A Daily Diary Study of the Relationships Between Job Insecurity, Emotional

Regulation, and Inauthenticity

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Abstract

Given the prevalence of job insecurity due to intensifying global labour market trends and, more recently, the coronavirus pandemic, researchers have devoted considerable attention to the myriad individual and organisational consequences of job insecurity. In the present daily diary study, we drew upon affective events theory and the emotional labour as emotional regulation model to argue that job insecurity, as an emotionally-charged event, will positively predict surface and deep acting through eliciting the affective response of worry. Surface and deep acting will, in turn, lead to differing amounts of felt inauthenticity. In addition, we propose that perceived organisational power will moderate the extent to which worry influences surface and deep acting behaviours. Hypotheses were tested using a daily diary design, in which 156 participants answered thrice daily questionnaires over five consecutive workdays. Multilevel analyses revealed that the previous evening's job insecurity positively predicted the next morning's worry, which correspondingly predicted afternoon surface acting (but not deep acting). Further, surface acting (but not deep acting) positively predicted felt inauthenticity on the same day and mediated the relationship between worry and felt inauthenticity. Additionally, perceived organisational power did not moderate the relationship between worry and surface/deep acting. Overall, our findings highlight that job insecurity is an emotionally charged event capable of generating an affective response, which shapes how employees regulate their emotions towards other organisational members. Further, we add to the emotional regulation literature by suggesting that surface acting between organisational members, triggered by job insecurity-elicited worry, has significant repercussions regarding felt inauthenticity.

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Even prior to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, the globalisation of work, rapid technological shifts, periods of economic instability, and frequent organisational changes (e.g., mergers, acquisitions, downsizing, and restructuring) were intensifying employee concerns about the security of their work (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Lee et al., 2018). As these trends continue to burgeon, job insecurity, being an individual's subjective concern towards the continued existence of their job or changes to certain job features (Shoss, 2017), has grown exponentially. As a result, job insecurity has become one of the most frequently studied workplace stressors, with a growing body of research highlighting the harmful effects of job insecurity on employee health and well-being, such as increased stress, anxiety and depression, and decreased job performance and satisfaction (De Witte et al., 2016; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Lee et al., 2018). However, there remains notably less focus on the interpersonal behavioural implications of job insecurity (Shoss, 2017). One important area that researchers have yet to explore is whether employees regulate their emotional expressions in response to job insecurity and its related affective responses.

The idea that individuals actively manipulate their emotional displays at work can be traced back to Hochschild's (1983) seminal work on emotional labour. Again, there has been considerable academic interest in emotional labour, with research primarily focused on two distinct emotional regulation behaviours; surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting describes an attempt to 'put on a mask' and feign organisationally expected emotions, and has been associated with increased burnout and emotional exhaustion, and decreased job satisfaction (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). In contrast, deep acting describes an attempt to authentically feel and embody organisational expectations, and has been associated with increased organisational

citizenship behaviours (OCBs) and job performance (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülsheger &

Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). To date, emotional regulation has been

primarily studied between employees and customers in the service industry (Diefendorff et

al., 2019; Grandey et al., 2004), with such research having identified several general

antecedents such as personality traits, positive and negative affect, and emotional intelligence

(Dahling & Johnson, 2013). However, recent research has expanded the emotional regulation

construct and found that employees also regulate their emotions in interactions with

organisational members (Gabriel et al., 2020; Hu & Shi, 2015; Troth et al., 2018). Despite

calls to further explore the antecedents of emotional regulation (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015),

there are significantly fewer identified antecedents of emotional regulation towards other

organisational members. While research has found individual differences such as age and

ethnicity (Kim et al., 2013) and differing prosocial and impression management motives

(Gabriel et al., 2020) to elicit emotional regulation behaviours while interacting with other

organisational members, it is largely unknown whether and how job insecurity may trigger

such behaviours.

The present study integrates affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano,

1996) and Grandey and Melloy's (2017) revised emotional labour as emotional regulation

model (see also Grandey, 2000) to propose that work events and experiences, such as the

experience of job insecurity, prompt emotional regulation towards other organisational

members. These emotional regulation behaviours are then capable of further influencing

individual well-being. Specifically, AET posits that work events lead to specific affective

reactions, followed by affectively driven behaviours (Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996). We aim to extend this line of theory and further previous research by

establishing whether particular emotional regulation behaviours, namely surface and deep

acting, can be triggered by job insecurity and mediated by the affective response associated

with job insecurity (i.e., worry). Furthermore, we test whether perceived organisational power moderates the relationship between worry and emotional regulation, given that perceived organisational power is related to an individual's belief as to whether they can address their worry, which may then shape consequential behavioural responses (Shoss, 2017).

In addition, Grandey and Melloy's (2017) emotional labour as emotional regulation model theorises that emotional regulation at work affects intrapsychic outcomes, of which felt inauthenticity is an important one. Previous scholars have argued that surface acting increases felt inauthenticity, whereas deep acting decreases felt inauthenticity (Hochschild, 1983; Hu & Shi, 2015); however, empirical evidence that directly tests this notion remains limited. The current study also aims to test whether emotional regulation towards other organisational members can predict inauthenticity, hoping to empirically expand the emotional regulation literature by identifying outcomes associated with emotional regulation towards other organisational members. Given that inauthenticity has been linked to several aspects of individual and organisational well-being, such as job engagement, motivation, and satisfaction (Cha et al., 2019; Hewlin et al., 2020; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), it is important to examine how engaging in emotional regulation may influence one's feelings of inauthenticity. The complete model for this study is presented in Figure 1.

This study makes three main contributions to the job insecurity, emotional regulation, and inauthenticity literatures. First, by specifying the mediating mechanism of worry, we are the first to propose that emotional regulation behaviours can be triggered by job insecurity, expanding on previous findings concerning the interpersonal behavioural implications of job insecurity (Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017) and antecedents of emotional regulation (Dahling & Johnson, 2013; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). In doing so, we enrich the literature concerning emotional regulation towards other organisational members. Second, we establish whether surface and deep acting towards other organisational members results in contrasting

intrapsychic outcomes regarding felt inauthenticity. Moreover, we establish whether surface and deep acting mediate the relationship between worry and felt inauthenticity differently. Third, by incorporating perceived organisational power as a moderating variable, we clarify whether worry differently influences interpersonal behaviours such as emotional regulation, thereby answering calls to include aspects of powerlessness when examining outcomes of job insecurity (Lee et al., 2018). Additionally, by using a daily diary design, we can better analyse the complex dynamics between job insecurity, worry, emotional regulation, and inauthenticity on a day-to-day basis.

Job Insecurity Triggers the Affective Response of Worry

Researchers have put forth multiple definitions of job insecurity, such as "an overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future" (De Witte, 1999, p. 156), "the perceived stability and continuance of one's job as one knows it" (Probst, 2003, p. 452) and "a perceived threat to the continuity of the work relationship with one's organisation" (Hewlin et al., 2016, p. 539). Despite the wide variety of definitions, most researchers agree that a definition of job insecurity necessitates three central elements; subjectivity, uncertainty, and vulnerability (Jiang et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2002). Whilst external or objective factors can create job insecurity, it is the subjective interpretation of future events that results in experienced job insecurity; organisational members may face the same objective threats to job security, yet may have entirely different subjective experiences of job insecurity due to believing they are more (or less) vulnerable to the negative effects of job loss (Jiang et al., 2021; Keim et al., 2014; Shoss, 2017). As such, we define job insecurity as an individual's subjective concern or perceived threat towards the continued existence of their job in the future.

To date, researchers have largely conceptualised job insecurity as a stressor capable of increasing mental distress and psychological strain (Keim et al., 2014). As a result, job

insecurity has been associated with numerous individual and work-related well-being

consequences (De Witte et al., 2016; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Lee et al., 2018). According to

AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), for an event to generate an affective response, such as

mental distress, it first requires an individual to perceive a threat to their goals or values, and

then interpret and give meaning to this event. Given that job insecurity thwarts basic

psychological needs such as autonomy and relatedness (Vander Elst et al., 2012), violates the

psychological contract between an employee and employer (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015), and

endangers resources essential to one's well-being, such as income, connectedness, and social

status (Lin et al., 2021; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2002), it is highly likely to be perceived as

a threat to one's goals and values. However, it is the ensuing interpretation of this threat that

generates an affective response (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As such, the interpretation of a

threat to one's goals and values appears likely to trigger affective responses such as increased

stress, anxiety, and worry (Näswall et al., 2005; Reisel et al., 2010; Shoss et al., 2018).

We focus on the latter affective response, namely worry, in the present study. Given

that worry is "a state of mental distress or agitation due to concern about an impending or

anticipated event, threat, or danger" (American Psychological Association, n.d.), it appears to

be closely related to and experienced by those vulnerable to the possibility of losing

employment. Stated differently, as job insecurity is a result of perceived threats to one's

social relationships, psychological needs, and other fundamental aspects of well-being, job

insecurity likely creates the subjective experience of worry (Shoss, 2017; Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996). Based on the theoretical tenets of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and

supporting empirical evidence, we argue that those with high (versus low) perceived job

insecurity will experience a threat to (and uncertainty towards) future employment, which

will result in the proximal outcome of worry (Probst, 2003; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2002).

In contrast, those with low (versus high) job insecurity are unlikely to perceive any threat,

uncertainty, or vulnerability towards the future of their work, and are correspondingly less likely to worry (Sverke et al., 2002). Moreover, events and affective responses such as worry can vary on a day-to-day basis (Garrido Vásquez et al., 2019; Ohly et al., 2010). Therefore, it is necessary to examine the daily fluctuations of job insecurity and worry in order to establish the momentary dynamics between these variables. This leads us to our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived job insecurity in the previous evening will be positively related to next-day morning worry.

Worry as a Trigger of Emotional Regulation

We suggest that worry, such as that which is elicited by job insecurity, likely drives emotional regulation behaviours towards other organisational members. The concept of emotion regulation emerged from Hochschild's (1983) theory of emotional labour, which describes the process of managing facial and bodily displays in order to adhere to organisational norms and expectations. Contemporary research suggests that emotional regulation is a central component of emotional labour, describing the process by which employees actively modify their feelings and behaviours (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Indeed, since Hochschild's (1983) seminal work, researchers have increasingly recognised the importance of understanding emotional regulation as required by one's work (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). As mentioned previously, emotional regulation includes two behaviours; surface acting, being the process of feigning emotions and performing behaviours that align with organisational expectations, and deep acting, being the process of attempting to feel and perform behaviours congruent with organisational expectations (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). It should be noted that both surface and deep are not mutually exclusive behaviours, with research having clearly demonstrated that individuals can engage in both forms of emotional regulation simultaneously (Gabriel et al., 2015; Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015; Hülsheger &

Schewe, 2011).

Until recently, most research on emotional regulation has focused on the service

sector and employee interactions with customers/organisational outsiders (Gabriel et al.,

2020; Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022). In this regard, meta-analyses have found surface

acting to be strongly associated with decreased individual well-being and marginally with

decreased job performance, whereas deep acting has been comparatively associated with

increased job performance and mixed findings regarding whether deep acting improves (or

does not improve) well-being (Grandey et al., 2020; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-

Magnus et al., 2011). However, whilst limited, research has also started to suggest that

emotional regulation is not confined to customer-facing roles and that all employees regulate

their emotions (to some extent) when interacting with other organisational members (Gabriel

et al., 2020; Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022; Troth et al., 2018). Accordingly, regulating one's

emotions towards other organisational members, through mechanisms similar to emotional

regulation towards customers, has also been found to have implications for individual and

interpersonal behavioural outcomes. For instance, Hu and Shi (2015) found that surface

acting toward colleagues positively predicted felt inauthenticity and emotional exhaustion.

Similarly, Ozcelik (2013) found that surface acting was negatively related to role

performance or the ability to work effectively with other organisational members. In

comparison, research has found deep acting towards colleagues to be associated with positive

outcomes, such as improved relationships between leaders and subordinates (Yang et al.,

2021) and increased OCBs (Hong et al., 2017; Trougakos et al., 2015). However, because

research has only recently started to focus on surface and deep acting towards other

organisational members, less is known regarding their unique antecedents (Grandey &

Gabriel, 2015).

Adding to this understudied area, we propose that the affective response of worry

serves as an important antecedent of emotional regulation towards other organisational members. As stated earlier, worry is a state of distress related to an impending event, threat, or danger (American Psychological Association, n.d.), such as the fear of job loss. Hence, it seems highly plausible that employees will engage in emotional regulation behaviours to deal with the unpleasant emotion of worry. Grandey and Melloy's (2017) emotional regulation as emotional labour model argues that negative events and related affective responses evoke the need for emotional regulation. Specifically, employees are expected to adhere to organisational display expectations and manage their negative affective responses at work via engaging in emotional regulation (Diefendorff et al., 2008; Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015). While emotional display expectations toward customers are often explicitly acknowledged and taught by organisations (Rupp & Spencer, 2006), implicit emotional display expectations exist in the day-to-day organisational setting (Diefendorff et al., 2006; Gabriel et al., 2020). As such, when employees experience negative affective responses that are not usually considered appropriate in a professional work setting, such as when they are worried, they are likely to regulate their own emotions to display emotions that are deemed appropriate and expected by their organisations (Nyquist et al., 2018). Further, as employees are particularly concerned with how they appear to other organisational members due to the repeated and long-lasting nature of workplace interactions (Hu & Shi, 2015), worry is likely not an emotion that people want to display in front of other organisational members due to impression management considerations (Bolino et al., 2016). Given that emotional regulation allows an individual to shape their behaviours towards other organisational members, either by manipulating their outwardly expressed behaviours via surface acting or inwardly felt emotions (and, in turn, outward behaviours) via deep acting (Gabriel et al., 2020), it is reasonable to predict that the affective response of worry will lead to increases in both forms of emotional regulation.

In particular, deep acting toward other organisational members allows an employee to foster positive workplace relationships and improve social perceptions from other organisational members (Gabriel et al., 2020). In engaging in deep acting and managing one's impression, an employee may both affectively and behaviourally adhere to organisational display expectations (Gabriel et al., 2020). In contrast, while surface acting towards other organisational members does not change affective responses such as worry, it provides a "safeguard against negative emotions leaking out" (Gabriel et al., 2020, p. 915). Hence, employees may feel that engaging in surface acting allows them to manage outward displays of worry and adhere to organisational display expectations, despite surface acting being unlikely to reduce internal feelings of worry (Gabriel et al., 2020).

In sum, we propose that worry will lead employees to feel particularly inclined to engage in surface and deep acting, as both emotional regulation behaviours will allow the employee to manage their negative affective response and adhere to implicit organisational expectations of emotional display. Moreover, we analyse the dynamic relationships between morning worry and afternoon emotional regulation behaviours to examine whether worry has an immediate effect on an employee's surface and deep acting behaviours on a daily basis. Hence, we formally hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2: Morning worry will be positively related to subsequent involvement in (a) afternoon surface acting and (b) afternoon deep acting towards other organisational members.

Linking Job Insecurity to Emotional Regulation: The Mediating Role of Worry

We have argued that worry is a likely affective response to job insecurity and that worry is likely to trigger subsequent emotional regulation behaviours, suggesting that worry serves as a mediating mechanism between job insecurity and emotional regulation. This argument is in line with both AET and the emotional labour as emotional regulation model,

which together suggest that job insecurity, as a negative event, creates the negative affective response of worry, which in turn instigates a "series of subevents" (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 42) or emotional regulation behaviours (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Previous research has supported these theoretical models, finding that job insecurity influences outcomes such as job satisfaction, psychological health, and burnout by eliciting the affective response of worry (Huang et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2012; Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018). As such, worry has been repeatedly pointed out as an affective response to job insecurity, and likely mediates the relationships between job insecurity (as an affective event) and affectively driven behaviour.

Scholars have also argued that job insecurity should influence subsequent interpersonal behaviours, as job insecurity motivates the individual to engage in behaviours intended to preserve one's job (Shoss, 2017). Empirical research has supported this notion, finding that employees will suppress their personal values and present façades of conformity (Hewlin et al., 2016) and consciously avoid voicing their concerns (Schreurs et al., 2015) in an endeavour to preserve job security. Although these theoretical and empirical work did not directly focus on emotional regulation behaviours as a potential behavioural outcome of job insecurity, we argue that similar job-preservation mechanisms would encourage employees to engage in emotional regulation as a way to manage a potentially negatively-evaluated emotion (i.e., worry), and thereby prevent job loss. We have argued that job insecurity threatens one's valued resources and is therefore likely to result in increased worry. As such, job insecurity also appears likely to motivate the employee to engage in emotional regulation to address feelings of worry and manage one's impression, as portraying a positive image of oneself may prevent perceived job loss (Shoss, 2017). Therefore, and in line with empirical evidence, AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and the emotional labour as emotional regulation model (Grandey & Melloy, 2017), worry may be the underlying affective response

linking job insecurity and emotional regulation behaviours. As such, we propose:

Hypothesis 3: Morning worry will mediate the positive relationship between the previous evening's job insecurity and (a) afternoon surface acting and (b) afternoon deep acting.

Emotional Regulation and Felt Inauthenticity

Grandey and Melloy's (2017) emotional labour as emotional regulation model differentiates between momentary outcomes of emotional regulation, such as the intrapsychic state of dissonance, and long-term outcomes, such as burnout (Grandey et al., 2012) and job satisfaction (Bhave & Glomb, 2016). Importantly, momentary outcomes are suggested to be a necessary precursor to the broader, enduring employee and organisational well-being outcomes (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). In the current study, we focus on one such momentary outcome of emotional regulation, inauthenticity, being the feeling that there is incongruence between one's internally experienced and externally displayed emotions (Caza et al., 2018), in order to substantiate the importance of understanding emotional regulation towards other organisational members.

Authenticity, being the sense that one is acting in congruence with their core values, beliefs, self-representations, and motivations, has long been recognised as a crucial facet of general well-being (Cha et al., 2019; Sedikides et al., 2017). Hochschild (1983) argued that the suppression of felt emotions, or surface acting, would create emotional incongruence or dissonance between one's innermost feelings and outwards behaviours, and that this dissonance would eventually alienate the individual from themselves. In contrast, an attempt to change felt emotions to align with organisationally expected emotions and behaviours, or deep acting, would allow the individual to produce an authentic response (Hochschild, 1983).

Indeed, the idea that surface acting is positively related to dissonance and inauthenticity in interactions with non-organisational members has received substantial

empirical (Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Hong et al., 2017; Huppertz et al., 2020) and meta-

analytic (Grandey et al., 2020; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013;

Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012) support. Given the enduring nature of most organisational

relationships, it seems likely that a similar relationship will emerge as a result of emotional

regulation towards other organisational members. On the contrary, the theoretical suggestion

that deep acting is capable of reconciling emotional dissonance by aligning one's feelings and

expressions has received limited empirical support, with research typically finding

relationships between deep acting and outcomes such as job satisfaction and performance

(Grandey et al., 2020; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022). In

exploring whether deep acting relates to decreased inauthenticity, we hope to answer the call

to provide empirical support for the theoretical foundations set forth by the emotional

regulation literature. As such, and in line with past research and theory, surface acting should

increase emotional dissonance, and deep acting should reduce emotional dissonance

(Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Hochschild, 1983). We argue that the two types of emotional

regulation will have differential outcomes on inauthenticity and hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 4a: Afternoon involvement in surface acting will be positively related to

felt inauthenticity at the end of the workday.

Hypothesis 4b: Afternoon involvement in deep acting will be negatively related to felt

inauthenticity at the end of the workday.

Further, given that we predict that worry is related to emotional regulation, we

explore whether there is a mediating effect of emotional regulation between worry and

inauthenticity. As worry is related to a future threat, it appears unlikely to influence felt

inauthenticity directly. However, the behavioural response elicited by worry (i.e., emotional

regulation) may influence felt inauthenticity, particularly as inauthenticity results from

incongruence between behaviours and one's values and beliefs (Cha et al., 2019). As such,

we additionally propose that:

Hypothesis 5: (a) Surface acting will mediate the relationship between morning worry and afternoon felt inauthenticity, and (b) deep acting will mediate the relationship between morning worry and afternoon felt inauthenticity.

Perceived Organisational Power as a Moderator

Lastly, also drawing upon Grandey and Melloy's (2017) emotional labour as emotional regulation model, we argue that one's perceived organisational power should moderate the extent to which worry leads to subsequent emotional regulation behaviours. Specifically, Grandey and Melloy (2017) suggest that work role interaction expectations within one's organisation are high-level factors that influence emotional regulation behaviours. Since emotional regulation is an interpersonal behaviour, it is necessary to consider the relational or social context, particularly as emotional and behavioural display expectations within an organisation differ depending on whom an employee interacts with (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Diefendorff et al., 2010). In particular, as we argue below, depending on how much organisational power one perceives, employees may or may not believe it is important to present emotions and behaviours (be they either a façade or genuine) compliant with implicit workplace norms and expectations when interacting with other organisational members.

Power stems from having control over valued resources, and, as a result, workplaces are an interpersonal context in which there is an inherently unequal distribution of power (Erks et al., 2017; Hu & Shi, 2015; Nyquist et al., 2018). Formally, power is related to the varying degrees of authority tied to one's job position (Erks et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2021). For instance, supervisors and managers often decide when and how to allocate objective resources such as promotions, salary raises, and information (Tepper, 2007; Wang et al., 2019), and as a result, these organisational members possess more formal power due to their

position. However, in addition to formal power, individuals derive power from the

interpersonal relationships within their organisations (Laschinger et al., 2004). Accordingly,

power also includes informal aspects, such as the extent to which an individual can influence

(and resist influence from) others' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours (Galinsky et al., 2015).

As such, employees at the same organisational level may possess the same amount of formal

power yet simultaneously have differing amounts of informally perceived organisational

power.

Power has been associated with emotional regulation because people who perceive

themselves as having less power tend to have fewer resources and be more strongly

influenced by others' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours (Erks et al., 2017; Hu & Shi, 2015).

Specifically, organisational members with lower perceived power may feel a greater need to

adhere to organisational display expectations and be more driven to manage the impressions

of other organisational members by emotionally regulating, particularly as managing one's

impression can help the individual attain specific resources and desirable outcomes (Gabriel

et al., 2020; von Gilsa et al., 2014). Managing one's impression by engaging in surface and

deep acting may serve as a potential method to reduce worry by allowing an employee to feel

they can influence others' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours, and accordingly gain desired

outcomes (Hewlin et al., 2016). Relatedly, research has shown that people who possess less

power tend to engage in more surface acting in meetings (Nyquist et al., 2018; Shumski

Thomas et al., 2018) and has found that interacting with co-workers perceived to have higher

organisational power results in greater control over emotional expressions (Diefendorff et al.,

2010). As such, low organisational power employees may consider surface acting as a

potential method to reduce worry. In presenting a façade that embodies organisational

emotional and behaviour expectations, employees who perceive themselves to have low

power may believe they are better able to influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of

others (Hewlin et al., 2016). By the same token, impression management motives may also drive deep acting. Though both surface and deep acting change emotional and behavioural displays, "deep acting has always had an edge over simple pretending in its power to convince" (Hochschild, 1983, p. 33). As deep acting changes internal states so that the resulting emotional expression is perceived as authentic (Grandey, 2003), deep acting might enable the individual to receive greater resources by authentically embodying organisational display expectations and, in turn, exerting a stronger influence over others' thoughts, feeling and behaviours. In partial support of this, research has found that deep acting towards other organisational members can improve positive relationships between organisational members, which in turn can provide low-power employees with greater social support (Yang et al., 2021). Hence, deep acting also allows the individual to gain resources and influence other organisational members' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours.

In contrast, employees who perceive themselves to possess greater organisational power may be less concerned with whether they present and adhere to organisationally expected emotions and behaviours. For instance, research has found that organisational members with higher levels of both perceived and objective power report a greater sense of control and lower levels of stress and worry (Sherman et al., 2012; Sherman et al., 2019). Given that organisational members with perceived high power possess more resources and are better able to influence others' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours, they are less likely to be concerned with masking or reducing worry compared to those with lower perceived organisational power, and accordingly fewer resources and less social influence. Also consistent with this idea, previous literature has highlighted that interacting with equal or lower power co-workers requires less control over emotional expressions than when interacting with those with greater power (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). In sum, perceived organisational power is likely to influence the extent to which one engages in emotion

regulation, including both surface and deep acting, when one feels worried. Hence, perceived organisational power should moderate the relationship between worry and emotional regulation, leading us to our final hypothesis in that:

*Hypothesis 6***:** Perceived organisational power will moderate the positive relationship between morning worry and afternoon emotional regulation strategies, such that the (a) relationship between morning worry and afternoon surface acting is stronger under low (versus high) perceived organisational power, and the (b) relationship between morning worry and afternoon deep acting is stronger under low (versus high) perceived organisational power.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected between September 2021 to January 2022 following approval by the University of Auckland Ethics Committee (see Appendix A). Participants were recruited by a cohort of Master's students, who directly contacted potential participants and advertised the study across various social media platforms and online forums. Prospective participants were further encouraged to share the study with others interested in participating. All prospective participants were provided with a participant information sheet (see Appendix A) and a publicly accessible Qualtrics link that invited them to complete a qualification questionnaire to confirm eligibility. Inclusion criteria for the study stated that participants must be over the age of 18, work a minimum of 30 hours per week, have been employed at the same organisation for at least six months, and have a regular weekly work schedule (i.e., work days must be between Monday to Friday and work hours must fall within 7 a.m. and 7 p.m.). Participants who met the inclusion criteria and provided consent for the study were asked to supply an email address at which they could be reached for the study.

All eligible participants were first sent a baseline survey, which gathered demographic

information. Participants who completed the baseline survey were later invited to complete a series of daily diary surveys. Daily diary surveys were sent to participants over five consecutive workdays (Monday to Friday) at three set time points per day (11 a.m., 4 p.m. and 9 p.m.). All daily diary surveys were completed through Qualtrics. Participants were remunerated with a $10 voucher for completion of each baseline survey and a $10 voucher for every three daily diary surveys they completed, up to a maximum compensation of $60.

Of the 519 participants who completed the qualification questionnaire, 320 met the participant inclusion criteria and were emailed the baseline survey in September 2021. Data were collected in a staggered approach to ensure that participants were not in a regional lockdown (due to COVID-19 transmission in New Zealand) when completing the daily diary surveys. Of the 320 eligible participants, 179 completed at least some of the daily diary surveys, resulting in a 55.9% response rate. We removed participants who presented non-unique/duplicate responses and were not located in New Zealand. Further, data were also checked for outliers using the Mahalanobis distance multivariate outlier detection method, and outliers were removed, yielding a final sample of 156 participants. Descriptive statistics were calculated using IBM SPSS Statistics.

Within the final sample, 86.5% ($n = 135$) of participants identified as female and 13.5% ($n = 21$) of participants identified as male ($M = 1.87$, $SD = .34$). Participants were largely New Zealand European ($n = 100$; see Table 1), had a mean age of 38.04 years ($SD = 10.47$), and a mean tenure of 5.24 years ($SD = 5.80$). The majority of participants indicated they were in full-time (40+ hours per week) employment ($n = 149$, 94.2%), and the remaining participants indicated they were in part-time (30 to 40 hours per week) employment ($n = 9$, 5.8%; 1 participant did not provide information). Similarly, most participants indicated they were employed on a permanent contract ($n = 145$, 93.5%) versus a temporary contract with their organisation ($n = 10$, 6.5%; 1 participant did not provide information). Participants were

employed in various industries (see Table 2).

Measures

Appendix B contains the complete item set included in the current study.

Hypothesised Variables

Organisational Power. Perceived organisational power was measured with one item in the baseline survey. This item was created by adapting the MacArthur scale of subjective social status (Adler et al., 2000). Participants were presented with an image of a ladder and asked to think of it as a representation of their organisation's power hierarchy. Participants were then asked to indicate where they see their position in the organisation's hierarchy on a scale of 1 to 100.

Job Insecurity. Job insecurity was measured in the evening, with four items developed by De Witte (2000) and Vander Elst et al. (2014). Sample items included "Chances are, I will soon lose my job" and "I feel insecure about the future of my job" (average Cronbach's α = .88 across five days). Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

Worry. Worry was measured in the morning, with three items developed by Daniels et al. (1997) and Warr (1990). Participants were instructed to think about how they felt in the moment and report to what extent they felt the listed emotions. One sample item was "worried" (average Cronbach's α = .89 across five days). Each item was scored on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a large extent*).

Emotional Regulation. Emotional regulation was measured in the afternoon, with items developed by Gabriel et al. (2020). Participants were instructed to recall their interactions with other organisational members in the past day and indicate their agreement with the behavioural statements on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Four items captured surface acting (e.g., "Today, I faked a good mood when

interacting with other people in my workplace"; average Cronbach's α = .91 across five

days), and five items captured deep acting (e.g., "Today, I tried to actually experience the

emotions that I show to other people in my workplace"; average Cronbach's α = .82 across

five days).

        Inauthenticity. Felt inauthenticity was measured in the afternoon, with three items

adapted from Erickson and Ritter (2001) and Richard (2006). A sample item is "Reflecting

on your workday, how often did you feel inauthentic or 'fake'" (average Cronbach's α = .82

across five days). Items were scored on a 5-point scale depending on the particular item (refer

to Appendix B; 1 = *never* to 5 = *all the time* and 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

Control Variables

        Age, gender, and tenure were included as control variables in all analyses in light of

previous findings that suggest these variables might impact job insecurity, worry, and

emotional regulation behaviours (Grandey et al., 2020; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Kim et al.,

2013; Probst et al., 2018; Sverke et al., 2002).

Results

        Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations amongst the study variables are

presented in Table 3. As demonstrated in Table 3, previous evening job insecurity was

significantly and positively correlated with next morning's worry ($r = .29$, $p < .001$), next

afternoon's surface acting ($r = .23$, $p < .001$), and next afternoon's felt inauthenticity ($r = .25$,

$p < .001$). Further, morning worry was significantly and positively correlated with same-day

afternoon surface acting ($r = .25$, $p < .001$) and afternoon felt inauthenticity ($r = .41$, $p <$

$.001$), and afternoon surface acting was significantly and positively correlated with afternoon

deep acting ($r = .09$, $p = .03$) and afternoon felt inauthenticity ($r = .68$, $p < .001$). These

findings provide preliminary support for our research hypotheses.

        Multilevel regression analyses were calculated using Bliese's (2022) 'multilevel'

package in the free software, R. The results of the multilevel regression analyses are

presented in Table 4, and the results of the moderation analyses are presented in Table 5.

After controlling for age, gender, and tenure, results indicated that evening job insecurity was

significantly and positively related to increased worry the following morning ($b = .23$, $p <$

.001), thus providing support for Hypothesis 1. Hypotheses 2a and 2b were partially

supported, in that morning worry significantly and positively related to afternoon surface

acting ($b = .22$, $p < .001$), but not deep acting ($b = -.03$, $p = .50$). Hypotheses 4a and 4b were

also partially supported, in that afternoon surface acting significantly related to higher felt

inauthenticity ($b = .38$, $p < .001$), but afternoon deep acting was not related to lower felt

inauthenticity ($b = .06$, $p = .15$).

Following the tests of direct effects, mediation effects were calculated using

'mediation' and 'lme4' packages in R (Bates et al., 2015; Tingley et al., 2014). Monte Carlo

results based on 10,000 simulations indicated that morning worry significantly mediated the

effect of the previous evening's job insecurity on afternoon surface acting (indirect effect =

.05, 95% CI = [.02, .09], $p < .001$), thus providing support for Hypothesis 3a. Further, 26% of

the total effect between the previous evening's job insecurity and afternoon surface acting

was mediated through worry. However, we did not find support for hypothesis 3b, given that

morning worry did not significantly mediate the effect of the previous evening's job

insecurity on afternoon deep acting behaviours (indirect effect = -.01, 95% CI = [-.03, .02], p

= .59). Likewise, Hypotheses 5a received support, but 5b did not. Monte Carlo results

indicated that afternoon surface acting significantly mediated the relationship between

morning worry and afternoon felt inauthenticity (indirect effect = .10, 95% CI = [.06, .14], p

< .001), with 36% of the total effect between morning worry and afternoon inauthenticity

being mediated through afternoon surface acting, thus providing support for Hypothesis 5a.

In contrast, Hypothesis 5b was unsupported given afternoon deep acting did not mediate the

relationship between morning worry and afternoon felt inauthenticity (indirect effect $= 0$,

95% CI $= [-.01, 0]$, $p = .71$).

With regard to moderation hypotheses, results showed that perceived organisational

power did not significantly moderate the relationship between morning worry and afternoon

surface acting ($b = .03$, $p = .33$), nor the relationship between morning worry and afternoon

deep acting ($b = -.01$, $p = .87$), therefore, Hypotheses 6a and 6b were unsupported.

Supplementary Analyses

Although no serial mediation effects were proposed between the variables within the

present study, in light of finding support for Hypotheses 1, 2a, 3a, 4a, and 5a, we conducted a

Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) to assess whether there was a serial mediation effect between the

previous evening's job insecurity, morning worry, afternoon surface acting, and afternoon felt

inauthenticity. Results of the Sobel test suggested that there was a significant indirect effect

of job insecurity on inauthenticity through worry and surface acting ($Z = 4.30$, $b = .16$, $SE =$

$.04$, $p < .001$). We note that the Sobel test is a less preferable method of testing mediation

effects compared to the bootstrapping method (e.g., Hayes, 2013). Due to the fact that our

model is multilevel and the 'mediation' R package does not yet allow such tests for

multilevel models, we want to note that this result only serves as preliminary evidence of

serial mediation effects.

<div align="center">

Discussion

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The primary objective of this daily diary study was to identify whether job insecurity

in the previous day could predict subsequent emotional regulation behaviours, namely surface

and deep acting, towards other organisational members through the mediating effect of

worry. Furthermore, the study sought to clarify how surface and deep acting differentially

affected one's felt inauthenticity. Overall, the results demonstrated that higher perceptions of

job insecurity in the evening related to a significant increase in worry the following morning.

This increased morning worry correspondingly related to increased surface acting when interacting with other organisational members and increased feelings of felt inauthenticity in the afternoon. Importantly, worry significant mediated the relationship between job insecurity and surface acting, and surface acting significantly mediated the relationship between worry and inauthenticity. These findings were in line with both Grandey and Melloy's (2017) emotional labour as emotional regulation model and Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) AET, suggesting that the experience of job insecurity is indeed an emotionally charged event capable of triggering affective responses such as worry, which then drives surface acting behaviours. Surface acting, in turn, has important intrapsychic outcomes in terms of felt inauthenticity.

However, morning worry did not significantly predict engaging in afternoon deep acting. Whilst contrary to our expectations, this finding may be due to some potential moderator variables that were not considered in the current study. For example, dispositional traits such as extraversion (Judge et al., 2009) and agreeableness tend to increase deep acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005), and more recently, daily diary studies have found morning states of recovery, such as feeling well-rested and energised (Nesher Shoshan et al., 2022), and morning experiences of positive affect (Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022) to increase deep acting towards other organisational members. Hence, although individuals are likely to emotionally regulate in response to worry, it may be that participants in the current sample, influenced by individual and dispositional differences, were more likely to engage in surface acting to mask their emotions instead of deep acting and putting effort into addressing these emotions (Grandey et al., 2004). Another reason might be that deep acting requires significant effort, as it calls for an active and persistent attempt to change inwardly felt emotions and outward behavioural displays (Grandey, 2000). Hence, although individuals are likely to emotionally regulate in response to worry, there may be a stronger incentive to

engage in the (perceived-to-be) 'easier' and less effortful behaviour – surface acting (compared to deep acting) – especially when one is already experiencing job insecurity and associated worry, despite deep acting having the potential to improve well-being (Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022).

Furthermore, we failed to find a significant relationship between afternoon deep acting and inauthenticity. This finding was inconsistent with the theoretical suggestion that deep acting brings felt emotions in line with an individual's outward expressions, thereby decreasing emotional dissonance and felt inauthenticity (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Grandey et al., 2005). Again, one explanation may be that deep acting, whilst theoretically capable of decreasing felt inauthenticity, simultaneously requires substantial psychological effort, and therefore creates more strain (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). This effort, however, may be counterbalanced by increased feelings of authenticity acquired by deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). This 'counterbalancing' possibility has been suggested by previous research to explain the lack of a relationship between deep acting and other well-being outcomes, such as stress (Grandey, 2003) and organisational commitment (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). A second possibility may be that the well-being benefits of deep acting (in terms of reducing felt inauthenticity) may not be achieved within a time scale as short as half a day. This contention would be consistent with the findings of Huppertz et al.'s (2020) daily diary study, which found that midday deep acting was not significantly related to increased emotional exhaustion (i.e., psychological effort) or felt inauthenticity at the end of the workday. Future research would benefit from testing both short- and long-term outcomes of deep acting and comparing these with one another, as our findings challenge the theoretical assumption that deep acting has positive daily effects. Moreover, our findings suggest that deep acting could not mediate the relationship between worry and inauthenticity. As such, future research is needed before drawing a firm conclusion on the role of deep acting.

Similarly, we did not find any moderation effects for perceived organisational power on the relationships between worry and both surface and deep acting. While previous research has demonstrated that individuals emotionally regulate towards other organisational members, these studies often focus on interactional partners such as leaders and supervisors (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Diefendorff et al., 2010; Erks et al., 2017; Hu & Shi, 2015; Troth et al., 2018). Given that our sample included participants in various roles and positions, participants may have interacted with organisational members with both higher and lower organisational power than the individual themselves, which may have masked the moderating effects of their own perceived organisational power. Hence, in addition to the perceived organisational power of oneself, the power of one's interaction partner may also matter (Erks et al., 2017). Therefore, future research may consider examining the moderating effect of the perceived power difference between the individual and their interaction partner instead of examining the moderating effect of one's own perceived organisational power. It is equally worth noting that most workplaces in New Zealand have a relatively low power distance culture compared to countries from which previous research has emerged, such as the United States and China (Hofstede Insights, 2022). Communication within New Zealand work environments is typically informal, direct, and participative (Hofstede Insights, 2022), and, as such, power may play a less important role in a New Zealand sample compared to populations from higher power distance countries.

Theoretical Implications

To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to examine job insecurity as an antecedent of emotional regulation through its effect on worry, as well as the intrapsychic outcome of felt inauthenticity. Our findings contribute to the job insecurity and emotional regulation literature in several ways. We suggest that the central finding of this study, being that job insecurity (and subsequent worry) appear to motivate individuals to engage in surface

acting, is noteworthy for several reasons.

First, this finding addresses the call to further explore how individuals manage the emotions they experience when they perceive a threat to the future of their employment (Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017). Our study demonstrates that job-insecure employees are likely to engage in surface acting and alter their outward appearance and observable behaviours toward other organisational members rather than engage in deep acting. This finding both adds to, and is supported by, previous research, which has found job insecurity to increase the number of social influence attempts an individual makes (Huang et al., 2013) and prompt individuals to present façades of conformity (Hewlin et al., 2016). Evidently, being able to manage and influence the impression of other organisational members via surface acting is a way in which job-insecure individuals believe they can reduce their job insecurity (and related worry) and improve their chances of remaining in their organisation (Hewlin et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2013; Lam et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017).

Second, the results support integrating Grandey and Melloy's (2017) revised model of emotional labour as emotional regulation with Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) AET. Specifically, the results demonstrate that job insecurity can be conceptualised as an affective event capable of inducing the affective response of worry, which then triggers the affectively driven behaviour of surface acting (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012; Zapf et al., 2021). Again, previous research suggests that interpersonal situations (such as interactions with customers and supervisors), aversive work environments, and workload issues all serve as affective events capable of triggering emotional regulation responses (Carlson et al., 2012; Diefendorff et al., 2008; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). Our findings add to this literature by demonstrating that job insecurity might also be a specific event capable of triggering surface acting towards other organisational members via the affective response of worry.

Third, results reveal that engaging in surface acting is significantly related to increased felt inauthenticity. This finding was not surprising; surface acting is characterised by a dissonance between actual and displayed emotions, and this dissonance is frequently associated with feelings of inauthenticity (Grandey et al., 2020; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Zapf et al., 2021). Meanwhile, we also found that surface acting serves as a mediator linking morning worry and felt inauthenticity, and as a mediator, could explain over a third of the variance in the relationship between worry and felt inauthenticity. Previous research has only considered worry as an outcome of surface acting (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Our findings represent a departure from this view by examining whether negative emotions such as worry may serve as an antecedent of surface acting. Additionally, surface acting could not fully mediate the relationship between worry and felt inauthenticity, and future research would benefit from exploring whether there are, if any, other mediators between worry and felt inauthenticity.

Finally, the present study expands the literature concerning emotional regulation between organisational members. Emotional labour, and consequently emotional regulation, is rooted in interactions between employees and the public, particularly within the service industry (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Hochschild, 1983). We advance the small amount of existing literature (e.g., Erks et al., 2017; Gabriel et al., 2020; Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022) by demonstrating that employees also regulate their emotions towards other organisational members in response to job insecurity and that these behaviours have important intrapsychic outcomes. Previous research has highlighted the importance of emotional regulation among organisational members, demonstrating that faking positive emotions can increase interaction avoidance and lower communication satisfaction (Hu & Shi, 2015) and impact overall employee well-being (Shanock et al., 2013; Shumski Thomas et al., 2018). Similarly, surface acting (and related felt inauthenticity) towards non-organisational members increases

emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003) and decreases job satisfaction (Lennard et al., 2019).

Our results expand these findings, suggesting that surface acting between organisational

members has noteworthy implications concerning one's felt inauthenticity, which may lead to

broader organisational consequences. Further, our study expands beyond specific role

interaction expectations by including a wide range of individuals in various industries, rather

than just those employed in service-based, customer-facing industries.

Practical Implications

Our study provides two major practical implications for organisations. First, our

results demonstrate that job insecurity, mediated by worry, is an important antecedent to

surface acting behaviours. Therefore, organisations must seek ways to reduce job insecurity

and the related potential for worry-induced surface acting. Whilst job insecurity appears to be

an inherent factor in many workplaces (Garrido Vásquez et al., 2019; Jiang & Lavaysse,

2018; Probst et al., 2018) and has arguably been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic

(Lin et al., 2021), there are several ways in which organisations can improve the coping

strategies of those experiencing job insecurity. For instance, providing employees with the

ability to engage in participative decision-making (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Probst, 2005;

Schreurs et al., 2010), training specific job-related skills to boost employability (De Cuyper et

al., 2012; Hu et al., 2022), and fostering supervisor support and positive relationships

between leaders and employees (Loi et al., 2011; Schreurs et al., 2012) allows employees to

feel competent, understood, and included within their organisations, potentially allaying the

concerns towards potential loss of one's job (Garrido Vásquez et al., 2019; Vander Elst et al.,

2012) and reducing the need for surface acting. Post-COVID-19 research has similarly

reiterated the importance of establishing clear work procedures and guidelines, maintaining

transparent communication, and implementing adaptive practices (such as working from

home) in alleviating job insecurity (Lin et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2020). Hence,

organisations attempting to mitigate or buffer the adverse effects of job insecurity should allow organisational members to have control and autonomy over their work, improve the perceived employability of employees, increase available support, and provide clear and direct communication (Lee et al., 2018; Probst et al., 2018). In doing so, employees may be less inclined to engage in interpersonal behaviours such as surface acting to reduce worry and improve perceived job stability (Shoss, 2017).

A second of this study highlights the importance of shifting the behavioural responses to job insecurity. The present study found a strong relationship between job insecurity, worry and surface acting, but not between job insecurity, worry and deep acting. Researchers often suggest that training deep acting may be helpful for both individual and broader organisational outcomes (Chi & Wang, 2018; Gabriel et al., 2016; Nesher Shoshan & Venz, 2022), particularly within repeated interactions such as those between organisational members (Gabriel et al., 2020; Zapf et al., 2021). It is worth noting that such an assertion has not received much empirical support, including in the current study. We are, therefore, hesitant to suggest that organisations should prioritise attempts to train deep acting behaviours, particularly as it may be that trained deep-acting functions differently from that which naturally emerges (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). Instead, interventions may be better focused on reducing surface acting by promoting alternative behavioural responses and proactive coping strategies to job insecurity and worry, such as positive work reflection (Bono et al., 2013; Meier et al., 2016; Sonnentag et al., 2021) and mindfulness (Bartlett et al., 2019; Hülsheger et al., 2013). Additionally, in taking a broader approach to managing job-insecurity elicited worry, employees can develop skills that can be employed across various worry-inducing scenarios and improve employee coping in other challenging situations (Zapf et al., 2021).

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The present paper is not without limitations, several of which we hope future research can address. First, the participants in the current study were recruited via convenience sampling methods, such as being contacted via email and social media platforms (Lavrakas, 2008). While other daily diary studies appear to use similar methods (e.g., Garrido Vásquez et al., 2019; Huppertz et al., 2020), convenience sampling raises concerns about generalisability and self-selection bias (Bethlehem, 2010; Simsek & Veiga, 2000). Whilst challenging to control for, the effects of self-selection bias might be lessened by managing anonymity and confidentiality, ensuring the sample is representative of the population, and increasing the response rates of the sample (Simsek & Veiga, 2000; Simsek & Veiga, 2001). Whilst our study ensured privacy to all participants involved (see Appendix A), only a little over half of the participants responded to most of the daily diary surveys, despite employing several suggested techniques for mitigating nonresponse, such as offering incentives, sending individualised reminders (when contact numbers were provided), and emphasising anonymity (Simsek & Veiga, 2001). As strong as daily diary designs are, the existence of missing data may have limited the statistical power of our study, and the results should be interpreted in light of this. Future research would benefit from utilising a sample better representative of the New Zealand workforce and with lower attrition rates.

Relatedly, a second limitation of the present study concerns the nature of the sample. For instance, females were over-represented in our study, given that females are suggested to comprise only half of the New Zealand workforce (Stats NZ, 2022a). Likewise, most participants were employed in Health Care and Social Assistance (19.9%; see Table 2), whereas the most recent quarterly workforce report suggests the percentage of individuals employed in Health Care and Social Assistance is only 11.6% (Stats NZ, 2022a). While this may limit generalisability, we note that the gender distribution of study participants within each specific industry largely mirrored New Zealand industry trends; for example, the Health

Care and Social Assistance industry is predominantly female (Ministry of Health, 2020; Stats NZ, 2018). Nevertheless, future research should utilise a more diverse sample to assess whether the same relationships emerge between job insecurity, worry, and surface acting, and to establish whether surface acting still increases felt inauthenticity.

Third, the present study relied on self-report measures, creating the potential for common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). Studies that draw on self-report measures are arguably the most appropriate method for researching affective responses such as worry, emotional regulation, and inauthenticity, given that these responses are intrapersonal and imperceptible to third parties (Gabriel et al., 2020; Nyquist et al., 2018). Moreover, several steps were taken to reduce common method variance per Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) recommendations. For instance, having items spread across several daily surveys allowed questions to be counterbalanced, measures with well-defined items were used, and respondents were reassured of confidentiality and anonymity. We also used items with previously demonstrated high construct validity, as per the recommendations of Conway and Lance (2010). Nevertheless, future research might consider using objective measures for variables such as perceived organisational power.

Fourth, despite controlling for several of the known antecedents of job insecurity, namely age, gender, and tenure (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Shoss, 2017), other variables such as minority status (Kim et al., 2013; Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2017) and negative affect (Debus et al., 2014) are known antecedents of job insecurity and related affective responses. We would emphasise that future research controls for these variables. Similarly, it may be helpful to control for social desirability biases, given that this may influence the behavioural strategies one chooses to engage in (Hong et al., 2017; Shumski Thomas et al., 2018).

Fifth, the data within this study is correlational, and consequently, causal relationships cannot necessarily be established. We have posited that job insecurity creates worry that then

triggers surface acting (which consequently increases feelings of inauthenticity), and indeed, our findings highlight a positive relationship between these variables. Despite this, it may be that feeling inauthentic, perhaps due to a mismatch between the job and the employee, drives an individual to surface act, which, in turn, creates worry about the future of one's job, as in the case of Probst et al. (2020). Future research might employ longitudinal approaches in order to disentangle these variables.

We note that some may argue that the COVID-19 pandemic potentially influenced the findings of this study, particularly as the pandemic presented both perceived and actual threats to one's employment (Lin et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2020). However, it is equally worth noting that New Zealand's unemployment rate remained relatively low throughout the COVID-19 pandemic compared to global unemployment rates (International Labour Organization, 2021; International Labour Organization, 2022) and had largely returned to pre-pandemic levels at the time of this study (Stats NZ, 2022b). Hence, while job insecurity may have been marginally higher than pre-pandemic trajectories (Lin et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2020), we believe the COVID-19 pandemic does not pose as a limitation to this study, nor should it influence the main research conclusions.

Beyond these limitations, future research might explore other moderators between worry and surface acting, given that perceived organisational power could not moderate this relationship. As surface acting is an interpersonal behaviour, other interpersonal factors may be capable of moderating the relationship between worry and surface acting. For example, Ozcelik (2013) found affective and goal congruence between team members to influence surface acting towards other organisational members. We have argued that organisational members emotionally regulate in order to manage feelings of worry and adhere to organisational display expectations. As such, research might also consider whether the extent an individual desires congruence between team members affects the strength of this

relationship. Relatedly, future research could explore intrapersonal moderators, such as personality traits and individual dispositions. For example, Nesher Shoshan et al. (2022) recently found high levels of negative affect to moderate the relationship between morning states of recovery and daily surface acting, particularly as it is plausible that worry may reduce feelings of recovery.

Future research might also consider assessing whether different emotional regulation profiles emerge in response to job insecurity, particularly as surface and deep acting behaviours are not always used exclusively – individuals can perform both, one, or neither of these behaviours towards other organisational members (Gabriel et al., 2015; Gabriel et al., 2020). Again, longitudinal diary methods would be best suited to exploring whether this is the case, as emotional regulation behaviours may vary in response to interpersonal experiences that change on a daily basis (Gabriel et al., 2020; Judge et al., 2009). Given that we did not find a significant moderation effect of perceived organisational power, another avenue for future research would be to explore the potential moderating effect of the perceived organisational power difference between the individual and their interactional partner or examine the research questions in higher-power distance contexts. Relatedly, it would be helpful for future research to differentiate between interaction partners when organisational members engage in emotional regulation, given that individuals appear to direct emotional regulation behaviours towards supervisors rather than those individuals with the same level of perceived organisational power (Erks et al., 2017; Nyquist et al., 2018). Lastly, whilst this study was primarily driven by the effects of job insecurity and related worry on emotional regulation behaviours, the items used to measure job insecurity included cognitive and affective elements (Huang et al., 2012). Exploring whether cognitive and affective job insecurity show contrasting relationships with emotional regulation behaviours may be an interesting avenue for future research

Conclusion

Integrating AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the emotional labour as emotional regulation model (Grandey & Melloy, 2017), we found that job insecurity is a work event capable of eliciting the affective response of worry and, consequently, emotional regulation behaviours. Specifically, our results suggest that employees with higher levels of job insecurity are likely to feel more worried and engage in surface acting, which leads to heightened feelings of inauthenticity. In comparison, our findings suggest that worry does not mediate the relationship between job insecurity and deep acting, nor is deep acting capable of reducing felt inauthenticity. Further, perceived organisational power does not appear to moderate the relationships between worry and either form of emotional regulation. In sum, our findings emphasise that organisational members utilise emotional regulation behaviours, surface acting in particular, to minimise their worry and concern towards the future of their work. Further, it reiterates the importance of organisational attempts to address job insecurity, especially as perceived organisational power did not appear to influence the relationship between worry and surface acting behaviours. In providing a link between job insecurity, worry, and surface acting, and in demonstrating an intrapsychic consequence of lowered felt inauthenticity, we hope to stimulate future research concerned with interpersonal behavioural consequences of job insecurity, particularly those behaviours which occur between organisational members in their day-to-day interactions.

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Table 1

Total Ethnic Group Distribution of Participants in Study Sample

Ethnicity	n	%
Chinese	2	1.3
Cook Island Māori	2	1.3
Indian	11	7.1
Māori	12	7.7
New Zealand European	100	64.1
Niuean	1	0.6
Samoan	2	1.3
Other [a]	26	16.7

Note. N = 156

[a] Selecting "Other [ethnicity]" allowed participants to enter their ethnicity into a free text box. Responses (as typed by participants) included: African, Australian, British, European, Fijian, Filipino, German, Irish, Middle Eastern, New Zealand European and Māori, North American Indigenous, Other European, Russian, Singaporean, South African, and South American.

Table 2

Total Industry Distribution of Participants in Study Sample

Industry	*n*	%
Accommodation and Food Services	8	5.1
Administrative and Support Services	8	5.1
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	4	2.6
Arts and Recreation Services	1	.6
Construction	4	2.6
Education and Training	22	14.1
Financial and Insurance Services	9	5.8
Health Care and Social Assistance	31	19.9
Information Media and Telecommunications	5	3.2
Manufacturing	5	3.2
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	15	9.6
Public Administration and Safety	7	4.5
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	3	1.9
Retail Trade	9	5.8
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	6	3.8
Wholesale Trade	4	2.6
Other [a]	15	9.6

Note. N = 156

[a] Selecting "Other [industry]" allowed participants to enter their industry into a free text box. Responses (as typed by participants) included: Case Manager, Cleaning Service, Environmental, Events, Government, Horticulture, Information Technology, Ministry of Justice, Recruitment, Recycling, Research, and Tourism.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Scale Reliabilities, and Pearson Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	38.04	10.47	-								
2. Gender [a]	1.87	.34	.04	-							
3. Tenure	5.24	5.80	.49***	-.04	-						
4. Organisational Power	45.08	25.33	.15***	.01	.09*	-					
5. Job Insecurity	1.94	.91	.06	-.04	.04	-.05	(.88)				
6. Worry	2.11	1.04	-.06	-.06	-.05	-.04	.29***	(.89)			
7. Surface Acting	2.56	1.04	-.12**	-.02	-.07	-.09*	.23***	.25***	(.91)		
8. Deep Acting	2.95	.84	-.11**	-.02	-.09*	-.03	-.04	.02	.09*	(.82)	
9. Inauthenticity	2.28	.94	-.04	-.10*	-.05	-.13**	.25***	.41***	.68***	.06	(.82)

Note. $N = 156$ at Level 2, $n = 496–599$ at Level 1. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Cronbach's alphas for level 1 variables appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, all tests two-tailed.

[a] 1 = male and 2 = female.

Table 4

Results for the Hypothesised Within-person Effects

Variable	Worry		Surface Acting		Deep Acting		Inauthenticity	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Intercept	2.34***	0.49	1.78***	0.51	3.19***	0.42	0.82*	0.37
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Gender [a]	-0.25	0.21	0.13	0.21	0.00	0.17	-0.31	0.14
Tenure	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.01
Job Insecurity	0.23***	0.07	0.15*	0.07	0.04	0.06	0.10	0.05
Worry	-	-	0.22***	0.05	-0.03	0.05	0.18***	0.04
Surface Acting	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.38***	0.04
Deep Acting	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.06	0.04

Note. N = 156 at Level 2, *n* = 496–599 at Level 1. *b* = unstandardised coefficient, *SE* = standard error of unstandardised coefficient.

*** *p* <.001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, all tests two-tailed.

[a] 1 = male and 2 = female.

Table 5

Results for the Hypothesised Cross-level Moderation Effects

| Variable	Surface Acting		Deep Acting	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Intercept	2.76	0.47	3.46***	0.34
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.01
Gender [a]	0.09	0.21	-0.13	0.15
Tenure	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.01
Worry	0.24***	0.04	-0.02	0.04
Organisational Power	-0.05	0.06	-0.02	0.04
Worry × Organisational Power	0.03	0.04	-0.01	0.03

Note. $N = 156$ at Level 2, $n = 496–599$ at Level 1. Worry and organisational power were grand mean-centred before creating the interaction term. b = unstandardised coefficient, SE = standard error of unstandardised coefficient.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, all tests two-tailed.

[a] 1 = male and 2 = female.

Figure 1

The Proposed Model
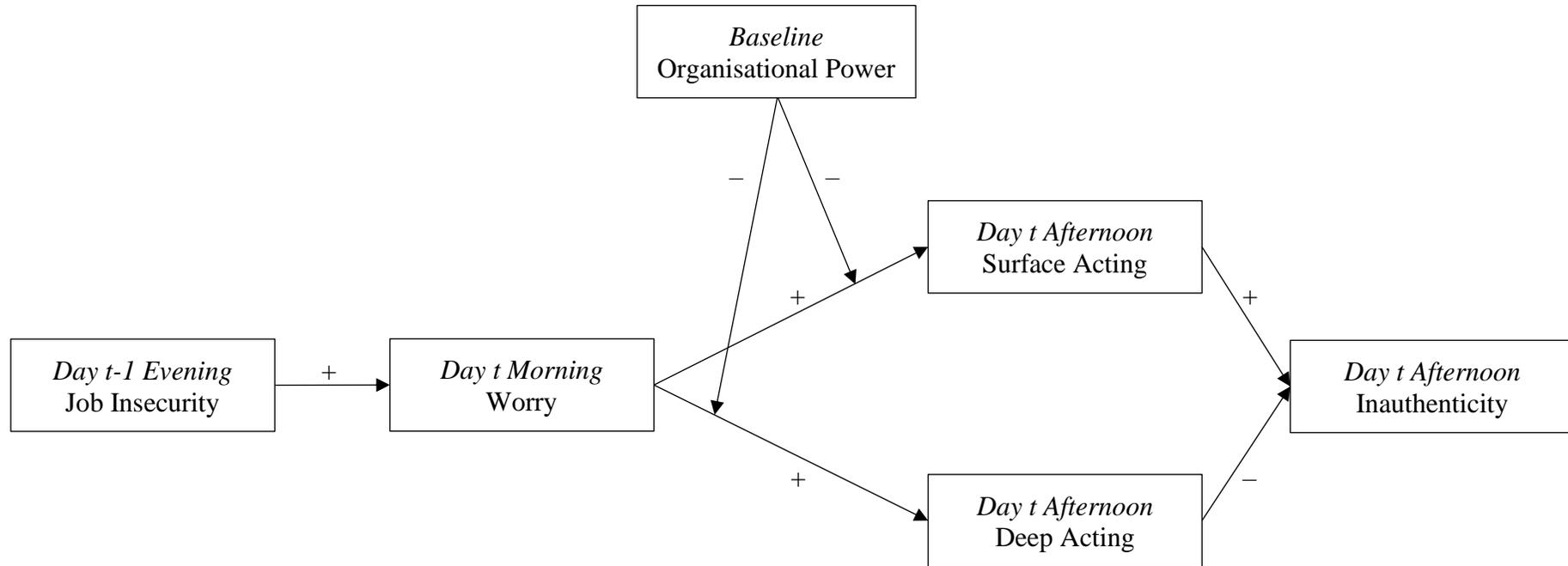
Appendix A

Participant Information Sheet

Date: June, 2021
Title of Project: A daily diary study of work-home interface among employees
Principal Investigator: Senior Lecturer Dr Lixin Jiang
                                   School of Psychology, University of Auckland
                                   Science Centre, Building 301, Room 235B
                                   Phone: 09 923 9278
                                   Email: l.jiang@auckland.ac.nz
 Co-Investigator: Lecturer Dr Zitong Sheng
                                   School of Psychology, University of Auckland
                                   Science Centre, Building 301, Room 211
                                   Email: zshe257@uoa.auckland.ac.nz

Researcher Introduction
You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Senior Lecturer
Lixin Jiang, Lecturer Zitong Sheng, and Master Students of Organisational Psychology
from the School of Psychology at the University of Auckland. The data collected in this
study will be used for students' Masters' theses/dissertations as well as academic
publications. The purpose of this sheet is to provide you with information about the study
to help you decide if you would like to be a part of the study.

The Study Purpose
Adults employed full time in New Zealand work an average of 40 hours per week, which is a
big part of our waking life. Our daily work experiences have a significant impact on our
family/home life. This research study is to examine how daily work experiences may impact
employee family/home life outside the workplace.

To be eligible, participants must be 18 years of age or older, work at least 30 hours per week
between the hours of 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. Monday—Friday at a paid job, and work at the same
organisation for more than 6 months.

Project Procedures
All questionnaires are web-based and hosted by Qualtrics. If you are interested in
participating, please register your interest via the survey link where we ask you to provide us
with your email address (any email address that you have access to; not necessarily your
work email). We will then send you the pre-diary questionnaire via the email. In this pre-
diary questionnaire, you will be asked to complete a variety of measures assessing a range of
individual differences and general work experiences. You will also have the option to provide
your cell phone number if you prefer to provide your daily diary responses via your phone.
This pre-diary questionnaire will take around 15 minutes of your time.

Once you have completed the pre-diary questionnaire, you will then be asked to complete a
daily diary three times a day over five working days (Monday — Friday). Specifically, we
ask you to report on your work experiences around lunch time (around 11 a.m.) and before
you get off work (around 4 p.m.), and on your family experiences before you go to bed
(around 9 p.m.). Each diary entry should take about 5 minutes of your time to complete;

together, three diaries (i.e., at 11 a.m., 4 p.m., and 9 p.m.) will take about 15 minutes of your time each day. The resulting data from both the pre-dairy questionnaire and the daily diary will be combined across the entire sample.

Benefits of Participation
Your participation in this study will contribute to our understanding of the work-home interface. Eventually, the knowledge gained will allow us to design better work life and improve employee work and home life.

Your participation will also help our Master students to complete their degree as they will analyse the data collected in this study to write up their theses or dissertations.

Finally, to thank you for your time and effort as well as your contribution to the study, you will receive up to $60 (petrol or grocery gift vouchers) for completing the study in full. Specifically, participation in the pre-diary questionnaire will lead to a $10 voucher, while participation in three daily diaries each day will lead to a $10 voucher (for a total of $50 for Monday to Friday). Finally, you can choose either petrol or grocery gift vouchers. Upon request, a summary of the results will be shared with you via your email.

Confidentiality and Privacy
No one in your workplace will ever see your individual responses. All surveys will be handled by University of Auckland lecturers, Masters students, and research assistants. Your answers will be coded and kept at University of Auckland.

Please note that all of your responses are strictly confidential and private. We will not ask your name at any point. To link your questionnaire responses to your diary records, you will be asked to answer a set of questions as your personal ID code that only you will know. Your responses and diary data will be converted to anonymous numbers in a secure data file, and your identity will never be associated with your pre-diary questionnaire or diary responses at any time. Your responses will be stored on password-protected files in a University managed server. Only Dr Jiang, Dr Sheng, and Master students of Organisational Psychology will have access to the aggregated data.

Data storage/future use
At the end of the 5-day data collection period, all data will be combined across the sample, preserving the anonymity of each participant's data. All data will be stored indefinitely for research purposes but will at no time be identifiable as yours. Finally, in addition to the Masters theses or dissertations by Masters students, the results of this study may also be published or presented at professional meetings, but the identities of all research participants will remain confidential.

Right to Withdraw from participation
Your participation in this research study is completely voluntary. Prior to beginning the questionnaires, you are invited to practice any tikanga Māori protocols that you deem to be appropriate. You may choose not to be a part of this study. There will be no penalty to you if you choose not to take part. You may choose not to answer specific questions or to stop participating at any time without giving reason. Please note that you will have till 1st Dec 2021 to withdraw any information provided to the researchers. If you wish to do so, please email Dr Jiang. You will be asked to enter your personal code so that we can identify your responses.

Potential risks
The potential risks from taking part in this research are discomfort resulting from answering questions that remind you of negative work experiences. This research is designed to minimise risks and discomfort, but if you experience any distress, you may feel free to *skip* any question that you don't feel comfortable answering, or you may *quit* your participation at any time with no repercussions in respects to your current or future employment.

If you need further support, please use these links below.
- The Ministry of Health (Mental Health Services): https://www.health.govt.nz/yourhealth/conditions-and-treatments/mental-health
- Worksafe: https://worksafe.govt.nz/managing-health-and-safety/
- Māori health service: https://www.raukura.org.nz/?url=/
- Youthline (0800 376 633)
- The Depression Helpline (0800 111 757)
- Healthline (0800 611 116)
- Lifeline (0800 543 354)

Contact details
For any questions regarding this project, please contact Dr Jiang (l.jiang@auckland.ac.nz), Dr Sheng (zshe257@uoa.auckland.ac.nz), or the Head of the School of Psychology, Professor Suzanne Purdy, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland. Phone 373 7599, extn 82073.

UAHPEC Chair contact details
For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, Office of Research Strategy and Integrity, The University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 ext. 83711. Email: humanethics@auckland.ac.nz

We thank you for your help and hope that you will find this study interesting.

THIS STUDY IS APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 16/08/2021. Reference Number UAHPEC22761.

Appendix B

Items Used Within the Present Study

Baseline Survey Items
Age

What is your age?
[Participants could move a scale from 18–80]

Gender

What is your gender?
[Participants could select male, female or other. Selecting other allowed the participant to self-identify with their preferred gender via a free text box]

Tenure

How long have you been a member of your current organisation?
[Participants could move two scales, the first scale measured years, ranging from 0–40, and the second scale measured months, ranging from 0–12]

Organisational Power

Think of this ladder as showing where people stand in a community (a community can be defined in different ways). At the top of the ladder are the people who have the highest standing and the bottom are the people who have the lowest standing.

Now think of this ladder as representing your position in your organisation's power hierarchy. Where do you see your position in your organisation's power hierarchy?
[Participants could move a scale from 0–100]

Morning (11 a.m.) Survey Items
Worry

This scale consists of a number of words that describe feelings and emotions. Thinking about how you feel at the moment, to what extent do you feel:

1) Anxious

2) Worried
3) Tense
   [Participants responded to each question by selecting from the following options: not at all, slightly, somewhat, moderately, to a large extent]

Afternoon (4 p.m.) Survey Items
Surface and Deep Acting

During your interactions with other organisational members today, what is your level of agreement with being involved in the following behaviours? Here we are interested in interactions in a broad sense, including both in-person interactions (e.g., meetings, casual hallway conversations) and virtual interactions (e.g., emails, phone conversations, chat messages).

Today at work, I...

1) Put on an act in order to deal with other people in my workplace in an appropriate way
2) Faked a good mood when interacting with other people in my workplace
3) Put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with other people in my workplace
4) showed feelings that were different from what I felt inside to other people in my workplace
5) tried to actually experience the emotions that I showed to other people in my workplace
6) made an effort to actually feel the emotions that I displayed towards other people in my workplace
7) worked hard to feel the emotions that I needed to show other people in my workplace

[Participants responded to each question by selecting from the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree]

Inauthenticity

Reflect on your work experience today, to what extent do you agree with the following statements:

1) Today at work, I felt that I cannot express my true self when I was at work.

[Participants responded to each question by selecting from the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree]

Reflecting on your workday today, how often...

2) … did you feel like you were not being yourself?
3) …. Did you feel inauthentic or fake?

[Participants responded to each question by selecting from the following options: never, rarely, occasionally, a moderate amount, all the time]

Evening (9 p.m.) Survey Items
Job Insecurity

Based on your perception at this moment, please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

1) Chances are, I will soon lose my job
2) I am sure I can keep my job
3) I feel insecure about the future of my job
4) I think I might lose my job in the near future
   [Participants responded to each question by selecting from the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree]