DISSERTATION

UNDERSTANDING THE CONNECTION BETWEEN

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, EMOTIONS

AND EMPLOYEE STRAIN

Submitted by

Mark D. Mazurkiewicz

Department of Psychology

UMI Number: 3374661

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.
In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI®

COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY

March 13, 2009

WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED UNDER

OUR SUPERVISION BY MARK D. MAZURKIEWICZ ENTITLED

UNDERSTANDING THE CONNECTION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL

JUSTICE, EMOTIONS AND EMPLOYEE STRAIN BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING

IN PART REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

Committee on Graduate Work
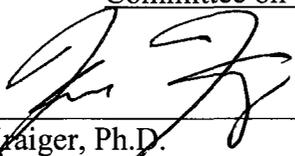
_____
Kurt Kraiger, Ph.D.
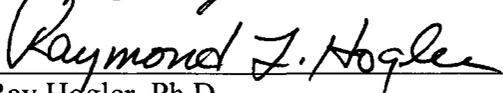
_____
Ray Hogler, Ph.D.
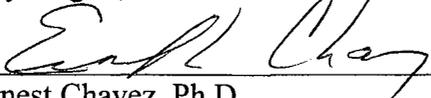
_____
Ernest Chavez, Ph.D.
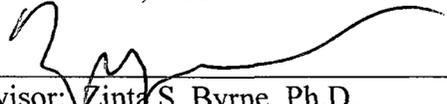
_____
Advisor: Zinta S. Byrne, Ph.D.

_____
Department Head: Ernest Chavez, Ph.D.

ii

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

UNDERSTANDING THE CONNECTION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL

JUSTICE, EMOTIONS AND EMPLOYEE STRAIN

People who experience injustice at work often hide the negative emotions that result and fake positive emotions in their place. This process of emotion management – called emotional labor – produces emotional dissonance, which has been linked with undesirable work outcomes such as job burnout and turnover intentions. This paper investigates a theoretical model that merges two different literatures: one that has shown relationships between organizational justice and emotions, and another that has shown relationships among emotions, emotional dissonance, and resulting outcomes such as burnout and turnover. Taken as a whole, the model proposed and investigated in this paper demonstrates the mediating influence of emotion management when low fairness perceptions lead to job burnout and ultimately, turnover.

One hundred and sixty-seven participants completed surveys, and analysis of their responses supported many of the hypotheses proposed in this paper. Specifically, the data indicated that organizational justice was inversely related to negative emotions and that negative emotions were positively related to emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance showed a strong association with burnout and burnout showed a strong association with turnover intentions. The model demonstrates how the experience of unfairness at work leads to the instantiation and suppression of negative emotions, which subsequently create a sense of emotional dissonance in the perceiver. This emotional dissonance can further contribute to the feeling of burnout and intentions to quit. In addition to the

hypothesized theoretical model, a set of alternative models were also evaluated to determine if emotional dissonance and burnout acted as full or partial mediators. Theoretical contributions of these findings and future directions for research are discussed.

Mark D. Mazurkiewicz
Psychology Department
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, CO 80523
Spring 2009

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my good friend and colleague, Dr. Sarah DeArmond.

Without your encouragement and support, I would not be typing these words. I hope you

are as proud of this accomplishment as I am.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction

There is no better place to study the ebb and flow of emotion than the workplace. As Weiss (2002) states, work-related events are often loaded with emotional impact as emotions can originate from many sources: daily interactions with coworkers, interactions with one's supervisor, or the immediate environment; all have the potential to create affective experiences (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). One particularly powerful generator of emotion is the process whereby employees make fairness judgments about organizational rewards, organizational policies, or interactions with others. Workers readily grasp the existence of these fairness perceptions, called organizational justice, and often describe them in strikingly emotional language. For example, one manager at a consumer products company describes an unfair situation by saying "... someone will remind me what happened and my anger and bitterness will just break through, overwhelming me like a hot flash" (Bies & Tripp, 2002, p. 203). Besides its intuitive appeal, the connection between organizational justice and emotion has also received substantial empirical support (for a review, see Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008).

The relationship between emotions and organizational justice provides fertile ground for study (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008), yet few researchers have explored how employees manage their emotions in the face of injustice. Employees are often encouraged to suppress these emotions because norms exist for how one is supposed to express himself or herself in the workplace (Argyle & Henderson, 1985). Organizations prefer that employees only show a narrow range of what they feel (Bono & Vey, 2005).

As a result, most workers display accepted, organizationally-sanctioned emotions to both their coworkers and clients, regardless of what they actually feel. For example, employees faced with an unfair work assignment will likely display enthusiasm when they actually feel anger or resentment. In order to accomplish this, however, most people must engage in emotional labor, or the active management of feelings at work (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor involves the suppression of inappropriate emotions, or the faking of unfelt emotions. Though effective in terms of hiding negative emotions, this process has been shown to negatively impact health outcomes because engagement in emotional labor can lead to what researchers have called emotional dissonance (Abraham, 1998, 1999; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). Emotional dissonance is an uncomfortable internal state that results when one feels a different emotion than what one outwardly displays (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf et al., 1999). Over time emotional dissonance can produce negative health outcomes for employees, as it has been associated in past research with burnout and job strain (Abraham, 1998, 1999; Bakker & Heuven, 2006, Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, & Holz, 2001).

Although research has shown that emotion management is correlated with strain, most empirical investigations involving justice and emotion exclude strain as an outcome; these studies focus only on the type of emotion produced when injustice is present. For example, when researchers study distributive justice (Leventhal, 1976), or the type of justice having to do with perceived fairness of rewards, studies often show that recipients report negative feelings when they feel they have been over-rewarded (e.g., Hegtvedt, 1990). Yet how these negative feelings are associated with burnout is

unknown. Those who investigate procedural justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), or

perceptions of fairness having to do with how stakeholders make allocation decisions,

often measure the emotion of anger (e.g., Vermunt, Van den Bos, & Lind, 1996) resulting

from unfair procedures but do not elaborate further on how this anger affects strain.

Researchers examining the relationship between interactional justice (Bies & Moag,

1986), or fairness associated with interpersonal treatment and availability of information,

have shown that interactional injustice is associated with anger and resentment (Stetcher

& Rosse, 2005; Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, & Gee, 2002). Again, these studies

do not include any type of strain as an outcome variable.

A separate stream of research has shown an association between injustice and

strain. Specifically, a recent set of studies has shown that injustice is correlated with

occupational stress (Brotheridge, 2003; Elovainio, Kivimäki, & Helkama, 2001; Judge &

Colquitt, 2004), self-rated health (Elovainio, Kivimäki, & Vahtera, 2002; Kivimäki,

Elovainio, & Ferrie, 2003), emotional exhaustion (Kausto, Elo, Lipponen, & Elovainio,

2005), and depression (Tepper, 2001). These studies are valuable in that they show a

definitive association between injustice and strain, however they do not allow for

conclusions about the role that emotions play in this process.

If one stream of research has shown that a relationship exists between justice and

emotions, and another steam of research has shown that a relationship exists between

justice and strain, then it follows that a third variable having to do with emotion

management could play a role in mediating the justice-strain relationship. Because

emotional dissonance is a component of emotional labor and is also associated with

strain, emotional dissonance seems likely as a mediator. To date, however, a model

linking organizational justice, emotions, emotional dissonance, and occupational strain in this manner has not been proposed or empirically evaluated.

The purpose of the current study, therefore, is to propose and test a theoretical model (see Figure 1) showing how justice may produce both positive and negative emotions, and how the management of these emotions may produce emotional dissonance, which is further associated with burnout and, ultimately, turnover. A test of this model will advance what is currently known about how fairness perceptions exert their influence on important health and work-related outcomes and will contribute to the literature by explaining how organizational justice impacts employee strain and turnover intentions via emotional labor, and more precisely emotional dissonance. A few studies have started to empirically link injustice and emotional labor (Rupp, McCance, Spencer, & Sonntag, in press; Rupp & Spencer, 2006), but a theoretical consideration of why these relationships exist is lacking, as is an examination of the role of emotional dissonance. The theoretical model proposed in the current study will attempt to fill this gap.

Organizational Justice and Discrete Emotions

Organizational justice is a research area that addresses how and when people form perceptions about fairness in the workplace. According to organizational justice theories, people reach decisions about what constitutes a fair event based on three types of perceptions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Distributive justice has to do with the outcome of decisions (Deutsch, 1985; Leventhal, 1976), such as getting a raise or promotion. Procedural justice involves fairness perceptions of the processes that decision-makers use to reach allocation or reward decisions (Lind & Tyler 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler & Lind, 1992). For example, someone may form a procedural

justice judgment on how an important decision was made. To make procedural justice judgments, individuals use the standards of consistency, suppression of bias, information accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980). Besides these standards, individuals may also factor in how much voice or input they have into the decision process (Folger, 1977). The final form of justice, called interactional justice, has to do with interpersonal treatment during the implementation of procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). If people feel that information is being withheld from them, they will experience low informational justice. If people feel that they have been treated with disrespect, they may feel a low sense of interpersonal justice. Both informational and interpersonal justice make up the higher-order construct of interactional justice.

Organizational Justice versus Injustice

It should be noted that most researchers in the organizational justice literature use the term "injustice" when they refer to a low perception of justice. This operationalization of injustice is a direct result of the widespread use of empirically-tested and validated scales of organizational justice (i.e., Colquitt, 2001; Moorman, 1991). These scales contain items on fairness but do not ask respondents about unfairness. This point is noteworthy because a low level of fairness may not necessarily constitute unfairness. These scales, however, have been used to study injustice because they allow for examination of what occurs when there is a *change* in perceptions of justice. For example, correlational research can describe changes in other variables as procedural fairness perceptions decrease. This is similar to saying "As people perceive less fairness, they perceive an increase in x, y, or z." The current research is correlational in nature, and

is therefore meant to describe what occurs as justice perceptions decrease. Therefore, in the current paper, the use of the term injustice is not meant in a strict, static sense, such as an overall perception that is stable over time. Instead, it is meant as *when justice perceptions decrease.*

The Purpose of Emotion

Lazarus and Cohen-Charash (2001) explained the purpose of human emotion by stating that individuals use emotions to navigate their way through objective reality by putting an emotional spin on the events that occur. This emotional spin helps individuals take correct actions while coping with stress that accompanies an event. The idea that emotions help convey information to the person experiencing the emotion is shared by many theorists. For example, Heuven and Bakker (2003) state that emotions serve a signal function, telling an employee when to take action. Strong emotions inform individuals at work that they have not been rewarded appropriately for their efforts (Siegrist, 2002), or that they need to engage in some specific behavior to address a threat to their well-being (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Lazarus and Cohen-Charash (2001) take a cognitive-motivational-relational approach to emotions and list a number of *core-relational themes* for each emotion. A core-relational theme can be thought of as the informational aspect of affective experience, or put another way, what an emotion tells a person about a situation. For instance, the core-relational theme for anger is "a demeaning offense against me and mine" (p. 55). The core-relational theme for compassion is "moved by another's suffering and wanting to help" (p. 55). If one defines injustice as an offense against a person, the core-relational theme for anger seems to overlap as it constitutes an offense. When one

considers core-relational themes for positive emotions, one can also find overlap with justice. For example, the core-relational theme for relief is "a distressing goal-incongruent condition that has changed for the better or gone away" (p. 55). If workers experience a high degree of organizational justice in the workplace (i.e., they feel they are paid well relative to others, that they have a say in policies and procedures, or they are treated with respect), it may relieve uncertainty about their survival at the organization and therefore lead to the experience of relief. Thus, according to Lazarus and Cohen-Charash, emotions serve a useful function for individuals who experience high or low organizational justice, because emotions communicate information about the situation and suggest future action.

Organizational Justice and Emotion

Given the purpose of emotion described above, it makes intuitive sense that people who are dealt with unfairly react with negative emotions. Indeed, Rupp and Spencer (2006) showed that when lab participants acted as customer service representatives and were treated with unprovoked disrespect and unfairly accused of being slow and lazy, they reacted with anger. This self-reported feeling of anger in the presence of injustice has been empirically demonstrated in other studies as well (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). Injustice seems so tied to emotion that newer organizational justice theories suggest that the perception of injustice and the feeling of emotion are one and the same. According to the new concept of deontic justice (Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005), individuals experience what is called a deontic response (i.e., morally driven, strong emotional response) when they witness the violation of a moral principle. As a result, those witnessing the transgression

become upset and experience a rapid, emotional, and sometimes irrational desire for retribution against the offender, even if doing so is not in their best self-interest. In short, deontic justice implies that the perception of unfairness and the emotional reaction are the same phenomenon. That is, injustice *is* an emotional reaction.

The current study, however, takes the viewpoint that the perception of injustice and feeling of emotion are different events. This view is shared by proponents of affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective events theory states that individuals enter a two-step process when they are confronted with an emotionally-charged organizational event. For example, when someone is fired, he or she will first evaluate the event (losing a job) and, based on his or her conclusions (no longer being able to earn money) will experience an emotion, such as fear or anger. This emotion is expected to influence attitudes or affect-driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Therefore, different types of organizational events will be evaluated for emotional potential according to affective events theory.

Besides suggesting that injustice and emotion are separate constructs, affective events theory explains why certain acts of injustice should lead to emotions as proposed in the current theoretical model (Figure 1). In their paper on affective events theory, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggested that events are often proximal causes of affective reactions. In other words, "Things happen to people in work settings and people often react emotionally to these events. These affective experiences have a direct influence on behaviors and attitudes ..." (p. 13). As the authors noted later in their paper, an affectively charged event can influence both the general and the specific: overall feelings about one's job, and specific behaviors at work.

But one should not focus on precise events as the cause of emotions, the authors said, because one can gather rich information by examining affective patterns over time. Although emotions can be precipitated by specific events, tying emotions to these single events misses an important aspect of the phenomenon: namely, that people experience *emotion episodes* in which a single event of affective significance can lead to a chain of sub-events. Each of these sub-events can be charged with the same emotion as the originating event. In this manner, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) described the ebb and flow of emotional experience over time. For example, an employee may get an e-mail stating that company layoffs will occur in the coming weeks. This single event – getting and reading the e-mail – may be enough to cause emotions such as anxiety or fear. Nevertheless, these feelings may be heightened when the employee seeks further information from coworkers, a supervisor, or other e-mails. As the days pass, emotions will occur based on the chain of emotional sub-events. Note that a large number of sub-events can follow from a main affective event, and each can be associated with the same, or a number of related emotions.

The theory of affective events and sub-events has important relevance to the current study of organizational justice in the context of emotions. By making the argument that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice could instantiate a large chain of emotional events, one could further argue that it would be possible to capture the association between organizational justice and the emotions that typically follow. This conclusion, however, rests on the assumption that organizational justice perceptions constitute an affective event. Researchers, such as Greenberg (2006), have argued in support of this view and demonstrated that perceptions of organizational justice constitute

an affective event that can exert a positive or negative influence on employee health. In addition, Rupp and colleagues have collected data consistent with affective events theory in lab studies on justice and anger (Rupp et al., in press; Rupp & Spencer, 2006).

Besides affective events theory, two additional theories also explain the theoretical link between justice and emotion as well as their separation by suggesting that perceptions of injustice act as an antecedent to emotion. First, reciprocity theory (Heuven & Bakker, 2003) suggests that individuals may experience an emotional reaction when they do not achieve reciprocity in work exchanges. In this case, an emotional reaction occurs because it serves as a signal indicating a lack of balance in the ongoing exchange between parties. For example, people on a job may feel that they have put in a great deal of work but were not rewarded appropriately. This failure to achieve reciprocity triggers a fairness judgment and an emotional reaction to the fairness judgment.

Second, Siegrist's (2002) effort-reward imbalance model states that people experience emotional reactions when their efforts are not rewarded appropriately. In this case, an employee first makes an evaluation that his or her efforts have not been rewarded, then forms a perception of injustice, after which he or she experiences an emotion. According to both reciprocity theory and effort-reward imbalance, not being rewarded appropriately (the lack of distributive justice) could be considered an affective event and produce emotion.

It should be noted that reciprocity theory and the effort-reward imbalance model are similar in some respects to equity theory (Adams, 1965). Equity theory states that people compare their work inputs and outputs with another person, called a referent, and then make an evaluation as to whether they have been treated fairly relative to the

referent. Reciprocity theory and the effort-reward imbalance model are similar to equity theory in that they articulate a process by which individuals evaluate inputs and rewards at work. The two theories (reciprocity theory and the effort-reward imbalance model) are different from equity theory in that a referent is not required, as it is in equity theory, to make a comparison. That is, reciprocity theory and the effort-reward imbalance model do not rely on social comparison, as does equity theory. Overall, the key point to draw from all three theories is that some action (an inequitable reward) leads to the perception of organizational injustice, which results in emotion.

All of the theories reviewed thus far in the paper suggest that individuals will experience negative emotions when a justice-related event is threatening. Hence, perceptions of unfairness should be followed by negative emotions. This relationship is supported by the research literature, which has shown that anger is often a universal reaction to organizational injustice as a whole (Clayton, 1992; Gibson, 1995; Mikula, 1986, 1987; Mikula, Scherer, & Attenstadt, 1998). Besides the emotion of anger, research correlating organizational justice and emotions has shown that individuals react with a variety of negative emotions when they feel a sense of unfairness, and positive emotions when they experience a sense of fairness. For example, individuals in a lab experiment who were over-rewarded or treated better relative to others felt a sense of guilt (Brockner, Davy, & Carter, 1985; Hegtvedt, 1990). People who perceive a low sense of distributive justice tend to feel hostility (Van den Bos, 2001). When faced with low levels of procedural justice, individuals experience emotions based on two situational factors: first, whether they have voice in the process (Van den Bos & Spruijt, 2002) and second, whether the outcome is favorable or unfavorable (Weiss et al., 1999). Overall, one can

conclude that individuals can experience emotions such as anger, sadness, shame, fear, resentment, or envy in the face of low procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008). People have even been shown to experience anger or resentment when either witnessing or experiencing interactional injustice (Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Stecher & Rosse, 2005; Turillo et al., 2002). In terms of positive emotions, people tend to experience happiness, contentment, and satisfaction when procedural justice is high (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008). In terms of the role they play, the fundamental difference between positive and negative emotions in the face of injustice has to do with the information conveyed by the emotion. Whereas negative emotions constitute a threat that demands action on the part of the perceiver, positive emotions represent a benefit that does not demand any type of behavioral response.

Based on the theoretical propositions and the empirical findings described above, it is expected that previous findings will be replicated in that low levels of justice will be associated with negative emotions and high levels are justice will be associated with positive emotions (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice perceptions will be positively associated with positive emotions.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational justice perceptions will be negatively associated with negative emotions.

Emotional Labor

In professional settings, clear rules exist for which emotions should be displayed by employees. Thus, when individuals experience strong negative emotions at work, they are not likely to express these emotions freely. For example, one corporate culture

handbook states that employees should show enthusiasm and give the impression that they enjoy what they are doing (Kunda & Van Maanen, 1999). When emotional display rules, such as these, are not directly stated but tacitly understood, they usually include being polite, friendly, and courteous towards others (Tschan, Rochat, & Zapf, 2005). Recent research has also shown that the specific emotions one is allowed to display are directly related to one's position within the organization (see Lazarus & Cohen-Charash, 2001).

If employees are unable to express the emotions they feel at work, they will likely engage in emotional labor. Emotional labor involves the active suppression, enhancement, or faking of emotions (Hochschild, 1983). A number of review papers have been written on the subject of emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Mazurkiewicz, 2007; Morris & Feldman, 1996), and the process has become the focus of much recent empirical attention (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Mann, 1999; Mann & Cowburn, 2005; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

Although a number of different models and definitions have been proposed, most researchers agree that emotional labor consists of several key components. First, there is the concept of display rules, or mandated conventions on what emotions are appropriate to display (Hochschild, 1983). Second is the concept of how employees follow these rules, either through deep acting or surface acting. Deep acting consists of creating situationally-appropriate emotions from within the self by using cognition or memory of a past emotion (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting consists of faking an emotion one does not feel, or suppressing an emotion one does feel (Hochschild, 1983). Third is the

concept that has probably generated the most disagreement in the literature, the idea of emotional dissonance.

Emotional Dissonance

Emotional dissonance has been defined in two different ways within the emotional labor research literature. The first and most common definition states that emotional dissonance represents an uncomfortable feeling that arises when there is a difference between what one feels and what one displays (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). This is most likely to occur when people engage in surface acting by faking an emotion they do not feel. A second and alternative definition of emotional dissonance states that it is the difference between what one is *required* to display and what one feels (Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005). In this case, people experience dissonance because they understand what display rules require although they may not feel that way. The difference between these two definitions of emotional dissonance is a matter of timing: in the first definition, emotional dissonance occurs as one is actively displaying an emotion that is not felt at that time. In the second definition put forth by Rubin et al. (2005), emotional dissonance occurs when one understands the display rules and knows that these emotions will not be felt. What is most important to understand from these definitions is that dissonance occurs when what one feels and what one is supposed to show (or is already showing) are not the same.

The current study subscribes to the first definition of emotional dissonance, namely, that it occurs when an inconsistency exists between what one feels and what one displays. The definition is the most widely accepted one in the research literature.

Abraham (1998) concisely wrote the definition of emotional dissonance as follows: "Emotional dissonance occurs when an employee's expressed emotions are in conformity with organizational norms but do not represent his or her true feelings" (p. 231).

Outcomes of Emotional Dissonance

In the growing body of emotional labor literature, a few studies have exclusively focused on outcomes related to emotional dissonance. Zapf et al. (1999) developed a measure of emotional dissonance as part of the Frankfurt Emotion and Work Scales (FEWS) and showed that dissonance was related to negative outcomes such as burnout, decreased positive affect, irritation, and reduced job satisfaction. These findings are typical in the literature, as emotional dissonance has often been correlated with negative outcomes such as burnout (Abraham, 1998; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Cheung & Tang, 2007; Dorman & Zapf, 2004; Heuven & Bakker, 2003), low levels of job satisfaction (Abraham, 1998, 1999, 2000; Côté & Morgan, 2002), and low levels of organizational commitment (Abraham, 2000). These empirical results suggest that the outcomes of emotional dissonance are overwhelmingly negative for the employee.

One physiological explanation for these negative consequences is that somatic agitation occurs when one must control emotions. This idea is consistent with physiological data obtained in a lab study by Gross (1998). Gross examined whether or not trying to change an emotion before it was felt (antecedent-focused regulation) would have different behavioral and physiological consequences from trying to suppress the emotion after it had already occurred (response-focused regulation). Participants viewed a disgusting film and were asked to either engage in cognitive reappraisal (thereby changing the emotion they would feel in response to the film), or try and suppress their

emotional reaction. In this context, suppression would be expected to produce emotional dissonance because participants were asked to reduce emotion-expressive behavior. In other words, participants would feel a negative emotion, but were not allowed to display this emotion. Compared with a control condition, both reappraisal and suppression conditions were effective in reducing emotion-expressive behavior. However, emotional suppression increased sympathetic activation in the form of increased pulse, increased skin temperature, and increased skin conductance, whereas cognitive reappraisal did not. This increased level of somatic activity suggests, as Gross stated, that participants were experiencing a stress response when they attempted to suppress felt emotions and show the opposite emotion. Therefore, Gross' study offers some evidence as to why emotional dissonance is a negative experience: it creates a physiological stress response.

In summary, emotional dissonance occurs when individuals engage in emotional labor and are expected to show emotions they do not feel while they simultaneously suppress emotions they do feel. Because organizational norms often dictate that people show positive emotions at work, it is expected that negative emotions will be suppressed in the face of injustice, whereas positive emotions are expected to be expressed. Therefore:

Hypothesis 3: Positive emotions will be negatively associated with emotional dissonance.

Hypothesis 4: Negative emotions will be positively associated with emotional dissonance.

Emotional Dissonance and Burnout

In the literature on workplace stress, a person is thought to experience a *stressor* that causes *strain* in the form of a psychological, a physical, or a behavioral response to the stressor (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). In other words, stressors represent a cause and strains represent the resulting effect. To provide a quick example, one can imagine that excessive heat in a work environment could be considered a stressor that leads to physical exhaustion, considered a strain.

The construct of burnout is commonly defined as a strain that has three central symptoms: emotional exhaustion, cynicism (which is also called depersonalization), and a reduced sense of self-efficacy (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Emotional exhaustion is a central component of burnout and involves a feeling of being completely emotionally drained in the work context. In other words, people feel like they no longer possess the emotional energy to do their jobs (Maslach et al., 2001). When individuals seek to distance themselves from emotional aspects of their jobs, such as the engagement in emotional labor, they are experiencing the second component of burnout, which is called cynicism or depersonalization (Maslach et al., 2001). When people experience depersonalization, they have consistent, negative or uncaring attitudes about their work or the objects of their work. The final dimension of burnout is reduced professional efficacy, in which people feel they are no longer competent or effective at their jobs (Maslach et al., 2001). These three burnout dimensions do not necessarily occur in order. One conclusion in the literature is that cynicism and reduced efficacy occur in parallel after emotional exhaustion (Posig & Kickul, 2003; Shirom, 2003), but debate still exists as to the ordering of the three dimensions (Cheung & Tang, 2007). Therefore, the current

research suggests that because emotional exhaustion represents the central component of burnout, it could potentially be experienced apart from cynicism and reduced efficacy.

In past research, empirical evidence has shown that burnout is correlated with emotional dissonance. Specifically, researchers have shown a correlation between emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998; Abraham, 1999; Heuven & Bakker, 2003), depersonalization (Heuven & Bakker, 2003), and burnout in general (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Cheung & Tang, 2007; Dorman & Zapf, 2004; Erikson & Ritter, 2001; Wu & Cheng, 2006; Zapf et al., 1999; Zapf et al., 2001). As additional evidence, some studies show correlations between the surface acting dimension of emotional labor (which would be expected to create emotional dissonance) and burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Giardini & Frese, 2006; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Totterdell & Holman, 2003; Zammuner & Galli, 2005).

Theoretical Connection between Dissonance and Burnout

The current research focuses on emotional reactions to injustice and the suppression of accompanying emotions. The model in Figure 1 shows that emotional dissonance will be positively related to burnout. This is expected to occur based on two theoretical viewpoints: a set of theoretical propositions from Doorman and Zapf (2004), and predictions derived from conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989).

Dormann and Zapf (2004) theorized that emotional dissonance is correlated with burnout because dissonance eventually overwhelms a person's ability to manage emotions. This occurs because of three conditions. First, if faking an emotional expression is required for any length of time, it will overtax a person's ability to show

that emotion. Second, by having to exert more effort to show an emotion one does not feel, one will experience a greater amount of psychological agitation. Third, a person's sense of self-control may be overtaxed by having to consistently fake emotions. These theoretical propositions suggest that in the context of injustice, emotional dissonance could plausibly lead to burnout. Take, for example, a situation where an employee must work for a difficult supervisor; this supervisor treats the employee in a rude and condescending manner. In addition, the difficult supervisor does not explain why decisions about the employee are made. When interacting with the difficult supervisor, an employee would likely have to suppress negative emotions and fake positive ones. According to Dormann and Zapf's (2004) propositions, this person would experience burnout over time due to the sheer effort of having to constantly hide and fake emotions. Note that this viewpoint implies that a person has a set quantity of emotional resources; this idea is also present in the conversation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989).

Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) describes how individuals cope with the demands that a work environment places on them. The theory states that because jobs require that employees expend some combination of physical, cognitive, and emotional resources, employees strive to maintain a surplus of these resources to meet job demands. Job demands often consist of stressors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, stressful events, or heavy workloads (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Other demands include social conflicts at work, unjust or unfair behaviors, and negative interactions (Dormann & Zapf, 2004). One of the fundamental ideas in conservation of resources theory is that when resources fall short of demands, employees experience burnout. To avoid burnout, individuals can seek to resupply their

internal resources by engaging in personally rewarding activities, such as problem-solving and satisfying client needs. These activities increase one's sense of competence and therefore replenish resources. When he first wrote about conservation of resources theory, Hobfoll (1989) suggested that creating socially rewarding relationships at work allowed employees to quickly regain depleted resources.

Many researchers have suggested that emotional dissonance acts as a drain on personal resources, and therefore acts as a precursor to burnout (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Cheung & Tang, 2007; Dormann & Zapf, 2004; Giardini & Frese, 2006). Not all of these studies have used conservation of resources theory as a theoretical framework to explain the relationship between emotional dissonance and burnout, but they all suggest that emotional display requirements function as a job demand. Given its tendency to function as a demand, one could expect emotional dissonance to deplete work resources according to conservation of resources theory. In support of this idea, Cheung and Tang (2007) investigated the interplay between emotional dissonance, work resources (as defined by conservation of resources theory), and burnout. Cheung and Tang's (2007) proposed model suggested that increased emotional dissonance was negatively related to work resources, and that work resources were negatively related to burnout. The results of their study were consistent with this model, suggesting that as emotional dissonance increased, work resources decreased. Cheung and Tang (2007) speculated that emotional dissonance resulting from faking or suppressing emotions was the causal factor that decreased both emotional and physical resources more quickly than could be replenished.

The current model (Figure 1) linking justice with emotions and emotional dissonance proposes a similar process of resource drain. More specifically, the

framework implies that emotional dissonance will increase in response to the negative emotions that must be managed in the face of injustice. Therefore, in accordance with conservation of resources theory, emotional dissonance will act as a drain on employee resources.

Hypothesis 5: Emotional dissonance will be positively related to burnout.

Burnout and Turnover

Once burnout occurs, it can result in a number of negative consequences for the organization, such as voluntary turnover. There are both theoretical reasons and empirical data to support a burnout-turnover relationship. Much of the past theoretical treatment of voluntary turnover suggests that withdrawal behaviors occur because of negative employee attitudes about work or unfavorable job situations (Johns, 2001). This conceptual framework is generally called the withdrawal model. The withdrawal model is rooted in Mobley's (1977) theory of turnover, and models subsequent to Mobley's work all suggest that voluntary turnover can be predicted by a process that involves several discrete steps, such as experiencing job dissatisfaction, evaluating perceived alternatives, developing intentions to search for new jobs, and developing intentions to quit (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). Therefore, in order for employees to voluntary withdraw from the organization, some aversive condition must exist that not only decreases job satisfaction but also adversely affects employee attitudes. The aversive condition highlighted in the current model is an employee's sense of burnout. In addition, burnout has already been shown to display a negative relationship with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mulki, Jamarillo, & Locander, 2006).

Therefore, the withdrawal model offers strong justification for why employee burnout should show a relationship with turnover.

It should be noted that in recent turnover research, a more recent alternative to the mainstream models of turnover can be found in Lee and Mitchell's (1994) unfolding model (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999). This model is based on the idea that employees do not follow a series of steps towards turnover as the withdrawal model implies, but rather they experience what Lee and Mitchell (1994) describe as a *shock* that triggers turnover intentions. The shock may arise from any number of events, such as failing to get a promotion or learning something unsavory about the organization (i.e., image violation). This shock gets a person thinking about quitting. Once individuals experience a shock, they can take a number of different routes through the unfolding model. They may follow a behavioral script (what people say they would do in this situation), they may simply start searching for other jobs and evaluate the alternatives, they may feel a conflict between personal values and the new circumstances, or they may experience an image violation; some or all of these events can occur after the shock. Ultimately, people experience low levels of job satisfaction. In summary, the central concept in the unfolding model is that individuals experience each of the post-shock events in different possible orders depending on the nature of the shock.

The unfolding model represents a promising theory of turnover according to some researchers (Crossley et al., 2007). The model also supports the relationship between burnout and turnover if one believes that a decreased sense of personal efficacy, increased emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization may make one more susceptible to experiencing a shock. That is, individuals who feel emotionally drained and distant from

their work may become more likely to perceive many events as negative, experience a shock, and then withdraw.

Besides the theoretical arguments stated above, empirical research has shown a correlation between burnout and turnover intentions. A recent meta-analysis showed that turnover intentions correlated with emotional exhaustion, $r = .44$, depersonalization, $r = .31$, and personal accomplishment ($r = -.16$; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Wright and Cropanzano (1998) also found that burnout was predictive of turnover intentions, above and beyond negative affectivity. Lastly, in a separate longitudinal study, burnout predicted actual turnover (Riolli & Savicki, 2006).

In summary, the withdrawal model suggests that unfavorable job conditions will lead people to form negative attitudes about their jobs and eventually withdraw. The unfolding model suggests that experiencing burnout in the face of injustice may increase the likelihood of an employee experiencing a shock according to the unfolding model. Therefore, in the current research (see Figure 1):

Hypothesis 6: Burnout will be positively related to turnover intentions.

The theoretical model proposed in this study suggests that emotional dissonance will fully mediate the relationship between emotions and burnout, and that burnout will fully mediate the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intentions. Full mediation is expected for the following reasons. First, because employees are expected to display only a very narrow range of emotions in the workplace, it follows that the majority of emotions will be managed via emotional labor. Therefore, rather than directly contributing to burnout, emotions will be managed instead. The emotional dissonance that results from emotion management is expected to directly contribute to burnout based

on past research findings and therefore will mediate the relationship between felt emotions and burnout. Second, emotional dissonance is not expected to directly contribute to withdrawal because dissonance only weakens a person's ability to cope with job demands. This occurs because dissonance acts as a drain on both cognitive and emotional resources. Decreasing personal resources directly contributes to burnout but is not expected to directly contribute to turnover intentions. In other words, an increased level of dissonance sets the stage for employees to feel burned out, but not to withdraw. Therefore, when putting all hypothesized relationships together into the proposed theoretical framework:

> *Hypothesis 7a:* Emotional dissonance will fully mediate the relationship between emotions and burnout.

> *Hypothesis 7b:* Burnout will fully mediate the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intentions.

Method

Participants

The sample for the current study consisted of students in an introductory

psychology course enrolled in a large public university in the western United States ($N =$

167). In order to be eligible for the study, students were required to have held a part-time

job for at least six months prior to the study. Although 194 students enrolled in the study,

only 167 completed the requirements and received course credit for participation. Of the

167 participants, 28.7% were male and 71.3% were female. The mean age of the sample

was 19.2 years, and the ethnicity breakdown can be described as follows: 92.2% White,

2.4% African American, 3.6% Hispanic, 0.6% Asian, and 1.2% other. Study participants

also indicated that they were employed in the following job categories: 25.7% restaurant,

23.4% retail, 24.0% university, 19.8% professional, and 3.6% other. Note that 3.6% of

the respondents did not indicate job type.

Additional data were collected on participants' jobs, including: number of hours

participants worked per week, how long participants had worked their current job, level

of job dedication, and level of continuance commitment. Participants reported working

19.8 hours per week on average, with average job tenure of 11.70 months. Job tenure

ranged from 1 month to 98 months, and hours worked per week ranged from 3 to 70

hours. The reported value of 70 hours per week did not seem feasible for a university

student enrolled in a psychology course, so the full frequency distribution for *hours*

worked per week was inspected. It was subsequently discovered that a single respondent had indicated the value of 70 and that other nearby values fell into the 40 - 45 range. The respondent who indicated a value of 70 was not removed from the data pool because the nature of the respondent's job was not known. For example, the respondent may have worked as a nanny or live-in caregiver.

Measures[1]

Demographic variables. Participants were asked to report the following demographic information: sex, age, ethnicity, job type worked, number of months worked, and hours per week worked. Because the extant literature does not show any differences in the focal constructs under investigation across demographic groups, this information was used for descriptive purposes only.

Organizational justice. Organizational justice was measured with Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale, which contains four subscales: seven items measuring procedural justice, four items measuring distributive justice, four items measuring interpersonal justice, and five items measuring informational justice. For procedural justice, instructions read: "The following items refer to procedures used to arrive at decisions about you at work. To what extent ..." These instructions were followed by several items such as: "Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures," or "Have those procedures been applied consistently." Response options ranged from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*). For distributive justice, instructions read as follows: "The following items refer to outcomes you get at work, such as raises, bonuses, or other rewards. To what extent ..." The items read: "Does your

---

[1] All measures are reproduced in Appendix A with the exception of the **Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey**, which is the sole intellectual property of CPP, Inc. Only sample items have been reproduced for this measure.

outcome reflect the effort you have put into your work," or "Is your outcome appropriate for the work you have completed." Response options ranged from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*). For interpersonal justice, instructions read: "The following items refer to your supervisor or the person that makes decisions about your raises, bonuses, or work assignments. To what extent ..." The items then read: "Has he/she treated you in a polite manner," or "Has he/she treated you with dignity." Response options ranged from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*). For informational justice, the instructions read: "The following items refer to your supervisor or the person that enacts procedures and policies where you work. To what extent ..." The items then read: "Has he/she been candid in his/her communication with you," or "Has he/she explained the procedures thoroughly." Response options ranged from 1 (*to a small extent*) to 5 (*to a large extent*). Overall justice scores ranged from 20 to 100. For validity evidence, Colquitt (2001) reported that this scale shows a factor structure consistent with theory and predicts a wide range of outcome variables known to be associated with organizational justice. A study of 16 independent samples reported that average reliability coefficients for the Colquitt (2001) measure range from .83 to .92 (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). For the current study, coefficient alpha was .93 for the combined scale.[2]

Discrete emotions. Emotional behavior at work was measured by modifying an emotional labor scale developed by Glomb and Tews (2004): the Discrete Emotions Emotional Labor Scale (DEELS). The DEELS is founded on a list of 14 discrete emotions, which are as follows: irritation, anxiety, contentment, sadness, concern,

---

[2] Because organizational justice was treated as a global construct in the current study, the reliability coefficient for the combined scale is reported. However, alpha coefficients for the separate dimensions may be useful for future meta-analyses and were as follows: -.85 for procedural justice, .94 for distributive justice, .90 for interpersonal justice, and .88 informational justice..

disliking, aggravation, fear, happiness, distress, liking, hate, anger, and enthusiasm. The original three subscales of the DEELS ask respondents to indicate how often they: (1) genuinely express the list of emotions, (2) fake the list of emotions when they don't feel that way, and (3) suppress the list emotions. For the present investigation, a fourth section was created to capture how often emotions are felt at work, regardless of whether the emotion is suppressed or shown. Instructions for this added section stated: "In this section, we would like to know about emotions you feel on the job. That is, we are interested in how often you experience the following emotions, regardless of whether you choose to express them or not. How often do you experience the feeling of _____ while you are at work?" Response option included: (5 = *I feel this emotion many times a day*, 4 = *I feel this emotion a few times a day*, 3 = *I feel this emotion a few times a week*, 2 = *I feel this emotion a few times a month*, 1 = *I never feel this*.). Scores on the overall felt emotions subscale ranged from 14-70. The positive emotions consisted of the following: liking, concern, enthusiasm, happiness, and contentment and scores ranged from 4-20. The negative emotions consisted of anger, aggravation, irritation, distrust, sadness, fear, anxiety, hate, and disliking and scores ranged from 9-45. In the current study, the alpha reliability for positive felt emotions was .86, and the alpha reliability for negative felt emotions was .89.

    Emotional dissonance. To measure emotional dissonance, all items were used from the emotional dissonance subscale of Zapf et al.'s (1999) Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS). The 5-item dissonance subscale of the FEWS measures the extent to which employees experience a conflict between felt and displayed emotions. Sample items include "How often in your job do you have to suppress emotions in order to

appear 'neutral' on the outside," or "How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your actual feelings toward the clients." Response options ranged from the following: 1 (*very rarely / never*) to 5 (*very often / several times an hour*). Scores ranged from 5-25. Initial validity evidence for the emotional dissonance subscale of the FEWS indicates that it correlates in predictable ways with indicators of well-being and psychological strain (Zapf et al., 1999; Zapf & Holz, 2006), and that alpha reliability for scores on this subscale range from .80 to .90. In the current study, coefficient alpha for this scale was .85.

    Burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; MBI-G) was used to measure three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Permission to use the measure and sample items was obtained from CPP, Inc., publisher or the MBI. The MBI contains sixteen items: five items for emotional exhaustion, six items for professional efficacy, and five items for cynicism. Instructions ask respondents to indicate how often they feel a certain way about their work. Sample items[3] include "I feel emotionally drained from my work," "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job," and "I doubt the significance of my work." Response options ranged from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*every day*). Scores ranged from 0-96. A great deal of construct validity evidence exists for this measure as it has been widely used by the research community (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Reliability evidence indicates that sample reliability ranges from .82 to .92 (Cheung & Tang, 2007; Lewig & Dollard, 2003). The alpha reliability coefficient in the current study was .88.

---

[3] From the *Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey* by Wilmar B. Schaufeli, Michael P. Leiter, Christina Maslach, and Susan E. Jackson. Copyright 1996 by CPP, Inc. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher's consent.

Turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were measured with four items. The first item was developed by Spector and Jex (1998) and has shown correlations with both job satisfaction and turnover (Spector et al., 2007). The item reads: "How often have you seriously considered quitting your current job over the last six months?" Response options ranged from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*extremely often*). In addition to this single item, three additional items were added to the current study. These items were developed by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) and read as follows: "I think a lot about leaving the organization," "I am actively searching for an alternative to the organization," and "As soon as possible, I will leave the organization." Response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Scores ranged from 4-20. Internal consistency reliability for these items has been reported by Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) as .90. In the current study, the internal consistency of all turnover items was .94.

Job dedication and continuance commitment. Given that participants consisted of university students, one could question whether students are in a position to care enough about their jobs to experience emotional labor and emotional dissonance. Therefore, job dedication and continuance commitment were assessed as indicators of students' ability to experience emotional dissonance in their current jobs. Participants answered five items from the dedication subscale of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Sample items for dedication include "I am enthusiastic about my job," and "I am proud of the work that I do." Response options ranged from 0 (*never*) to 7 (*every day*). Scores ranged from 5-35, and the coefficient alpha was .87 in the current study. On the scale, participants reported a moderately high level of job dedication ($M = 21.45$, $sd = 7.17$).

Participants also answered eight items from the continuance commitment subscale from Allen and Meyer's (1990) measure of organizational commitment. Items from the continuance commitment subscale include "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to," and "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now." Response options on this scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Scores ranged from 8-40, and the coefficient alpha for this sample was .73. On this scale, participants reported a moderate level of continuance commitment ($M = 23.88$, $sd = 5.83$).

The logic for the use of these two measures is that if participants report moderate to high levels of job dedication and moderate to low levels of continuance commitment, they will most likely experience dissonance because this combination indicates that students care about their jobs beyond the stability of income. That is, they are more likely to experience dissonance because they care enough about their jobs to follow the prescribed norms. Given the current economic climate, where few job choices are available, the moderate (rather than low) level of continuance commitment found in the current study was not surprising. The high level of job dedication found in the study indicates that the students care enough about their job to follow the prescribed norms. Thus, when combined, the levels of both job dedication and continuance commitment in the current study support the conclusion that the student participants can demonstrate dissonance.

Procedure

Two sets of measures were administered via the World Wide Web and spaced exactly one week apart. To complete the study, participants logged on to a secure website

and created a unique password before completing the first set of measures. The first set of measures consisted of: Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale, the modified Discrete Emotions Emotional Labor Scale (DEELS; Glomb & Tews, 2004), the job dedication subscale of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002), the continuance commitment subscale of Allen and Meyer's (1990) organizational commitment scale, and the demographic items. After one week had elapsed, participants were reminded via e-mail to log back into the study website and complete a second session. One week was chosen as a time lag so that participants could easily remember when to return to the second session, and to avoid collecting all data at a single point in time.

In the second session, participants completed the emotional dissonance subscale of the Frankfort Emotion work Scale (Zapf et al., 1999), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986), and the measure of turnover intentions. When all study tasks were complete, participants read a debrief page explaining the purpose of the study. The debrief page also provided additional educational materials on organizational justice, emotions, burnout, and turnover.

Results

Addressing the Problem of Missing Data

Initial inspection of the data revealed that of the 32,565 values obtained in the study across all 167 participants, 78 values were missing. Visual inspection of these missing data suggested that the values were missing at random. For example, many participants skipped answering a single item in a series of items, or the missing values were distributed evenly across the variables. Therefore, a linear trend method of data imputation was chosen to replace the missing values. Although other, more complex methods for data imputation exist (see Allison, 2003), the small number of missing values in the current study did not necessitate such a procedure.[4] As a final check, a correlation was computed between the original and imputed data set and resulted in a value of $r = 1.0$.

Evaluation of the Normality of Variables and Scanning For Outliers

To evaluate the univariate normality of the study variables, a visual inspection of histogram plots was performed by the researcher, and statistics such as the skewness and kurtosis of each variable were evaluated. For all study variables, the skewness was between the values of -1 and 1, and the kurtosis values all fell between the values of -1 and 2. The data were also screened for univariate and multivariate outliers. To assess the presence of univariate outliers, a visual inspection of the data via stem-and-leaf plot and boxplot was performed. In addition, standardized z-scores for all variables were

---

[4] As Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) state, if 5% or less of the total data set is missing at random, most data imputation procedures produce exactly the same results. In the current study, exactly 0.24% of the data were missing.

examined to see that they were between -3.29 and 3.29 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). All study variables met this criteria, so further analysis was unnecessary.

To scan for multivariate outliers, a recommended procedure from Tabachnik and Fidell (2003) was employed. Specifically, participant numbers were regressed on all study variables in order to examine the Mahalanobis distance, a test statistic following the chi-square distribution and having degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables in the study. If a multivariate outlier exists, the value of the Mahalanobis distance for potential outliers will exceed the critical value, which in this study is $\chi^2(10) = 29.59$. Running the multivariate outlier analysis revealed that two cases showed a Mahalanobis distance above the critical value. Therefore, additional inspection of the two individual cases was warranted. Examining the cases led to two conclusions: (1) the number of variables that could be classified as outliers was not large for either case, and (2) the pattern of values for either cases did not warrant deletion. For example, participants could feasibly report a low level of burnout while simultaneously reporting a low level organizational commitment. Therefore, neither case was deleted from analysis.

Correlations between Demographic Variables and Study Variables

Before testing the hypotheses, correlations between demographic variables and all study variables (job dedication, continuance commitment, justice, positive felt emotions, negative felt emotions, emotional dissonance, burnout, and turnover) were examined to detect any differences between existing groups, and to gather additional descriptive information about the sample. Table 1 shows these correlations. Inspection of the table reveals that sex was correlated with positive felt emotions ($r = .25, p < .01$) and burnout ($r = -.20, p < .05$). These correlations indicate that female respondents reported feeling

more positive emotions at work and lower levels of burnout than male respondents. Inspection of the variances across sexes shows that for males, the mean and standard deviation for positive emotions is (M = 13.67, SD = 3.68), and for females (M = 15.57, SD = 3.18). The mean and standard deviation for males on burnout is (M = 55.50, SD = 13.11), and for females (M = 49.04, SD = 15.19). These standard deviations do not suggest range restriction for either sex, making a multi-group analysis unnecessary. Therefore, though interesting, these correlations are not expected to alter the results of the current study.

Further inspection of Table 1 shows a positive correlation between age and continuance commitment (r = .17, p < .05). In contrast, no correlations were found between ethnicity and any other study variables. Job type was correlated with the following variables: job dedication (r = .31, p < .001), organizational justice (r = .24, p < .001), emotional dissonance (r = -.34, p < .01), burnout (r = -.16, p < .05), and turnover intentions (r = -.23, p < .001). Although one would expect some variation in these constructs across job types, the large number of correlations between job type and other variables warranted further exploration to determine if any single job was driving these differences.

Further analysis of the relationship between job type and study variables revealed several conclusions. First, for organizational justice, individuals working in restaurants tended to report the lowest levels of overall organizational justice (M = 70.79) as compared to the group mean of (M = 74.01). In terms of job dedication, individuals working in restaurants reported the lowest level of job dedication (M = 18.00), whereas individuals working in professional job reported the highest levels of job dedication (M =

25.76) compared to the group mean of (M = 21.45). For emotional dissonance, both restaurant (M = 17.30) and retail workers (M = 15.26) showed elevated levels of dissonance compared to the group mean (M = 14.93). Finally, for turnover, restaurant workers reported highest level of turnover intentions (M = 11.05) whereas professional reported the lowest level of turnover intentions (M = 7.24) compared to the group mean of (M = 9.05).

Correlations between Constructs in the Theoretical Model

Table 2 shows the correlations between all non-demographic variables in the study. Several trends are apparent. First, the magnitude and direction of the correlations provides some evidence for the validity of the measures as they relate to each other in ways consistent with previous research. For example, job dedication was positively related to organizational justice (r = .38, p < .01) and positive felt emotions (r = .29, p < .01), whereas job dedication was negatively related to negative felt emotions (r = -.23, p < .05), burnout (r = -.55, p < .01) and turnover (r = -.53, p < .01).

The correlation table also provides some initial support for the study hypotheses. Organizational justice was related to negative felt emotions (r = -.28, p < .01; H2), negative felt emotions was correlated with emotional dissonance (r = .48, p < .01; H4), which was also correlated with burnout (r = .40, p < .01; H5). Another expected relationship existed between burnout and turnover intentions (r = .68, p < .01; H6). The only relationships not supported by the correlations were between justice and positive emotions (r = .16, p > .05; H1), and positive emotions and emotional dissonance (r = .13, p > .05; H3).

Evaluation of the Study Hypotheses

To evaluate each of the study hypotheses, a structural equation model was created using LISREL 8.7. The analysis was accomplished via a two-step process, as is standard practice (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, a measurement model, or confirmatory factor analysis, was conducted on the measures to allow for inspection of the factor loadings. This allowed for determination of how well each set of indicators measured each of the latent constructs. Items were combined into item parcels for measures with large numbers of indicators, such as the organizational justice scale, the Maslach Burnout Inventory, and the Discrete Emotions Emotional Labor Scale. Second, a structural model (shown in Figure 2) was assessed, whereby hypothesized relationships were added as paths to the measurement model.

Overall fit of both the measurement and structural models was determined by inspection of the following fit indices: chi-square, normed fit index (NFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), non-normed fit index (NNFI; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980). The NFI, NNFI, CFI were evaluated against the cutoff of .90 (above .90 is better), and the RMSEA was evaluated against the cutoff of .06 (below .06 is better), following the common rules of thumb in the research literature (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Measurement model. The fit statistics for the measurement model are presented in Table 3. Fit for the measurement model was good (χ^2 = 672.21, df = 362, CFI = .95, NFI = 0.90, NNFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.07) as the CFI, NFI, NNFI were at or above the .90 cutoff, although the RMSEA was greater than .06. In addition, all indicators loaded significantly on their respective latent factors. As an additional component of the

confirmatory factor analysis, correlations between all latent factors were assessed (shown in Table 4). Note that all correlations between the latent factors were significant at the $p <$ .05 level or greater, except for two sets: one between positive emotions and negative emotions (r = .09), and another between positive emotions and emotional dissonance (r = .10). Table 4 also shows that the correlations among many of the latent variables are large in magnitude, such as the correlation between negative emotions and emotional dissonance (r = .56, $p <$ .01), emotional dissonance and burnout (r = .56, $p <$ .01), negative emotions and burnout (r = .62, p < .01), and the correlation between burnout and turnover (r = .81, p < .01).

Structural model. Analysis then proceeded to the structural model, where the hypothesized paths were added to the measurement model according to Figure 1. In addition, the structural paths (see Figure 2) were evaluated for statistical significance (in accordance with Hypotheses 1 – 6). As shown in Table 3, the primary structural model showed good fit (χ^2 = 743.13, df = 371, CFI = 0.94; NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.07). In addition to model fit, all except two paths between latent constructs were significant (see Figure 3). Model fit was also evaluated when non-significant paths were removed from the structural model, as shown in Figure 4. This additional model also showed good fit to the data (χ^2 = 456.34, df = 248, CFI = 0.96; NFI = 0.92, NNFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.07).

Confirming full mediation. Consistent with standard practices of structural equation modeling, alternative nested models were tested and compared to the primary research model to confirm hypothesized paths. A nested model is a special case of the first model and contains fewer constraints. Nested models were compared with a chi-

square difference test, where a significant decrease in chi-square indicates a better-fitting model. One alternative model (see Figure 4) contained direct paths from both positive and negative emotions to the three outcomes of emotional dissonance, burnout, and turnover, removing all mediation. Two additional alternative nested models (see Figure 6) were tested to determine the following: (1) if burnout fully mediated the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover (Path 1; Figure 6), and (2) if emotional dissonance fully mediated the relationship between negative emotions and burnout (Path 2; Figure 6), and (3) if negative emotions were directly related to turnover (Path 3; Figure 6). Therefore, two separate structural equation models were examined: one containing Path 1, and another containing Paths 2 and 3.

Tests of the first alternative model showed similar fit to the primary model (χ^2 = 755.65, df = 369, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.08). The chi-square difference test indicated that the nested model did not provide significant improvement in fit over the primary model. In fact, the chi-square value did not decrease but rather increased ($\Delta\chi^2$ = -12.52, Δdf = 2). Therefore, the primary research model was chosen as a more parsimonious fit to the data. The significant paths in the alternative model support the relationships found in the primary model. Additionally, however, the alternative model also shows a significant path between positive emotions and burnout (β = -0.39, p < .05), and between positive emotions and turnover (β = -0.28, p > .05); direct paths not tested in the primary, fully mediated model.

The second alternative model (Figure 6) containing Path 1 showed good fit (χ^2 = 707.43, df = 370, CFI = 0.94; NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.07), although the path coefficient between emotional dissonance and turnover was not significant (β = -

0.11, $p > .05$). These results suggest that burnout fully mediates the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover.

The third model contained Paths 2 and 3 (Figure 6) and showed good fit ($\chi^2 =$ 695.83, $df =$ 369, CFI = 0.94; NFI = 0.89, NNFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.07). The path between negative emotions and burnout (Path 2) was significant ($\beta = 0.47, p < .05$), and the path between negative emotions and turnover (Path 3) was not significant ($\beta = -0.08$, $p > .05$). A chi-square difference test indicates the model containing Path 2 and Path 3 shows significant improvement in model fit over the primary model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 47.3, df = 2,$ p $< .05$).

Hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 stated that organizational justice perceptions would be associated with positive emotions. Inspection of standardized path coefficients in the structural equation models reveals that this path was not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported. Hypothesis 2 stated that organizational justice would be inversely related to negative emotions. Path coefficients between organizational justice perceptions and negative emotions in each model were significant, and therefore hypothesis 2 was supported. Hypothesis 3 stated that positive emotions would be negatively associated with emotional dissonance. This was not supported in any of the models. Hypothesis 4 predicted that a positive association would exist between negative emotions and emotional dissonance, and this was supported. Hypothesis 5 stated that emotional dissonance would be positively related to burnout, and was supported by the data. Hypothesis 6 stated that burnout would be positively related to turnover intentions. The path coefficient between burnout and turnover was significant, indicating that hypothesis 6 was supported. Finally, hypotheses 7a and b proposed full mediation for

emotional dissonance and burnout. Results support hypothesis 7b but not 7a, as emotional

dissonance was only a partial mediator between negative emotions and burnout.

Discussion

The results of the current study showed how justice, emotions, and burnout work together to produce turnover in the workplace. No previous study to date appears to have examined the underlying mechanisms by which justice, emotions, and strains operate, nor how their interactions subsequently lead to employee withdrawal in the form of turnover intentions. Specifically, this study showed that when workers feel they have been treated unfairly, they experience negative emotions such as anger, irritation, fear, or anxiety. Once they occur, these emotions are suppressed because they are inappropriate in most work environments. This suppression creates an uncomfortable sense of emotional dissonance, which drains internal resources that are normally used to cope with typical job demands. Over time, this draining of resources leads to job burnout. To resolve the burnout, people withdraw by leaving the organization.

The findings of this study, therefore, make a significant contribution to the literatures of organizational justice, emotion management, employee well-being, and employee withdrawal. This study extends existing research where researchers have only focused on single emotions as outcomes of low justice, by proposing and supporting a new theoretical model that explains how organizational justice and employee strain are related (e.g., Kausto et al., 2005) through an intermediary process of emotions and emotional dissonance. Importantly, the study findings show that when individuals experience negative emotions at work (in this study due to perceived low levels of justice) and are required to fake positive emotions, this faking ultimately can result in

their desire to leave the organization. Hence, solutions to either mitigate the toll that faking takes (such as promoting resilience through positive emotions; see Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007) or allowing for a release of negative emotions during the work day (e.g., mid-day volleyball games, squash, or conversation) may be developed to prevent the loss of valuable employees in jobs that require constant faking (e.g., customer service).

Elaboration on the Findings

As the current research shows, when employees perceive low levels of organizational justice, they respond with irritation, anxiety, sadness, disliking, aggravation, distress, hate, or anger. These negative emotions serve two important functions that help individuals cope with significant events that occur throughout the lifespan. Specifically, negative emotions help individuals take corrective action to protect their interests (Heuven & Bakker, 2003), and also help individuals put what Lazarus and Cohen-Charash (2001) call a favorable spin on what has happened. Failure to take corrective actions could result in a loss of tangible resources, such as money or a job, or a loss of internal resources, such as a sense of well-being. Thus, a low perception of organizational justice triggers negative emotions because the situation is specific and threatening to an individual. Negative emotions tell people to deal with the threat (to protect their interests) and that they have been wronged (to protect their self-esteem).

In contrast, high perceptions of justice do not show a relationship with positive emotions. This may be explained by Fredrickson's (1998) broaden-and-build theory, which states that positive emotions arise from a wider range of diffuse events rather than a specific action or threat, as is the case with negative emotions. If positive emotions

arise from a number of disconnected events, then one would not necessarily expect to find a relationship with high justice and positive emotions.

Once negative emotions are felt, they are suppressed so that employees do not violate social norms in the workplace. Emotional dissonance occurs because people cover up a negative emotion they are feeling, and display an alternate, most likely positive, emotion in its place. When people engage in this suppress-and-fake behavior, they experience emotional dissonance because what they feel and what they display are not consistent with one another (Glomb & Tews, 2004; Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002; Zapf et al., 1999). In this manner, emotional dissonance is somewhat similar to cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) in that people experience discomfort when their thoughts (or emotions, in this case) and behaviors are in contradiction. Unlike cognitive dissonance, however, some individuals can potentially hide emotions and fake others without feeling dissonance. Recently, Giardini and Frese (2006) have suggested that a construct called emotional competence, which is similar to emotional intelligence, may buffer the negative effects of suppression and faking.

For those people who do feel emotional dissonance, however, burnout results. This finding is consistent with other studies that have observed a relationship between faking emotions and burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Heuven & Bakker, 2003; Montgomery et al., 2006; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Totterdell & Holman, 2003; Zapf et al., 1999). Perhaps one of the most widely-supported explanations of why burnout correlates with emotional dissonance is conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989). COR theory suggests that a person brings a finite amount of resources to work in order to cope with job demands, and that these

resources are slowly depleted during the course of the day. If emotional dissonance acts as a drain on personal resources, then emotional dissonance could be expected to correlate with burnout. This explanation has recently been supported by research from both Cheung and Tang (2007) and Bakker and Heuven (2006), as both studies have shown evidence that emotional dissonance decreases personal work resources. The current study similarly adds to this growing body of literature on the dissonance-burnout connection.

Tests of alternative plausible models were conducted to confirm whether emotional dissonance fully mediated the relationship between negative felt emotions and burnout. Three separate models were tested. The first model, shown in Figure 4, suggested that both positive and negative emotions were directly related to three outcomes: emotional dissonance, burnout, and turnover. In this model, emotional dissonance played no significant role as mediator, which is consistent with Côté's (2005) idea that a number of different emotion management models, besides the emotional dissonance model, can explain the relationship between emotional regulation and strain. Alternative explanations include the facial feedback model, the personal control model, and the social interaction model (Côté, 2005). The facial feedback model states that displaying an emotion on one's face facilitates the actual feeling of the emotion within the self (Tomkins, 1962). Facial feedback could be associated with strain when one is required to show negative emotions. The personal control model (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989) states that having to regulate emotions is stressful if one is not doing it for personal reasons (for example, in a work context). The social interaction model states that a person sending an emotion to a receiver will experience strain if the receiver's response is

negative (Côté, 2005). The key point is that these three alternative explanations all state that emotion management can lead to strain without emotional dissonance acting as a mediator.

In support of these alternative theories, the alternative model (Figure 5) showed direct and significant paths from negative emotions to both burnout and turnover. One significant difference between this model and the hypothesized theoretical model is that this alternative model also showed that positive emotions were related to both burnout and turnover, most likely because they help build up internal resources as broad-and-build theory would suggest (Fredrickson, 1998). However, the alternative model did not offer improvement in fit over the primary model.

In addition, two alternative models were assessed to confirm whether emotional dissonance fully or partially mediated the relationship between negative emotions and burnout, and if burnout fully or partially mediated the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover. Results showed that emotional dissonance served as a partial, rather than full, mediator between negative emotions and burnout, and that burnout fully mediated the relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover.

The direct relationship between negative emotions and burnout makes theoretical sense for a number of reasons. First, because one of the core components of burnout is emotional exhaustion, the consistent experience of strong negative emotions could be expected to lead directly to exhaustion. Second, the consistent experience of negative emotions could also plausibly act as a stressor that would deplete resources according to conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Third, a meta-analysis from Lee and Ashforth (1996) reported a strong relationship between stressful events and all three

components of burnout. If one considers the experience of negative emotions a stressful event, then one would expect to find a direct connection between the experience of emotion and burnout.

Once workers find themselves in a consistent state of burnout, they will seek release; one possible choice is to withdraw from the job. This finding is consistent with meta-analyses on burnout and turnover (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) as well as findings from Riolli and Savicki (2006).

Null Results and Unexpected Findings

Although justice was strongly related to negative emotions, the study did not show that increasing levels of justice were associated with positive emotions. This may be due to the non-threatening and more diffuse nature of positive events (Fredrickson, Cohn, Coffey, Pek, & Finkel, 2008). Another explanation can be found in Lazarus and Launier's (1978) description of the transactional model of stress, an appraisal process wherein an event is evaluated in the following two ways: (1) does the event constitute a threat, and if so, (2) can the threat be met with the proper coping response. A similar model in the realm of emotions, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), states that individuals make a similar appraisal before experiencing an emotion. In the case of affective events theory, however, the appraisal process is as follows: (1) does this event impact my life, and (2) if so, does it impact my life in some important way? Perhaps threatening, or negative events are consistently assigned a high level of importance or impact, whereas positive events are given less weight. This would explain why an increase in justice is only assigned a weak level of importance and therefore does not generate as many positive emotions, making the relationship too weak to detect.

Positive emotions were also unrelated to emotional dissonance in the current

study. This finding has theoretical implications for emotional dissonance and its

relationship with the emotional labor construct. In particular, results of the current study

suggest that emotional dissonance may only occur when one must suppress negative

emotions. No conclusion on the relationship between emotional dissonance and positive

emotions is obtainable from the research literature at this time, as most empirical studies

have focused on emotional dissonance in the context of suppressing negative emotions

(e.g., Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Cheung & Tang, 2007; Dormann & Zapf, 2004; Giardini

& Frese, 2006). Research has focused on suppression of negative emotions because the

vast majority of jobs in the United States put an emphasis on positive customer service,

and therefore on showing positive emotions. In this type of working environment, one

would be more likely to suppress negative emotions than positive emotions. Therefore,

future theoretical and empirical work should attempt to further evaluate the relationship

between dissonance and positive emotions.

In the current study, the lack of findings between positive emotions and emotional

dissonance may be due to the reason stated above: positive emotions are not necessarily

managed in the workplace; meaning no emotional labor and therefore no emotional

dissonance. Interestingly, participants in the current study reported a high number of

positive emotions, such as contentment, happiness, and enthusiasm. It makes logical

sense that these emotions would reflect well on employees who work the jobs measured

(e.g., restaurant, retail, professional). Therefore, these positive emotions were not

managed. In addition, positive emotions such as enthusiasm are encouraged in the

workplace as they constitute a dimension of organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ,

1988). Thus, one would not expect employees to suppress these emotions and therefore not report dissonance.

Limitations and Strengths

In all psychological research studies, accuracy of measurement is of prime importance. A notable strength of the current investigation is that all of the instruments performed well in terms of psychometric properties. All reliability coefficients for the main study variables were far above the acceptable ranges of .70 to .80 (Kaplan, 2001), and examination of the factor loadings during confirmatory factor analysis did not reveal any anomalies. In addition, the data gathered from participants did not show a high degree of non-normality, such as skewness or kurtosis (hence, did not violate required assumptions for analyses), nor did the data show range restriction.

Another strength of the current study is that emotional dissonance was directly measured rather than assumed to be present, as is often the case with much emotional labor research (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Montomgery, Panagopolu, de Wildt, & Meenks, 2006). By directly measuring dissonance, the current study contributes to the literature by offering direct evidence of the importance of emotional dissonance in predicting strain.

The use of structural equation modeling also allowed for more precise evaluation of the relationships among latent constructs because they could be assessed in a manner that allowed for correction of biases due to both random error and construct-irrelevant variance (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). In addition, the use of structural equation modeling meant that a number of complex models could be tested and empirically compared using a chi-square difference test.

Nevertheless, imperfections exist in all empirical research and the current study is no exception. One major methodological limitation of the study is that it did not employ random assignment or use of a control group. Therefore, although suggestive, the research model and hypotheses cannot make any claim to causality. As emotions are difficult to generate and manipulate in a laboratory setting (Brief & Weiss, 2002), this limitation represents a challenge for future research. On the positive side, however, steps were taken to try to limit the effect of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003). To achieve this goal, measurement of dissonance, burnout, and turnover were separated in time from justice and emotions to decrease potential effects of common method variance. Still, it must be noted that the data were taken from the same source and therefore correlations between each set of measures taken at the same point in time will still be susceptible to inflation or deflation. This last limitation was necessary because the current study focused on an internal psychological process. In addition, the nature of the data does not allow it to be gathered from multiple sources (i.e., the experience of emotion, perceptions of organizational justice). It is unknown whether the observed correlations were inflated or decreased due to common method variance, as either can occur.

Another limitation of the current study is that emotions were measured at a single point in time. This limitation was necessary because of the nature of the study hypotheses (e.g., overall justice perceptions were matched with overall felt emotions on the job). In future studies, however, one could improve measurement precision by capturing the temporal nature of emotions (see Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) in a longitudinal study. For example, one could measure discrete emotions at various points in time during the day

and thus explore the temporal flow of emotion. One could also measure justice events (or sub-events) at the same point in time and then match emotions to these events.

External Validity or Generalizability

One possible threat to generalizability of the current study is the use of undergraduate psychology students as participants. The use of undergraduate psychology students represents a limitation of the study, though using students is not believed to be fatal to generalizability for several reasons. First, continuance commitment and job dedication were assessed in the study to evaluate whether working psychology students could be considered the equivalent of a working population in terms of experiencing emotional dissonance. Results from these measures suggested that the majority of students were dedicated to their jobs, as the mean scores for job dedication were high. Scores for continuance commitment were moderate, which could be expected for a working university student. In addition, the number of hours per week worked revealed that students were working at least part-time. These combined results do not necessarily allow for the conclusion that the current sample is equivalent to a full-time and working population. However, these findings do allow for the inference that psychology students experience emotional dissonance, and that this process is similar to what one might find in a working adult population.

A second argument in favor of the external validity of the data concerns the nature of the sample and the jobs in which participants worked. Because participants worked in a broad array of jobs, one could make the argument that the current study has greater generalizability than a study gathering data within a single organization.

A final point that should be noted is that the current study examined a psychological process and did not attempt to estimate any type of population parameter (such as the mean level of emotional dissonance within the working population). This point deserves emphasis because the use of a convenience sample becomes more problematic when one is attempting to generate estimates of true population parameters. Rather than trying to estimate population parameters, the current study examined a psychological process.

Implications for Research and Future Directions

Overall, the relationships depicted in the theoretical model provide further support that organizational injustice can act as an affective event and set off a chain of emotionally-charged sub-events as specified by affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The emotions resulting from these events are managed, dissonance is created, and negative outcomes, such as burnout and turnover, result. Within the context of the findings of this study, many questions remained to be answered in future studies.

One set of future studies could focus on more detailed measurement of both organizational justice and the emotions produced from justice. For example, a longitudinal study could attempt to capture a primary justice event and measure negative emotions tied to that event as they play out over time. Using the current model as a guide, these studies could also attempt to capture how these negative emotions are managed and how strongly each justice event affects burnout. In this way, researchers could elaborate on which types of affective events produced the strongest emotions and which required the most emotional labor.

Other studies could attempt to test the boundary conditions of when justice will produce emotions according to different theories of justice, such as fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), fairness heuristic theory (Van den Bos, Lind, & Wilke, 2001), or deontic justice (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003). In addition, one could include personality moderators of the justice-emotion relationship, such as propensity to trust others, risk aversion, and trait morality, as these have recently been highlighted as potential moderators of how individuals react to injustice (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2000).

Another useful direction for future research concerns personality-based moderators of the emotional labor process. For example, Abraham (1999) has suggested that individuals high in negative affectivity may experience emotional dissonance more frequently than those low in negative affectivity because of their tendency to put a negative spin on all events. By perceiving many events as negative, individuals high in negative affectivity could be expected to generate a great number of negative emotions. Therefore, they would frequently engage in emotional management. Conversely, individuals low in negative affectivity may experience less frequent dissonance. Another potential moderator of the justice-emotion-emotional dissonance process is emotional intelligence, which has been defined as one's ability to (1) understand one's own emotions, (2) understand emotions in others, (3) regulating one's own emotions, and (4) using emotions to facilitate performance (Law, Wong, Song, 2004). Researchers such as Giardini and Frese (2006) have proposed that emotional intelligence may be able to buffer the negative effects of emotional labor and therefore decrease the frequency of experienced emotional dissonance.

Researchers could also study situational moderators that would affect the processes descried in the primary model. For example, job type may influence (1) the strength with which organizational justice produces negative emotions, (2) the amount of emotional labor required to suppress negative emotions, or (3) the strength of the relationship between emotional dissonance and burnout. Some jobs involve a great deal of potentially conflictive interaction with others, potentially leading to perceptions of interactional injustice. Therefore, job type may influence the degree to which people perceive injustice. In addition, many service jobs inherently involve a high degree of emotional labor with customers, whereas other jobs involve a high degree of emotional labor with coworkers or subordinates. Thus, one could incorporate the sources of injustice (e.g., customers vs. coworkers) as a potential moderator of the justice-emotion relationship. Finally, one could study environmental characteristics of the job that buffer the negative effects of emotional dissonance, such as supervisor support (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Roahdes, 2002), leader-member exchange (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), or extent to which employees have an opportunity to replenish personal resources lost through emotional dissonance, as described by Dormann and Zapf (2004) or Fredrickson et al. (2008).

Implications for Practice and Conclusion

As Weiss (2002) suggested, "... work is a natural place to study emotional expression" (p. 1). Given that emotions abound in employment settings, researchers should strive to understand how the production and management of emotions contribute to outcomes that have to do with both human welfare and organizational performance. Along these lines, the current study provided evidence that organizational justice is

related to health outcomes in the form of burnout, and organizational outcomes in the form of turnover intentions. This occurs because organizational injustice creates strong negative emotions that must be suppressed, and this suppression gives rise to burnout.

One implication of the study is clear: training supervisors in organizational justice principles could potentially provide a large return on investment in terms of decreasing both employee burnout and turnover. Indeed, researchers have already shown that leadership training in organizational justice principles has significant effects on justice perceptions (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). As the current model demonstrates, increasing justice perceptions predict a decrease in negative emotions and emotional dissonance.

Another implication of the current study is that employees who engage in emotional labor should be given the opportunity to recharge personal resources at work to avoid burnout. This recharging could be accomplished by providing employees opportunities to get social support from a supervisor or from their coworkers (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). In addition, organizations could provide opportunities for employees to learn both relaxation techniques and cognitive-behavioral techniques to reduce strain (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003).

In conclusion, the theoretical model and supporting results make a significant contribution to a growing literature on emotional labor, burnout, and turnover. In closing, one would be justified in making the statement that studying emotional experience at work is territory that is both "complex and difficult to chart," as Weiss (2002, p. 2) noted, but that each empirical study represents a progressive step towards better understanding of these phenomena.

References

Abraham, R. (1998). Emotional dissonance in organizations: Antecedents, consequences, and moderators. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 124,* 229-246.

Abraham, R. (1999). Negative affectivity: Moderator or confound in emotional dissonance-outcome relationships. *The Journal of Psychology, 133,* 61-72.

Abraham (2000). The role of job control as moderator of emotional dissonance and emotional intelligence-outcome relationships. *The Journal of Psychology, 134,* 169-184.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267–299). New York: Academic Press.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 1-18.

Allison, P.D. (2003). Missing data techniques for structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 112,* 545-557.

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

Argyle, M., & Henderson, M. (1985). The rules of relationships. In S. Duck & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Understanding personal relationships* (pp. 63–84). London: Sage.

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

Bakker, A. B., & Heuven, E. (2006). Emotional dissonance, burnout, and in-role performance among nurses and police officers. *International Journal of Stress Management, 13,* 423-440.

Barclay, L. J., Skarlicki, D. P., & Pugh, S. D. (2005). Exploring the role of emotions in injustice perceptions and retaliation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 629-643.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 88,* 588-606.

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin, 107,* 238-246.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (2002). Hot flashes, open wounds: Injustice and the tyranny of its emotions. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on managing organizational justice* (pp. 203-224). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. F. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiations in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bono, J. E., & Vey, M. A. (2005). Toward understanding emotional management at work: A quantitative review of emotional labor research. In C. E. Härtel, W. J. Zerbe, & N. M. Ashkanasy (Eds.), *Emotions in organizational behavior* (pp. 213-233). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53,* 279-307.

Brockner, J., Davy, J., & Carter, C. (1985). Layoffs, self-esteem, and survivor guilt: Motivational, affective, and attitudinal consequences. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 36,* 229-244.

Brotheridge, C. M. (2003). The role of fairness in mediating the effects of voice and justification on stress and other outcomes in a climate of organizational change. *International Journal of Stress Management, 10,* 253-268.

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

Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2003). Development and validation of the emotional labour scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76,* 365-379.

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

Carmeli, A., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Exploring turnover intentions among three professional groups of employees. *Human Resource Development International, 9,* 191-206.

Cheung, F. Y., & Tang, C. S. (2007). The influence of emotional dissonance and resources at work on job burnout among Chinese human service employees. *International Journal of Stress Management, 14,* 72-87.

Clayton, S. D. (1992). The experience of injustice: Some characteristics and correlates. *Social Justice Research, 5,* 71-92.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Byrne, Z. S. (2008). Affect and justice: Current knowledge and future directions. In Ashkanasy, N. M., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.), *Research companion to emotion in organizations* (pp. 360-391). Edward Elgar Publishers.

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P.E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86,* 278-321.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 386-400.

Colquitt, J. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2005). How should organizational justice be measured? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 113-154). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Judge, T. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2006). Justice and personality: Using integrative theories to derive moderators of justice effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 100,* 110-127.

Cooper, C. L., Dewe, P. J., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2001). *Organizational stress: A review and critique of theory, research, and applications.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Côté, S. (2005). A social interaction model of the effects of emotional regulation on work strain. *Academy of Management Review, 30,* 509-530.

Côté, S. & Morgan, L. M. (2002). A longitudinal analysis of the association between emotional regulation, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23,* 947-962.

Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2003). Deontic justice: the role of moral principles in workplace fairness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24,* 1019-1024.

Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 1031-1042.

Deutsch, M. (1985). *Distributive justice: A social-psychological perspective*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Dorman, C. & Zapf, D. (2004). Customer-related social stressors and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9,* 61-82.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 565-573.

Elovainio, M., Kivimäki, M., & Helkama, K. (2001). Organizational justice evaluations, job control, and occupational strain. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 418-424.

Elovainio, M., Kivimäki, M., & Vahtera, J. (2002). Organizational justice: Evidence of a new psychosocial predictor of health. *American Journal of Public Health, 92,* 105-108.

Erikson, R.J., & Ritter, C. (2001). Emotional labor, burnout, and inauthenticity: Does gender matter? *Social Psychology Quarterly, 64,* 146-163.

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Folger, R. (1977). Distributive and procedural justice: Combined impact of "voice" and improvement on experienced inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25,* 108-119.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds*.), Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 89-118). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Folger, R., Cropanzano, R., & Goldman, B. (2005). What is the relationship between justice and morality? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 215-245). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology, 2,* 300-319.

Fredrickson, B. L., Cohn, M. A., Coffey, K. A., Pek, J., & Finkel, S. M. (2008). Open hearts build lives: Positive emotions, induced through loving-kindness meditation, build consequential personal resources. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95,* 1045-1062.

Ganster, D. C., & Fusilier, M. R. 1989. Control in the workplace. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 235–280). New York: Wiley.

Giardini, A., & Frese, M. (2006). Reducing the negative effects of emotion work in service occupations: Emotional competence as a psychological resource. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*, 63-75.

Gibson, D., E. (1995). Emotional scripts and organization change. In F. Massarik (Ed.), *Advances in organization development* (Vol. 3, pp. 32-62). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Glomb, T. M., & Tews, M. J. (2004). Emotional labor: A conceptualization and scale development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64,* 1-23.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly, 6,* 219-247.

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

Greenberg, J. (2006). Losing sleep over organizational injustice: Attenuating insomniac reactions to underpayment inequity with supervisory training in interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91,* 58-69.

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

Hegtvedt, K. A. (1990). The effects of relationship structure on emotional responses to inequity. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 53,* 214-228.

Heuven, E. & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Emotional dissonance and burnout among cabin attendants. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 12,* 81-100.

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

Hobfoll, S. E., & Freedy, J. (1993). Conversation of resources: A general stress theory applied to burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 115-129). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

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

Holman, D., Chissick, C., & Totterdell, P. (2002). The effect of performance monitoring on emotional labor and well-being in call centers. *Motivation and Emotion, 26,* 57-81.

Hu, L., & Benter, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus net alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6,* 1-55.

Johns, G. (2001). The psychology of lateness, absenteeism, and turnover. In N. Anderson, D. Ones, H.K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology* (pp. 232-252). London: Sage Publications.

Kaplan, R. M. (2001). Reliability. In *Psychological testing: principles, applications and issues* (pp. 98-129). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Kausto, J., Elo, A., Lipponen, J., & Elovainio, M. (2005). Moderating effects of job insecurity in the relationships between procedural justice and employee well-being: Gender differences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 14,* 431-452.

Kivimäki, M., Elovainio, M., Vahtera, J., & Ferrie, J. E. (2003). *Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 60,* 27-34.

Kunda, G., & Van Maanen, J. (1999). Changing scripts at work: Managers and professionals. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 561,* 64–80.

Law, K. S., Wong, C., & Song, L. J. (2004). The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89,* 483-496.

Lazarus, R. S. & Cohen-Charash, Y. (2001). Discrete emotions in organizational life. In R. L. Payne & G. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Emotions at work: Theory, research and applications for management* (pp. 45-81). Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Lazarus, R. S., & Launier, R. (1978). Stress-related transactions between person and environment. In L. A. Pervin & M. Lewis (Eds.), *Perspectives in interactional psychology,* (pp. 287 – 327). New York: Plenum.

Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review, 19*, 51-89.

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 123-133.

Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., McDaniel, L., & Hill, J. W. (1999). The unfolding model of voluntary turnover: A replication and extension. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*, 450-482.

Lewig, K. A., & Dollard, M. F. (2003). Emotional dissonance, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction in call centre workers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 12*, 366-392.

Leventhal, G. S. (1976). The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations. In L. Berkowitz & W. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental and social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 91-131). New York: The Academic Press.

Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? New approaches to the study of fairness in social relationships. In K. Gergen, M. Greenberg, & R. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York: Plenum Press.

Leventhal, G. S., Karuza, J., & Fry, W. R. (1980). Beyond fairness: A theory of allocation preferences. In G. Mikula (Ed.), *Justice and social interaction* (pp. 167-218). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum.

Mann, S. (1999). Emotion at work: To what extent are we expressing, suppressing, and faking it? *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8*, 347-369.

Mann, S., & Cowburn, J. (2005). Emotional labour and stress within mental health nursing. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing, 12*, 154-162.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1986). *Maslach Burnout Inventory manual* (2nd Ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychological Press.

Maslach, C. Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 397-422.

Mazurkiewicz, M. D. (2007). *Twenty years of emotional labor: Models, measurement, and new directions*. Unpublished manuscript, Colorado State University.

Mikula, G. (1986). The experience of injustice: Toward a better understanding of its phenomenology. In H. W. Bierhoff, R. L. Cohen, & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Justice in social relations* (pp. 103-123). New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Mikula, G. (1987). Exploring the experience of injustice. In B. K. E. Gun, & R. Semin (Eds.), *Issues in contemporary German social psychology: History, theories and application.* (pp. 74-96). London, England: Sage Publications.

Mikula, G., Scherer, K. R., & Athenstaedt, U. (1998). The role of injustice in the elicitation of differential emotional reactions. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 24,* 769-783.

Mobley, W. H., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63,* 408-414.

Montgomery, A. J., Panagopolou, E., de Wildt, M., & Meenks. E. (2006). Work-family interference, emotional labor, and burnout. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21,* 33-51.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76,* 845-855.

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

Morris, J. A., & Feldman, D. C. (1997). Managing emotions in the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 9,* 257-274.

Mulki, J. P., Jaramillo, F., & Locander, W. B. (2006). Emotional exhaustion and organizational deviance: Can the right job and a leader's style make a difference? *Journal of Business Research, 59,* 1222-1230.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

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

Posig, M., & Kickul, J. (2003). Extending our understanding of burnout: Test of an integrated model in non-service occupations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8,* 3-19.

Riolli, L., & Savicki, V. (2006). Impact of fairness, leadership, and coping on strain, burnout, and turnover in organizational change. *International Journal of Stress Management, 13,* 351-377.

Rubin, R. S., Tardino, V. M. S., Daus, C. S., & Munz, D. C. (2005). A reconceptualization of the emotional labor construct: On the development of an integrated theory of perceived emotional dissonance and emotional labor. In C. E. J. Härtel, W. J. Zerbe, & N. M. Ashkanasy (Eds.), *Emotions in organizational behavior* (pp. 189 - 211). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

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

Rupp, D. E., McCance, S. A., Spencer, S., & Sonntag, K. (in press). Customer (in)justice and emotional labor: The role of perspective taking, anger, and emotional regulation. *Journal of Management.*

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 3,* 71-92.

Shaver, N., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'Connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: Further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45,* 513–523.

Shirom, A. (2003). Job-related burnout: A review. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 245-264). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Siegrist, J. (2002). Effort–reward imbalance at work and health. In P. L. Perréwe & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Historical and current perspectives on stress and health* (Vol. 2, pp. 261–291). San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Skarlicki, D. P., & Latham, G. P. (1997). Leadership training in organizational justice to increase citizenship behavior within a labor union: A replication. *Personnel Psychology, 50,* 617-633.

Sonnentag, S., & Frese, M. (2003). Stress in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology* (Vol. 12 pp. 453-491). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale, Organizational Constraints Scale, Quantitative Workload Inventory, and Physical Symptoms Inventory. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 3,* 356-367.

Spector, P. E., Allen, T. D., Poelmans, S. A. Y., Lapierre, L. M., Cooper, C. L., O'Driscoll, M., Sanchez, J. I., Abarca, N., Alexandrova, M., Beham, B., Brough, P., Ferreiro, P., Fraile, g., Lu, C., Lu, L., Moreno-Velazquez, I., Pagon, M., Pitariu, H., Salamatov, V., Shima, S., Simoni, A. S., Siu, Q. L., & Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2007). Cross-national differences in relationships of work demands, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions with work-family conflict. *Personnel Psychology, 60,* 805-835.

Stecher, M. D., & Rosse, J. G. (2005). The distributive side of interactional justice: The effects of interpersonal treatment on emotional arousal. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 17,* 229-246.

Steiger, J. H., & Lind, J. C. (1980, May). Statistically based tests for the number of common factors. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Psychometric Society, Iowa City, IA.

Tabachnik, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th Ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Tepper, B. J. (2001). Health consequences of organizational injustice: Tests of main and interactive effects. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86,* 197-215.

Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis.* Hillsdale, N. J: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tomarken, A. J., & Waller, N. G. (2005). Structural equation modeling: Strengths, limitations, and misconceptions. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology, 1,* 31-65.

Tomkins, S. S. (1962). *Affect, imagery, and consciousness. Volume 1: The positive affects.* New York: Springer.

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

Tschan, F., Rochat, S., & Zapf, D. (2005). It's not only clients: Studying emotion work with clients and co-workers with an event-sampling approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78,* 195-220.

Tugade, M. M., & Frederickson, B. L. (2007). Regulation of positive emotions: Emotion regulation strategies that promote resilience. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 8,* 311-333.

Turillo, C. J., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Umphress, E. E., & Gee, J. O. (2002). Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 89,* 839-865.

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 115-192). New York: Academic Press.

Van den Bos, K. (2001). Uncertainty management: The influence of uncertainty salience on reactions to perceived procedural fairness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80,* 931-941.

Van den Bos, K., Lind, E. A., & Wilke, H. A. M. (2001). The psychology of procedural and distributive justice viewed from the perspective of fairness heuristic theory. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: From theory to practice* (Vol.2, pp. 49-66). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Van den Bos, K. & Spruijt, N. (2002). Appropriateness of decisions as a moderator of the psychology of voice. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 32,* 57-72.

Vermunt, R., Wit, A. P., Van den Bos, K., & Lind, A. E. (1996). The effects of unfair procedures on negative affect and protest. *Social Justice Research, 9,* 109-119.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 18, pp. 1-74). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effect of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84,* 786-794.

Weiss, H. M. (2002). Introductory comments: Antecedents of emotional experiences at work. *Motivation and Emotion, 26,* 1-2.

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 486-493.

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

Zammuner, V. L., & Galli (2005). Wellbeing: Causes and consequences of emotion regulation in work settings. *International Review of Psychiatry, 17,* 355-364.

Zapf, D., Vogt, C., Seifert, C., Mertini, H., & Isic, A. (1999). Emotion work as a source of stress: The concept and development of an instrument. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8,* 371-400.

Zapf, D., Seifert, C., Schmutte, H. R., & Holz, M. (2001). Emotion work and job stressors and their effects on burnout. *Psychology and Health, 16,* 527-545.

Zapf, D., & Holz, M. (2006). On the positive and negative effects of emotion work in organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 15,* 1-28.

Table 1

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations of Demographic Variables

Variable	M	SD	DED	CCOM	JUS	POS	NEG	DIS	BRN	TRN
1. Sex	1.71	0.45	0.10	0.14	-0.09	0.25**	-0.04	-0.02	-0.20*	-0.09
2. Age	19.17	2.99	0.06	0.17*	-0.11	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	-0.02
3. Ethnicity	1.16	0.62	0.02	0.06	-0.03	-0.02	-0.01	-0.05	-0.03	-0.03
4. Job Type	2.50	1.19	0.31**	0.06	0.24**	-0.13	-0.07	-0.34**	-0.16*	-0.23**

Note. DED = job dedication, CCOM = continuance commitment, JUS = Organizational justice, POS = positive felt emotions, NEG = negative felt emotions, DIS = emotional dissonance, BRN = burnout, TRN = turnover intentions.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 2

Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Internal Consistency Estimates of Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Job Dedication	21.45	7.17	0.87							
2. Continuance Commitment	23.88	5.83	0.09	0.73						
3. Justice	74.01	14.08	0.38**	-0.09	0.93					
4. Positive Felt Emotion	17.67	3.70	0.29**	0.11	0.16	0.86				
5. Negative Felt Emotion	21.37	6.61	-0.23**	0.20*	-0.28**	0.12	0.89			
6. Dissonance	14.93	4.18	-0.28**	0.25**	-0.30**	0.13	0.48**	0.85		
7. Burnout	50.90	14.88	-0.55**	0.04	-0.40**	-0.27**	0.50**	0.40**	0.88	
8. Turnover Intentions	9.05	4.75	-0.53**	-0.03	-0.42**	-0.20**	0.38**	0.33**	0.68**	0.94

Note. Score ranges are as follows: Job Dedication (5 – 35); Continuance Commitment (8 – 40); Justice (20 – 100); Positive Felt Emotion (4 – 20); Negative Felt Emotion (9 – 45); Dissonance (5 – 25); Burnout (16 – 112); Turnover Intentions (4 – 20).

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 3

Fit Indices for Structural Equation Models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	NFI	NNFI	RMSEA
Measurement Model	672.21	362.00	0.95	0.90	0.94	0.07
Primary Model	743.13	371.00	0.94	0.89	0.93	0.07
Primary Model non-significant paths removed	456.34	248.00	0.96	0.92	0.95	0.07
Alternative Model	755.65	369.00	0.94	0.89	0.93	0.08
Mediation Model: Path1	707.43	370.00	0.94	0.89	0.93	0.07
Mediation Model: Path 2 and 3	695.83	369.00	0.94	0.89	0.94	0.07
Primary to Alternative Model $\Delta \chi^2$	-12.52	2.00				
Primary to Mediation Model with Path 2 and 3 $\Delta \chi^2$	47.30	2.00				

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index, NFI = Normed Fit Index, NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index, and RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. $\Delta \chi^2$ = delta chi-square test.

Table 4

Correlations Between Latent Factors

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Justice	1.00				
2. Positive Emotions	0.18*	1.00			
3. Negative Emotions	-0.34**	0.09	1.00		
4. Emotional Dissonance	-0.36**	0.10	0.56**	1.00	
5. Burnout	-0.49**	-0.34**	0.62**	0.56**	1.00
6. Turnover Intentions	-0.47**	-0.21**	0.43**	0.38**	0.81**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Figure 1. Primary Research Model
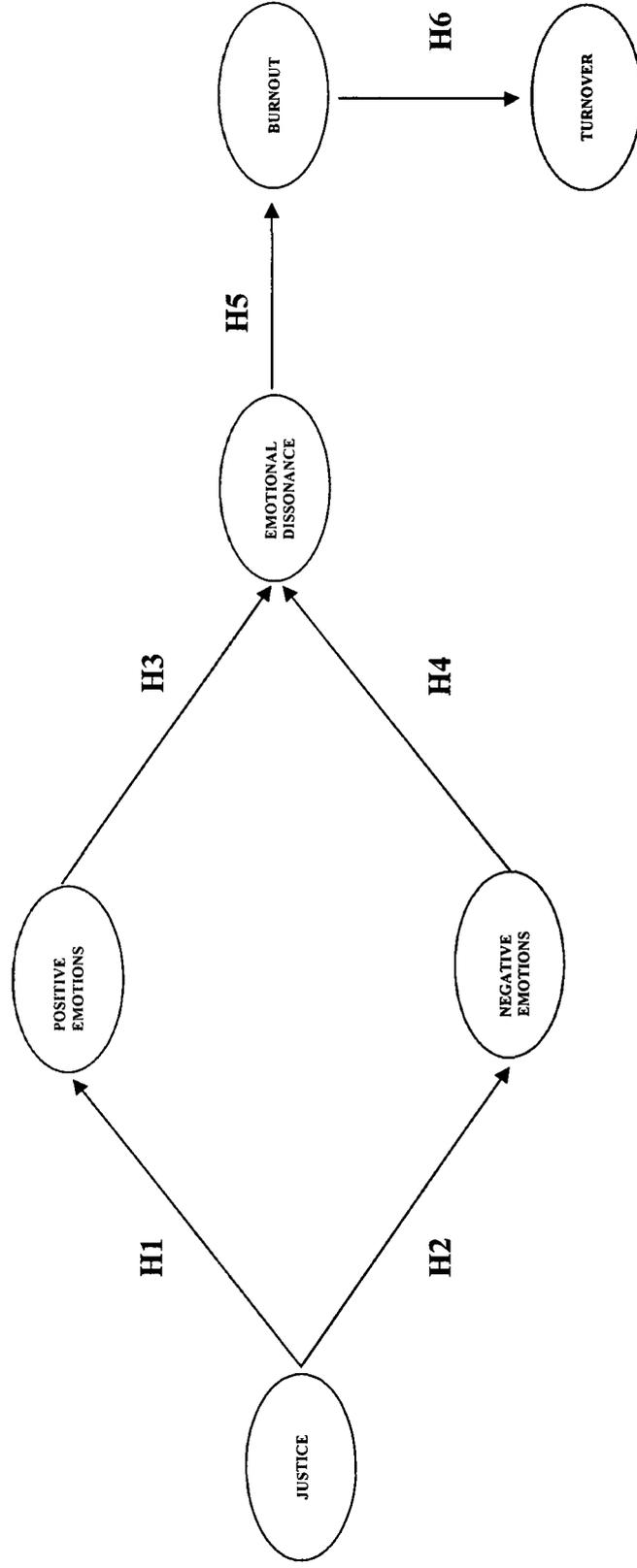
Figure 2. Primary Research Model
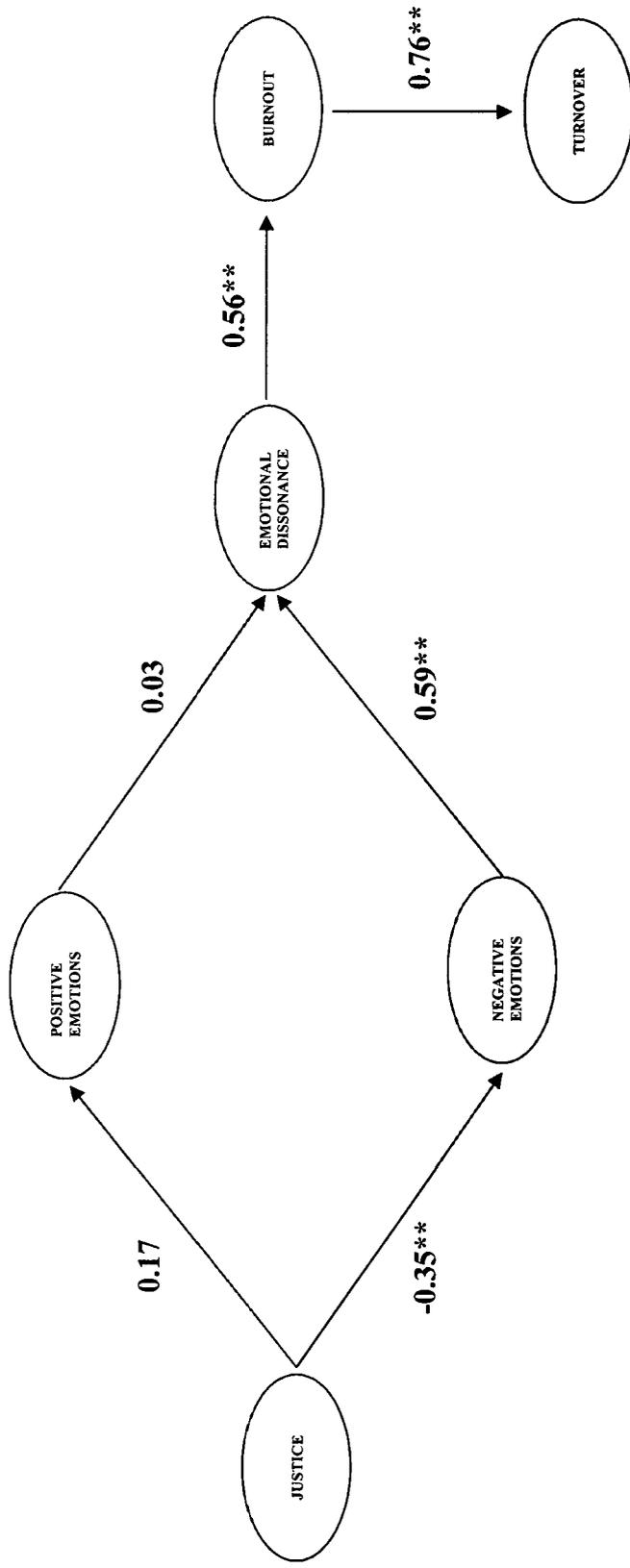
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Figure 3. Modified Research Model
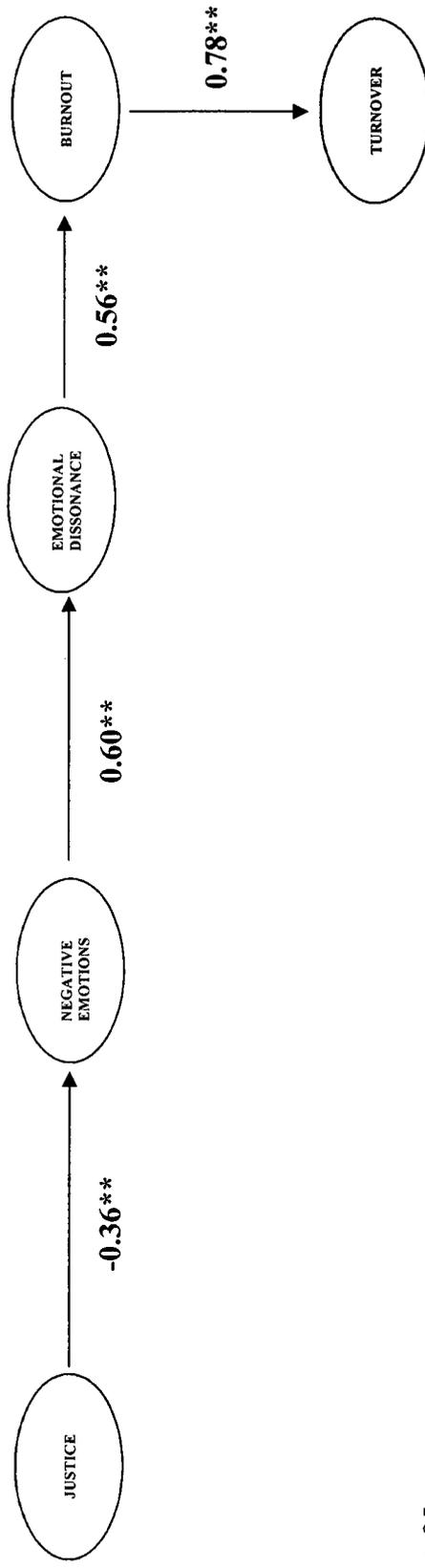
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Figure 4. Alternate Research Model
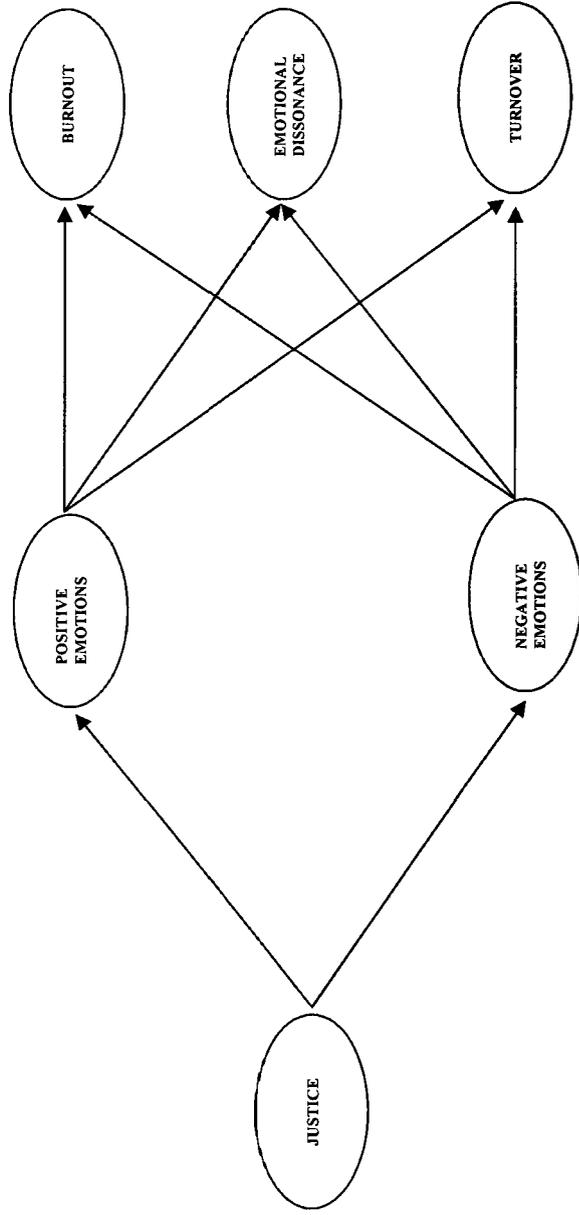
Figure 5. Alternate Research Model

BURNOUT

EMOTIONAL
DISSONANCE

TURNOVER

POSITIVE
EMOTIONS

NEGATIVE
EMOTIONS

JUSTICE

-0.39**

0.03

-0.28**

0.65**

0.59**

0.49**

0.19

-0.38**
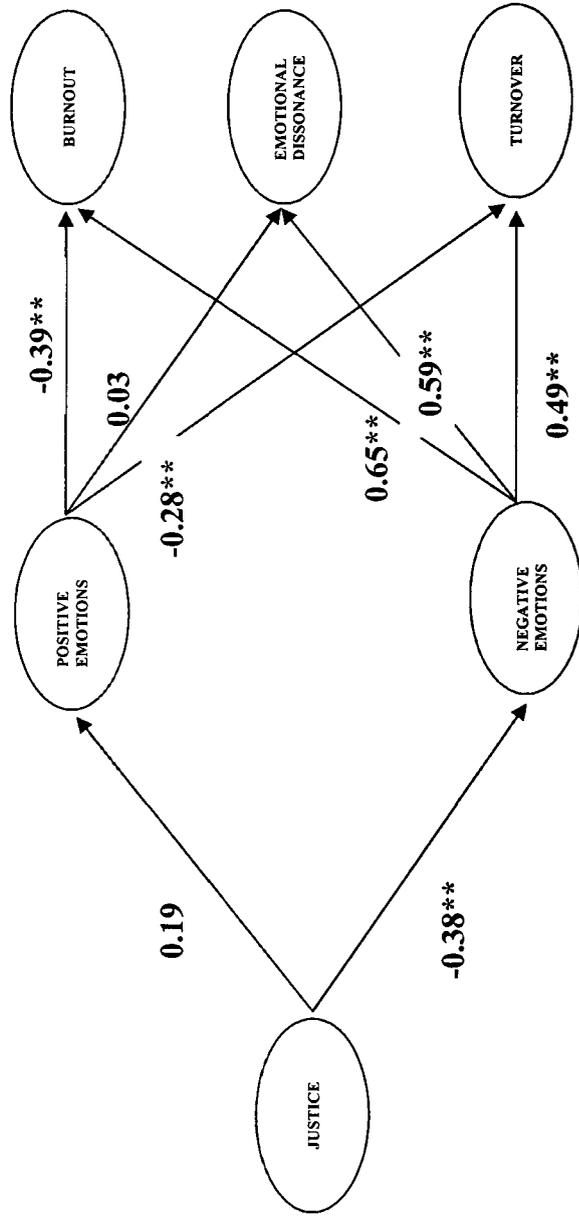
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Figure 6. Alternative Research Models – Two Additional Pathways
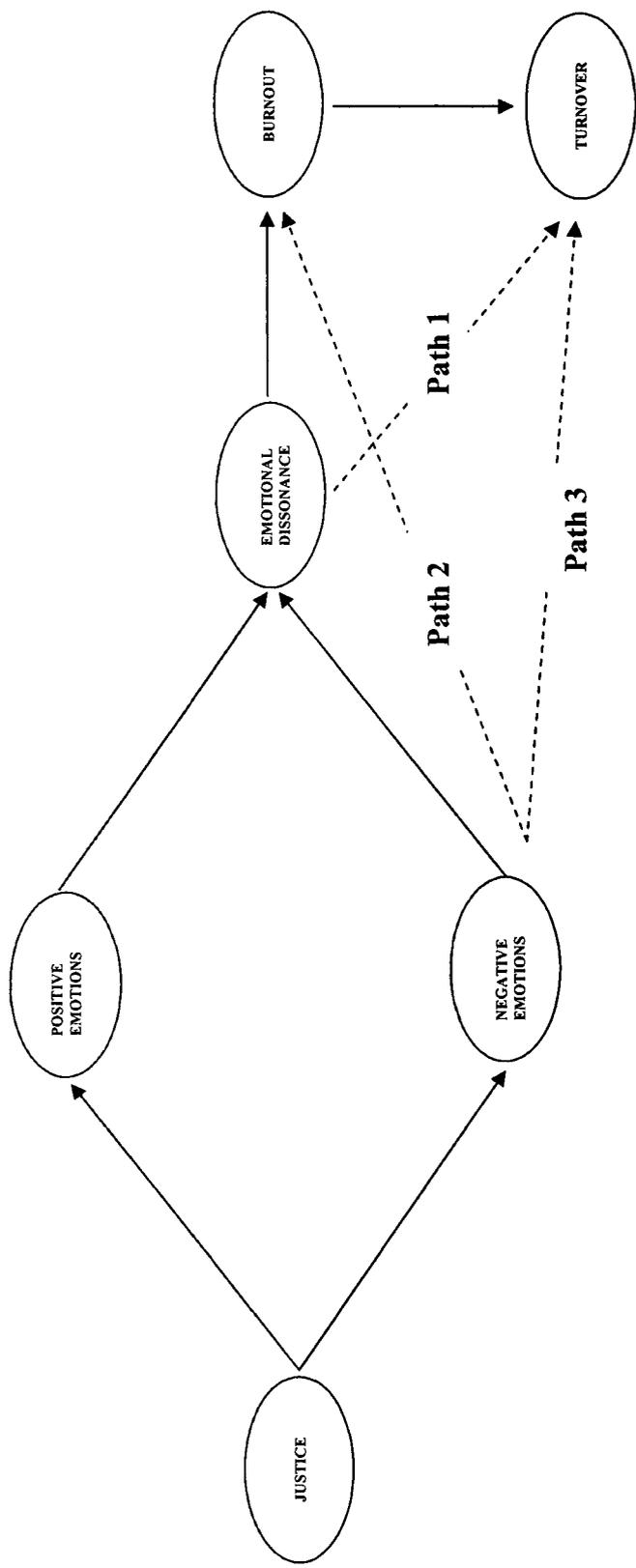
Appendix

All Measures Used in the Study

Procedural Justice Items from Colquitt (2001)

The following items refer to procedures used to arrive at decisions about you at work. To what extent ...

1 = To a Small Extent	2	3	4	5 = To a Large Extent

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?

2. Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?

3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?

4. Have those procedures been free from bias?

5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?

6. Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?

7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

Distributive Justice Items from Colquitt (2001)

The following items refer to outcomes you get at work, such as raises, bonuses, or other rewards. To what extent ... ...

1 = To a Small Extent	2	3	4	5 = To a Large Extent

1. Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?

2. Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?

3. Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?

4. Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Interpersonal Justice Items from Colquitt (2001)

The following items refer to your supervisor or the person that makes decisions about your raises, bonuses, or work assignments. To what extent ...

1 = To a Small Extent	2	3	4	5 = To a Large Extent

1. Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?

2. Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?

3. Has (he/she) treated you with respect?

4. Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?

Informational Justice Items from Colquitt (2001)

The following items refer to your supervisor or the person that enacts procedures and policies where you work. To what extent ...

1 = To a Small Extent	2	3	4	5 = To a Large Extent

1. Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?

2. Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?

3. Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?

4. Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?

5. Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?

Discrete Emotions Scale

Feeling Emotions

In this section, we would like to know about emotions you feel on the job. That is, we are

interested in how often you experience the following emotions, regardless of whether you

choose to express them or not. How often do you experience the emotion of _____ when

you feel that way?

5 = I feel this emotion many times a day	4 = I feel this emotion a few times a day	3 = I feel this emotion a few times a week	2 = I feel this emotion a few times a month	1 = I never feel this emotion

List of Emotions

1. irritation
2. anxiety
3. contentment
4. sadness
5. concern
6. disliking
7. aggravation
8. fear
9. happiness
10. distress
11. liking
12. hate
13. anger
14. enthusiasm

Emotional Dissonance

Very Rarely / Never	Rarely (Once a Week)	Sometimes (Once a Day)	Often (Several Times a Day)	Very Often (Several Times an Hour)

1. How often in your job do you have to suppress emotions in order to appear "neutral" on the outside?

2. How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your actual feelings toward the clients?

3. How often in your job do you have to display pleasant emotions (i.e. friendliness) or unpleasant emotions (i.e. strictness) on the outside while actually feeling indifferent inside?

4. How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your true feelings?

1 = Exactly Like That of A	2 = Similar to That of A	3 = In Between A and B	4 = Similar to that of B	5 = Exactly Like That of B

5. For Person A's job, it is very important to hide any personal feelings which may arise from the clients. For Person B's job, it is of lesser significance to hide such feelings from clients. Which one of these two jobs is most similar to yours?

Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

1. I doubt the significance of my work.

2. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does.

3. I feel used up at the end of the workday.

Turnover Intentions

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I think a lot about leaving the organization.

2. I am actively searching for an alternative to the organization.

3. As soon as possible, I will leave the organization .

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extremely Often

4. How often have you seriously considered quitting your job in the last six months?

Work Engagement

1 = Never	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Always / Every day

1. To me, my job is challenging.

2. My job inspires me.

3. I am enthusiastic about my job.

4. I am proud of the work that I do.

5. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.

Organizational Commitment

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.

5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.