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WHY EMOTION AT WORK MATTERS: EXAMINING THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON WORKPLACE BEHAVIOURS AMONG SERVICE WORKERS IN EAST MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

Using the emotion regulation theory as an analytical framework, this paper investigates the direct effects of emotional labour and emotional intelligence on two workplace behaviours, i.e. organisational citizenship behaviour and deviant workplace behaviour. It also explores how these path linkages could be moderated by emotional intelligence. Data were gathered via survey questionnaires on 205 service employees and their co-workers in East Malaysia. The results show that emotional labour and emotional intelligence significantly influenced the two workplace behaviours in the expected directions. Emotional intelligence was also found to significantly moderate the relationship between emotional labour and deviant behaviour, but not that of emotional labour and organisational citizenship behaviour. Finally, theoretical, managerial and future research implications are included.

Keywords: emotional labour, emotional intelligence, organisational citizenship behaviour, deviant workplace behaviour, service sector

INTRODUCTION

The role of the service sector is becoming increasingly important in the global economy and in the growth and development of countries (UNCTAD, 2013). Dihel (2012) statistics indicate higher contribution of growth in the service sector to poverty reduction than the contribution of growth in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors. Similarly, World Development Indicators show that this sector accounted for almost 71% of global GDP in 2010 and experienced faster expansion than that of the agriculture and manufacturing sectors (UNCTAD Handbook of Statistics, 2012). Other sources suggest that since the 1980s trade in

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services is growing at a pace faster than trade in goods (World Trade Organization [WTO], 2012). On the Malaysian front, the service sector accounted for 53.5% of the GDP in 2014 (Department of Statistics, 2014). The sector remained as the primary source of employment with some 8.4 million employees engaged in service work representing 60.9% of total employment (Department of Statistics, 2014). Broadly speaking, service workers are those in service occupations in a variety of areas including food service, customer service, and social service. Under the 11th Malaysia Plan (2016–2020), the service sector is expected to grow at 6.8% per annum, contributing to 56.5% to the GDP in 2020 while providing 9.3 million jobs (Economic Planning Unit, 2014). The service sector has also demonstrated relative resilience in financial and economic crises in terms of lower magnitude of decline, less synchronicity across countries and earlier recovery from the crises (UNCTAD, 2013). With such resilience coupled with its multifaceted contribution and rapid expansion, it is unsurprising that the services-driven development strategy has been reinforced within a coherent and comprehensive policy framework under the 11th Malaysia Plan (2016–2020). This is a timely move as the service sector has experienced a rapid change of organisational environments in recent years. In the face of this change, Choi and Kim (2015) contend that now service workers have to perform not only official works but also non-task behaviours, otherwise known as discretionary behaviours or organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Choi and Kim (2015) opine that organisational dynamism and competitiveness will deteriorate if employees perform only official works, hence reiterating the growing importance of the performance of non-task behaviours among service workers.

Against this backdrop, it is deemed worthwhile to investigate the factors that can influence the performance of non-task behaviours within the context of the service sector. One potential factor is the concept of emotional labour (EL) which is a critical aspect of many service jobs (particularly in high- to medium-contact contexts) (Yeomans, 2010), whereby employees interact with customers, coworkers and the public. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) defined EL as the process of regulating and managing workplace emotion in accordance to organisational goals which typically require the display of only socially desirable (or positive) emotions. Available empirical evidence suggests that positive emotions contribute to positive outcomes such as OCB and job satisfaction (Bagozzi, 2003; Mahamad, 2014; Tsai, 2001). On the other hand, negative emotions can result in negative outcomes such as turnover, emotional dissonance, and deviant workplace behaviour (DWB) (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000; Zapf, 2002). Simply put, the management of workplace emotions or EL can result in workplace behaviours which can contribute to the organisation or by contrast, behaviours that can detract from the organisation. Valued behaviours such as OCB in aggregate promote the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988). The reverse would be true for deviant behaviours. In a similar vein, Hartline and Ferrell (1996) contend that employees'

behaviours during service encounter can in turn influence service quality, customer satisfaction, loyalty and behavioural intentions. Attention to all these aspects is thus paramount in any service industry. Given that, examining these two workplace behaviours in the context of the service sector is clearly warranted.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is another factor which can possibly influence the performance of non-task behaviours among service workers. EI plays a crucial role in the management of emotions (Harvey and Dasborough, 2006), leading us to surmise that it is a relevant construct to be studied alongside the performance of EL among service workers. Many authors (e.g. Harvey and Dasborough, 2006; Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015; Totterdell and Holman, 2003) have affirmed that people who have high EI can better manage their emotions, and as such are more likely to demonstrate positive behaviours such as OCB. The expectation is that an employee performing more of valued behaviours such as OCB would also perform less of deviant behaviours (Harvey and Dasborough, 2006). Both EL and EI constructs have recently gained attention in the promotion of more productive employee behaviours (Ramachandran et al., 2011). However, researchers are still left with the task of integrating the influence of emotions at work within a more comprehensive model. A meta-analysis paper by Han and Altman (2010) reveals that past empirical studies on the antecedents of OCB have tended to focus on six categories: (1) employees' characteristics, (2) leadership behaviours, (3) task characteristics, (4) team/group characteristics, (5) organisational characteristics, and (6) human resource management characteristics. As is evident, the relevance of EL and EI in the context of non-task behaviours such as OCB and DWB has been largely overlooked. It should be mentioned that while some attention has been devoted to examining the influence of EL on OCB (e.g. Cote and Miners, 2006; Ramachandran et al., 2011; Salami, 2007), no known research has ascertained whether EL can similarly generate negative workplace behaviours such DWB. Also, the moderating role of EI in the relationship between EL and workplace behaviours remains unexplored.

In an attempt to address the literature gaps, the present study was undertaken to examine the relationships between EL, EI and two contrasting workplace behaviours (i.e., OCB and DWB). In addition, the study explored how these path linkages could be moderated by EI. The proposed model can help deepen our understanding of the importance of EL, EI, OCB and DWB in service settings. To test the proposed model, a two-stage approach (Chin, Marcolin and Newsted, 2003) in conjunction with the partial least squares (PLS) technique was employed. The findings offer both theoretical and practical values. The theoretical contribution comes in the form of enhanced understanding of the relationships between EL, EI, and workplace behaviours.

On a practical level, the understanding of EL and EI's influence on the service workers' enactment of OCB and DWB may be helpful in predicting their future behaviours toward the firm so that necessary measures can be taken to

enhance valued workplace behaviours and at the same mitigate counterproductive behaviours. For example, if EL results in the enactment of DWB, the management must take cognizance of the fact that EL can also result in detrimental outcomes such as the performance of DWB. Thus, conscious efforts must be taken to minimise or eliminate the effects. In light of Choi and Kim's (2015) claim that the performance of OCB is key to organisational dynamism and competitiveness, the study can also provide useful statistical data on the factors that can promote OCB among workers in the Malaysian service sector. Finally, by examining the relationships in a non-western context (i.e. Malaysia), we hope to confirm the generalisability of workplace emotions beyond western organisational contexts.

This paper will first discuss the theory and concept of EL. Next, it will review existing literature which supports the theoretical model and the hypothesised relationships. Then the methodology of the study is presented. The paper concludes with a discussion on the findings, limitations and suggestions for future research.

EMOTIONAL LABOUR: THEORY AND PRACTICE

Hochschild (1983) was the first to document the salience of EL in everyday work roles. Since her seminal work, EL has become one area of emotion research which garners increasing attention (Hochschild, 1983; Morris and Feldman, 1996). Not surprisingly, numerous studies (e.g. Ang and Poh, 2013; Grandey, 2000; Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Mahamad, 2014; Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015) have proliferated the EL literature by providing theoretical and empirical support for EL as being a central part of everyday work life for many employees, and how emotions are managed by employees in order to improve work outcomes (Grandey, 2000). These past studies examined emotional labourers among flight attendants (Hochschild, 1989), nurses (Smith, 1992), Disneyland employees (Van Maanen and Kunda, 1989), paralegals (Lively, 2000; Pierce, 1999), police detectives (Stenross and Kleinman, 1989), magistrates (Anlue and Mack, 2005), beauty therapists (Sharma and Black, 2001), and fast food workers (Leidner, 1993). Recently, scholars (e.g. Taylor and Tyler, 2000) acknowledged that emotional labour is present at different hierarchical levels and among many occupational groups. Clearly, the EL theory will continue to develop through the examination of various occupations and industries.

Varying definitions of the EL concept can be found in the literature. For example, Morris and Feldman (1996) view EL as the effort, planning, and control needed to express organisationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions. Taking this definition a bit further, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) posit that EL involves the expression of socially desirable emotions associated with service work that requires employees to display a variety of emotions of

varying degrees of intensity. Hochschild (1983), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Grandey (2000) express similar views such that emotion at work is an integral part of the task for service jobs. However, Yeomans (2010) contends that the EL theory transcends the service sector by being relevant to all occupations that (1) require a high level of emotion management, (2) are gendered, and (3) are part of a service industry, including professional services.

Morris and Feldman (1996) accentuate the significance of EL by positing that emotional displays have become "a marketplace commodity," and are an important part of the customer service jobs. Many organisations in fact stipulate how emotions should be presented to others through the use of emotional display rules (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003). Hence, emotions at work are managed in response to the display rules to meet the organisation's aim (Ekman and Friesen, 1975; Hochschild, 1983). Display rules are standards of behaviour that govern which emotions are appropriate to be displayed when interacting with customers (Ekman, 1973). The basic idea of display rule is that the organisations expect employees to display required emotions as part of their work role. The adherence to display rules is considered as a part of product in nearly all service jobs (Hochschild, 1983). It follows that the service sector is characterised by an organisational setting that requires the "display of good cheer" (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987) in which emotional expressions are often enforced through supervisory monitoring and customer evaluations (Fuller and Smith, 1996; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989).

The aforementioned raises the question, "How do service workers manage their emotions to comply with organisational display rules?" According to Gross (1989; 1998a) and Grandey (2000), employees can use several strategies to regulate their workplace emotions such as redirecting their attention toward the desired affect or by cognitively changing the meaning of the situation. The emotion regulation theory that was developed by Gross (1989; 1998a) and Grandey (2000) refers to the effort individuals apply in order to monitor and alter their experience and expression of emotional states. Hence, regardless of their true feelings and emotions, employees must regulate their expressions and felt emotions to conform to the display requirements. To elaborate, service workers are encouraged to show smiles and good humor when interacting with customers or clients. These workers may adopt different strategies to regulate their emotions in order to comply with organisational demands. In doing so, they engage in emotional labouring which may involve enhancing, faking, or suppressing emotions to change the emotional expression (Grandey, 2000) to something positive and desirable.

The different techniques of emotion regulation among service workers in turn resulted in a number of differing conceptualisations of EL, ranging from two dimensions (e.g. Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002) to four dimensions (e.g. Morris and Feldman, 1996). Drawing support from Grandey (2000), this paper adopts the employee-focused EL which consists of two techniques of regulating

emotions i.e. *surface acting* and *deep acting* (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2000). When workers engage in surface acting, they hide their real feelings while displaying fake facial and bodily signs of emotion even without actually feeling them (Grandey, 2000). This is why surface acting is also known as emotional dissonance (Grandey, 2000). However, when workers manage to regulate and experience their emotions to be the same as (or as close as possible to) those emotions required by organisational display rules, they are said to engage in deep acting. Seen in this light, deep acting is emotional regulation (Grandey, 2000). Grandey (2000) contends that these two processes alone can be used to operationalise EL as they can result in both positive and negative outcomes. Moreover, by adopting a two-dimensional EL, we can link this model to an established model of regulation (Gross, 1998a) that can consequently facilitate expansion of this research area.

THE THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

As mentioned earlier, how emotions are regulated and expressed in organisational settings can greatly affect both organisational and employee outcomes. In reviewing the EL literature, Choi and Kim (2015) similarly reported negative and positive consequences of EL for individuals and organisations. They thus concurred with Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) metaphorisation of EL as a doubled-edged sword. Pugh (2001), for example, reported a positive association between employees' display of positive emotions and customers' evaluation of service quality. Emotional expression has also been found to influence customer mood (Luong, 2005), customer willingness to return and spread positive comments to others about the organisation (Tsai, 2001; Tsai and Huang, 2002), and customer overall satisfaction with the organisation (Mattila and Enz, 2002). EL is also important to organisations because it can predict the reflection of employees' performance in a variety of jobs (Beal et al., 2006; Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Grandey, 2003; Pugh, 2001). Other studies (e.g. Noraini and Masyitah, 2011; Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015) have shown that EL can significantly influence employees' outcomes which include job satisfaction, burnout, turnover intention and emotional exhaustion.

Negative emotional reactions have been found to result in a wide array of undesirable employee outcomes such as tension, turnover, decreased productivity and even workplace violence (Ang et al., 2010; Bagozzi, 2003; Chu, 2002; Noraini and Masyitah, 2011; Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015). However, no known research has ascertained whether EL can similarly generate negative workplace behaviours such as DWB even though the influence of emotional labouring on positive workplace behaviours such as OCB has been reported in several studies (e.g. Cote and Miners, 2006; Ramachandran et al., 2011; Salami, 2007).

Within the emotion regulation framework (Grandey, 2000), this paper aims to propose a model to bridge the gap by looking at the impact of EL on employees' performance of OCB and DWB. In this context, an important social psychological theoretical underpinning of the proposed model comes from the concept of emotional regulation (Cote and Miners, 2006; Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998b). Emotional regulation refers to "the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b: 275). A specific type of emotion regulation is EL (Cote and Miners, 2006). Emotional regulation also encompasses a broader set of behaviours. Extending this idea to the service encounter domain, service workers' emotional labour and emotional intelligence, as a focal point of interest in a customer exchange, are likely to influence their likelihood to engage in discretionary or non-task behaviours such as OCB and DWB.

The Influence of Emotional Labour on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Deviant Workplace Behaviour

When employees are willing to go beyond the formal specifications of job roles, they are said to exhibit extra-role behaviours (Organ, 1990; Tepper, Lockhart and Hoobler, 2001). These are important; but among these behaviours, OCB is the most widely studied form (Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995) in cross-cultural research (e.g. Han and Altman, 2010; Lam, Schaubroeck and Aryee, 2002). OCB can be defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not direct or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988: 4). This means that such behaviour is beyond the scope of job duties. The behaviour can be differentiated depending on whether the beneficiary is directed toward individuals (OCBI), such as assisting coworkers with their problems, or toward the organization (OCBO) such as working extra hours (Williams and Anderson, 1991). The role of OCB has recently gained renewed interest in the service industry (Ramachandran et al., 2011). This is hardly surprising because OCB has been found to relate to desirable outcomes such as superior service quality (Yoon and Suh, 2003), organisational performance and efficiency (Lee and Allen, 2002).

However, when normal work behaviour goes outside the norms of the organisations, the outcomes are rather contrary. Not only are the consequences of antisocial behaviours grave, but they are also far-reaching and can affect all levels of the organisation including its decision-making process, productivity and financial costs (Srivastava, 2012). Such harmful and toxic behaviours are termed as DWB. The management of DWB is one of the growing concerns in organisations globally because as noted earlier negative behaviours can be detrimental to organisational financial well-being (Appelbaum, Iaconi and

Matousek, 2007). Thus, it is worthwhile to empirically ascertain whether the performance of EL in service settings can lead to workplace behaviours like OCB and DWB.

As mentioned earlier, positive emotions in the workplace or EL are likely to encourage employees to exhibit positive work behaviours such as OCB. For example, Ramachandran et al. (2011) posit that higher level of positive emotion displays can help generate OCB. Previous studies by Cote and Miners (2006) as well as Arshadi and Danesh (2013) similarly revealed a link between EL and OCB. On the basis of these findings, it is reasonable to surmise that the reverse could be true such that negative emotions can increase the performance of negative workplace behaviours. The following hypotheses are thus formulated:

H_1 : EL positively influences OCB.

H_2 : EL negatively influences DWB.

The next sections will discuss how EI operates within the context of emotional labour performance and workplace behaviours. Specifically, how EI can directly influence OCB and DWB, and whether it can also act as a buffering mechanism to mitigate the negative impact of emotional labour.

The Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Deviant Workplace Behaviour

Emotional intelligence is an area of emotional research that has been heavily researched since the early 1900s (Prati, 2004). According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), EI is the ability to accurately perceive emotions, use emotions to facilitate thoughts, understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and reflectively regulate emotions. Wong and Law (2002: 244) expand this definition by defining EI as "a set of interrelated abilities possessed by individuals to deal with emotions" which can be grouped under four distinct dimensions namely:

1. Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self (Self-emotional appraisal, SEA). This concerns an individual's ability to understand her deep emotions and to be able to express emotions naturally. An individual who has good ability in this area will sense and acknowledge her emotions better than most individuals.
2. Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (Others' emotional appraisal, OEA). This relates to an individual's ability to perceive and understand the emotions of the people around her. An individual who rates highly in this ability will be much more sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others as well as is more adept at reading others' emotional responses.

3. Regulation of emotion in the self (regulation of emotion, ROE). This refers to the ability of a person to regulate her emotions, enabling a more rapid recovery from psychological distress. An individual with high ability in this area would be able to return quickly to normal psychological states after rejoicing or being upset. Such a person has better control of her emotions and is also less likely to lose her temper.
4. Use of emotion to facilitate performance (use of emotion, UOE). This concerns the ability of an individual to utilise her emotions to enhance personal performance. An individual who is highly capable in this dimension is able to encourage herself to do better continuously. She is able to direct her emotions in positive and productive directions.

Based on the foregoing discussions, it can be surmised that an individual with high EI levels is thus better able to assimilate emotions in others' facial expressions and body languages, use past experience to determine which emotions best facilitate thinking in a particular situation, analyse emotions to understand their probable outcomes, and have an awareness to regulate emotions in oneself and others (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2004). Seen in this light, it is plausible to assume that EI will have significant associations with employee workplace behaviours in that individuals with high EI will tend to exhibit positive workplace behaviours such as OCB. Previous studies (e.g. Wong and Law, 2002) have provided empirical support for this relationship. It is also reasonable to postulate that low EI employees are likely to engage in DWB when compared to their high EI counterparts. Hence:

H_3 : EL positively influences OCB.

H_4 : EI negatively influences DWB.

In the context of emotional labouring, Grandey (2000) argues that EI is a key variable which reflects individual differences in terms of the levels of emotional labour actors employ at work. This is because EI helps employees to comprehend and manage sentiments and emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Given that, we contend that EI is central in the management of emotions in the workplace such that it may act as a buffer mechanism in decreasing the dysfunctional effects of EL such as DWB. Johnson (2004) found that as the performance of EL increased, individuals with high EI actually fared better than those with low EI. Employees with low EI have been reported to experience more negative outcomes when EL levels escalated (Johnson, 2004; Johnson and Spector, 2007). In a Malaysian study (Ang and Poh, 2013), EI was found to moderate the relationships between EL and job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and intention to quit. Salami (2007) similarly reported the moderating

effect of EI on the relationship between EL and OCB. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H_5 : EI significantly moderates the relationship between EL and OCB such that the influence of EL on OCB increases as the level of EI increases.

H_6 : EI significantly moderates the relationship between EL and DWB such that the influence of EL on DWB decreases as the level of EI increases.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

The sampling frame was developed by drawing upon every fifth company in the list of service organisations found in the Malaysian Employer Directory (Ministry of Human Resources, 2010) for Sabah and Labuan F. T. This systematic sampling method resulted in a list of 318 organisations in various service industries that include educational services, hospitality, wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance and real estate, recreation and information. The focus on diverse service organisations was intended as a response to research calls. Past EL studies have tended to examine specific service contexts such as hotels, restaurants and hospitals separately, resulting in a myopic focus. Thus, research calls have been issued to expand the focus to cover varying service contexts (e.g. Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Hartel, Ashkanasy and Zerbe, 2011). To this end, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 20) raise a pertinent point: "What other insights might be gained were future investigators to examine the experiences of service occupational contexts separately rather than combining them into the more generic category of people work (e.g. service, sales, caring professions)"? The basis for such contention is that varying contexts differ in their emphasis on search, experience and credence properties (Zeithaml, 1981), thus providing greater variability and range which in turn allows for a more robust assessment of model relationships (Bove et al., 2009).

Prior to actual data collection, we first ascertained the organisations' willingness to participate in the study. Then we sent out a total of 100 drop-and-collect surveys (Walker, 1976) and 200 e-mail surveys. Both surveys contained the same elements, which were a cover letter and two sets of questionnaire. Besides providing the assurance of confidentiality, the cover letter also reminded the contact persons to give the questionnaires to frontline employees who deal regularly and substantially with customers. This is to ensure that only service workers in high- to medium contacts who made up the units of analysis were

included in the sample. Simply put, respondents should perform a considerable amount of emotional labour (measured by frequency and intensity) in carrying out their daily work tasks and in their interactions with customers. In fact, two items gauging the level of EL are included in the first part of the questionnaire so as to distinguish these employees from those with no or low contacts with customers. Via this purposive sampling technique, we subsequently managed to obtain data from a total of 205 service workers of which the number ranged from 25 to 122 in each service organisation. As shown in Table 1, the sample was 111 (54.1%) female and the majority of them noted that they were indigenous people of Sabah (Bumiputera Sabah) (85 or 41.5%). Their jobs ranged from hotel workers to travel agents. The mean age and time in present job were 35.6 years (*SD* = 2.3 years) and 4.12 years (*SD* = 0.9 years), respectively.

Table 1: Respondents' profile

Demographic variable	Category	(N = 205) Frequency	%
Gender	Male	94	45.9
	Female	111	54.1
Age	Below 25 years	61	29.8
	25–35 years	69	33.7
	36–45 years	49	23.9
	46–55 years	18	8.8
	More than 55 years	8	3.9
Ethnicity	**Bumiputra Sabah*	85	41.5
	**Bumiputra Sarawak*	32	15.6
	Malay	47	22.9
	Chinese	29	14.2
	Indian	7	3.4
	Other	5	2.4
Industry	Wholesale and retail trade	22	10.7
	Health care and social assistance	13	6.3
	Accommodation and food services	23	11.2
	Professional, scientific and technical services	53	25.9

(*continued on next page*)

Table 1: (*continued*)

Demographic variable	Category	(N = 205) Frequency	%
	Educational services	22	10.7
	Finance, insurance, real estate and leasing	10	4.9
	Transportation, culture and warehousing	36	17.6
	Business, building and other services	23	11.2
	Other	3	1.5
Organisational Tenure	≤ 12 months	53	25.9
	13–36 months	61	29.8
	37–72 months	45	22
	≥ 73 months	46	22.4

*Note: *Indigenous peoples of Sabah and Sarawak.*

Measures

The first set of questionnaire was designed for the employee respondents, whereas the second set was for their co-workers. Specifically, the first questionnaire required the service employees to assess their performance of emotional labour at work. Information on demographics and emotional intelligence was also obtained. The emotional labour scale which has six items was adopted from Brotheridge and Lee (2003). An example item reads: "I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job." Emotional intelligence, on the other hand, is defined by a 16-item scale by Wong and Law (2002). This scale gauges individual differences in the ability to identify and regulate emotions in the self and others. For example, "I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others."

The second set of questionnaire asked co-workers to gauge the employees' performance of OCB and DWB. We prefer peer ratings over self-rated OCB and DWB for two reasons. The latter may result in social-desirability response bias or what Chattopadhyay (1999) refers to as "ceiling effect" whereby scores may cluster at the positive and negative ends of the scale. We also assume that co-workers are in a better position to assess employees' OCB and DWB enactment when compared to supervisors. This is because employees are likely to be more candid with their behaviours (whether good or bad) among peers. Conversely, they may tend to show only their good sides to their supervisor and/or those in authority (e.g. obeying company rules and regulations, actively participates in meetings, etc.).

The two dimensions of OCB i.e., OCBO and OCBI were assessed using 16 items (Lee and Allen, 2002). For example, "S(he) willingly gives his/her time

to help others who have work-related problems." On the other hand, a 19-item measure adopted from Bennett and Robinson (2000) was used to gauge DWB. An example item of this scale is: "S(he) has taken property from work without permission." Responses to individual items in all the scales were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale. On average, the employee respondents took about 35 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Whereas their co-workers answered the survey in approximately 20 minutes.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

To test the research model, we used a two-stage technique (Chin, Marcolin and Newsted, 2003) jointly with the partial least squares (PLS) approach for the following reasons. The feasibility of this approach has been demonstrated in past research (e.g. Chin, Marcolin and Newsted, 2003). Further, social science data tend to be measured with bias of which can have substantial impact on the correlations that researchers may make. PLS is thus arguably more reliable than other techniques such as regression which assumes error-free measurement (Lohmoller, 1989; Wold, 1985). Similarly, Chin, Marcolin and Newsted (2003) claim that the two-stage technique can result in more accurate estimates since it adequately deals with measurement bias by accounting for the measurement error in measures which accentuates the estimated relationships. More notably, the two-stage approach gives better estimation and detection of the interaction effect between quantitative (i.e. continuous) predictor and moderator variables (Chin, Marcolin and Newsted, 2003).

Given that the current study has both reflective and formative indicators, the testing of the measurement model for reflective indicators was performed first. For this, we examined convergent and discriminant validity as well as construct validity which demonstrates how well the measurement items relate to the constructs. Then, we proceeded to examine the measurement model for formative indicators by using multicollinearity and R^2 statistics. After testing the measurement model, we finally assessed the structural model by analysing all path linkages. The following sections discuss these procedures in greater detail.

The Measurement Model for Reflective Indicators

We used three indicators namely average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability, and factor loadings to assess convergent validity. The results in Table 2 show all AVE values to be well above the recommended value of 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), suggesting adequate convergent validity. Composite reliability values also indicate that all constructs exceed the recommended value of 0.70 (Hair et al, 2010). Similarly, Cronbach's alpha values for all constructs are acceptable as they meet the minimum threshold of 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 2: Reliability and convergent validity

	AVE	Composite reliability	Cronbach's alpha
SA	0.656	0.851	0.737
DA	0.706	0.878	0.791
OCBI	0.576	0.844	0.754
OCBO	0.593	0.897	0.862
DWB	0.673	0.892	0.838
ROE	0.672	0.891	0.837
SEA	0.688	0.869	0.774
UOE	0.693	0.871	0.778
OEA	0.664	0.855	0.747

Note: SA=Surface Acting; DA=Deep Acting; OCBI=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual; OCBO=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Organisation; DWB=Deviant Workplace Behaviour; ROE=Regulation of Emotions; SEA=Self-emotion Appraisal; UOE=Use of Emotions; OEA=Others' Emotions Appraisal.

As seen in Table 3, all items exhibited high loadings (in the range of 0.727 to 0.861) on the constructs they are measured, whilst no items loaded higher on constructs they are not intended to measure (Golicic, Fugate and Davis, 2012). Collectively, the above results confirm convergent validity of all constructs; in other words, all items are valid in measuring the constructs they are supposed to measure.

Table 3: Factor loadings and cross-loadings

	DA	**DB**	**UOE**	**ROE**	**SEA**	**AOE**	**OCBO**	**OCBI**	**SA**
DA1	**0.861**	0.026	0.213	0.135	0.076	0.289	0.106	0.156	0.223
DA2	**0.861**	0.051	0.172	0.157	0.122	0.265	0.106	0.077	0.278
DA3	**0.796**	0.030	0.158	0.237	0.207	0.227	0.213	0.159	0.337
DWB15	0.040	**0.808**	–0.271	–0.228	–0.182	–0.119	–0.055	0.058	0.180
DWB17	0.046	**0.860**	–0.207	–0.294	–0.190	–0.029	–0.067	0.014	0.157
DWB19	0.005	**0.830**	–0.186	–0.312	–0.199	–0.042	–0.103	–0.096	0.192
DWB9	0.047	**0.782**	–0.313	–0.329	–0.342	–0.101	–0.121	–0.056	0.063
EI10	0.230	–0.162	**0.808**	0.492	0.390	0.524	0.299	0.172	0.018
EI11	0.230	–0.218	**0.872**	0.531	0.418	0.547	0.341	0.230	0.048
EI12	0.085	–0.363	**0.816**	0.506	0.435	0.500	0.292	0.269	0.036
EI13	0.204	–0.283	0.551	**0.842**	0.459	0.484	0.253	0.315	0.071

(continued on next page)

Table 3: (*continued*)

	DA	DB	UOE	ROE	SEA	AOE	OCBO	OCBI	SA
EI14	0.166	–0.334	0.572	**0.825**	0.385	0.481	0.208	0.230	0.026
EI15	0.087	–0.217	0.411	**0.763**	0.333	0.352	0.121	0.166	0.073
EI16	0.225	–0.327	0.458	**0.845**	0.457	0.397	0.173	0.203	0.070
EI2	0.133	–0.226	0.405	0.360	**0.827**	0.329	0.168	0.166	0.042
EI3	0.102	–0.215	0.375	0.388	**0.835**	0.333	0.155	0.193	0.058
EI4	0.167	–0.266	0.454	0.490	**0.826**	0.392	0.154	0.207	0.117
EI6	0.244	–0.121	0.555	0.438	0.339	**0.843**	0.290	0.160	0.137
EI7	0.212	–0.120	0.481	0.387	0.397	**0.795**	0.293	0.156	0.152
EI8	0.306	0.034	0.497	0.467	0.303	**0.805**	0.281	0.111	0.225
OCB10	0.082	–0.214	0.333	0.216	0.164	0.242	**0.791**	0.431	–0.029
OCB11	0.190	–0.023	0.239	0.183	0.062	0.256	**0.748**	0.271	–0.047
OCB12	0.218	–0.073	0.303	0.205	0.220	0.372	**0.768**	0.340	0.045
OCB13	0.115	–0.069	0.313	0.186	0.256	0.319	**0.810**	0.478	0.110
OCB15	0.094	–0.022	0.314	0.202	0.136	0.282	**0.727**	0.383	0.049
OCB16	0.105	–0.085	0.222	0.099	0.038	0.171	**0.771**	0.503	0.022
OCB2	0.054	–0.155	0.270	0.274	0.223	0.138	0.329	**0.707**	0.213
OCB3	0.240	0.041	0.213	0.234	0.180	0.102	0.368	**0.747**	0.107
OCB4	0.085	–0.064	0.165	0.176	0.129	0.114	0.401	**0.775**	0.138
OCB5	0.097	0.072	0.189	0.189	0.171	0.177	0.486	**0.803**	0.257
SA1	0.321	0.091	0.091	0.067	0.045	0.172	0.053	0.120	**0.771**
SA2	0.293	0.196	–0.066	–0.033	0.026	0.087	–0.015	0.196	**0.847**
SA3	0.199	0.136	0.085	0.150	0.152	0.252	0.050	0.263	**0.810**

Note: SA=Surface Acting; DA=Deep Acting; OCB=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; DWB=Deviant Workplace Behaviour; EI=Emotional Intelligence.

To ascertain discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE from the construct should be greater than the correlations shared between that constructs and others in the model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 4 compares the correlations among the constructs with the square root of the AVE (which appear diagonally in the table). The values of the square root of the AVE are not only greater than the inter-construct correlations, but are also greater than the recommended value of 0.707 (Lee and Kozar, 2008), leading us to safely conclude that all constructs exhibit acceptable discriminant validity.

Table 4: Latent variable correlation matrix

	OEA	DA	DWB	OCBI	OCBO	ROE	SA	SEA	UOE
OEA	***0.815***								
DA	0.309	***0.840***							
DWB	–0.090	0.043	***0.820***						
OCBI	0.177	0.156	–0.027	***0.759***					
OCBO	0.354	0.171	–0.108	0.527	***0.770***				
ROE	0.527	0.212	–0.357	0.283	0.235	***0.819***			
SA	0.207	0.335	0.176	0.238	0.035	0.072	***0.810***		
SEA	0.426	0.163	–0.286	0.228	0.192	0.502	0.090	***0.829***	
UOE	0.629	0.215	–0.302	0.271	0.373	0.613	0.042	0.499	***0.833***

Note: SA=Surface Acting; DA=Deep Acting; OCBI=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual; OCBO=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Organisation; DWB=Deviant Workplace Behaviour; ROE=Regulation of Emotions; SEA=Self-emotion Appraisal; UOE=Use of Emotions; OEA=Others' Emotions Appraisal.

The Measurement Model for Formative Indicators

This study considers two measures in validating the dimensions capturing the high-order formative constructs. The first measure is that of multicollinearity which is considered as a viable method in determining the validity of formative constructs (Gholami et al., 2013). The second measure concerns R^2 value which suggests how much the variations in the high-order formative constructs are explained by the first-order factors. In turn, the R^2 value supports the content validity of the constructs (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001).

Table 5 reports collinearity statistics for higher-order formative constructs of EL, OCB and EI. First, EL is composed of surface acting and deep acting. Results indicate that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value is relatively lower than the threshold value of 10, suggesting that both sub-dimensions of surface acting and deep acting adequately capture EL as a whole. Similarly, the VIF values for OCBI and OCBO are comparatively lower than the threshold value of 10, implying that they explain OCB. On the same note, all first-order dimensions of EI have lower VIF values, which in turn reflect their appropriateness in measuring EI.

An examination of the R^2 value in Table 6 shows that 99.9% of the variations in the EL construct could be explained by surface acting and deep acting, further supporting its content validity. As for the OCB construct, 100% of its variations could be explained by its first-order factors (i.e. OCBI and OCBO). Similarly, R^2 value for EI suggests that 98.8% of the variations in the EI construct could be explained by its first-order factors, thus confirming the construct's content validity.

Table 5: Collinearity statistics for EL, OCB and EI (Overview of VIFs)

	Tolerance	VIF
Emotional Labour		
SA	0.887	1.127
DA	0.887	1.127
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour		
OCBI	0.722	1.385
OCBO	0.722	1.385
Emotional Intelligence		
ROE	0.552	1.812
SEA	0.682	1.467
UOE	0.474	2.109
OEA	0.566	1.768

Note: SA=Surface Acting; DA=Deep Acting; OCBI=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual; OCBO=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Organisation; ROE=Regulation of Emotions; SEA=Self-emotion Appraisal; UOE=Use of Emotions; OEA=Others' Emotions Appraisal.

Table 6: Item weights of first-order dimensions of the formative constructs

Formative Construct	First-Order Dimension	Item Weight	R^2
Emotional Labour	SA	0.723	0.999
	DA	0.489	
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	OCBI	0.448	1.000
	OCBO	0.688	
Emotional Intelligence	ROE	0.478	
	SEA	0.238	0.988
	UOE	0.321	
	OEA	–0.227	

Note: SA=Surface Acting; DA=Deep Acting; OCBI=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual; OCBO=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour-Organisation; ROE=Regulation of Emotions; SEA=Self-emotion Appraisal; UOE=Use of Emotions; OEA=Others' Emotions Appraisal.

The results of the measurement model examination collectively substantiate the reliability and validity of all the constructs in this study. The ensuing section turns to discussions on the testing of the structural model.

The Structural Model

Table 7 and Figure 1 present the results of the structural model testing. Two noteworthy indicators are the path coefficient and the coefficient of determination

(R^2 value). The path coefficient represents the strength of the relationship from one path to another, whereas the R^2 value is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy. The latter also represents the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by all the independent constructs linked to it.

Table 7 shows that, with the exception of one, all beta path coefficients are statistically significant (at $p < 0.01$; $p < 0.05$; $p < 0.10$) and in the expected directions. To elaborate, emotional labour was found to have significant influence on OCB ($b = .15$, $p < 0.01$) as well as DWB ($b = .21$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, *H1* and *H2* are supported. Similarly, the associations between EI and OCB ($b = .33$, $p < 0.01$) and DWB ($b = –.48$, $p < 0.05$) are statistically significant and in the expected directions. Hence, *H3 and H4* cannot be rejected.

Table 7: Results of the structural model testing

Pathway	Path Coefficient	t-value	Results
EL → OCB	0.154	2.481***	Sig.
EL → DWB	0.208	3.417***	Sig.
EI → OCB	0.331	6.048***	Sig.
EI → DWB	–0.478	7.268***	Sig.
EL*EI → OCB	–0.054	0.866	ns
EL*EI → DWB	–0.141	1.929**	Sig.

*Note: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p < 0.10; Sig.=Significant; ns=Not Significant; EL=Emotional Labour; EI=Emotional Intelligence; OCB=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; DWB=Deviant Workplace Behaviour.*

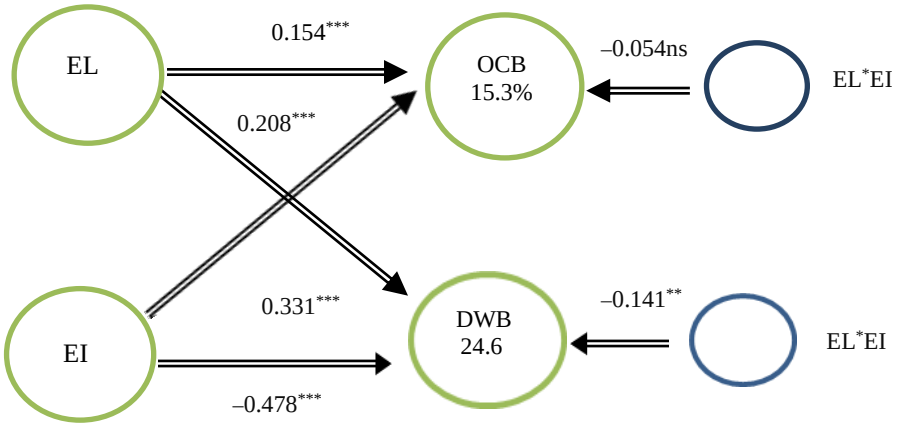

Figure 1: The structural model.

*Note: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p < 0.10; Sig.=Significant; ns=Not Significant.*

As for the moderated effects, EI was found to significantly moderate the relationship between EL and DWB ($b = –0.14$, $p < 0.05$), but not that of EL and OCB ($b = –0.05$, ns). Hence, only *H6* can be supported. We generated an interaction plot to better illustrate how the moderator (i.e. EI) changes the relationship between EL and DWB. The interpretation of this plot is done by looking at the gradient of the slopes. As seen in Figure 2, the line representing low EI appears to have a steeper gradient when compared to that of high EI. This suggests that the relationship between EL and DWB was stronger when EI is lower, whereas for those with high EI, the impact on the EL-DWB appeared to be weaker. The results also indicate a negative relationship between the interaction term and DWB.

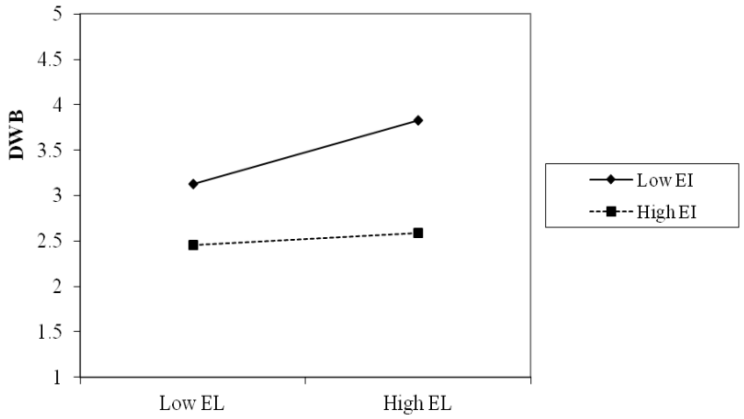

Figure 2: Interaction plot.

Finally, it should be noted that about 15.3% of the variance in OCB was accounted for by its explanatory constructs. On the other hand, the model explained about 24.6% of the variance in DWB.

DISCUSSION

By and large, the findings of this study are congruent with the extant literature (e.g. Ang and Poh, 2013; Bagozzi, 2003; Beal et al., 2006; Chu, 2002; Johnson, 2004; Johnson and Spector, 2007; Noraini and Masyitah, 2011; Ramachandran et al., 2011; Salami, 2007; Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015; Wong and Law, 2002). To elaborate, the study revealed that emotional labouring among service workers was consequential on the performance of OCB and DWB. The finding accentuates the importance for service organisations to be not only aware of but

to also acknowledge the emotional contribution employees put into their jobs (Ang et al., 2010; Ang and Poh, 2013; Chu, 2002).

Additionally, managers should promote the importance of EL, EI, and OCB to employees by creating a positive affective climate (Ramachandran et al., 2011) which supports emotional labouring to produce functional consequences such as OCB. At the same time, the dysfunctional effects of EL with regard to the performance of DWB (Choi and Kim, 2015) should be mitigated. This can be achieved by conducting stress management programs for the employees and/or allowing service employees to have more constant breaks in the workplace.

The study also found EI to significantly influence the engagement of OCB and DWB in the expected directions. These findings clearly indicate the value of hiring and having more emotionally intelligent service workers since they are more likely to engage in behaviours that benefit the organisation and less in behaviours that are detrimental to the organisation (Harvey and Dasborough, 2006; Totterdell and Holman, 2003). It is also interesting to note that EL and EI explained 15.3% and 24.6% of the variance in OCB and DWB, respectively. What this means is that EL and EI appear to be better predictors of DWB than of OCB, thus reiterating the importance of increased attention on the role of EL and EI in efforts to alleviate the engagement of deviant behaviours in service work.

As for the moderating role of EI in the relationship between EL and DWB, the finding supports the view of Harvey and Dasborough (2006) and Salami (2007) such that individuals with high levels of EI will exhibit fewer deviant behaviours than those with low levels of EI. Specifically, EI appears to decrease the effects of EL on DWB. This finding lends support for the presence of the buffering effect (Ang and Poh, 2013; Johnson and Spector, 2007), otherwise known as the "protective effects" (Santos, Mustafa and Terk, 2015) of EI. This thus affirms the central role of EI in the effective management and performance of emotions among service workers. To clarify, EI may mitigate the engagement of DWB (a detrimental outcome of EL performance) such as that the higher EI levels the service workers have, the less deleterious the effects of performing EL. This has noteworthy managerial implications in terms of selection, hiring, and training policies and practices. While the debate for whether EI can be trained or not, there are several training possibilities which can be explored (see Lindebaum, 2009).

On the contrary, EI did not significantly moderate the relationship between EL and OCB. The implication arising from this finding is that the role of EI as a moderator may be of little or no relevance at all in the case of OCB performance. This finding is inconsistent with that of Salami (2007). One plausible reason could be due to the varying conceptualisations of the constructs under study (Choi and Kim, 2015). It is likely that EL is best considered as a multidimensional construct rather than unidimensional as did this study. In this way, the moderating effect of EI on workplace behaviours could be better examined such that more light can be shed on how emotions are managed and

experienced via different strategies. For the same reason, breaking down OCB into more components may prove to be more helpful in understanding the hypothesised relationships.

Other limitations of the present study which can guide future research should also be highlighted. First, the study has drawn on a relatively small sample from East Malaysia. To better understand the processes and consequences of work emotions, statistical techniques used in this study should be replicated in future research rallying on data drawn from other regions of Malaysia. A larger sample can therefore enhance the generalisability of the findings in the Malaysian service sector. Second, causal relationships among the variables cannot be ascertained in a cross-sectional study like this one. Given such study design, there is also the possibility of endogeneity bias. Hence, a longitudinal study is strongly encouraged to minimise this potential bias, but more importantly so that the processes and consequences of EL can be better gauged over a period of time.

Another noteworthy limitation is that the R^2 values for the variance explained by EL and EI in OCB and DWB are rather low. The inclusion of other variables such as personality traits and work-life balance might help increase the explanatory power of the model and better reflect the intricacies of work emotions and the consequences. That being said, it should be added that low R^2 values are acceptable in social sciences research, as affirmed in a paper by Abelson (1985). Other researchers (e.g. Falk and Miller, 1992) similarly note that in social sciences, researchers are satisfied with statistically significant R^2 values as low as 0.2 or even lower.

CONCLUSION

Bearing in mind that workplace behaviours have direct implications on service quality, customer satisfaction and ultimately organisational success (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996), service organisations should be more cognizant of the significance and intricacies of work emotions. Specifically, these organisations should promote functional emotional labouring, EI and OCB to create a better service environment which in turn will increase customer satisfaction and service quality. In sum, given the growing pressures on business to improve competitiveness through enhanced service quality, EL, EI and workplace behaviours will remain an area worthy of future research.

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