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Workplace Mistreatment and Emotional Labor: A Latent Profile Analysis

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By adopting a person-centered approach, this research explored emotional labor latent profiles based on employees' levels of surface acting and deep acting. Further, this study examined the role of workplace mistreatment from different sources (customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization) in the prediction of profile membership and the associations between these profiles and several outcomes (job satisfaction, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, and affective commitment). Five profiles of emotional laborers were identified (surface actors, regulators, low actors, non-actors, and deep actors). Customer incivility, coworker incivility, and organizational dehumanization but not abusive supervision were found to be associated with profile membership. Particularly, employees who perceived high levels of organizational dehumanization had a higher likelihood to be identified as surface actors. Overall, positive outcomes were associated with deep actors, while surface actors were more likely to be related to negative outcomes. Our findings provide further support for the advantages of adopting a person-centered perspective to the study of emotional labor.

Keywords: workplace mistreatment; organizational dehumanization; emotional labor; surface and deep acting; latent profile analysis.

Emotional labor is the process of managing feelings and emotional expressions as a requirement of work duties, to conform to organizational expectations (Hochschild, 1983). Specifically, workers can rely on two emotional labor strategies, namely surface acting and deep acting, to comply with organizational rules in terms of emotional displays. Surface acting involves the modification of an emotional expression by suppressing, faking, or amplifying felt emotions to show what is expected. For instance, it is common practice for frontline staffs to feign a smile because most service occupations request to express positive emotions with customers (Grandey, 2000). Deep acting is characterized by the modification of employees' felt emotions that leads to display authentic emotions by changing the focus of the situation or their personal thoughts to align their feelings with organizational display rules (Grandey, 2000).

Most of the research conducted so far on emotional labor has examined the determinants and consequences of each emotional labor strategy independently one from the other. This line of research is consistent with the fact that theoretically the two emotional labor strategies are often assumed to be mutually exclusive, that is employees would use one strategy at the expense of the other (e.g., Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Surface acting and deep acting were, however, found to be positively correlated (e.g., Adams & Webster, 2013; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015), suggesting that employees might rely on the two strategies in conjunction to conform to organizational display rules in terms of emotions. Arguing that both views might be correct but for different people, several authors have recently envisaged that some employees might primarily use either surface acting or deep acting to manage the emotional labor demands, whereas other individuals might use both regulation strategies or none of them in their daily job duties (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Holman, Martinez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008).

Accordingly, a recent line of research on emotional labor using a person-centered approach has begun to examine how emotional labor strategies combine within individuals. Substantially, this research points out the relevance to consider distinct profiles of emotional laborers characterized by different combinations of surface acting and deep acting (e.g., Fouquereau, Morin, Lapointe, Mokounkolo, & Gillet, 2018; Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2015). Adopting a person-centered approach to emotional labor (by performing a latent profile analysis or LPA) extends emotional labor theory by providing a more realistic perspective to the study of emotional labor. In particular, as discussed below, such approach may help to reconcile contradictory perspectives and findings on the effects of deep acting on outcomes, by examining its influence both in conjunction and without the other strategy (i.e., surface acting). However, there is a lack of consensus in the literature on the number and nature of profiles of emotional laborers existing within organizations, hence the need to shed light on these inconsistent findings (Cheung & Lun, 2015; Fouquereau, Morin et al., 2018; Gabriel et al., 2015).

In line with the above, the present research first sought to test the replicability of profiles of emotional laborers based on their levels of surface acting and deep acting among a sample of employees coming from a variety of jobs and organizations. We further examined latent profiles of emotional laborers through the consideration of both determinants and outcomes. In line with models on emotional labor having suggested that mistreatments at the workplace play a key role in the employees' use of emotional labor strategies, this study is to the best of our knowledge the first to explore the extent to which mistreatments from different sources or entities pertaining to the workplace (i.e., customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization) predict emotional labor profile membership. Furthermore, this research also aimed to investigate the well-known consequences of emotional labor through the consideration of two categories of outcomes, i.e.

well-being (i.e., job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; Gabriel et al., 2015) and attitudes toward the organization (i.e., affective commitment and turnover intentions; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012). Overall, in doing so, we provided further support for the advantages of adopting a person-centered approach to the study of emotional labor.

Emotional Labor Profiles

Although the investigation of emotional labor profiles is still an under-explored area, we identified three person-centered studies that are in line with this perspective. First, Cheung and Lun (2015) identified across 262 Chinese school teachers, three emotional labor profiles based on employees' levels of surface acting, deep acting, and expression of naturally felt emotion. Among them, 116 were classified as "active actors" (high levels of all three strategies), 44 were identified as "display rules compliers" (high levels of surface and deep acting along with low levels of expression of naturally felt emotion), and 102 were labeled "emotionally congruent employees" (high levels of deep acting and expression of naturally felt emotion along with low levels of surface acting). Second, Gabriel et al. (2015) identified across two samples of 692 American service workers and 552 Singaporean employees in service industry sectors five profiles of emotional laborers distinct both in qualitative (i.e., surface actors and deep actors) and quantitative (i.e., regulators, low actors, and non-actors) terms. Surface and deep actors described employees using either high levels of surface acting or deep acting respectively, to manage their feelings and face emotional demands. While regulators were characterized by high levels of both emotional labor strategies, non-actors were described as having extremely low levels on both surface and deep acting. Finally, the dominant profile across cultures, i.e. low actors, exhibited moderate levels of surface acting and deep acting. Third, Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) identified, across two samples of 331 teachers and nursing assistants, and 311 employees from an employment agency, telephone

operators, and check-out assistants with limited, indirect, and/or sporadic contact with customers, three emotional labor profiles based on individuals' levels of faking emotion, hiding feelings (i.e., two sub-components of surface acting), and deep acting. Specifically, they labeled these three profiles "high emotional labor", "moderate emotional labor/moderate surface acting and high deep acting", and "low emotional labor/low surface acting and moderately low deep acting".

Taken together, these findings underline that the existing and still sparse literature still strives to reach a consensus on the number (i.e., three versus five profiles) and nature of profiles of emotional laborers to be considered. In line with the above but more broadly, Morin, Meyer, Creusier, and Biétry (2016) emphasized that one of the key aspects of construct validation when relying on a person-centered approach is to generalize profiles across samples. Overall, all this argues for the need to increase the number of person-centered studies to clarify the inconsistent results regarding profiles of emotional laborers. Accordingly, the present study first sought to test the replicability of latent profiles of emotional labor. However, given the inconsistent results from one study to another on emotional labor profiles, our approach was exploratory in nature. Instead of making a priori assumptions about the nature and number of profiles we will find, we therefore proposed the following Research question:

Research question 1: Are there distinct profiles of emotional labor?

To explore this Research question, two choices relating to the methodology were made. First, the present research intended to investigate emotional labor profiles within a sample of employees coming from a variety of jobs and organizations. Far from being restricted to interactions between frontline employees and their customers, emotional labor is also likely to occur in intra-organizational relationships and is thus relevant across a wide range of occupations (e.g., Ozcelik, 2013). In line with this view and in an attempt to

generalize our findings, our Research question was answered with a more diverse sample of employees. Second, we operationalized emotional labor by using the same two emotional labor strategies as Gabriel et al. (i.e. surface and deep acting; 2015) rather than those used by Cheung and Lun (2015) or Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) for two reasons. Firstly, Cheung and Lun (2015) relied on genuine emotions along with surface acting and deep acting. Yet, scholars argued that genuine emotions do "not create emotional dissonance between felt and expressed emotion because actors are expressing their true emotions" (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015, p. 752). Brotheridge and Lee (2003) further argued that genuine emotions do not pertain to emotional labor strategies because it does not imply the modification of individuals' felt emotions. Secondly, Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) relied on two sub-components of surface acting (i.e., hiding feelings and faking emotions) along with deep acting. Yet, their latent profiles exhibited matching levels of both sub-components of surface acting within each profile of emotional laborers, suggesting that surface acting should be treated as unidimensional. Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) therefore concluded that their results "argued against the value of distinguishing among these two components of surface acting" (p. 19).

Workplace Mistreatment and Emotional Labor Profiles

Regarding the determinants of surface acting and deep acting, models on emotional labor suggested that both personal and situational factors play a determinant role in the development of these strategies (Grandey, 2000). Situational factors include the quality of (mis)treatment received at the workplace. In particular, interpersonal mistreatments were suggested to play a determinant role in the use of emotional labor strategies (Grandey, 2000; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). In line with this perspective, we sought to investigate the extent to which profile membership might be predicted by workplace mistreatment coming from different sources.

Most research on emotional labor was conducted among samples of frontline employees and has, therefore, mainly focused on interpersonal mistreatment arising from customers (e.g., customer incivility; Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex, 2004). Incivility is defined as a "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). Substantially, research on customer incivility reported situations in which employees faced customer rudeness such as disrespectful and/or insulting comments (e.g., Sliter, Jex, Wolford, & McInnerney, 2010). This form of incivility might represent the most common form of workplace mistreatment among employees (Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012). Grandey's (2000) model of emotional labor suggests that employees seek to engage in emotional labor strategies because they are required to display positive emotions while facing interpersonal mistreatment by clients. Empirical evidence revealed that experiencing mistreatments from customers led mainly to the use of surface acting to deal with emotional requirements (e.g., Adams & Webster, 2013). Grandey, Dickter, and Sin (2004) however found that individuals also rely on deep acting but only when they faced mildly stressful customer aggression in comparison with highly stressful client verbal mistreatment.

As previously suggested, scholars conceded that emotional labor is not restricted to interactions with customers (e.g., Ozcelik, 2013) and, therefore, underlined the need to also pay attention to mistreatments coming from internal stakeholders in the study of emotional labor (e.g., Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007). In this respect, coworkers (e.g., workplace incivility from coworkers; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and supervisors (e.g., abusive supervision; Tepper, 2000) were identified as potential sources of interpersonal mistreatment. On the one hand, Andersson and Pearson (1999) stated that because "in every workplace there exist norms for respect for fellow coworkers" (p. 445), coworker incivility refers to the behavior of "acting rudely or discourteously without regard for others, in

violation of norms for respect in social interactions" (p. 445). On the other hand, abusive supervision is defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which leaders engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Hobfoll's (2001) conservation of resources (COR) theory provides an excellent theoretical explanation for why both coworker incivility and abusive supervision might affect the use of emotional labor strategies. More precisely, the COR theory postulates that employees strive to prevent, protect, and/or gain resources that they value. In addition, Hobfoll (2001) suggests that fostering positive social interactions might facilitate access to resources. Accordingly, employees facing mistreatments from intra-organizational members (i.e., coworkers and supervisors) would engage in emotional labor to avoid further potential conflicts, thereby seeking to preserve a positive work climate and/or good relationships (e.g., Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012). Consistent with this idea, Adams and Webster (2013) showed that coworker incivility was positively associated with surface acting, while unrelated to deep acting. Similarly, Carlson et al. (2012) found that employees experiencing abusive supervision engaged in surface acting to cope with the abusive situation.

Surprisingly, whereas research on mistreatments from customers, coworkers, and supervisors is well-documented, research that has considered the potential influence of mistreatment from the organization is much scarcer. Yet, a recent study brought evidence that high perceptions of mistreatment from the organization -operationalized through the "organizational dehumanization" construct - led employees to use more surface acting to comply with emotional display rules (Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2018). Organizational dehumanization is defined as "the experience of an employee who feels objectified by his/her organization, denied personal subjectivity, and made to feel like a tool or an instrument for the organization's ends" (Bell & Khoury, 2011, p.170). In contrast with mistreatments coming from customers, coworkers, or supervisors, organizational dehumanization is obviously not a

mistreatment arising from interpersonal interactions but rather a maltreatment "resulting from global perceptions and beliefs regarding the extent to which the abstract and distal entity that is the organization considers an employee as a tool or instrument" (Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2018, p.3). As any mistreatment, it remains that organizational dehumanization is an emotion provoking experience (Bastian & Haslam, 2011) that could, therefore, induce emotional labor strategies (Grandey, 2000). Just as in the case of mistreatments from intra-organizational members, employees experiencing organizational dehumanization would engage in emotional labor to avoid further potential conflicts and preserve a positive work climate (COR theory; Hobfoll, 2001). Moreover, Nguyen and Stinglhamber (2018) suggested that employees may also seek to regain the humanity they have lost by displaying an emotional response, i.e. a characteristic defining human nature (Haslam, 2006).

In addition, the literature on the multi-foci approach indicates that employees distinguish relationships that they can have with different entities pertaining to their workplace, and therefore stresses the importance of considering their distinct but also concomitant effects when dealing with psychological processes in the work context (e.g., Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). Taken together, these findings emphasized that organization mistreatment, in the same way as mistreatments arising from outsiders and insiders of the workplace, might play an important and distinct role in emotional labor strategies. Therefore, this study is the first to examine the extent to which emotional labor profiles might be distinguished by workplace mistreatments arising from four entities or sources (i.e., customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization) simultaneously. Given that the person-centered approach is exploratory in nature and the lack of research evidence on the predictive power of mistreatments on profile membership, specific a priori hypotheses are difficult to formulate. Accordingly, we developed the following Research question:

Research question 2: Do customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization predict emotional labor profile membership?

Emotional Labor Profiles and Consequences

Research on the consequences of emotional labor has consistently shown that surface acting is harmful to employees' well-being and attitudes toward the organization because of the emotional dissonance it implies (Grandey, 2003). More precisely, scholars suggested that keeping constant displayed desired emotions that are incongruous with felt emotions drains resources that leads to emotional strain or exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) and fosters negative attitudes toward the organization (Grandey, 2000). Consistent with this idea, Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) and Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2012)'s meta-analyses revealed that surface acting was negatively associated with job-related well-being (e.g., job satisfaction) and favorable attitudes toward the organization (e.g., affective commitment) and positively related to personal ill-being (e.g., emotional exhaustion).

While findings on surface acting are thus quite clear-cut, those on deep acting do not bring consensus (e.g., Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). On the one hand, deep acting is regularly described as beneficial because of the emotional consonance it involves, that is employees' felt emotions are aligned with displayed required emotions (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2003). Therefore, deep acting does not imply emotional dissonance that would drain one's resources but rather leads to promote or gain resources through positive interactions resulting from felt genuine and positive emotions displayed (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Accordingly, Zou and Dahling (2017) showed that deep acting was positively linked to subjective well-being. In the same vein, Philipp and Schüpbach (2010) showed in their longitudinal study that teachers using deep acting strategy exhibited lower levels of emotional exhaustion. In addition, Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2012) reported in their meta-analysis that deep acting and turnover intentions are negatively correlated.

On the other hand, Hochschild (1983) argued that deep acting might eventually be harmful to employees because of the emotional estrangement it results in. Similarly, Liu, Prati, Perrewé, and Brymer (2010) argued that deep acting is an effortful strategy that consumes resources, which in turn leads to distress. Accordingly, Judge, Woolf, and Hurst (2009) found that daily deep acting was associated with feeling worse at the end of the working day.

In contrast, Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) argued that deep acting might be unrelated to employees' well-being because it "involves opponent process leading to a resource loss and gain at the same time, resulting in no net gain or loss" (p. 367). Thus, despite an initial resource loss, displaying genuine emotions could lead to positive interactions, which in turn might enhance resource gains. In line with this view, some scholars found that deep acting was unrelated to emotional exhaustion or subjective well-being (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2003; Zou & Dahling, 2017).

Shedding new light on these apparently contradictory findings, person-centered studies examined the combined effects of the two emotional labor strategies on several outcomes. In contrast with past variable-centered studies which do not consider the possible combination of the two strategies, these studies tested the idea that, although deep acting theoretically may be more beneficial, these benefits may not be realized when paired with high surface acting. In line with this view, the results of these studies indicated that high levels of surface acting conjointly with either low or high levels of deep acting were associated with high levels of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2015) and low levels of work performance (e.g., Fouquereau, Morin et al., 2018). Particularly, their results emphasized that deep acting was beneficial only when it was combined with low levels of surface acting. Indeed, despite an initial resource loss resulting from the use of deep acting strategy, displaying genuine emotions could lead to positive interactions, which in turn might enhance

resource gains such as a higher sense of job accomplishment or positive feedback. As such, deep acting may be considered as a resource that helps employees buffer the negative effect of surface acting (Cheung & Lun, 2015).

The pattern of results previously found in these person-centered studies was expected to be replicated in the present study with outcomes capturing employees' well-being at work and attitudes toward the organization. More precisely, potential profiles characterized by moderate to high levels of surface acting regardless of the level of deep acting should be more likely to be associated with negative consequences, while potential profiles defined by high levels of deep acting only or no emotional labor at all should be related with the most adaptive outcomes. We therefore proposed the following Research question:

Research question 3: Are profiles of emotional labor with high levels of surface acting related to the worst outcomes, while profiles with high levels of deep acting associated with the most adaptive outcomes?

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants took part in the study via Prolific Academic, an online UK crowdsourcing platform dedicated to academic purposes, which provides services similar to Mturk. For instance, scholars can prescreen participants by previous approval rate, demographics, level of education, or employment status. Moreover, Prolific Academic offers access to more naïve individuals (for more information, see Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017). They were recruited according to different criteria; they had to be native speakers of English, be part-time or full-time employees, and not be self-employed. They were informed that their participation was anonymous and voluntary. Participants received £1.50 as monetary compensation for their time spending on filling in the questionnaire. Nine hundred and forty-four participants from various jobs and organizations completed the survey. However, 60 of

them were withdrawn from the analyses as they failed to attentional check questions (e.g., "please tick rarely") or because they were unemployed or self-employed. Therefore, this resulted in a final sample of 884 employees. Women accounted for more than half of the sample (60.5%). The majority of participants were British citizens (62.3%). On average, they were 36.57 years old (*SD* = 10.16), have been working in their current organization for 6.54 years (*SD* = 6.17), and worked with their current supervisor for 3.29 years (*SD* = 3.68). Most of the participants held a bachelor degree (47.5%) and worked in organizations comprising 50 to 249 employees (18.6%). Participants worked in health and social care (13.2%), following by teaching and education (13.1%), retail and sales (10.1%), accountancy, banking, and finance (9.8%), public sector and administration (9.3%), information technology and services (9.2%), engineering and manufacturing (7.2%), sciences and pharmaceuticals (3.5%), transport and logistics (3.1%), and charities and voluntary work (3.1%) for the most represented.

Measures

Unless otherwise specified, participants assessed the following items on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

Customer incivility. Mistreatment from customers was measured using Burnfield et al.'s (2004) Customer Incivility Scale. The 11-item scale (α = .96) assesses the frequency of incivility from customers experienced during the past month. Items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from "1" (never) to "7" (always). An example item was "*Customers make insulting comments to me*". Participants who had no interactions with customers were invited to not respond to these items.

Coworker incivility. Mistreatment from coworkers was assessed using Cortina et al.'s (2001) Workplace Incivility Scale for coworkers. It was composed of seven items (α = .92). Participants indicated their frequency of coworker incivility experienced during the past

month on a 7-point scale ranging from "1" (never) to "7" (always). A sample item was "*Coworkers addressed me in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately*".

Abusive supervision. Mistreatment from supervisor was measured using Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision scale composed of 15 items (α = .95). The items included "*My supervisor tells me my thoughts or feeling are stupid*".

Organizational dehumanization. Participants' perceptions of being mistreated by their organizations were measured by using Caesens, Stinglhamber, Demoulin, and De Wilde's (2017) organizational dehumanization scale composed of 11 items (α = .94). A sample item was "*My organization treats me as if I were an object*".

Emotional labor. Seven items from Brotheridge and Lee (2003) and Grandey (2003) were used to measure deep acting (e.g., "*Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to* others"; three items; α = .95) and surface acting (e.g., "*Fake a good mood when interacting with* others"; four items; α = .93). Participants responded to these items using a 7-point scale ranging from "1" (never) to "7" (always).

Job satisfaction. Employees' job satisfaction was measured using the four items (α = .93) of Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). An example item was "*In general, my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it*".

Affective commitment. Employees' affective commitment toward their organization was assessed using three items (α = .92) from Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) scale. A sample item was "*I do feel like 'part of the family' at my organization"*.

Emotional exhaustion. Participants reported their exhaustion brought by their work on the nine-item scale (α = .94) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1986). Participants responded to these items through a 7-point scale ranging from "1" (never) to "7" (always). An example included "*I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job*".

Turnover intentions. Employees' intentions to leave their organization were evaluated using the three items (α = .93) of Jaros (1997). An item was "*I intend to leave my organization in a near future*".

Control variables. We included demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of education, organizational size, organizational tenure, and employment status), positive affectivity, and negative affectivity into the analyses as they were known to be related to our variables of interest (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2018; Zou & Dahling, 2017). Individuals' positive and negative affectivity were assessed using Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) PANAS scale. The scale included ten positive (e.g., enthusiastic) and ten negative (e.g., hostile) mood relevant traits. Participants reported the extent to which they felt each mood on average (i.e., generally) via a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from "1" (not at all) to "7" (extremely).

As recommended by Becker (2005), the empirical relationships between all potential control variables and our variables of interest were examined. Table 1 indicates that gender was positively related to both surface acting and deep acting. In addition, positive affectivity was found to be negatively associated with surface acting and positively with deep acting, while negative affectivity was positively related to surface acting but unrelated to deep acting. Therefore, when examining the relations between predictors (i.e., mistreatments from customers, coworkers, supervisors, and the organization) and the likelihood of profile membership, we controlled for gender, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity. Likewise, Table 1 displays that several demographic variables, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity were correlated with the outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, affective commitment, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions). The associations between profile membership and the outcomes were thus conducted while controlling for gender, age, organizational size, organizational tenure, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

Data Analysis

Latent profile analysis. Data were explored using Mplus Version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017) with its robust maximum likelihood estimator (MLR) and full information maximum likelihood (FIML) to deal with data sets including missing values (i.e., 3.27 %; Estabrook & Neale, 2013). Building on Meyer and Morin's (2016) study, we used factor scores extracted from confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) as inputs for the analyses. To evaluate the goodness of fit of CFAs, four fit indices were examined: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) less than .08, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) less than .08, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) greater than .90, and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) more than .90 define an adequate fit (Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). The two-factor measurement model of emotional labor showed a very good fit to the data (χ^2 (13) = 40.55, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .02, CFI = .99, TLI = .98) and was better than the one-factor model (χ^2 (14) = 1313.72, RMSEA = .32, SRMR = .24, CFI = .52, TLI = .28), $\Delta\chi^2$ (1) = 1273.17, SBc = 277.91, $p < .001$.

To perform latent profile analyses, we followed the procedure described in Morin's (2016) paper. As suggested, we specified up to eight latent profiles in which the means of surface acting and deep acting were freely estimated across profiles. The optimal number of profiles was assessed through the well-known indices of model fit (for more details see Morin, 2016).

Latent profile analysis: Predictors and outcomes. Following Morin et al.'s (2016) recommendations, we used the start values from the retained latent profile solution when examining auxiliary variables (i.e., antecedents and outcomes) to prevent substantive changes to the nature of the profiles occurring. Here again, we relied on factor scores saved from CFAs for both antecedents and outcomes. Table 2 shows that the four-factor measurement

model for antecedents showed an adequate fit to the data (χ^2 (896) = 2597.41, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .05, CFI = .92, TLI = .91) and was significantly better to all other nested models (cf. Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). In addition, Table 2 also indicates that the four-factor measurement model for outcomes fitted well the data (χ^2 (146) = 891.83, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .05, CFI = .93, TLI = .92) and was significantly superior to all more constrained models.

The relations between the antecedents and the likelihood of profile membership and the associations between these latent profiles and the outcomes were analyzed separately (e.g., Morin et al., 2011). More precisely, the antecedents were modeled through the automatic three-step procedure using the "Auxiliary" function R3STEP -performing a series of multinomial logistic regressions- in Mplus (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014; Vermunt, 2010), while the associations with the outcomes were examined through means comparison (e.g., Cheung & Lun, 2015).

[Insert Table 2 about here]

Results

Latent Profile Solutions

Fit indices associated with the latent profile analysis are displayed in Table 3. The results showed that the 4-profile solution exhibited the lowest BIC and CAIC, while the 6-profile solution had the lowest AIC and SSA-BIC in comparison with the one-, two-, three-, four-, and five-profile solutions, as well as significant BLRT value ($p < .001$). Yet, scholars indicated that when indicators fail to retain an optimal solution, the BIC and CAIC contribute to underestimating the number of classes, while the AIC, SSA-BIC, and BLRT lead to an overestimation of classes (e.g., Morin, 2016). Since the indicators failed to retain a clear solution, we plotted these indicators to examine where the slope of most indices was clearly leveling off suggesting for the optimal number of latent profiles that should be taken into

account (e.g., Morin, Maïano et al., 2011; Petras & Masyn, 2010). As the plateau was reached between four and six classes, we thus carefully explored the four-, five-, and six-profile solutions. Nevertheless, it is important to keep in mind that the theoretical meaning and conformity of the solution retained should also be considered to establish the number of profiles (Morin, 2016). A closer examination suggested that moving from a four-profile solution in favor of a five-profile led to the addition of a meaningful solution, while taking into account six profiles at the expense of five profiles only led to the separation of one class into two smaller classes[1], suggesting an equivalent configuration. Therefore, we selected the five-profile as the best solution.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

Figure 1 displays the different profiles chosen of emotional labor. The first latent profile, labeled "*surface actors*", was characterized by employees reporting high levels of surface acting and low levels of deep acting (4.06%; $M_{\text{surface acting}} = 1.79$; $M_{\text{deep acting}} = -2.07$). The second profile, labeled "*regulators*", included individuals whom reported high levels of both surface acting and deep acting (22.58%; $M_{\text{surface acting}} = 1.59$; $M_{\text{deep acting}} = 0.80$). Members with the most common profile (53.78%) were labeled "*low actors*" given that they indicated similar levels of both surface acting and deep acting that might be considered as a moderate level of emotional labor ($M_{\text{surface acting}} = -0.03$; $M_{\text{deep acting}} = -0.01$). The fourth latent profile, labeled "*non-actors*", was characterized by employees whom indicated particularly low levels on both surface acting and deep acting (12.98%; $M_{\text{surface acting}} = -2.06$; $M_{\text{deep acting}} = -1.47$). Finally, individuals that exhibited low levels of surface acting ($M_{\text{surface acting}} = -2.10$) and high levels of deep acting ($M_{\text{deep acting}} = 1.68$) accounting for 6.61% of the sample were labeled "*deep actors*". In line with Research question 1, these results indicated the existence of two

[1] All the details related to the four- and six-profile solutions are available at the following web address: https://osf.io/p8nyk/?view_only=5240971a27284e35aa462ba2850a8ffa

qualitative and three quantitative profiles of emotional labor in diverse organizations and jobs, which replicated Gabriel et al.'s (2015) findings.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

Predictors of Latent Profiles

The relationships between customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization, and the five latent profiles are illustrated in Figure 2. In addition, results of the multinomial logistic regressions for the effects of the antecedents on profile membership are displayed in Table 4. Results indicated that employees that perceived high customer incivility were more likely to be surface actors, regulators, or low actors than non-actors and deep actors. In addition, customer incivility was associated with individuals belonging to regulators compared to low actors. These findings also indicated that high coworker incivility was marginally related to employees being classified as regulators in comparison with non-actors. Furthermore, Table 4 shows that abusive supervision had no association with any profile membership. For organizational dehumanization, surface actors perceived higher levels of organizational dehumanization than did low actors, non-actors, and deep actors. Furthermore, employees who felt dehumanized by their organization were more likely to be regulators and low actors in comparison with deep actors, and had a higher likelihood to be identified as regulators than low actors and non-actors. Regarding Research question 2, the results indicated that customer incivility, coworker incivility, and organizational dehumanization but not abusive supervision predicted profile membership.

[Insert Table 4 about here]

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

Outcomes of Latent Profiles

The relationships between the five emotional labor latent profiles and well-being and attitudinal outcomes are displayed in Table 5 and illustrated in Figure 3. Firstly, the analyses revealed that surface actors exhibited the lowest levels of job satisfaction, followed by regulators, and then by low actors. Finally, both non-actors and deep actors showed the highest levels of job satisfaction. Secondly, surface actors reported the lowest levels of affective commitment, followed by regulators, and then by low actors. In addition, both non-actors and deep actors indicated the highest levels of affective commitment. Thirdly, both surface actors and regulators reported the highest levels of emotional exhaustion, while low actors showed to be the third worst actors, followed by non-actors, and then deep actors who indicated the lowest levels of emotional exhaustion. Finally, both surface actors and regulators exhibited the highest levels of turnover intentions, followed by low actors. Non-actors were equivalent to deep actors regarding turnover intentions, in that they both had the lowest levels of intention to leave their organizations. Regarding Research question 3, these results emphasized that surface actors had the worst well-being and attitudes toward their organizations, while deep actors had the greatest well-being and attitudes toward their organizations.

[Insert Table 5 about here]

[Insert Figure 3 about here]

Since some results of the present research replicated those of Gabriel et al.'s (2015) study, key characteristics (e.g., sample, variables, data analyses; LeBel, McCarthy, Earp, Elson, & Vanpaemel, 2018) of both studies were summarized in Table 6 in order to get a clearer view of this study in the replication continuum.

[Insert Table 6 about here]

Discussion

Although theoretically both emotional labor strategies are assumed to be mutually exclusive, some empirical evidence showed that it is not always the case suggesting that employees might rely on the two strategies in conjunction to conform to organizational norms. Accordingly, a recent line of research on emotional labor using a person-centered approach has begun to investigate how these two strategies combine within employees. In line with this perspective, the present research intended to replicate the existence of distinct emotional labor subpopulations characterized by different combinations of surface acting and deep acting (Gabriel et al., 2015). In addition, we sought to investigate the relationships between these subpopulations and workplace mistreatment arising from four entities as well as indicators of well-being and attitudes toward the organization.

Firstly, the major theoretical contribution of the present research is that it strengthens the fact that the two perspectives on the mutually exclusive versus concomitant existence of emotional labor strategies are both relevant. Some employees primarily use one of the two strategies at the expense of the other, while others use surface acting and deep acting in conjunction (Gabriel et al., 2015). More precisely, our results identified five distinct profiles of emotional labor that vary qualitatively and quantitatively. In particular, we found two qualitative profiles (i.e., surface actors and deep actors) in which surface acting and deep acting are mutually exclusive. These profiles are in line with Kruml and Geddes' (2000) variable-centered findings showing a negative correlation between surface acting and deep acting. Furthermore, latent profile analyses also indicated three quantitative profiles (i.e., regulators, low actors, and non-actors) that suggest that both emotion regulation strategies can coexist within individuals at comparable levels. These results are then aligned with previous variable-centered studies having shown that surface acting was positively associated with deep acting (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015).

Importantly, our findings provide further support to the five-profile solution found by Gabriel et al. (2015), by revealing similar subpopulations of emotional laborers but in a different work setting. More specifically, Gabriel et al. (2015) examined profiles of emotional laborers within a sample of American employees from different service occupations that involved customer interactions and a sample of Singaporean employees from customer service industry, while British employees coming from a variety of jobs and organizations constituted the bulk of our sample. Our findings indicate that the profile proportions in the present study differed somewhat from those found in the two samples used in Gabriel et al.'s (2015) paper. These differences might be explained by the fact that employees are coming from different work settings and would, therefore, rely on different combinations of both surface acting and deep acting according to their job roles. Nevertheless, it remains that the general pattern of profiles of emotional laborers is replicated in a different cultural setting.

The present study also intended to examine profiles of emotional laborers within a sample of both frontline and non-frontline employees. However, our population consisted of only 20% of non-frontline employees, suggesting that the 5-profile solution retained might be more representative of frontline employees than both frontline and non-frontline employees. Therefore, it would be interesting in future research to explore whether the 5-profile solution would replicate within an all-non-frontline employees sample.

While we thus globally replicate the findings of Gabriel et al. (2015), Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) apparently did not obtain the same results. This lack of agreement between the results of the different studies may be explained through Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) use of hiding feelings and faking emotions to assess surface acting. Yet, as previously pointed out, they found that employees were more likely to rely on matching levels of both hiding feelings and faking emotions, suggesting that surface acting should be considered as unidimensional.

Taking this into consideration, a closer look at their findings reveals that Fouquereau, Morin et al.'s (2018) profiles of emotional laborers are not so different from those of Gabriel et al. (2015) and thus from ours. More precisely, the profile labeled "high emotional labor" in Fouquereau, Morin et al.'s (2018) study exhibits levels of both surface acting and deep acting similar to those of the "regulators" profile found by Gabriel et al. (2015). In the same vein, the "moderate emotional labor" profile in Fouquereau, Morin et al.'s (2018) study indicates levels of emotional labor similar to those of "low actors" in Gabriel et al.'s (2015) research. Finally, employees of "low emotional labor" profile in Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) and "non-actors" in Gabriel et al. (2015) displayed both very low levels of both surface acting and deep acting. Furthermore, a deep examination of Fouquereau, Morin et al.'s (2018) profile solutions revealed that the 5-solution profile could also have been retained as the best representation of their data. Their analyses showed that, within both samples, the 5-profile solution exhibited the lowest fit indices (i.e., AIC, CAIC, BIC, and ABIC) with the highest entropy as compared to the 3-profile solution. It would thus be worthwhile to see whether Fouquereau, Morin et al. (2018) would have replicated the findings of Gabriel et al. (2015) if they had retained the 5-solution profile. Overall, despite slight differences in results between the two studies, they both show the importance of adopting a person-centered approach in the study of emotional labor by highlighting the existence of subpopulations displaying different combinations of both surface and deep acting. The present research is fully in line with these two studies.

Secondly, our research investigated how workplace mistreatment coming from four sources (i.e., customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization) varies as a function of latent profiles. Our results reveal a close correspondence between organizational dehumanization and surface actors, which is in line with Nguyen and Stinglhamber's (2018) variable-centered study that found a strong

relationship between organizational dehumanization and surface acting ($\gamma = .52$, $p < .001$). More precisely, our analyses indicate that employees being dehumanized by their organizations are more likely to surface in order to hide their negative emotions resulting from this particular mistreatment.

Moreover, customer incivility also showed many significant associations with profiles of emotional labor. High levels of customer incivility were related to employees being classified as surface actors, regulators, and low actors rather than non-actors. Mistreated employees might be more inclined to rely on high levels of emotional labor strategies (i.e., surface actors and regulators) to cope with rude customers or, at the very least, to do the strict minimum (i.e., low actors) rather than being non-actors to do what is expected of them. Accordingly, Adams and Webster (2013) emphasize that, especially in case of interpersonal mistreatment from customers, "there are often clear display rules that require employees to show appropriate emotions" (p. 4). Interestingly, our findings show that the relationship between emotional labor and customer incivility appears to be less clear than what was found in variable-centered studies. These studies indicate that experiencing mistreatments from customers mainly leads to the use of surface acting (e.g., Adams & Webster, 2013). Yet, our results suggest that employees may also rely on deep acting –along with surface acting (i.e., regulators)– to deal with customer incivility. In other words, this research advocates the need to consider the effect of surface acting when investigating the relationship between customer incivility and deep acting in variable-centered studies (i.e., a moderating effect). By revealing a relationship between customer incivility and deep acting that was hidden in prior variable-centered research, this research, once again, highlights the benefits of adopting a person-centered approach to the study of emotional labor.

Furthermore, our findings show that employees facing coworker incivility had a higher likelihood to report high levels of surface and deep acting (i.e., regulators) in comparison with

non-actors. Drawing upon the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), by highly regulating their emotions when dealing with mistreatment arising from interactions with coworkers, employees may seek to preserve good relationships by maintaining a positive work climate because of the need of maintaining resources they value. In accordance with this idea, Hobfoll (2001) argued that fostering positive social interactions might facilitate access to resources. Surprisingly, abusive supervision had no association with any profile membership. However, this finding is in line with Adams and Webster's (2013) study that showed that abusive supervision was not significantly related to surface acting when customer incivility and coworker incivility were also at stake. Furthermore, this result is also consistent with Caesens, Nguyen, and Stinglhamber (2018) who found in their research that, because supervisors are agents or representatives of the organization, abusive supervision is an antecedent of organizational dehumanization, suggesting that abusive supervision might induce emotional labor only through organizational dehumanization.

Thirdly, our results emphasize how job-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, and affective commitment) are associated with emotional labor latent profiles. As a whole, our results indicate that surface actors exhibit the worst well-being indicators and attitudes toward their organizations (i.e., lowest levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment and highest levels of emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions; but equivalent to regulators for the last two outcomes) in comparison to other profiles. These results replicate studies that have constantly shown that surface acting is harmful (e.g., for variable-centered approaches, see Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012; for person-centered approaches, see Fouquereau, Morin et al., 2018; Gabriel et al., 2015). Furthermore, regulators were found to be the second worst actors suggesting that it is preferable for employees to rely on both emotional labor strategies (i.e., surface acting and deep acting) rather than only on surface acting. Then, low actors showed to

be the third worst profile in terms of outcomes. Taken together, the aforementioned results suggest that engaging either in surface acting in isolation or combined with deep acting decreases levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment and increases levels of exhaustion and turnover intentions (for similar conclusions, see also Gabriel et al., 2015).

In addition, non-actors were found to feel better than surface actors, regulators, and low actors by demonstrating higher levels of well-being and more positive attitudes toward the organization because not regulating must be effortless. Finally, these findings also highlight the potential benefits of the deep actors profile in which employees are more likely to use high levels of deep acting with very low levels of surface acting and exhibit the most desirable job-related outcomes. Overall, they reported having highest levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment and lowest levels of emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. However, we also found that combined with high levels of surface acting (i.e., regulators), deep acting is harmful to employees. Although regulators reported higher levels of positive outcomes than surface actors, their well-being and positive attitudes toward the organization were still lower than all remaining profiles. Thus, these findings may explain the previous inconsistent results for deep acting (i.e., negative, positive, or null effects; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011) in variable-centered studies. For instance, previous null effects for deep acting (e.g., Grandey, 2003) may be explained by the fact that the two subpopulations that rely on high levels of deep acting (i.e., deep actors and regulators) were probably at stake within prior variable-centered samples. By providing an explanation to previous inconsistent results on emotional labor (i.e., deep acting) in variable-centered studies, the present study highlights, once again, the benefits of relying on a person-centered approach in the study of emotional labor (for similar conclusions, see Gabriel et al., 2015).

Finally, not a main hypothesis, but interestingly enough, our results indicate that organizational dehumanization plays an important role in the management of feelings and

emotional expressions at work. More precisely, employees being mistreated by that quite distal and abstract entity that is the organization (Nguyen & Stinglhamber, 2018) are mainly classified as surface actors. Yet, surface actors were found to be the worst profile in terms of well-being and attitudes toward the organization. Even though our analyses do not allow testing indirect effects, it is reasonable to suggest that organizational dehumanization leads to the most undesirable job-related outcomes through surface acting. Importantly, the current study clearly highlights the deleterious effects of organizational dehumanization beyond customer incivility, coworker incivility, and abusive supervision. It, therefore, provides further contributions to both workplace mistreatment and the burgeoning organizational dehumanization literatures.

Practical Implications

Overall, the present study indicates that when employees feel threatened by customers, coworkers, or/and their organization they may engage in different combinations of emotional labor strategies to cope with the situation. Given the consequences of these combinations, our research provides several practical recommendations.

First, organizations should anticipate and prevent interpersonal mistreatment to cultivate civility and respect. Suggestions on diverse actions are available in the well-established workplace mistreatment literature (e.g., programs aimed at increasing civility, respect, and engagement at work (CREW); Leiter, Spence, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011). Because organizations have less control over interpersonal mistreatments arising from interactions with customers, they should help employees to manage their emotions resulting from experiences of mistreatment by improving restoration and resilience of their employees. Concretely, that means proposing services aimed at assisting employees that would help them to manage their emotions to cope with workplace mistreatment.

Second, it should be noted that organizational mistreatment (i.e., organizational dehumanization) is likely to be a stronger predictor of surface actors, who exhibit the worst job-related outcomes, in comparison with other sources of mistreatment. This suggests that organizations should be particularly attentive to reduce at maximum employees' perception of organizational dehumanization to support their well-being and lead to more positive attitudes toward the organization. Caesens et al. (2017) found that employees who perceived high support from their organizations reported reduced experiences of being dehumanized. Accordingly, organizations should thus encourage their employees by gratifying their contributions and taking care of their well-being. Specifically, one promising approach is to encourage employees' personal growth through policies and human resources practices (e.g., developmental or training programs; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Third, managers should be aware of conditions that could buffer the negative effect of belonging to a "bad" profile (i.e., surface actors, regulators, and low actors) on employees' well-being and attitudes toward the organization. For instance, climate of authenticity (Grandey, Foo, Groth, & Goodwin, 2012) and job autonomy (Grandey, 2000) have been proposed to lessen emotional exhaustion and increase job satisfaction as a result of the use of emotional labor strategies. Therefore, managers should carefully take into account the aforementioned factors that might help employees to reduce ill-being and negative attitudes toward the organization when engaging in emotional labor strategies.

Limitations and Future Research

In spite of its contributions, the present research presents several limitations. Firstly, similar to most studies in this area, the results were based on a cross-sectional design that makes cause-and-effect relationships between sources of workplace mistreatment, emotional labor, and job-related outcomes impossible to draw. Future research on emotion regulation

could use either laboratory experiments or longitudinal designs with repeated measures to overcome this limit.

Secondly, the present study is exposed to biases (e.g., common method bias) because of the use of self-report questionnaires. Nevertheless, method effects were lessened by following Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff's (2003) recommendations. Accordingly, the items of each scale were counterbalanced, the participants' anonymity was guaranteed, and individuals' evaluation apprehension was reduced by stating in the introduction of the survey that "there is no right or wrong answer". In addition, because we aimed to explore the extent to which employees use surface and deep acting, a self-reported measure was certainly the best way to assess whether employees relied on these two emotional labor strategies. Indeed, emotional labor is, by definition and nature, an individual interpretation of the use of emotion regulation strategies. In this regard, Conway and Lance (2010) emphasize that self-reported measures are by far the most appropriate for capturing private events. Furthermore, the authors argued that "one way to rule out substantial method effects is to demonstrate construct validity of the measures used" (Conway & Lance, 2010, p. 329). In this respect, our findings indicate that surface acting and deep acting scales had a very good internal consistency, showed a very good discriminant validity, and were correlated to the well-known outcomes of emotional labor. Therefore, based on the above, readers can feel confident in the fact that the common method bias does not threaten the validity of our study's findings.

Thirdly, our sample is composed of employees coming from various jobs and organizations. Although we see this as a strength in an attempt to generalize our findings, we cannot rule out the possibility that the profile structure emerged from jobs or organizations differences within our sample. Thus, it would be interesting in future research to investigate latent profile patterns within a unique occupation (e.g., bankers).

Fourthly, our findings revealed the presence of a latent profile that does not appear to regulate (i.e., non-actors) suggesting that individuals may not feel the need to manage their emotions at work. Thus, they might express deviant (i.e., negative) emotions when facing interpersonal mistreatment and violate the organizational display rules. Therefore, a fruitful future direction would be to explore latent profiles of emotional strategies by investigating the extent to which employees tend to express deviant emotions along with surface acting and deep acting.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of interest

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

Informed consent

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Customer incivility	2.55	1.36	(.96)																	
2. Coworker incivility	1.84	1.03	.43**	(.92)																
3. Abusive supervision	1.70	1.00	.32**	.56**	(.95)															
4. Organizational dehumanization	3.81	1.53	.32**	.36**	.41**	(.94)														
5. Surface acting	3.95	1.39	.45**	.34**	.26**	.36**	(.93)													
6. Deep acting	3.85	1.43	.12**	.08*	.05	-.05	.19**	(.95)												
7. Job satisfaction	4.72	1.63	-.29**	-.30**	-.36**	-.61**	-.36**	.15**	(.93)											
8. Affective commitment	4.32	1.74	-.20**	-.21**	-.25**	-.62**	-.29**	.21**	.67**	(.92)										
9. Emotional exhaustion	3.45	1.37	.43**	.44**	.37**	.55**	.55**	-.01	-.62**	-.45**	(.94)									
10. Turnover intentions	3.75	2.01	.30**	.34**	.40**	.59**	.36**	-.02	-.71**	-.58**	.61**	(.93)								
11. Gender	-	-	.09*	-.01	-.03	-.06	.18**	.15**	-.03	.06	.13**	.02	-							
12. Age	36.57	10.16	-.03	-.03	.03	.01	.00	.05	-.02	.03	.01	-.08*	.02	-						
13. Level of education	3.78	0.99	-.04	.05	.01	-.05	.01	.02	.04	.02	.00	.03	-.05	-.08*	-					
14. Organizational size	4.99	2.67	.18**	.09**	-.03	.22**	.05	.00	-.15**	-.18**	.09**	.08*	-.03	.00	.03	-				
15. Organizational tenure	6.54	6.17	.03	.02	.10**	.11**	.02	-.01	-.08*	.04	.11**	-.04	-.05	.44**	-.07*	.11**	-			
16. Employment status	-	-	.03	-.01	-.02	.04	.05	.02	.02	-.05	-.04	.02	.02	.01	.06	-.04	-.14**	-		
17. Positive affectivity	4.25	1.21	-.13**	-.12**	-.11**	-.29**	-.22**	.25**	.41**	.42**	-.33**	-.31**	-.00	.15**	.03	-.06	.04	.01	(.93)	
18. Negative affectivity	2.30	1.02	.45**	.35**	.38**	.26**	.36**	.07	-.28**	-.17**	.49**	.31**	.11**	-.10**	.03	.01	-.03	-.22**	.00	(.91)

Note. $N = 884$. Gender was coded 1 for male and 2 for female. Level of education was coded from "1" (low level of education) to "6" (high level of education). Organizational size was coded from "1" (small organization) to "9" (large organization). Employment status was coded 1 for full-time and 2 for part-time. Cronbach's alpha is on the diagonal.

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 2

Fit Indices for both Antecedents and Outcomes Measurement Models

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	SCF	$\Delta\chi^2_{SB}$	Δ_{df}
Antecedents									
1. Four-factor model	2597.41	896	.05	.05	.92	.91	1.408	---	---
2. Three-factor model (COI, AS, and OD = 1 factor)	8056.60	901	.10	.12	.64	.63	1.425	1749.68***	5
3. Three-factor model (CI, COI, and AS = 1 factor)	8372.70	901	.10	.14	.63	.61	1.410	4607.75***	5
4. Two-factor model (CI and COI = 1 factor; AS and OD = 1 factor)	8556.74	901	.10	.15	.62	.60	1.424	1987.24***	5
5. One-factor model	11917.45	902	.12	.17	.45	.43	1.421	3948.91***	6
Outcomes									
1. Four-factor model	891.83	146	.08	.05	.93	.92	1.273	---	---
2. Three-factor model (JS, EE, and AC = 1 factor)	3618.29	151	.16	.11	.69	.65	1.288	2042.33***	5
3. Three-factor model (JS, EE, and TI = 1 factor)	3273.69	151	.15	.10	.72	.69	1.311	1304.02***	5
4. Two-factor model (JS and EE = 1 factor; AC and TI = 1 factor)	3438.33	151	.16	.11	.71	.67	1.313	1362.04***	5
5. One-factor model	4207.11	152	.17	.11	.64	.60	1.333	1601.42***	6

Note. N = 884. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; SCF = scaling correction factor; $\Delta\chi^2_{SB}$ = strictly positive Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test; CI = customer incivility; COI = coworker incivility; AS = abusive supervision; OD = organizational dehumanization; JS = job satisfaction; EE = emotional exhaustion; AC = affective commitment; TI = turnover intentions.

***$p < .001$.

Table 3

Fit Statistics from the Latent Profile Analysis Models

Number of profiles	LL	FP	AIC	CAIC	BIC	SSA-BIC	Entropy	aLMR (*p*)	BLRT (*p*)
1	-3019.305	4	6046.610	6069.748	6065.747	6053.044	-	-	-
2	-2982.384	7	5978.768	6019.259	6012.259	5990.029	0.632	< .001	< .001
3	-2958.727	10	5937.454	5995.299	5985.298	5953.540	0.753	< .001	< .001
4	-2938.582	13	5903.164	5978.362	5965.362	5924.076	0.767	< .001	< .001
5	-2931.799	16	5895.597	5988.149	5972.148	5921.336	0.765	.075	.01
6	-2919.625	19	5877.251	5987.155	5968.155	5907.815	0.736	.004	< .001
7	-2915.030	22	5874.060	6001.318	5979.318	5909.451	0.741	.328	.140
8	-2905.215	25	5860.430	6005.041	5980.041	5900.647	0.759	.046	< .001

Note. LL = loglikelihood; FP = free parameters; AIC = akaike information criteria; CAIC = constant AIC; BIC = bayesian information criteria; SSA-BIC = sample size adjusted BIC; aLMR = adjusted Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio; BLRT = bootstrapped likelihood ratio test.

Table 4

The Three-Step Procedure Results for Antecedents (R3STEP)

First profile vs. Second profile	Low vs. Surf	Reg vs. Surf	Deep vs. Surf	Non vs. Surf	Low vs. Deep	Reg vs. Deep	Non vs. Deep	Reg vs. Low	Non vs. Low	Non vs. Reg
Customer incivility	-0.346	0.082	-1.033**	-1.256**	0.910**	1.338***	0.223	0.428**	-0.687***	-1.114***
Coworker incivility	0.136	0.301	-0.471	-1.431	1.567	1.732	0.960	0.165	-0.607	-0.772^{+}
Abusive supervision	0.512	0.377	0.479	1.270	-0.758	-0.892	-0.790	-0.135	-0.033	0.102
Organizational dehumanization	-2.279*	-1.539	-2.299*	-2.945**	0.667*	1.407**	0.647	0.740**	-0.020	-0.760*

Note. All values are estimate from the multinomial logistic regressions. Positive (negative) values indicate that a person is more likely to be in the first (second) profile when having high values on the antecedent; Low = low actors; Reg = regulators; Deep = deep actors; Non = non-actors; Surf = surface actors.

$^{+}p < .06$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 5

Factor Scores Means Comparison for Outcomes across Latent Profiles

	Surf (1)	Reg (2)	Low (3)	Non (4)	Deep (5)	*F*	Significant Differences
Job satisfaction	-1.087	-0.414	0.027	0.515	0.761	52.08***	1 < 2 < 3 < 4 = 5
Affective commitment	-1.105	-0.257	0.007	0.361	0.762	37.10***	1 < 2 < 3 < 4 = 5
Emotional exhaustion	0.957	0.687	-0.039	-0.751	-1.149	68.77***	1 = 2 > 3 > 4 > 5
Turnover intentions	0.783	0.611	-0.061	-0.688	-0.629	28.88***	1 = 2 > 3 > 4 = 5

Note. All values are standardized means. Surf = surface actors; Reg = regulators; Low = low actors; Non = non-actors; Deep = deep actors. Angle brackets (equal sign) indicate profiles that are (not) significantly different at $p < .05$.

***$p < .001$.

Table 6

Characteristics of the Present Study and Gabriel et al.'s (2015) Research

Design facet	Gabriel et al. (2015)	The present study
Participants		
Gender	69.3% (59.2%) of women in sample 1 (sample 2)	60% of women
Age	29.42 (38.8) years old in sample 1 (sample 2)	36.57 years old
Nationality	American (sample 1) / Singaporean (sample2)	Mostly British
Position	Diverse service industry sectors (sample 1 and 2)	Diverse jobs and organizations
Emotional labor construct	Surface acting and deep acting	Same
IV construct	Display rules, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, customer orientation, and emotional demands-abilities	Customer incivility, coworker incivility, abusive supervision, and organizational dehumanization
DV construct	Job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion Inauthenticity	Same Affective commitment and turnover intentions
Variables operationalization	Self-reported questionnaire	Same
Data analysis		
Profiles	Latent profile analysis	Same
Antecedents	R3STEP	Same
Outcomes	DCON	ANOVA
Results		
Profiles	Surface actors (1), regulators (2), low actors (3), non-actors (4), and deep actors (5)	Same
Outcomes	Job satisfaction (sample 1): $1 < 2 < 3 < 4 < 5$ Job satisfaction (sample 2): $1 < 2 < 4 = 5 < 3$ Emotional exhaustion (sample 1): $5 = 4 = 3 < 2 < 1$ Emotional exhaustion (sample 2): $4 < 5 = 3 < 2 = 1$	Job satisfaction: $1 < 2 < 3 < 4 = 5$ Emotional exhaustion: $5 < 4 < 3 < 2 = 1$

Note. IV = independent variable; DV = dependent variable.

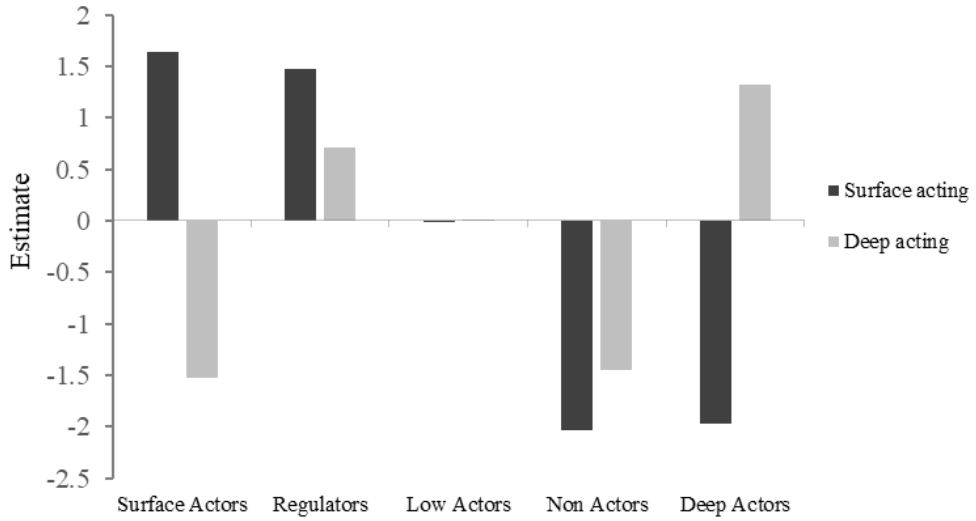


Figure 1. Prototypical profiles of emotional labor actors. Qualitative and quantitative distinctions.

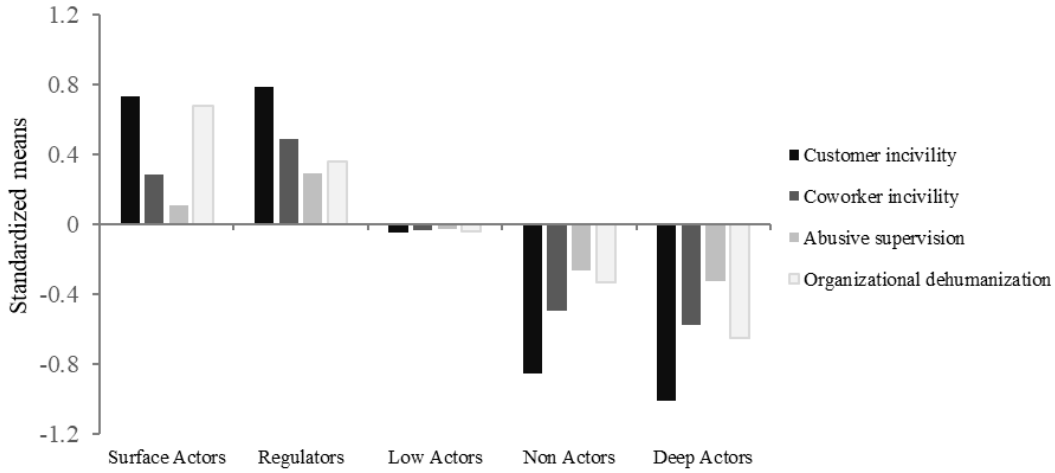


Figure 2. Standardized means of antecedents by latent profile.

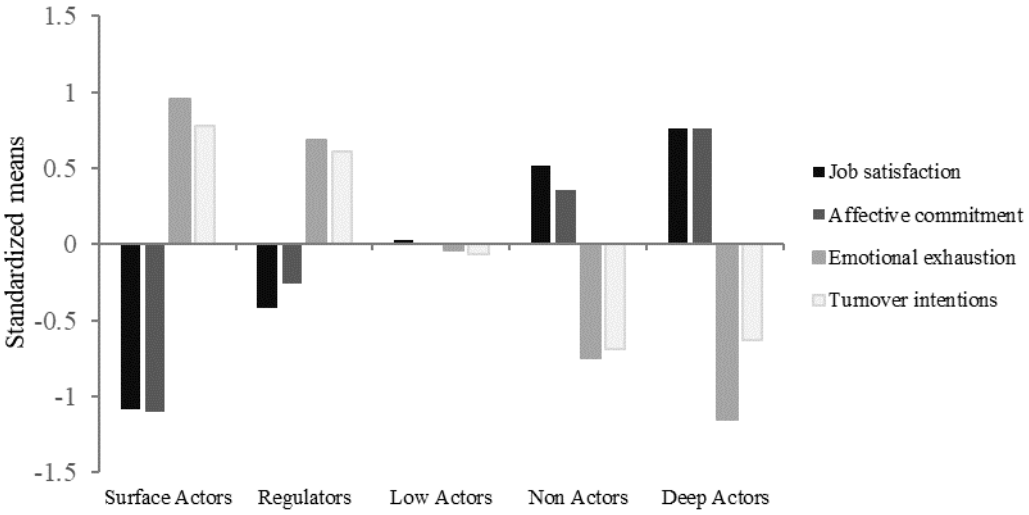


Figure 3. Standardized means of outcomes by latent profile.