of 1 ("never") to 5 ("always"). The scale reflects the emotional interactions with internal and external constituents (colleague and public). Reliabilities were .835 and .881 for deep and surface acting with colleagues, respectively. While emotional labor with public has reliabilities .869 and .921 of surface and deep acting with public respectively.

3.2.3. Leader member Social exchange

Leader member social exchange was measured by eight items developed by Bernerth *et al.* (2007). Items including: "My supervisor/organization and I have a two-way exchange relationship"; " I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my supervisor/organization will return a favor"; "If I do something for my supervisor/organization, my supervisor/ organization will eventually repay me"; "I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my supervisor/organization"; " My efforts are reciprocated by my supervisor/organization"; "My relationship with my supervisor/organization is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking"; "When I give effort at work, my supervisor/organization will return it"; "Voluntary actions on my part will be returned in some way by my supervisor/organization", on a response scale of 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly disagree"). Reliabilities were .863.

3.3. Statistical Analysis

First, means, standard deviations, correlation and coefficient alpha internal consistency reliabilities were computed. Second, a paired t-test is run to compare the emotional labor with colleagues and emotional labor with public. We conducted mediation tests using multiple programs and software which included SPSS, AMOS, SOBEL test, and PROCESS Macros for SPSS. In order to confirm if a variable is making a mediation effect in the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable, we use several types of tests. We conducted the traditional hypothesized method using SPSS regression analysis (Baron and Kenny, 1986). This procedure involves four steps. First, a significant relationship between the initial variable and the outcome variable must be shown. Second, a

significant relationship must be shown to exist between the initial variable and the mediator variable. Third, the mediator variable must continue to affect the outcome variable while controlling for the effects of the initial variable. Finally, to determine whether the mediation is full or partial, the relationship between the initial variable and the outcome variable is examined for any reduction after controlling for the mediator variable. If the initial variable is still significant, support is provided for a partially mediated model. Furthermore, the Sobel test was used to test the significance of a mediation effect. The Sobel test provides means to determine whether the reduction in the effect of the independent variable, after including the mediator, is a significant reduction and therefore whether the mediation effect is statistically significant (Sobel, 1982).

4. Results

4.1. Participants

Participants were employees of Directorate General of Customs and Excise from the headquarter office. Some participants filled out a set of questionnaire manually and some filled out online questionnaire so that 359 responses were collected but there were only 316 usable responses.

Demographic information of the participants which included information about gender, age, tenure and job position is presented in the Table 1. The age distributions of the participants were predominated by employees who are between 20 to 29 years old, then followed by employees whose age are between 30-39 years old. The sample consists of predominantly males (74.4 %). The composition of the job position was predominantly staff (59.2%) whereas managers and other group of employees were 36.1% and 4.7% respectively.

The tenure of the participants is described as follows: about 40 % of them have been working for more than 10 years and 37% have been working for 1-3 years. In term of direct interaction with public, respondents who always interact with public accounted for 51.3%.

Table 1.
Demographic characteristics of participants

Measure	N=316	%
Gender		
Male	235	74.4
Female	81	25.6
Age		
20-29 years old	182	57.6
30-39 years old	92	29.1
40-49 years old	41	13.0
≥ 50 years old	1	0.3
Job Position		
Staff	187	59.2
Manager	15	4.7
Other	114	36.1
Tenure		
1-3 years	117	37.0

4-6 years	43	13.6
7-9 years	30	9.5
≥ 10 years	126	39.7
Direct Interaction with public		
Yes	162	51.3
No	154	48.7

4.2. Factor Analysis and Internal Consistency

This section begins with testing the psychometric quality of the measures and then moves on to hypothesis testing. Psychometric quality testing requires all measures to be both valid and reliable, meaning that the instruments have measure the intended construct (usually tested via factor analysis) and all items within the same factor should be internally consistent (i.e. reliable, which is tested via Cronbach’s alpha).

First, we run confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using IBM SPSS AMOS to confirm the factor structures of the scales in this study. All items have been ordered based on variables used in this study. Emotional intelligence is measured by questions: EI_1 to EI_16; surface acting with colleague is measured by questions: SA_COL_1, SA_COL_2, SA_COL_3, SA_COL_4, and SA_COL_5; deep acting with colleague is measured by questions: DA_COL_1, DA_COL_2, DA_COL_3; leader member social exchange is measured by questions: LMS_1, LMSX_2, LMSX_3, LMSX_4, LMSX_5, LMSX_6, LMSX_7, and LMSX-8; surface acting with colleague is measured by questions: SA_PUB_1, SA_PUB_2, SA_PUB_3, SA_PUB_4, SA_PUB_5; deep acting with public is measured by questions: DA_PUB_1, DA_PUB_2, and DA_PUB_3.

To determine the goodness of fit of the scales, we calculate the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Root Mean Score Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI). We use threshold levels that were suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), complemented by Hair *et al.* (2010) as the table 2 illustrates.

Table 2.
Model Fit Criteria

Indices	Criteria
SRMR	< .08
RMSEA	< .08
CFI	>.90

Source: Hu and Bentler (1998)

A confirmatory factor analysis on 16 items measuring emotional intelligence shows questionable fit indices (SRMR = .14; RMSEA = .19; CFI = .53). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is therefore conducted to uncover underlying structures of the data. The result shows KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy score .879 indicating that EFA can be applied to all those items. The EFA yields four factors. These four factors come from emotional intelligence subscales, they are: emotional self awareness, other emotional awareness, regulation of emotion and use of emotion. All the items then are grouped based on their predetermined factors, which are indicated by the score in particular component is higher than the score in other components. Then we do the second CFA which results in more acceptable fit indices of the scale (SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .04; CFI = .98). Therefore, these 16 items are included in the further analysis.

With regard to the variable “Surface acting with colleagues” we find a one-factor solution. The output of CFA shows poor indices (SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .13; CFI = .96). Then we try to delete item SA_COL_1 and redo the CFA. The result shows better indices (SRMR = .02; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .99). Therefore we exclude item SA_COL_1 for further analysis.

With regard to the variable “Deep acting with colleagues” we find a one-factor solution. The output of CFA shows good indices (SRMR = .006; RMSEA = .21; CFI = .97). Therefore we use all the three items for further analysis.

With regard to the variable “Surface acting with public” we find a one-factor solution. The output of CFA shows poor indices (SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .13; CFI = .96). Then we try to delete item SA_COL_1 and redo the CFA. The result shows better indices (SRMR = .02; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .99). Therefore we exclude item SA_COL_1 for further analysis

With regard to the variable “Deep acting with public” we find a one-factor solution. The output of CFA shows good indices (SRMR = .006; RMSEA = .21; CFI = .97). Therefore we use all the three items for further analysis.

Finally, we do CFA for 8 items of variable “Leader Member Social Exchange”. The output of CFA shows poor indices (SRMR = .04; RMSEA = .10; CFI = .94). Then we try to delete item LMSX_1, LMSX_2, LMSX_3, and LMSX-8 because they have the lowest standardized regression weight and redo the CFA. The result shows better indices (SRMR =

.02; RMSEA = .07; CFI =.99). Therefore we exclude item those four items for further analysis.

4.3. Correlation Analysis between Variables

Following preliminary analysis, we examine the correlation among variables used in the study, including demographic factors for each of the three groups of samples. They are: group 1 which represents all samples, group 2 which represents the group of samples with public interaction or we can say that they are employees who are in front-liners position, group 3 which represent the group of samples who do not interact directly with public or external customers. Leader-member social exchange was significantly correlated with emotional intelligence in all groups. LMSX was significantly correlated with surface acting with colleague and deep acting with colleague in group 1 and 2 but not in group 3. There is no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and emotional labor either surface or deep acting in group 1 and 3, but there is significant correlation between emotional intelligence and deep acting with colleague in group 2.

Table 3.
Means, standard deviation, correlations and scale reliabilities of Group 1 (All samples)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Gender	1.26	0.44										
2 Education	3.61	0.88	-.163**									
3 Age	1.56	0.73	-.104	.460**								
4 Position	1.77	0.95	-.277**	.292**	.304**							
5 Tenure	2.52	1.34	-.208**	.509**	.799**	.307**						
6 Direct Interaction	1.49	0.50	.240**	-.199**	-.273**	-.537**	-.296**					
7 Emotional Intelligence	3.86	0.44	-.008	.013	.005	-.095	-.053	-.128*	(.885)			
8 Deep Acting with colleague	2.53	0.88	-.018	.004	-.052	-.024	-.122*	-.038	.077	(.881)		
9 Surface acting with colleague	2.31	0.70	-.075	.028	-.064	.020	-.076	-.037	.028	.635**	(.816)	
10 Leader Member Social Exchange	3.23	0.66	.011	.071	-.009	-.004	-.023	-.109	.238**	.238**	.143*	(.850)

N=316, Cronbach α reliability coefficients are in the parenthesis.

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

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

For gender, 1 = male, 2 = female.

For age, 1 = < 20 years, 2 = 20-29 years, 3 = 30-39 years, 4 = 40-49 years, 5 = \geq 50 years.

For position, 1 = staff, 2 = manager, 3 = other.

For duration of employment, 1 = 0-1 year, 2 = > 1-3 years, 3 = >3-5 years, 4 = >5-10 years, 5 = >10 years.

Table 4.
Means, standard deviation, correlations and scale reliabilities of Group 2 (Samples with public direct interaction)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Gender	1.15	0.36									
2 Education	3.78	0.85	-.032								
3 Age	1.75	0.79	.047	.506**							
4 Position	2.27	0.94	-.286**	.307**	.148						
5 Tenure	2.91	1.30	-.035	.642**	.754**	.163*					
6 Emotional Intelligence	3.91	0.43	.117	-.055	.006	-.317**	-.166*	(.894)			
7 Surface Acting with colleague	2.27	0.71	-.058	.019	-.027	.127	-.059	.063	(.873)		
8 Deep acting with colleague	2.56	0.89	.057	.008	.013	-.014	-.096	.219**	.630**	(.817)	
9 Leader Member Social Exchange	3.27	0.71	-.026	-.064	.058	-.128	.007	.205**	.171*	.294**	(.843)

N=162, Cronbach α reliability coefficients are in the parenthesis.

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

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

For gender, 1 = male, 2 = female.

For age, 1 = < 20 years, 2 = 20-29 years, 3 = 30-39 years, 4 = 40-49 years, 5 = \geq 50 years.

For position, 1 = staff, 2 = manager, 3 = other.

For duration of employment, 1 = 0-1 year, 2 = > 1-3 years, 3 = >3-5 years, 4 = >5-10 years, 5 = >10 years.

Table 5.

Means, standard deviation, correlations and scale reliabilities of Group 3 (Samples without public direct interaction)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Gender	1.36	.48									
2 Education	3.44	.88	-.191*								
3 Age	1.36	.59	-.138	.341**							
4 Position	1.25	.63	-.082	.112	.289**						
5 Tenure	2.17	1.26	-.242**	.314**	.838**	.227**					
6 Emotional Intelligence	3.8	.43	-.049	.030	-.085	-.017	-.020	(.872)			
7 Deep Acting with colleague	2.49	.87	-.064	-.016	-.178*	-.118	-.187*	-.086	(.890)		
8 Surface Acting with colleague	2.2	.73	-.097	.054	-.125	-.161*	-.117	-.011	.593**	(.820)	
9 Leader Member Social Exchange	3.17	.76	.139	.046	-.247**	-.084	-.253**	.207**	.122	.118	(.857)

N=154, Cronbach α reliability coefficients are in the parenthesis.

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

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

For gender, 1 = male, 2 = female.

For age, 1 = < 20 years, 2 = 20-29 years, 3 = 30-39 years, 4 = 40-49 years, 5 = \geq 50 years.

For position, 1 = staff, 2 = manager, 3 = other.

For duration of employment, 1 = 0-1 year, 2 = > 1-3 years, 3 = >3-5 years, 4 = >5-10 years, 5 = >10 years

4.4. Hypothesis Testing

In order to test hypothesis 1a: “The level of surface acting with public is higher than surface acting with colleague” and hypothesis 1b: “The level of deep acting with public is higher than deep acting with colleague”, we conducted a paired t-test to compare surface acting with colleagues and surface acting with public, deep acting with colleagues and deep acting with public. We performed this test in three different groups of samples in the analysis to see the difference among those three groups.

Table 6.
Paired t-test results

	Surface Acting				Deep Acting			
	With Colleague	With Public	Mean Difference	F	With Colleague	With Public	Mean Difference	F
Group 1 (All samples)	M=2.31, SD=.69	M=2.41, SD=.77	-0.094	t(315)= -2.80*	M=2.53, SD=.88	M=2.60, SD=.90	-0.073	t(315)= -1.86; p=.063
Group 2 (With public direct interaction)	M=2.34, SD=.67	M=2.43, SD=.76	-0.094	t(161)= -1.91*	M=2.56, SD=.89	M=2.62, SD=.88	-0.068	t(161)= -1.14; p=.256
Group 3 (Without public direct interaction)	M=2.29, SD=.71	M=2.38, SD=.79	-0.095	t(153)= -2.05*	M=2.50, SD=.86	M=2.57, SD=.93	-0.078	t(153)= -1.56; p=.121

* p < 0.05

In group 1, the level of surface acting with public is higher than surface acting with colleague. There was a significant difference in the level of surface acting with colleagues (M = 2.31, SD = .69) and surface acting with public (M = 2.41, SD = .77); t (315) = 2.80, p < .05. Therefore hypothesis 1a in this group is supported. With regards to the difference level of deep acting with colleagues and deep acting with public we found it is not significant. The level of deep acting with colleagues (M = 2.53, SD = .88) and deep acting with public (M = 2.60, SD = .90); t (315) = -1.86, p = .063. Therefore, hypothesis 1b in this group is not supported.

In group 2 (N=162), the level of surface acting with public is higher than the level of surface acting with colleague. There was a significant difference in the level of surface acting with colleagues (M = 2.34, SD = .67) and surface acting with public (M = 2.43, SD = .76); t (161) = -1.91, p < .05. Therefore hypothesis 1a in this group is supported. Meanwhile, the difference of level of deep acting with colleagues (M = 2.56, SD = .89) and deep acting with public (M = 2.62, SD = .88); t (161) = -1.14, p = .256 in this group is not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1b in this group is not supported.

Lastly, in group 3 (N= 154), the level of surface acting with public is higher than the level of surface acting with colleague. There was a significant difference in the level of surface acting with colleagues (M = 2.29, SD = .71) and surface acting with public (M = 2.38, SD = .79); $t(153) = -2.05, p < .05$. Therefore hypothesis 1a in this group is supported. Meanwhile, the difference of level of deep acting with colleagues (M = 2.50, SD = .86) and deep acting with public (M = 2.57, SD = .93); $t(161) = -1.56, p = 0.12$ in this group is not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1b in this group is not supported.

In order to test hypothesis 2: “Emotional intelligence is positively related with Leader Member Social Exchange”, a simple linear regression was conducted to see the relationship between EI and LMSX for three different groups of samples.

Table 7.
Emotional Intelligence positively related with LMSX (Step 1)

Group difference	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
Group 1	(Constant)	1.836	.361		5.082	.000
	1 Emotional Intelligence	.359	.093	.213	3.863	.000
Group 2	(Constant)	1.957	.499		3.921	.000
	1 Emotional Intelligence	.336	.127	.205	2.653	.009
Group 3	(Constant)	1.786	.533		3.351	.001
	1 Emotional Intelligence	.364	.139	.207	2.611	.010

In group 1, emotional intelligence significantly related with LMSX with an adjusted explained variance of 4.2% ($\beta=.359, t(314)= 3.863, p<.001$). In group 2, emotional intelligence significantly predicted LMSX with an adjusted explained variance of 3.6% ($\beta=.336, t(160)= 2.653, p<.01$). While in group 3, emotional intelligence significantly predicted LMSX with an adjusted explained variance of 3.7% ($\beta=.364, t(152)= 2.611, p<.05$). Therefore hypothesis 2 is fully supported.

In order to test the hypothesis that emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) with colleague mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and LMSX we conducted the aforementioned four-step procedures. First step, which is represented by hypothesis 2 “EI significantly predict LMSX “, was supported in all three groups. In the second step, the relationship of the independent variable (EI) with the possible mediator (the

emotional labor strategies) was examined. As we can see in the Table 8, in group 1, EI was not able to predict surface acting ($t = .556$; $p=.579$) and deep acting ($t = 1.363$; $p=.174$). In group 2, EI can only predict deep acting with colleague ($t= 2.845$; $p<.01$). Lastly, in group 3 EI was not able to predict both surface acting and deep acting with colleague. As Baron and Kenny (1986) note, mediation first requires a significant relationship between the independent variable and the mediator of a model. Table 8 shows that EI can only predict deep acting with colleague in group 2, therefore we dropped surface acting with colleague as a mediator and we only focus on group 2 in the further analysis.

Table 8.
The relationship between independent variable and mediators (Step 2)

Dependent Variables	Emotional Intelligence (independent variable)				
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>t</i>	β	Significance
<i>Group 1</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.031	.001	.556	.051	.579
Deep acting with colleague	.077	.006	1.363	.154	.174
<i>Group 2</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.063	.004	.796	.103	.428
Deep acting with colleague	.219	.048	2.845	.452	<.01
<i>Group 3</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.011	.0001	-.137	-.137	.891
Deep acting with colleague	.086	.007	-1.064	-.172	.289

In the third step, the dependent variable (LMSX) was regressed on the possible mediators (surface acting with colleague and deep acting with colleague). The two sets of regression demonstrated that surface acting with colleague and deep acting with colleague had significant positive relationships with LMSX in group 1 and 2, but not in group 3 (Table 9).

Table 9.
The relationship between mediators and LMSX (Step 3)

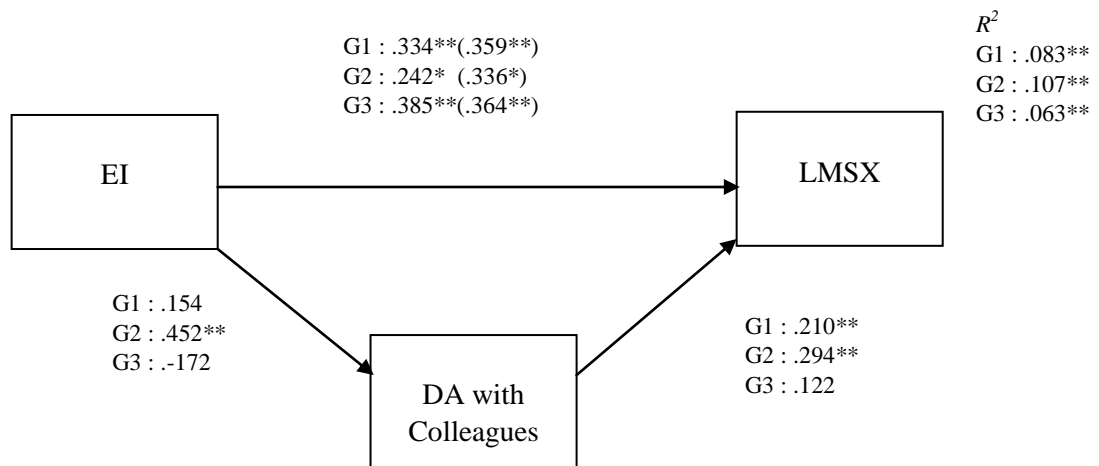
Independent Variables	LMSX				
	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>t</i>	β	Significance
<i>Group 1</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.255	.065	2.551	.143	<.05
Deep acting with colleague	.210	.044	3.813	.210	<.001
<i>Group 2</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.259	.067	2.064	.159	<.05
Deep acting with colleague	.294	.087	3.894	.294	<.001
<i>Group 3</i>					
Surface acting with colleague	.239	.057	1.519	.126	.131

Deep acting with colleague	.122	.015	1.521	.122	.130
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In the fourth step we drop surface acting with colleague as a mediating variable since it does not show significant relationship with independent variable (EI), and therefore, we only analyze deep acting with colleague as a mediating variable. Thus, our hypothesis 3 that surface acting will partially mediate the relationship between EI and LMSK is not supported.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the direct effects of emotional intelligence decrease after including deep acting with colleague as a mediating variable in the model. In group 2, the direct effect decreased for about .09. In the other two groups we do not count it as a mediating variable since they do not fulfill criteria of step 2. Therefore, our hypothesis that “deep acting with colleague partially mediating the relationship between EI and LMSX” is supported in group 2. In addition, we also calculated the significance of indirect effects using the Sobel-test (Sobel, 1982). Table 10 summarizes the results. It also provides a comparison of the explained variance with and without taking the indirect effect of EI via deep acting with colleague into account.

Figure 2. Emotional intelligence and LMSX with deep acting with colleague as a mediator



Notes: All numbers represent standardized beta coefficients (numbers in brackets are direct effects without including the mediator); *p < 0.05; ** p < .001; G1: Group 1, G2: Group 2, G3: Group 3

Table 10.
Indirect effect of emotional intelligence on LMSX

Sample	Sobel-test-Z	Explained variance R^2	
		simultaneous model without indirect path	mediation model including indirect path
Group 1	0.233	.045**	.083**
Group 2	.131*	.042**	.107**
Group 3	-0.824	.043**	.063**

Notes: *p < 0.05; ** p < .001

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Discussion

The current study examined two research questions regarding emotional intelligence, emotional labor and leader-member social exchange. First, we compared emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) that the employees performed to the colleague and those performed to the public. Second, we tested the mediation impact of emotional labor on the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange.

Is the level of emotional labor with the public higher than the level of emotional labor with the colleague?

In this study, we found that there is a significant difference in the level of surface acting performed to public and performed to colleagues. Specifically, respondents in this study report significantly higher surface acting to the public than surface acting to the colleagues. However, the result shows that there is no significant difference in the level of deep acting performed to the public and performed to the colleagues. This finding supports the idea of Asforth and Humphrey (1993) that display rules are less likely to regulate non-customer-related within organization than those who are external organization's customers. Serving external clients or public is more pressuring than interacting with co-workers or supervisors, therefore, they need to perform higher surface acting when serving customers. However, with regard to deep acting, it is not supported. Employees basically perform deep acting with colleague as high as with public. Since surface acting is painting or faking while deep acting is modifying inner feeling (Hochschild,1983), deep acting is considered as more authentic and sincere. Hence, it does not matter to whom people perform deep acting.

Does emotional labor, specifically surface acting and deep acting with the colleague, mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange?

This finding supports the idea that emotional intelligence has positive relationship with leader-member social exchange. It also supports the hypothesis that deep acting with the colleague mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange in group 2 which is samples with public direct interaction. With regard to hypothesis that surface acting with the colleague mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange, it is not supported.

Research on surface acting confirms that it is generally ineffective in generating desired audience impressions (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss and Green, 2006; Bono and Vey, 2007; Shulei and Miner, 2006). For example, Grandey (2003) found that surface acting by front line service workers was negatively related to co-worker ratings of affective delivery. Such findings suggest that employees who respond to emotional display rules with surface acting are unlikely to garner favorable co-workers/colleague impressions. In addition, surface acting may be accompanied by unwanted secondary impressions an individual is insincere and manipulative (Gardner and Martinko, 1988). Therefore, it does not support that surface acting with colleague mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader member social exchange.

While in the group 2 which is employee who works directly with public or clients it is supported that deep acting with colleague mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader member social exchange. As a front-liner, it is more likely that he/she engages in deep acting or surface acting more often than employees who are not as front-liners. An experiment by Shulei and Miner (2006) revealed that individuals who engaged in deep as opposed to surface acting experienced higher levels of authenticity. And the authenticity may lead to better relationship with supervisor/ colleague when it is performed to colleague which in turn affects the quality of LMSX in a positive way. Based on social exchange theory, by performing deep acting with colleague, the employees may have a better social relationship with colleague/supervisors which results in a better LMSX outcome.

From all of the results discussed above, it can be concluded that employees perform surface acting with public more often than with colleagues. Since performing surface acting is associated with job burnout and depression (Abraham, 1998; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002), managers should pay more attention on these negative effects. They should be given more motivation and organizational supports for example by creating events including team building, socialization outings and sporting. It is also wiser to consider rotating the front-liners employees frequently to another job which does not require them performing emotional labor.

The results also confirmed that emotional intelligence is a predictor of leader-member social exchange, therefore EI should become a factor that has to be considered when recruiting new employees. It should be noted as well, that employees' ability to perform deep acting may improve the leader-member social exchange quality. Thus, management could encourage employees to be aware that performing deep acting instead of surface acting is

better for the leader-follower relationship and then encourage them to improve this ability by giving training regularly.

5.2. Conclusions

The aim of the present study is to investigate how the level of emotional labor with the public is performed differently from those performed to the colleague and also to examine the relationship among emotional intelligence emotional labor and leader member social exchange. The findings indicate that there is a significant difference in the level of surface acting with colleague and surface acting with the public. The result also shows that deep acting with public mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member social exchange however surface acting with the public does not mediate the relationship.

6. Limitation and Future Directions

As it happens in most studies, there are some limitations that should be admitted in this research. First, and most importantly, the data were gathered at one point in time such that we are not able to infer causal relationships or rule out the possibility of reverse causality. The second limitation is related to the sampling method used in this study which is non-probabilistic sampling (in this study, respondents are chosen from the head office only). Non-probabilistic sampling being used in this study might decrease the representativeness of the samples.

Another issue that deserves consideration concerns the low variance the model explains (9%). It is not uncommon to have models explaining low variance published in management but this indicates potential for finding competitive models with variables that help adding explained variance.

This study is one of few studies about emotional labor that have been done in Indonesia especially in governmental institution which focuses on its relation with leader-member social exchange. Another area of future research would be to examine this relationship in a broader institution or in private companies.

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Appendix : Questionnaire

My name is Murtini. I am a master student at ISCTE - University Institute of Lisbon, Portugal, conducting an academic research for my thesis currently. There is no right or wrong answers and all data will be kept strictly confidential. Please do not identify yourself. On the following pages you will find several different kinds of questions. Specific instructions will be given at the start of each section. It should take no more than 15 minutes to complete the entire questionnaire.

Please answer each item as honestly and frankly as possible

I. Respondent's information

1. Gender : Male Female
2. Age : 20 – 29 years old
 30 – 39 years old
 40 – 49 years old
 ≥ 50 years old
3. Position : Staff
 Manager
 Others
4. Tenure : 1 – 3 years
 4 – 6 years
 7 – 9 years
 Lebih dari 10 tahun
5. Does your job require you to interact with the clients or public directly most of the time?
 Yes No

II. Instruction for completing this survey

This survey consists of four sections. At the beginning of each section there will be an instruction. Choose the answer as directed.

A. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE						
Instruction: Choose an answer that best describes your self		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I have good understanding of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have good understanding of the emotions of	1	2	3	4	5

	people around me.					
9.	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I always tell myself I am a competent person.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5

B. EMOTIONAL LABOR WITH COLLEAGUES						
Instruction:						
When interacting with your colleagues (supervisors, colleagues), how often do you actually <u>do</u> the following behaviors during a typical work day		Never/ Not at all	Rarely/ Once in a while	Sometimes	Often/ Most of the time	Always/ Constant- ly
Surface acting – Managing facial expressions						
1	Put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	1	2	3	4	5
2	Fake a good mood.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Put on a “show” or “performance.”	1	2	3	4	5
4	Just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.	1	2	3	4	5
Deep acting – Managing internal feeling states						
1	Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to others.	1	2	3	4	5

C. LEADER-MEMBER SOCIAL EXCHANGE (LMSX)						
Instruction:						
This section contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with either your organization or your supervisor. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by choosing one of the responses that appear beside the item.		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

1	My supervisor/organization and I have a two-way exchange relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my supervisor/organization will return a favor.	1	2	3	4	5
3	If I do something for my supervisor/organization, my supervisor/organization will eventually repay me.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my supervisor/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My efforts are reciprocated by my supervisor/organization.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My relationship with my supervisor/organization is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking.	1	2	3	4	5
7	When I give effort at work, my supervisor/organization will return it.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Voluntary actions on my part will be returned in some way by my supervisor/organization	1	2	3	4	5

D. EMOTIONAL LABOR WITH PUBLIC						
Instruction:						
When interacting with the public (e.g. clients, citizens), how often do you actually do the following behaviors during a typical work day.		Never/ Not at all	Rarely/ Once in a while	Sometimes	Often/ Most of the time	Always/ Constant- ly
Surface acting – Managing facial expressions						
1	Put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	1	2	3	4	5
2	Fake a good mood.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Put on a “show” or “performance.”	1	2	3	4	5
4	Just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.	1	2	3	4	5
Deep acting – Managing internal feeling states						
1	Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to others.	1	2	3	4	5

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