Service work as affect management:
The role of affect-related competence

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1. Introduction

Recently, Industrial and Organizational Psychology has (re-)discovered the importance of affect and affective processes in human thinking and behavior. The investigation of the role of affect at work has become a very active field of research, as demonstrated by several reviews that have been published in the last ten years (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Brief, 2001; Briner, 1999; Isen & Baron, 1991; Pekrun & Frese, 1992; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Briner (1999) identified two major reasons for what he calls a major shift in attention: the increasing demands for emotional expression in service jobs and the popularization of concepts that describe emotion-related skills (especially "emotional intelligence").

Service work and emotion-related skills are also the two main topics of this dissertation. More specifically, I want to investigate if and how competencies and skills that concern the processing, regulation, and utilization of affect can help to meet the specific demands of service work. The importance of these competencies and skills for service work becomes evident when one looks at the nature of service work and especially at the function of emotional expression. First, being served with the appropriate display of emotion is simply part of the service product. For example, when entering a plane, passengers expect that flight attendants welcome them with a friendly smile; when discussing a financial investment, customers expect financial consultants to show empathy and understanding for their specific situation. Second, the use of emotional expression has a strategic function. Service employees

have to induce a certain affective state in the customer to ensure a smooth service delivery process. For example, the smile of a flight attendant not only signals friendliness, but also calmness and security, which is important for anxious, and therefore potentially troublesome passengers.

Thus, it can be said that the service employees have to create a certain affective atmosphere, that is, they have to provide "affect management". In doing this, service employees' expression of emotion is only the "tip of the iceberg". It is the visible product of a complex process that involves many different competencies and skills. For instance, service employees must continuously monitor customers' psychological states. This (mostly affect-related) information has to be processed and translated into a behavioral strategy (of which emotional expression is one aspect). At the same time, service employees must also take care of their own affective state.

Research has rarely investigated in detail the competencies and skills that are required to meet these affect-related demands of service jobs. This dissertation is supposed to fill this gap. It deals with the competencies and skills which are necessary to be a successful "affect manager" and I have subsumed them under the concept of "affect-related competence". Affect-related competence concerns the effective processing, utilization and regulation of affect and affective information in the work context.

In this dissertation I want to demonstrate that affect-related competence is a useful concept for the work context, and in particular for service work. Three topics have been selected to demonstrate the concept's value. First, I want to show that service employees' affect-related competence is related to customers' perceptions and evaluations (Chapter 4). A hierarchical model will be tested which relates affect-related competence to the interactants' affective states and subsequent customer evaluations within service encounters. Second, the role of affect-related competence as a psychological resource will be investigated (Chapter 5). Building upon recent theories of emotion work, I will test a two-step model which describes the protective function of affect-related competence as a "buffer" against the negative outcomes of work-related demands. Finally, as an alternative diagnostic tool I will develop and validate a situation-based measure of affect-related competence for use in both research and applied settings (Chapter 6).

Before presenting the empirical studies, however, the concept of affect-related competence will be developed. I will begin by describing theoretical and empirical work on emotional intelligence, because affect-related competence is based to some extent on this concept. This will lead to the formulation of the concept of affect-related competence

(Chapter 2). Next, I will outline the nature of service work and further discuss the role of affect-related competence in services (Chapter 3). After presenting the three empirical studies (Chapter 4 to 6) I will conclude with a summary of the theoretical and empirical insights and I will provide an outlook on future research (Chapter 7).

2. Emotional intelligence and affect-related competence

In this chapter, the concept of affect-related competence will be introduced. This concept relies to a certain extent on theoretical and empirical work on emotional intelligence. Therefore, to fully understand the theoretical context in which this concept is embedded, it is necessary to give an overview on emotional intelligence and then develop the affect-related competence concept by outlining the similarities and differences between the two concepts.

Thus, as an initial point of reference Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original conceptualization of emotional intelligence and its refined version (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Chapter 2.1) will be discussed. Second, a brief description of other models of emotional intelligence which were developed in the course of conceptual diversification will be presented, followed by a discussion of critical aspects of the concept (Chapter 2.2). Third, I will illustrate how emotional intelligence was applied to Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Chapter 2.3). Fourth, I will conceptualize affect-related competence and will outline why it is preferred over emotional intelligence (Chapter 2.4). Finally, the issue of measurement of affect-related competence will be discussed (Chapter 2.5).

2.1 The Mayer-Salovey model of emotional intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence received considerable public attention through Goleman's (1995) best-selling book "*Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*". This book triggered a controversial discussion about the relative importance of emotional versus cognitive abilities for predicting professional and private success. It is an interesting and vivid but also a somewhat over-simplified report on how emotions and their processing can influence thinking and behavior. The *scientific* investigation of the emotional intelligence concept, however, started a few years before Goleman's book was published. The term "emotional intelligence" was introduced in a paper by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The authors' objective was to draw together literature that investigated the processing and utilization of emotions. They defined emotional intelligence

> as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. (p. 189)

The authors used the term intelligence because they wanted to link their framework to the classical intelligence tradition (see also Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Their model of emotional intelligence was organized around three major dimensions which included several subdimensions:

(1) *Appraisal and expression of emotion* comprised abilities with regard to how well an individual can ascribe the correct meaning to his or her own affective state and how well emotions are expressed verbally or nonverbally. Furthermore, it related to abilities to perceive correctly the emotions that are expressed nonverbally by others and to the ability to understand and re-experience the feelings of others (empathy).

(2) *Regulation of emotion* referred to abilities to manipulate (i.e., to change or to maintain) the affective state either in the self or in others.

(3) *Utilization of emotions* described abilities to use emotions strategically. It was argued that emotions supported flexible planning, creative thinking, redirecting attention, and motivation.

A few years later Mayer and Salovey (1997) refined and further developed the original model. In their opinion the first definition and model was too vague and did not include all necessary aspects. More specifically, they argued that a better conceptualization should also include how people "think intelligently about feelings", which means that cognitive aspects should receive more emphasis in the model. This led the authors to a new definition of emotional intelligence with four "branches":

 Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10)

The four branches described in the new definition were arranged in such a way that the first branch comprised abilities that were more basic (e.g., they are developed earlier in life), and each following branch showed an increasing level of complexity and integration.

The first branch "perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion" corresponded to the first dimension of the old model. The second branch "emotional facilitation of thinking" accorded to the third dimension of the original model. The third branch "understanding and analyzing emotions" constituted a new aspect. It referred to the knowledge an individual has about the meaning and the causal antecedents of specific emotions (e.g., anger results when someone purposefully violates or denies legitimate claims). It also described the individual's understanding of how emotions are related to each other (e.g., how and why love can become hate). Finally, the fourth branch "reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" constituted the highest level of emotional intelligence abilities and closely resembled the second dimension of the original model because it focused on how an individual can effectively regulate own emotions and those of others.

2.2 Diversification of the concept and main criticisms

In the aftermath of the success of Goleman's (1995) book, a variety of different conceptualizations of emotional intelligence were proposed. However, only some of them can be considered serious scientific endeavors (for an overview of models see, for example, Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Feldman Barrett & Gross, 2001). In an attempt to categorize existing models of emotional intelligence, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) distinguished "ability models" and "mixed models". Ability models (e.g., the late Mayer-Salovey model) focus on efficient and effective mental processing at the intersection of cognition and emotion. Mixed models of emotional intelligence, such as the conceptualizations of Bar-On (1997a) or Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000), include a much broader collection of concepts than ability models. For example, Bar-On (1997b) defined emotional intelligence as "an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills" (p. 14). His model consisted of five major dimensions, each with several subdimensions:

(1) intrapersonal skills (which comprised emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, independence),

(2) interpersonal skills (which comprised interpersonal relationships, social

   responsibility, empathy),

(3) adaptability (which comprised problem solving, reality testing, flexibility)

(4) stress management (which comprised stress tolerance, impulse control)

(5) general mood (which comprised happiness, optimism).

Thus, this model not only included abilities (e.g., emotional self-awareness, empathy), but also personality traits (e.g., optimism) and behavioral tendencies (e.g., assertiveness). Moreover, some of the concepts were not affect-related (e.g., reality testing), which leaves some serious concerns about the validity of Bar-On's conceptualization.

Indeed, the increasing diversification and broadening of the emotional intelligence concept, as well as the growing media attention stimulated controversial discussions in the academic world (e.g., Page, 2001). The most prominent objection to the concept concerned the status of emotional intelligence as "real" intelligence (e.g., Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). For example, Roberts et al. (2001) argued that "[…] contemporary research and theory lacks any clear conceptual model of intelligence within which to place the construct" (p. 197).

In a series of papers, Mayer, Salovey, and colleagues have addressed this issue in depth (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1995, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). They argued that their definition of emotional intelligence corresponds to traditional definitions of intelligence, especially to the one proposed by Wechsler, who considered intelligence "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Wechsler, 1958; cited in Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 186). They conceded, however, that mixed models of emotional intelligence, with an inclusion of traits and behavioral tendencies, cannot meet this criteria. Mayer et al. (1999) also developed the *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale* (MEIS), with features similar to cognitive intelligence measures. With this measure they tried to show that emotional intelligence also meets empirical criteria for intelligence. First, the subtests of emotional intelligence were positively interrelated. Second, emotional intelligence was positively associated with existing intelligence tests. Third, intelligence increased with age. Other studies have also provided support for the first and the third criteria (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Roberts, et al., 2001), but results for the second criteria were mixed (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Davies et al., 1998; Derksen, Kramer, & Katzko, 2002; Newsome, Day, & Catano, 2000; Roberts et al., 2001).

A second critique was also related to the claim that emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence. Critics argued that emotional intelligence cannot be an intelligence because it is correlated with personality (e.g., Davies et al., 1998; Newsome et al., 2000). Indeed, particularly self-report measures of emotional intelligence showed high correlations with established personality concepts. Depending on the emotional intelligence measure, high correlations have been reported with Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness (Davies et al., 1998; Dawda & Hart, 2000; Newsome et al., 2000; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998). Only the MEIS showed more favorable characteristics with low to modest correlations with the Big Five (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Roberts et al., 2001). Thus, although measurement problems might in part explain the high correlations (e.g., same-source effects between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and personality traits), correlations with personality traits will remain a threat to the emotional intelligence concept as long as proponents insist on the "intelligence" label.

To sum up, it is the "intelligence approach" that has attracted the most criticism. Indeed, in contrast to Mayer and Salovey (1997), in my opinion the effective processing and utilization of affect can be conceptualized without anchoring it in the intelligence domain. As I will discuss in some more detail in Chapter 2.4, I propose a "competence approach" because it has certain advantages over the "intelligence approach". For example, it allows casting a different light on the issue of discriminant validity.

2.3 Application of emotional intelligence in Industrial and Organizational psychology

Some proponents emphasized that emotional intelligence would be especially beneficial in the workplace. Consider, for example, the following statement by Goleman (1998):

> Analyses by dozens of different experts in close to five hundred corporations, government agencies, and nonprofit organizations worldwide have arrived independently at remarkably similar conclusions, and their findings are particularly compelling because they avoid the biases or limits inherent in the work of a single individual or group. Their conclusions all point to the paramount place of emotional intelligence in excellence on the job – in virtually any job. (p. 6)

This is a very strong statement. Unfortunately, Goleman does not cite the source of these analyses, and I do not know of any empirical basis for his proclamation. As a matter of fact, until now the bulk of literature on emotional intelligence in the workplace has been theoretically oriented and has been confined to formulating hypotheses. Some papers had a broad perspective (e.g., Abraham, 1999a; Caruso & Wolfe, 2001), others focused on specific

topics such as leadership (George, 2000), work groups (Kelly & Barsade, 2001), service encounters (Härtel, Barker, & Baker, 1999), job insecurity (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Härtel, 2002), or training (Cherniss, 2000). However, empirical research on the role of emotional intelligence is still scarce and the few results are rather disappointing.

A point in case is research on leadership behavior. Despite its obvious importance there is a dearth of scientific studies investigating this topic. George (2000) has provided a useful theoretical account on how emotional intelligence may affect leadership behavior. She proposed that emotional intelligence enhances effectiveness in five traditional domains of leadership: developing collective goals; instilling in others knowledge and appreciation of the importance of work activities and behaviors; generating in others enthusiasm, optimism, cooperation and so on; encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization. Sosik and Megerian (1999) conducted one of the rare studies on this issue. They tried to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, but the study had only a very limited empirical value because their conceptualization of emotional intelligence was dubious and the results remained unclear.

Another attempt to apply emotional intelligence to the workplace was a study by Fox and Spector (1999) in the context of personnel selection. They tested the role of emotional intelligence in simulated job interviews. The results were mixed. While empathy predicted interviewer reactions and ratings, other aspects of emotional intelligence were unrelated to any outcome variable.

In summary, although the theoretical basis has been laid, the field of Industrial and Organizational Psychology still awaits the convincing empirical application of emotional intelligence to the work context.

2.4 Conceptualizing affect-related competence

Throughout this work I will rely on the concept of affect-related competence. I define affect-related competence as the competence to perceive and appraise accurately the affective state of the self and of others; the competence to express emotions; the competence to access and/or generate certain affective states when they facilitate thought; the competence to understand affect (emotions, feelings, mood states); and the competence to regulate affect in the self and in others to promote effective work-related behavior. This definition is similar to Mayer and Salovey's (1997) definition of emotional intelligence. In both definitions, the

accurate and effective processing, utilization, and regulation of affect and affective information is central (see Table 2.1). Also, affect-related competence shares with emotional intelligence the idea that it consists of subcompetencies (or subabilities). These subcompetencies are closely connected in the sense that they built upon each other (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This also implies that a general factor of affect-related competence or emotional intelligence exists (cf. Mayer et al., 1999). As the qualifying attribute I prefer "affect-related" over "emotional", because it denotes more clearly the intersection between cognition and affect. In addition, "affect" is the more general term that includes feelings, emotions, and mood states (cf. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Table 2.1
Comparing emotional intelligence (as conceptualized by Mayer & Salovey (1997)) and affect-related competence

	Emotional intelligence	Affect-related competence
Concept	Abilities for effective processing, utilization, and regulation of affect and affective information	Competencies for effective processing, utilization, and regulation of affect and affective information
Context	All life contexts	Work context
Structure	Related but distinct abilities that form a second-order factor	Related but distinct competencies that form a second-order factor
Focus	Maximal performance	Typical performance
Changeability	With age or level of maturity	Through training and/or work experience
Theoretical relationships to other variables	No or only small relationships to personality traits, medium relationships to cognitive intelligence	Personality traits and cognitive intelligence as possible antecedents

However, there are also some major differences between the two concepts. More specifically, there are three main reasons why I prefer the concept of affect-related competence over emotional intelligence:

(1) The focus here is on typical behavior rather than maximal behavior. As Ackerman (1994) has pointed out, typical behavior (or typical performance) is a better predictor of long-term performance, such as job performance (see also Cronbach, 1949). In contrast, the intelligence concept focuses on the maximum level of performance that an individual is capable of achieving (maximal performance) and which has less predictive power in the work context. For example, in service work it is more important to assess the *typical* reaction of a service employee to an angry customer than his or her *best possible* reaction, because the first

is the behavior he/she will show most often. The term "competence" reflects a typical performance approach rather than a maximal performance approach, and therefore it is more suitable for my purposes. The distinction between typical and maximal performance also has implications for the measurement of affect-related competence (see Chapter 2.5).

(2) The use of the term competence emphasizes that the respective subcompetencies or skills are changeable within the limits of an individual's basic processing capabilities. Affect-related competence should be susceptible, for example, to training efforts or increasing work experience. Indeed, interventions which focus on coping with stress show that individuals can learn and apply affect-related strategies to reduce stress symptoms (Meichenbaum, 1985; Roger & Hudson, 1995). In the intelligence domain, the mutability of abilities is addressed only at a general level (e.g., the intelligence level rises with age or maturity; Mayer et al., 1999).

(3) Competencies do not preclude relationships to other concepts in advance. As was pointed out above, Davies et al. (1998) have criticized the emotional intelligence concept because it strongly overlaps with personality traits. Competencies, in contrast, can be theoretically related to such traits (McClelland, 1973). For example, personality traits may influence how competencies are acquired and maintained (e.g., through the tendency to select or avoid certain situations). In a similar vein, McCrae (2000) argued that

> […] instead of debating whether emotional intelligence is a disposition or an ability, it may be wiser to say that the processing of emotional experience involves both specific abilities and particular personality traits. Either of these, or perhaps a combination of the two, may best predict […] real life outcomes […] (p. 272).

Thus, affect-related competence can be influenced by personality traits but also by specific types of cognitive intelligence. Indeed, one can assume that the subcompetencies that describe basic processing capacities (such as emotion perception) have a strong overlap with cognitive intelligence. Accordingly, the more "behavioral" a subcompetence is (e.g., management of others' affective state) the stronger the influence of personality traits should be. It can be hypothesized that particularly Extraversion and Neuroticism are related to affect-related competence. Extraversion points to dimensions of affect-related competence that concern the effective handling of others' affective states or emotions. Neuroticism has some similarities to the self-regulation dimension. For example, typical items of Neuroticism refer to feelings states, and some of the items even describe the process of affective self-regulation (e.g., "Too often I feel discouraged and want to quit when something goes wrong"; e.g., Borkenau, 1993). This issue will also be addressed empirically in Chapter 6.

2.5. Measuring affect-related competence

According to the proposed conceptualization, measures of affect-related competence are supposed to assess typical performance. At first glance, established measures of emotional intelligence cannot be used for this purpose - even if they refer to the same dimensions - because they are supposed to assess maximal performance. However, closer inspection of available measures of emotional intelligence reveals that virtually all self-report measures assess typical behavior rather than maximal behavior. More specifically, the wording of most items refers to how individuals would assess their typical way of reacting to emotional situations and/or affective stimuli. To my knowledge, the only instrument that was explicitly designed as a maximal performance measure of emotional intelligence is the MEIS (Mayer et al., 1999; see Chapter 2.2)[1].

In the following I will briefly describe self-report measures of emotional intelligence that can also be used as measures of affect-related competence. They can be categorized into instruments that measure only a specific dimension and instruments that refer to several dimensions.

2.5.1 Measures of specific dimensions

Most measures of specific dimensions are well-established instruments, developed before the term emotional intelligence was coined. They predominantly refer to the perception, the appraisal, and the expression of emotions. For example, the ability to correctly perceive nonverbal signals can be measured with the "Profile of Nonverbal Sensitivity" (PONS; Rosenthal, Hall, DiMatteo, Rogers, & Archer, 1979). For the measurement of empathy a wide array of instruments are available, such as the Interpersonal Reactivity Index

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[1] As an example of how a measure of maximum performance can look like, I want to describe the MEIS in some more detail. The MEIS builds on the model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) and is divided into four branches: perceiving, assimilating, understanding, and managing emotions. The first branch comprises tasks to identify the emotional content in faces, music, graphical designs, and stories. For each stimulus (in sum 30 stimuli) subjects must indicate if a given emotion (e.g., happiness, anger, fear) is present. The second branch concerns the ability to assimilate emotions into cognitive processes. The first task (60 items) is to describe similarities of given emotional sensations with other senses like color, movement, or touch. The second task (28 items) asks people to transform a present emotion toward a person) into a judgment about that person. Branch 3 comprises four multiple choice tasks that concern the ability to understand emotions. In the first task (8 items) people have to decompose blended emotions (e.g., optimism) into their elements. The second and third task (8 items and 24 items, respectively) asks people to describe the proceeding or transition of emotions (e.g., the development of anger, the transition from being afraid to being calm). The fourth task (40 items) is to describe the emotions of two persons involved in a conflicting situation. Branch 4 assesses the ability to manage emotions in the self (24 items) and in others (24 items) by confronting subjects with short descriptions of emotion-related situations (e.g., a depressed colleague). For each vignette subjects must rate the effectiveness of four reactions. As demonstrated in three studies (Ciarrochi et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2001), the reliability of the subscales depend to a large extent on how the answers are scored. With consensus scoring (i.e., scores according to how many other individuals chose the same answer), reliability coefficients reach satisfactory levels for almost all scales. However, when the expert scoring procedure is used (two raters identified the best solution to a question), the alphas for some of the 13 scales drop to rather low levels (down to .35).

(IRI; Davis, 1983, 1985) or Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) empathy scale. Finally, the ability to appraise and verbally express emotions can be assessed with the "Toronto Alexithymia Scale" (Taylor, Ryan, & Bagby, 1985). For an overview of these measures see also Salovey and Mayer (1990).

2.5.2 Multidimensional measures

The most frequently used multidimensional measures are the "Trait Meta Mood Scale" (Salvey et al., 1995), the Schutte et al. (1998) scale, and the "EQ-i" (Bar-On, 1997b, 2000).

The "Trait Meta Mood Scale" (TMMS; Salovey et al., 1995) is a self-report measure (short form: 30 items, long form: 48 items) that focuses on three dimensions of emotional intelligence: emotional attention (how much attention an individual pays to his or her emotions), emotional clarity (how clearly the individual understands emotions), and mood repair (how effective an individual is in attaining or maintaining a positive mood). The structural properties reported so far have been good (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Salovey et al., 1995). However, the discriminant validity has been somewhat problematic because the measure correlated highly with personality traits (Davies et al., 1998; Salovey et al., 1995). The TMMS has shown predictive validity for changes in mood state after inducing a negative mood state, life satisfaction, and depression symptomatology (Martinez-Pons, 1997; Salovey et al., 1995).

Schutte et al. (1998) developed a 33-item measure which was explicitly designed to reflect all four dimensions of the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model. Nevertheless, the authors proposed a one-dimensional structure for the scale. The authors reported high reliabilities for the scale, and it predicted grade point average after an academic year quite well. The questionnaire correlated highly with the TMMS and the Toronto Alexithymia Scale. However, it was also strongly related to the personality trait of Openness to Experience. Moreover, Petrides and Furnham (2000) questioned the one-dimensional structure of the original measure. In their study they found four dimensions, which they labeled mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills, and utilization of emotions.

Bar-On (1997b, 2000) developed the "EQ-i", a 133-item self-report measure with fifteen subscales based on his model of emotional intelligence (see Chapter 2.2). The reliabilities and structural properties of the measures are good (Bar-On, 2000; Dawda & Hart, 2000). However, the discriminant validity seems to be problematic, particularly with respect to Neuroticism and Extraversion (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Newsome et al., 2000). Based on their validity study, Newsome, et al. (2000) concluded rather harshly "that the EQ-i is largely

a measure of neuroticism" (p. 1014). In addition, the sheer number of items limits the usability of the measure.

To sum up, the described multidimensional measures have certain strengths but also some weaknesses. All three self-report questionnaires are reliable. The TMMS and the Schutte scale are also quite economical in terms of scale length. However, the EQ-i, and to a lesser extent, the TMMS and the Schutte et al. scale have some problems with discriminant validity, especially with regard to personality traits. Although it was said that measures of affect-related competence can correlate with personality traits, these relations should not be so high as to suggest that the constructs are indistinguishable. Moreover, like all self-report questionnaires, the described measures are only of limited use for organizational practices (e.g., personnel selection).

In the empirical studies that will follow, I will use items from the TMMS and the Schutte et al. scale to assess affect-related competence. Although these measures are not free of flaws they are probably the best measures currently available. In Chapter 6 an alternative measure of affect-related competence will be developed that has an interview format and that is based on the individuals' reaction to real-life situations.

3. Affect-related competence and service work

In the last two decades, economies of western countries underwent dramatic changes. One was the shift from industrial production to service production as the dominant economic sector (cf. *The Economist*, February 20, 1994). In Germany, for example, in 1995 about 62 percent of all employees worked in the service sector, a share that probably will increase to over two thirds in 2010 (IAB, 1999). Furthermore, the expression "service revolution" was coined to describe the increasing efforts of companies to foster customer orientation (cf. Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). In line with this development, research begun to focus on the psychological aspects of services. The topics covered included, for example, service quality and customer satisfaction (e.g., Oliver, 1993; Parasumaran, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985), service climate (e.g., Schneider & Bowen, 1985) or complaint management (e.g., Boote, 1998). More recently, as I have already pointed out, affect and affective processes in services have received increased attention (Briner, 1999).

In this chapter I want to follow this latter path and describe the role of affect and especially of affect-related competence in service work in greater detail. As a theoretical foundation, I will first describe conceptualizations of service and service work (Chapter 3.1). Then research will be reviewed on the role of affect in the service domain by differentiating three perspectives that research has taken (Chapter 3.2). Next, I will describe how affect-

related competence relates to service work (Chapter 3.3). Finally, I will outline the research questions of the empirical studies (Chapter 3.4).

3.1 The nature of services and service work

A large number of theorists have tried to define the nature of services (cf. Bateson & Hoffman, 1999; Lovelock & Wright, 1999; Nerdinger, 1994). The most prominent definition was proposed by Zeithaml, Parasumaran, and Berry (1985). They argued that services have four unique characteristics:

(1) Services are intangible, that means, they are *experienced* by the customer. Thus, as compared to goods, evaluations of services are much more subjective.

(2) Services are heterogeneous, that is, they cannot be delivered in an absolutely consistent or uniform way.

(3) Production and consumption are inseparable. For example, financial consulting is consumed by the client the moment it is produced by the consultant.

(4) Services are perishable, that means, they cannot be stored or inventoried.

Other theorists have focused on the psychological aspects of service (e.g., Klaus, 1985; Nerdinger, 1994). For example, Nerdinger (1994) has defined a service as a face-to-face interaction between a customer and a service employee on the basis of an exchange of service for money. The result of the service is a solution for a customer problem or request. In such a conceptualization the core of the service is the face-to-face interaction (or the service encounter).

From the perspective of the service employee service encounters are a rather complex affair. A service employee has to carry out at least two major tasks at one time (cf. Nerdinger, 1994). On the one hand, service work requires carrying out instrumental tasks – service employees have to fulfill the customers' request, which involves actions that can range from putting food on a tray and collecting money in a fast-food restaurant to solving complex problems, like developing a strategy for a customer's investment in financial consulting. This has to be done efficiently and quickly. On the other hand, service employees have to deal with customers on a social level. In most service occupations, the customers expect service employees to be friendly and sociable and to express empathy and appreciation throughout the service encounter (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989).

Thus, service employees have to simultaneously carry out instrumental and social tasks. Classical approaches to performance in work and organizational psychology have emphasized

the instrumental component. However, as scholars have argued, in service work the social component may be a task attribute that is at least of equal importance for customer satisfaction (cf. George, 1991; Morrison, 1997). This leads directly to the importance of affect in service work, because to a large extent the social task is a task of affect management. Before I further develop this idea, I briefly turn to research on the role of affect in service work.

3.2 Service work and affect

After 20 years of research – beginning with Hochschild's (1983) groundbreaking studies on emotion work - scholars and practitioner alike have come to realize the importance of affective processes in the service context. Accordingly, in Industrial and Organizational Psychology as well as in Services Marketing the body of research on this topic is growing steadily (e.g., Briner, 1999; Maute & Dubé, 1999). In categorizing past research endeavors, three perspectives can be distinguished: A situational perspective, a task-oriented perspective, and a dispositional perspective. For each perspective I want to briefly review the dominant streams of research.

3.2.1 The situational perspective

Within this perspective one research stream focused on how the current affective state of individuals is related to their attitudes, judgments, and behavior. When forming attitudes or judgments, individuals rely to some extent on affect as a source of information (e.g., Schwarz, 1990). Related to this, some researchers (e.g., Wirtz & Bateson, 1999) argued that the evaluation of customer satisfaction is primarily based on the appraisal of the affective experience in the foregoing service situation ("I feel good, therefore the service must have been good"). Affect also has consequences for overt behavior. For example, George (1991) showed that positive mood is related to service employees' helping behavior toward customers. Furthermore, Kluger, Rafaeli, and Greenfeld (1999) found that approach and avoidance behavior in a service setting was influenced by the customers' level of arousal.

A second stream of research has focused on antecedents and consequences of the expression of emotions in service encounters (cf. Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, 1989). For example, it has been found that the expression of positive emotions of service employees toward customers is dependent on a variety of situational characteristics, such as the gender of the customer or how busy the store is (Rafaeli, 1989a; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990). Moreover,

research has also demonstrated how service employees use emotional expression to maintain control over the customer (Rafaeli, 1989b).

3.2.2 The task-related perspective

This perspective is strongly connected to the concept of "emotion work". It is based on the observation that the display of certain emotions is explicitly or implicitly a part of many service jobs (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). For example, the company as well as customers expect flight attendants to be friendly independent of their actual affective state. Giving in to a bad mood (e.g., because of work overload) would be considered a violation of the customer's "right" to be treated pleasantly. The employee's psychological effort to adapt to the demands of the service job has been termed "emotion work" (Hochschild, 1983). Several studies demonstrated the negative effect of emotion work for service employees' well-being (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2000; Grandey, in press; Morris & Feldman, 1997). In Chapter 5 I will give a more detailed account of this research.

3.2.3 The dispositional perspective

This perspective comprises research that investigated the effect of affect-related characteristics of the service employee on outcomes in the service setting. One of the first dispositional variables that was studied in the service setting was empathy (e.g., Greenberg & Mayer, 1964). However, the effect of employee's empathy on the customer remains unclear (Plank, Greene, & Reid, 1993). Scholars also suggested that dispositional affect can be a factor that determines performance at work (e.g., Arvey, Renz, & Watson, 1998; Wright & Staw, 1999) but research in the service domain is still scarce and the results are mixed. For example, George (1991) found positive affectivity to be unrelated to helping behavior of service employees. Recently, interest in the predictive value of personality traits for job performance has been increasing, but meta-analyses showed that Neuroticism, which has a strong affect-related connotation, is only weakly related to performance in service jobs (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, & Roth, 1998).

One reason for these disappointing results might be that the variables studied are still too broad to capture the specifics of service work. As I will now describe, affect-related competence may be more suitable in this respect.

3.3 Affect management and affect-related competence in service work

The basic premise of my empirical work is that effective management of affect is a prerequisite of successful service work. Moreover, I argue that affect-related competence is the dispositional base for successful affect management. In other word, the fulfillment of the social and instrumental tasks of service work depends to a large extent on the perception, appraisal, and expression of affective information, and the regulation of both interactants' affect.

Service employees face specific affect-related demands in service encounters. These demands require managing (i.e., to process and to regulate) their own as well as the customers' affect. On the one hand, as was said before, service employees need to express organizationally desired emotions as an integral part of their work and this requires self-regulatory efforts. Successful self-regulation makes it necessary to constantly pay attention to one's actual affective state and to ascribe the correct meaning to it. On the other hand, service employees also have to take into account the affective state of the customer. Recent conceptualizations in service marketing have highlighted the fact that customers participate to a large extent in the production of the service (e.g., Bettencourt, 1997; Bowen & Jones, 1986). This is particularly evident in complex services as, for example, consulting. To ensure the delivery of high quality service the customers need to accurately communicate information about their background and their needs and wishes to the service employees. However, at the outset of the service encounter, customers often are not in the appropriate affective state to provide the necessary information. For example, customers may be anxious in the case of services that involve high psychological or financial costs, or they may be irritated or angry because of preceding service failures. In both cases the affective state of the customer impedes good service delivery. Thus, the service employees need to be sensitive to the affective cues that customers send and they have to understand the psychological perspective of the customers. Based on this information, the service employee can regulate the customer toward a more appropriate affective state to ensure the smooth flow of communication.

Thus, service work involves affect management, that is, regulatory efforts that are aimed at the affective state of both the service employees themselves and the customers. The competencies necessary for effective affect management as described (e.g., sensitivity to affective cues, empathy, affective self-regulation) correspond quite closely to those described as dimensions of affect-related competence. Stated similarly, affect management is "affect-related competence in action" (cf. Matthews & Zeidner, 2000).

3.4 Research questions for the empirical studies

To sum up, in Chapter 1 I have provided the theoretical foundation for the concept of affect-related competence. In Chapter 2 I have outlined the role of affect-related competence in successful affect management in service work. It is now possible to specify the research questions that will be addressed in the following three empirical studies.

The first question concerns the structure of affect-related competence:

(1) What is the empirical structure of affect-related competence?

This question will be addressed in all three empirical studies. Above I have outlined that the structure of affect-related competence involves several first-order factors and one general factor. Based on data from different sources, factor analyses will reveal if the theoretical structure of affect-related competence corresponds to the empirical structure.

The second and third questions concern the relationship between affect-related competence and performance:

(2) Is affect-related competence associated with performance in the service context?

(3) What are the processes underlying this relationship?

Questions (2) and (3) will be addressed in the first study. As was pointed out, research yielded rather disappointing results in predicting service performance by dispositional variables and affect-related competence may be a more promising concept. In Study 1 a dispositional approach will be combined with a situational approach, that is, I will relate service employees affect-related competence to customers' evaluations in single service encounters. Moreover, I try to identify the mechanisms through which affect-related competence has an effect on these evaluations by testing if affect-related competence has an influence on the interactants' affective state. This design implies a hierarchical structure of the data which will be analyzed with the appropriate methodology.

The fourth and fifth question concern the potential role of affect-related competence as a psychological resource against the negative effects of emotion work:

(4) Does affect-related competence have a protective function for service employees?

(5) What are the pathways through which affect-related competence unfolds the protective influence?

Emotion work can be a source of work stress (Brotheridge & Lee, 2000; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). Psychological resources help to deal successfully with work stress, and affect-related competence might have such a protective function for service employees. This issue, as it is stated in questions (3) and (4), will be addressed in Study 2. I will combine the dispositional approach with a task-related perspective. I will propose and

test a model that describes two pathways through which affect-related competence can prevent negative consequences for the well-being of service employees working in jobs with high demands.

In Chapter 2.5 I discussed the measurement of affect-related competence and showed that the present self-report instruments have certain strengths but also weaknesses with respect to discriminant validity and practicability. Therefore, a new measure of affect-related competence should combine the advantages and eliminate the weaknesses of existing measures. The sixth question concerns this issue:

(6) How can affect-related competence be measured in an alternative way?

In Study 3 I will develop and validate a situation-based measurement tool to assess affect-related competence. For validation I will apply a multi-source approach, that is, data will be used from self-reports, peer-reports and from independent raters. The measure can be used by both researchers and practitioners in the work context because with this situational approach, typical disadvantages and biases of questionnaire measures can be avoided or at least minimized.

4. A two-level model of the relation between service employees' affect-related competence and customer evaluations (Study 1)

In the previous chapter I argued that affect-related competence is necessary to meet the demands of service work, especially with regard to affect management. In this chapter I want to substantiate this proposition. More specifically, the following study has four objectives. (1) In the context of financial consulting I want to link affect-related competence to customer evaluations. In previous research this direct link has not been established. (2) I want to develop and test a hierarchical model which helps to understand this link. This model relates the service employees' affect-related competence to service employees' and customers' affective state in service encounters and to subsequent customer evaluations. (3) I want to specify the affective processes within a service encounter by demonstrating that affect is contagious with respect to three different affect dimensions (i.e., pleasantness, arousal, and power). (4) In contrast to previous studies with a similar design, I want to use a more appropriate methodology to study the proposed cross-level relationships by applying Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM).

4.1 Theory and hypotheses

In the following I shall first describe four dimensions of affect-related competence that in my opinion are particularly important for an effective handling of affect in service encounters. Then the study model will be described. Finally, I will briefly discuss the methodical implications of the study design.

The role of affect-related competence in service encounters

I have argued so far that service employees need to have several affect-related competencies that concerns their capability to perceive, understand, regulate and express affective information. Moreover, I have proposed that the affect-related competencies develop their effect in the situation by maintaining or changing the affective state of the service employee and/or customer. Empirical evidence for such a relationship in the service encounter is rare and rather mixed. In the context of a retail bank Pugh (2001) investigated the role of service employees' emotional expressiveness. He found a direct link between employees' expressiveness and their display of positive emotions, but no direct link to customers' positive affect. A reason for this result might be that there are other important skills and that emotional expressiveness alone might not be sufficient to explain customers' affective state

The present study extends Pugh's (2001) work, that is, additional variables that may be related to service employee and customer affect and to subsequent customer evaluations will be introduced. I have selected four competencies that I consider central indicators of affect-related competence: sensitivity to affective cues, perspective taking, regulation of others' affect, and self-regulation of affect. These variables and their interrelations are now described in more detail (see also Chapter 3.4).

Sensitivity to affective cues. As a basis for any action toward the customers, service employees constantly have to scan the customers' behavior for affective information. Often customers do not reveal their affective states verbally, therefore, service employees have to be sensitive to nonverbal behavior such as facial expressions or paraverbal behavior (Ekman & Friesen, 1969; Ekman, Friesen, & Ancoli, 1980).

Perspective taking. Perspective taking reflects the competence to understand the psychological state of others (cf. Davis, 1983). After service employees have perceived the affective cues, they have to ascribe the correct meaning to them. Perspective taking helps to integrate the viewpoint of the customer. For example, if a customer expresses anger, the service employee should not interpret it as a personal attack and react aggressively. Rather, he

or she needs to understand the specific situation from the perspective of the customer and to take into consideration the reasons that led to his or her anger.

Regulation of others' affect. Once a customer's affective state is assessed and understood, service employees have to choose a strategy to regulate the customer's affect in the appropriate direction and to act upon this strategy. For example, a service employee can address the customer's affect directly and verbally (such as "I understand you are angry, let us solve this problem together") or he or she can act nonverbally (e.g., use of adequate mimics and gestics). Regulation of a customer's affect is a process that usually takes several communicative acts and may involve a combination of strategies (Stiles, 1985; Tansik, 1985).

Affective self-regulation. Affective self-regulation is basic for at least two reasons. First, as was pointed out above, many services require the display of organizationally desired emotions. A discrepancy between displayed and felt affect is aversive (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf et al., 1999). One strategy to reduce the discrepancy is to directly regulate the felt affect in the direction of what is expected to be displayed (Hochschild, 1983). Second, service employees have to gain an 'affective equilibrium' (Whyte, 1949). Deviations from this equilibrium threaten the capacity of service employees to concentrate on others' affective states. Threats to this equilibrium can come from different sources, for example, from a confrontation with an unpleasant customer, but also from simple physical and psychological exhaustion (Hochschild, 1983).

In sum, I argue that these four competencies (sensitivity to affective cues, perspective taking, competence to regulate others' affect, and competence for affective self-regulation) are important in service work and central indicators of affect-related competence. The single dimensions alone might not be sufficient to explain service employees' and customers' perceptions and evaluations. Indeed, as has been described, the dimensions are interrelated and should, therefore, contribute to a single factor of affect-related competence. Conceptualized in this way, affect-related competence is hypothesized to be related to customers' evaluations.

Hypothesis 1: Affect-related competence is positively related to customer evaluations of the service encounter.

In the following I want to describe a model that explains this relationship between affect-related competence and customer evaluations. This model is depicted in Figure 4.1. I propose that service employees' affect-related competence is related to service employees' and customers' affect in a service encounter. I consider three dimensions of affect: pleasantness, arousal, and power (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Service employees' and

customers' affect, in turn, are related on the respective affect dimensions via processes of emotional contagion (Hatfield, Caccioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Finally, customer affect is associated with customer evaluations of the service encounter (conceptualized as perceived service orientation). This model is now described in more detail.

Figure 4.1. Overview of study model
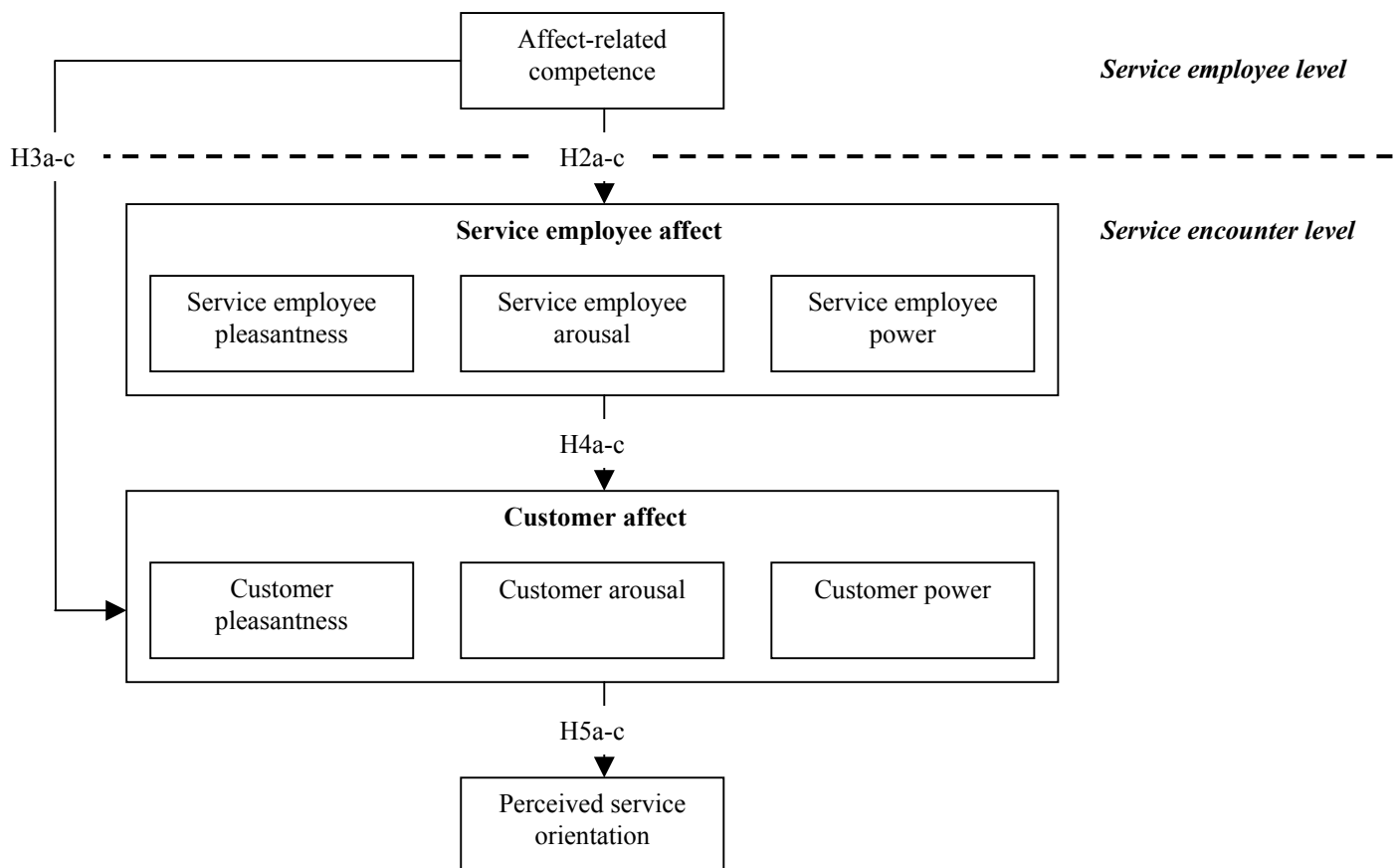
The relationship between affect-related competence and affective experience

The first two arrows in Figure 4.1 indicate that affect-related competence is associated with the affective experience of both service employee and customer in a service encounter. Because I use a multidimensional approach to affect, I will first turn to models of affect structure, before I specify the proposed relationships.

In the service context (and in I/O psychology in general) three models of affect structure have been used most widely. First, some research (e.g., George, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Pugh, 2001) has used the Watson and Tellegen (1985) model which posits a circumplex structure of affect with two orthogonal axes called positive affect and negative affect. Second, Russell's model of affect (e.g., Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1998) proposed the two dimensions pleasantness and arousal, which can be obtained by a 45 degree rotation of

the axes of the Watson and Tellegen model (Yik, Russell, & Feldman Barrett, 1999). This model has also been applied to the service context (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999; Wirtz, Mattila, & Tan, 2000) The third model is the three-dimensional model of Mehrabian and Russell (1974), which to some extent is the precursor of the Russell model. Besides the pleasantness and arousal dimension, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) proposed the existence of a third dimensions that is called power (or dominance). Recently, there has been a renewed interest in this model for the service context (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale, 1994; Foxall & Greenley, 1999; Rafaeli & Kluger, 2000; Wasserman, Rafaeli, & Kluger, 1999). In this study I used Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) three-dimensional model to measure affect. I chose this approach because I wanted to describe the affective processes in service encounters as detailed as possible. Assessing three dimensions instead of only one or two may allow to describe specific affective patterns that have more explanatory capacity.

Building on this three-dimensional model, I argue that in the present setting of financial consulting, a specific pattern of affect is more adequate for the success of the service encounter than others (cf. Rafaeli & Kluger, 2000). More specifically, I propose that for both interactants an affective state is desirable that can be characterized by a high level of pleasantness, a low level of arousal, and a high level of power. In most service encounters a high level of pleasantness is sought. Customers in a positive mood tend to be more satisfied with the service (Pugh, 2001; Wirtz & Bateson, 1999). Further, service employees with positive affect show more prosocial behavior (George, 1991). A low level of arousal should be appropriate for the interactants because high arousal can impede the accuracy of cognitive processing and judgment (Pekrun & Frese, 1992) which would be fatal in decisions involving a financial risk. Finally, a high level of power is desirable because being in control of a situation is a basic human motive (White, 1959). Accordingly, scholars have argued that in service encounters a loss of control is seen as aversive by both service employee and customer (Bateson, 1985; Rafaeli, 1989; Whyte, 1949).

Thus, I argue that service employees with a high level of affect-related competence should be able to create an affective atmosphere that is characterized by high pleasantness, low arousal, and high power. This affective atmosphere should be reflected in the interactants affective state during the encounter. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2: Service employees' affect-related competence is (2a) positively related to service employee's affect on the pleasantness dimension, (2b) negatively related on the arousal dimension, and (2c) positively related on the power dimension.

Hypothesis 3: Service employees' affect-related competence is (3a) positively related to customer affect on the pleasantness dimension, (3b) negatively related on the arousal dimension, and (3c) positively related on the power dimension (3c).

The relationship between service employee and customer affect: Emotional contagion

Figure 4.1 indicates an association between service employees' and customers' affect. I argue that this relationship follows mechanisms that were described in research on the phenomenon of "emotional contagion " (Hatfield et al., 1994). As studies have shown, in social interactions individuals tend to synchronize their mimic, gestic, or paraverbal behavior with another person, "and consequently converge emotionally" (Hatfield et al., 1994, p. 4). This process of convergence of the interactants' affective states during a social exchange is called emotional contagion. Contagion processes also take place in service encounters. Pugh (2001) established the relationship between service employees' display of positive emotions and customers' affect, which he interpreted as indicative of emotional contagion. Extending this work, in this study I focus on contagion processes with respect to *actual* affective state of the interactants. Borrowing from the terminology of emotion work (see Chapter 5), I could call this a "deep approach" to emotional contagion because I investigate the link between the actual affective experience of *both* interactants. In contrast, Pugh's (2001) study has a "surface approach" to emotional contagion because the investigated link is between the emotional expression of one interactant and the affective experience of the other.

Combining the three-dimensional model of affect and research on emotional contagion the affective relationship between service employee and customer can be specified. I propose that positive affect (pleasantness) of the service employee should spill over to the customer. Positive emotions (e.g., joy) are highly contagious as has been frequently demonstrated (cf. Hatfield et al., 1994; Pugh, 2001). A positive relationship is also expected between service employee and customer arousal. Support for this hypothesis comes from studies that demonstrated the contagious effects of emotions that involve high arousal, such as anger or anxiety (e.g., Friedman & Riggio, 1981).

Predicting the relationship on the power dimension is more difficult because the literature offers two positions that lead to contradicting hypotheses. On the one hand, research on social interactions has identified two major dimensions to describe interpersonal behavior: affiliation and control (e.g., Kiesler, 1983; Wiggins, 1981). So-called "rules of complementarity" predict that in a dyadic interaction affiliative behavior showed by one interactant evokes identical behavior in the other interactant (e.g., friendliness leads to friendliness), but in contrast, the dominant behavior of one interactant leads to submissive behavior in the other (Kiesler, 1983; Orford, 1986). If one assumes that dominant behavior is accompanied by a corresponding affective state (i.e., high power) I would hypothesize a *negative* relationship between the interactants' affect on the power dimension. On the other

hand, however, McClelland (1975) argued that people feel more powerful in the presence of a powerful other. Thus, a *positive* relationship between the interactants' affective experience of power would be expected. In this study I follow this second prediction. In the service encounters studied here, power concerns primarily the possession of knowledge or information, that is, expertise. The service employees' task in consulting is to share knowledge and information. Thus, the more power (in the sense of demonstrating expertise) a service employee shows, the more a customer should gain power (in the sense of acquiring knowledge and information).

In sum, I specify the following hypothesis with regard to the relationship between service employee and customer affect on the three dimensions:

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between service employee and customer affect (4a) on the pleasantness dimension, (4b) on the arousal dimension, and (4c) on the power dimension.

The relationship between customer affect and customer evaluation

Finally, Figure 4.1 indicates a positive relationship between customer affect and customer evaluation. For the link between customer affect and customer evaluations, scholars have provided several theoretical avenues and explanations (cf. Pugh, 2001). For example, affect is often used as a source of information when people form attitudes or make judgments or evaluations (cf. Schwarz, 1990). Also, because services are to a large extent non-tangible (Zeithaml et al., 1985; Chapter 3), the experience of positive affect is part of customer expectations. Confirmation of this expectation in turn, should lead to a positive evaluation of the service experience. In line with these theoretical assumptions, research consistently found a positive relation between customer affect and customer evaluations (e.g., Oliver, 1993; Pugh, 2001; Wirtz & Bateson, 1999).

Above I argued that an affective state with a high level of pleasantness, a low level of arousal, and a high level of power would be favorable in service encounters in the context of financial consulting. Therefore, I propose that such an affective pattern also leads to a more positive evaluation of the service employee.

Hypothesis 5: Customer affect and customer evaluations of the service encounter are (5a) positively related on the pleasantness dimension, (5b) negatively related on the arousal dimension, and (5c) positively related on the power dimension.

As a variable for customer evaluations (and similar to a performance criterion) I used the customers' perception of service orientation shown by the service employees *within* a specific service encounter. I consider service orientation a performance variable which is

similar to service quality (e.g., Parasumaran, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). The SERVQUAL (Parasumaran et al., 1988), the most widely used measure of service quality, assesses - among other aspects - the service employees' responsiveness (e.g., willingness to help customers), assurance (courtesy and inspiration of confidence), and empathy (individualized attention to customers). The present measure of perceived service orientation taps on these aspects as well. However, in contrast to the SERVQUAL which only provides information that is aggregated over several encounters and service employees, this measure focuses on the behavior of *one* service employee in *one* specific service encounter. One might argue that I also could have used customer satisfaction as an outcome variable. However, I was interested in the behavior of service employees *per se,* and a satisfaction judgment would have included aspects which to a large extent cannot be influenced by service employees (e.g., available investment products and types of loans, etc.).

Levels of analysis and independence of data

The design of this study has two methodical implications. First, the study variables refer to different levels of analysis. On one hand, affect-related competence is a characteristic of the service employee. On the other hand, service employees' and customers' affective experiences as well as customers' evaluations refer to a single service encounter. Thus, the model describes relationships across two levels. A common solution would be to aggregate the data to the higher level (i.e., service employee level; e.g., Pugh 2001). However, this procedure would drastically reduce the sample size and the statistical power. In addition, information would be lost due to the decrease of variability. Second, for the same service employee data was available from several service encounters. This means that the service encounters were nested within service employees, and therefore the data on the service encounter level were not completely independent. However, methods that build on the General Linear Model (e.g., regression analysis, ANOVA) should only be applied when the measurements are independent (cf. Judd, McClelland, & Culhane, 1995) and, therefore, these methods are not suitable in the present context. Both implications led us to analyze the data with Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992), a technique that is especially designed to model nested data structures and that is able to simultaneously process service employees' and customers' data on their respective level without losing information. To test the model, I developed a new methodological approach by combining HLM and path analysis. Details of this method are provided below.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Sample

Service encounters. I initially collected data from 612 service encounters. Encounters with missing data were excluded from further analysis, which resulted in a final sample of 390 encounters. The encounters that were dropped did not show mean differences for the study variables except for one variable. The encounters were classified according to their main topic: 61 percent consulting about a financial investment, 25 percent consulting about loan, and 14 percent others (e.g., information about online banking). 87 percent of the encounters took place in a separate office, 8 percent on a counter in the main hall and 5 percent at the customer's home. The duration of the encounters ranged from 1 minute to over 2 hours, with a mean duration of 37 minutes (SD = 23 minutes).

Service employee sample. The service employee sample consisted of 55 bank consultants from five branches of a bank. Their participation was voluntary. For two service employees I did not have corresponding customer data, so they were excluded from multilevel analyses. 74 percent of the service employees were male. The mean age was 37.8 years (SD = 7.7). For each consultant I had data from 5 to 13 service encounters.

Customer sample. The customer sample consisted of 390 customers of the bank. 46.7 percent of the customers were female. The mean age was 45.8 years (SD = 15.6).

4.2.2 Materials and Procedure

I instructed the service employees to ask customers after each encounter to fill out a short questionnaire about the foregoing interaction. If they consented they were handed a questionnaire which they filled out at a separate location in the bank. The service employees also filled out a questionnaire about the same interaction. In addition, on a different occasion, the service employees filled out a questionnaire that included the scales for assessing affect-related competence and demographic variables.

4.2.3 Measures

Service employee and customer affect. The affective experience of service employees and customers was measured by asking the respondent "How did you feel during the interaction?". Each dimension of mood was measured by two bipolar items, with an response format ranging from –3 to +3. The items for pleasantness were "unpleasant – pleasant" and "well – unwell" (Cronbach's alpha was .84 for service employee pleasantness and .88 for customer pleasantness); for arousal the items were "calm – excited" and "relaxed – nervous"

(Cronbach's alpha was .84 for service employee arousal and .85 for customer arousal); for power the items were "inferior-superior" and "secure-insecure" (Cronbach's alpha was .62 for service employee power and .68 for customer power). The use of only two items per dimension was justified because single-item measures of affect have been used frequently in research and their validity has been demonstrated (e.g., Lang, Greenwald, Bradley, & Hamm, 1993; Russell, Weiss, & Mendelsohn, 1989; Totterdell, 2000). In order to confirm the three-dimensional model, the items were also subjected to confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999). For both service employee affect and customer affect a one-dimensional model (all affect items loaded on a single factor) was tested against a three-dimensional model (the items loaded on the respective latent factor of pleasantness, arousal, and power). Because I did not assume independence between the dimensions, the latent factors in the second model were allowed to correlate. For both service employee affect and customer affect, the three-dimensional model had a better fit than the one-dimensional model (Table 4.1)[1]. However, the fit indices were not quite satisfactory. Therefore, as indicated by the relatively low alphas for the power scales, I split the power measure into the two separate items and tested a model with four correlated dimensions: pleasantness, arousal, power (superiority), and power (security). For both service employee affect and customer affect this model showed a significantly better fit[2]. I therefore decided to use the two power items as two different dimensions of power in further analyses. Figure 4.2 depicts the final model for service employee and customer affect.

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[1] To evaluate if the proposed models fit the data in this and the following studies, the following fit indices were used (in parentheses the thresholds for an acceptable model fit; cf. Bentler & Bonnett, 1980; Bollen, 1989; Browne & Cudeck, 1993): (in-) significance of the χ^2 value ($p > .05$), χ^2/df -relation (< 2), goodness of fit index (GFI $> .90$), comparative fit index (CFI $> .90$), Tucker-Lewis-Index (TLI $> .90$), root-mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA $< .05$, with the 90% confidence intervall including .00, for a close fit; RMSEA $< .08$ for an acceptable fit). The difference between two models was assessed with the chi-square-differences test ($p < .05$) and with the Akaike information criterion (AIC, the better model is at least 5 lower). The test of chi-square differences should only be used when the compared models are nested. However, it is often difficult to decide whether models are nested or not. Therefore, the AIC is used as an additional criteria because it allows the comparison of models that are not nested.

[2] Model specification: In both models the variances of the error terms for the two manifest power variables were set to 0, because the latent and the manifest variables were identical. In the model for service employee affect, correlations between error terms were allowed in two cases.

Table 4.1
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses of service employee and customer affect

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	Δχ^2
Service employee affect											
1 One-dimensional model	244.5	9	27.2	.00	.86	.82	.69	.23	268.5		
2 Three-dimensional model	116.7	9	13.0	.00	.93	.92	.86	.16	140.0		
3 Four-dimensional model	11.9	5	2.4	.04	.99	.99	.98	.05	43.9		
Model 2 & Model 1										128.5	- [a]
Model 3 & Model 2										96.1	104.8**
Customer affect											
1 One-dimensional model	254.0	9	28.2	.00	.85	.82	.71	.24	278.0		
2 Three-dimensional model	93.6	9	10.4	.00	.94	.94	.90	.14	117.6		
3 Four-dimensional model	11.4	7	1.6	.12	.99	1.00	.99	.04	39.4		
Model 2 & Model 1										160.4	- [a]
Model 3 & Model 2										78.2	82.2**

[a] not applicable because both models have the same degrees of freedom
** *p*<.01

Figure 4.2. Model of the structure of affect
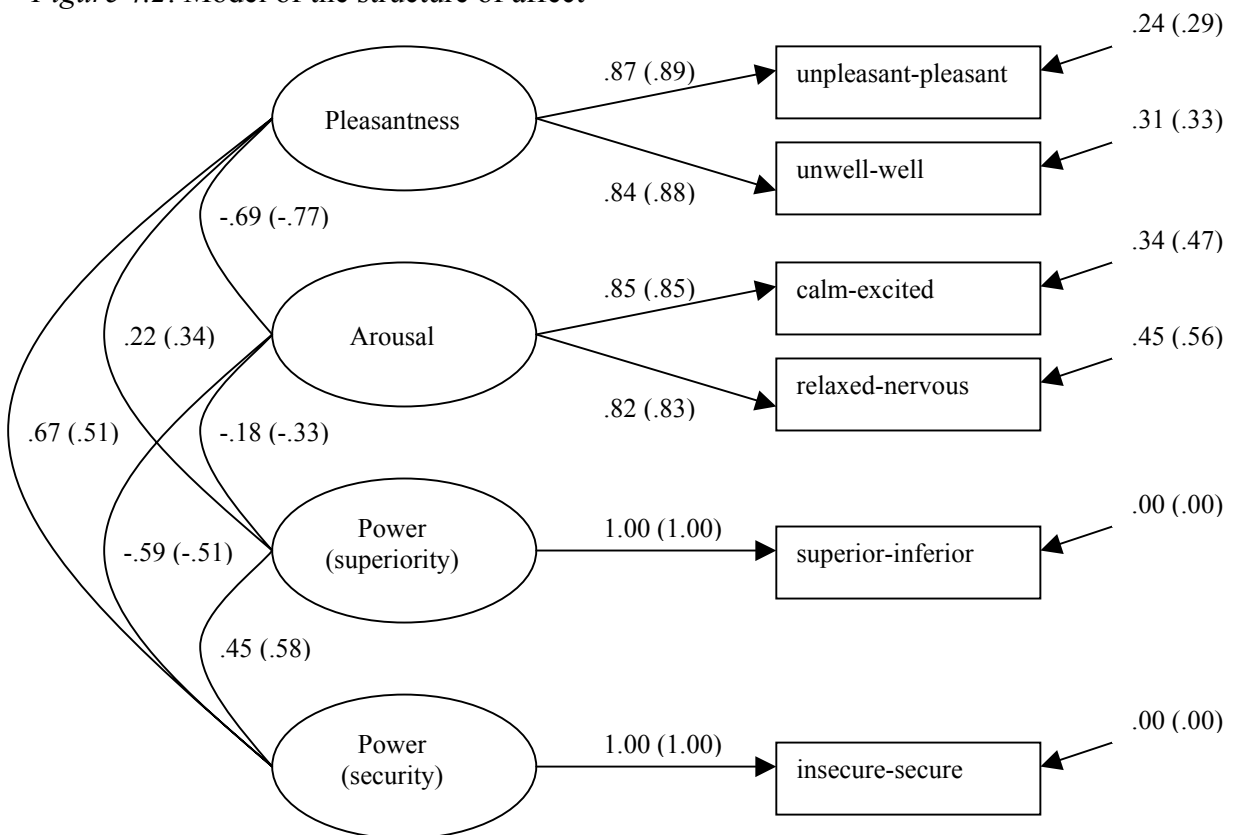
Note. Outside parentheses are the values for service employee affect, inside parentheses are the values for customer affect. Correlational paths among error terms (only service employee affect) are deleted from presentation for clarity.

Perceived service orientation. Service orientation as it was perceived by customers was measured by five items that were developed for this study. The items relate to different aspects of service oriented behavior in consulting services (e.g., how much information and how many suggestions the service employee provided, how stronlgy the service employee addressed the customers needs, and how easily the customer could follow the conversation; items see Appendix A.2). The response format ranged from 1 (complete disagreement) to 6 (complete agreement). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .78.

Affect-related competence. Affect-related competence was computed as an index of four self-report scales (see Chapter 2.5). *Service employees' sensitivity to affective cues* was measured with the subscale "Sensitivity to expressive behaviors of others" of the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). A sample item was "In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with". The measure comprised six items and the response format ranged from 1 (absolute disagreement) to 5 (absolute agreement). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .78. *Service employees' perspective taking* was measured with the respective subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980, 1983). A sample item was "Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place". One original item had to be removed from the scale because of its insufficient item-total correlation. The response format ranged from 1 (absolute disagreement) to 5 (absolute agreement). Cronbach's alpha for the six-item scale was .73. For the s*ervice employees' regulation of other's affect* I used a five-item scale that was made up of items from the emotional intelligence questionnaire developed by Schutte et al. (1998). The items were chosen on the basis of their content and their loading on one factor in previous studies which used the Schutte et al. (1998) questionnaire (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001; Petrides & Furnham, 2000). A sample item was "I compliment others when they have done something well" (see also Appendix A.1). The response format ranged from 1 (absolute disagreement) to 5 (absolute agreement). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .79. Finally, s*ervice employees' affective self-regulation* was measured with the subscale 'repair' of the Trait Meta Mood Scale (Salovey, et al., 1995). A sample item was "No matter how badly I feel, I try to think about pleasant things". I removed one item due to its insufficient item-total correlation. The response format ranged from 1 (absolute disagreement) to 5 (absolute agreement). Cronbach's alpha of the seven-item scale was .76.

Factor analyses were supposed to provide the justification for computing a composite measure of affect-related competence. An exploratory main component factor analysis (varimax rotation) with the four competencies provided only one factor with an eigenvalue

greater than 1. The four variables were also subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis. Because the sample size was too small for structural equation modeling data were added from a sample of 118 students (details of the sample can be found in Study 3), resulting in an overall sample of 169. To ensure that the data from the subsamples were comparable, I tested for differences in the correlations between the four subcompetencies (r-to-z transformations). Two of the six correlations differed significantly ($p<.05$), suggesting subsample-specific reactions to specific items. Nevertheless, a confirmatory factor analysis with the four subcompetencies as manifest variables and one latent factor provided an excellent fit ($\chi^2 = 0.9$, $df=2$, $p<.065$, GFI=.99, CFI=1.00, TLI=1.00, RMSEA = .00). I also used a more conservative approach and conducted confirmatory factor analyses using the *scale items* as manifest variables (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.3). Because of the subsample differences a pretest was conducted. Confirmatory factor analyses were performed for each subcompetence separately and only the four items with the highest loadings on the respective latent factor were selected. Then I compared a model with four uncorrelated factors and a model with four first-order factors and one second-order factor (affect-related competence). The first model did not provide a satisfactory fit (Table 4.2). The second model provided a good fit that was also significantly better than the first model. The second model is depicted in Figure 4.3. I considered the results of the confirmatory factor analyses as enough justification to collapse the four scales. To maximize reliability in the original sample the full scales were used to compute a composite measure of affect-related competence. Cronbach's alpha for the new four-item (i.e., four-scale) measure was .72.

Table 4.2
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses of affect-related competence

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	Δχ^2
1 Model with four uncorrelated factors	241.8	104	2.3	.00	.85	.79	.76	.09	305.8		
2 Model with second-order factor	150.8	100	1.5	.00	.91	.92	.91	.05	222.8		
Model 2 & Model 1										83.0	91.0**

** $p<.01$

Figure 4.3. Measurement model of affect-related competence
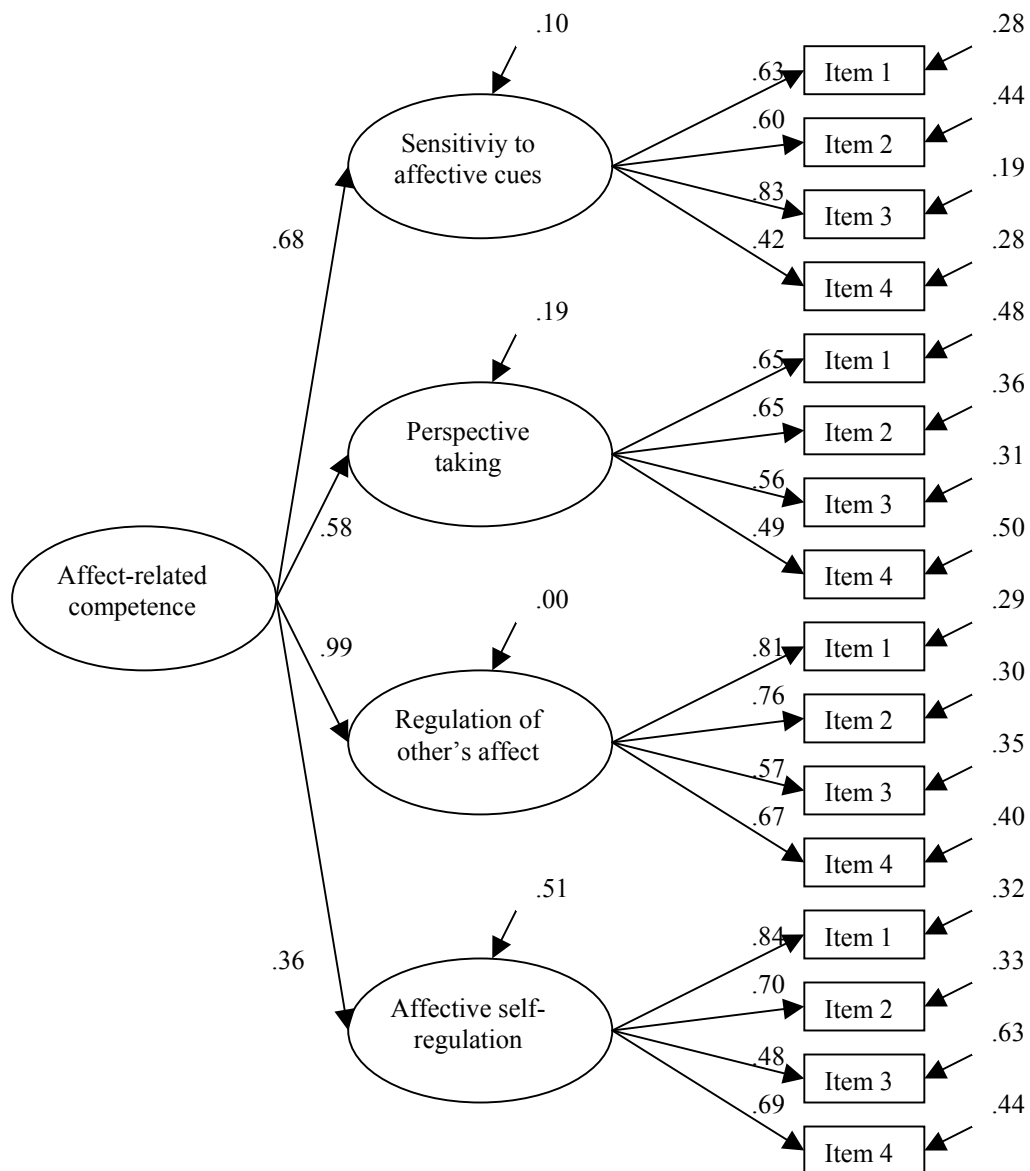
4.3 Results

Table 4.3 shows the correlation matrix for the variables on the service employee level
(aggregated level) and the service encounter level. Note that the correlations between the
affect dimensions were very high for both the service employee and the customer. This is not
unusual because, as Mehrabian and Russell (1974) pointed out, the three dimensions are
expected to be unrelated across different contexts but not necessarily within a specific
context. In accordance with Hypothesis 1, on the service employee level affect-related
competence was positively related to perceived service orientation (r = .36).

HLM path analyses

As was pointed out above, the study variables were located on two different levels and
therefore I used Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). HLM is
very similar to multivariate regression analysis but allows the simultaneous processing of data
from different levels of analysis.[3] To test the model, I developed a methodological approach
that combined HLM with path analysis. In traditional path analysis the assumed causal order
of variables in a model is tested with a series of regression analyses (e.g., Billings & Wroten,
1979; Blalock, 1964). The last variable of the causal chain (the final criterion) is predicted by
all the other variables, then the second last variable is taken as a criterion and predicted by the
rest of the variables and so on. The results can then be presented in a path model. In this study
I followed the same procedure, but used a series of HLM analyses instead of regression
analyses to build the path model. Thus, I started with perceived service orientation as criterion
and regressed it on all the other study variables (see Figure 4.1). Then I followed the model
backwards to predict customer pleasantness by the other customer and service affect variables
and by affect-related competence, etc.

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[3] HLM combines regression equations from two levels ("regression of regressions", Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin,
2000). The equation on the first level describes intercept and slope parameters that link the independent variables
(e.g., customer pleasantness) to the outcome variable for *each* person (i.e., for each person a separate equation is
estimated). An example equation would be
$$\text{Service orientation} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} \text{ (customer pleasantness)} + e_{ij} \quad (1),$$
where β_{0j} and β_{1j} are the level 1 intercept and slope parameters (or random coefficients). Of course, a
combination of independent variables is possible (in the present HLM analyses there are up to eight independent
variables = customer and service employee affect dimensions). For the level 2 equation the level 1 intercept and
slope parameters are used as outcome variables and regressed on between-person variables (in this case affect-
related competence). In the present study only the intercept parameters were used as outcomes because I was
interested in main effects of level 2 variables (slope parameters as outcomes are used to test for the moderating
influence of level 2 variables on the relationship between level 1 independent and dependent variables). An
example of an equation for level 2 would be
$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_{01} \text{ (affect-related competence)} + u \quad (2),$$
where γ_0 and γ_{01} are the level 2 intercept and slope parameters (or fixed effects). Thus, equation (2) models the
main effect of affect-related competence on the between-person variance in service orientation (cf. Hofmann, et
al., 2000).

Table 4.3

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of study variables[a]

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Employee sensitivity to affective cues	3.70 -	0.47 -	(.78) -													
2 Employee perspective taking	3.47 -	0.54 -	.29* -	(.73) -												
3 Employee regulation of others' affect	3.97 -	0.52 -	.62** -	.34* -	(.79) -											
4 Employee affective self-regulation	3.81 -	0.53 -	.39** -	.26 -	.44** -	(.76) -										
5 Employee affect-related competence	3.76 -	0.46 -	.76** -	.66** -	.81** -	.72** -	(.72) -									
6 Employee pleasantness	1.90 1.90	0.52 0.94	.27* -	.29* -	.29* -	.18 -	.35* -	(.84)								
7 Employee arousal	-2.10 -2.12	0.69 1.03	-.26 -	-.15 -	-.19 -	-.17 -	-.25 -	-.73** -.58**	(.84)							
8 Employee power (superiority)	1.04 1.07	0.65 0.94	.28* -	.14 -	.09 -	-.01 -	.16 -	.31* .19**	-.13 -.17**							
9 Employee power (security)	1.91 1.90	0.48 0.89	.39** -	.24 -	.17 -	.17 -	.32* -	.63** .59**	-.60** -.52**	.55** .45**						
10 Customer pleasantness	1.73 1.72	0.56 1.17	.31* -	.20 -	.14 -	-.01 -	.21 -	.34* .36**	-.38** -.25**	.33* .08	.34* .26**	(.88)				
11 Customer arousal	-2.47 -2.50	0.64 1.27	-.18 -	.01 -	-.04 -	.13 -	-.02 -	-.30* -.30**	.45** .29**	-.25 -.05	-.37** -.20**	-.68** -.67**	(.85)			
12 Customer power (superiority)	0.08 0.11	0.44 0.86	.02 -	.18 -	-.04 -	-.16 -	-.01 -	.25 .17**	-.09 -.07	.27* .02	.25 .09	.44** .42**	-.33* -.37**			
13 Customer power (security)	0.51 0.53	0.86 1.44	.11 -	.16 -	-.06 -	-.25 -	-.01 -	.28* .18**	-.27 -.12*	.26 -.02	.36** .14**	.62** .50**	-.59** -.51**	.69** .59**		
12 Perceived service orientation	5.48 5.45	0.26 0.52	.16 -	.31* -	.27* -	.30* -	.36** -	.36** .23**	-.23 -.16**	.00 -.03	.15 .07	.36** .33**	-.23 -.30**	.24 .22**	.19 .24**	(.78)

[a] Upper values represent the service employee level (aggregated level; N=53-55), lower values represent the service encounter level (N=387-390).

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

HLM analyses were conducted in line with the procedure proposed by Hofmann et al. (2000). For every criterion (represented in rows in Table 4.4) a sequence of three models was tested. First, a so-called "null model" was estimated to investigate if there was enough between-person variation ($\tau_{00\ null\ model}$) in the criterion. Otherwise further HLM analyses with this criterion would not be useful because there would not much variance left to be explained by level 2 variables. Table 4.4 shows the amount of between-person variance relative to the total variance (the sum of between person variance and within-person variance) for each criterion[4]. All values exceeded a .10 threshold (i.e., at least 10 % of the total variance stems from between-person variance), a finding which can be considered sufficient.

Second, a so-called "random-coefficient regression model" was estimated, whereby the criterion was regressed only on the variables of level 1 (service encounter level). This model allowed to determine if there was sufficient variance in the intercepts ($\tau_{00random\ regression\ model}$). The variance of the intercept term provides information about the degree to which the dependent variable varies systematically between service employees when variables on the level of service encounters are controlled for. HLM provides a chi-square-significance test to determine if this variance differs significantly from zero. Table 4.4 illustrates that all values were significant. Also, the random-coefficient regression model provided information about the explained variance (R^2) for the relationship between the independent variables (i.e., variables on the service encounter level) and the criterion[5]. It is important to point out that R^2 cannot be interpreted in the same way as in a normal regression analysis because it describes the proportion that is explained in *within-person* variance of the outcome variable and not in *total* variance of the outcome variable.

Finally, given that there is enough variance in intercepts, an "intercepts-as-outcomes model" was estimated in order to explain this variance by including variables from the higher level (here: affect-related competence). A R^2 value is provided that indicates the explained proportion of the between-person variance in the intercept[6]. Also, this model estimates the coefficients that allow testing of the hypotheses. For clarity of presentation the HLM coefficients are exhibited separately in Table 4.5, whereby every row represents an intercepts-as-outcome model with one criterion. Note that when one affect dimension (e.g., customer pleasantness) was taken as criterion, the other two dimensions (e.g., customer arousal and customer power) were also included as predictors in order to partial out their influence. Figure 4.4 presents a simplified illustration of the results.

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[4] This value is equivalent to an intraclass correlation (Hofmann et al., 2000)
[5] R^2 is computed by $(\sigma^2_{null\ model} - \sigma^2_{random\ regression\ model})/ \sigma^2_{null\ model}$
[6] R^2 is computed by $(\tau_{00\ random\ regression\ model} - \tau_{00\ intercepts-as-outcomes\ model}) / \tau_{00\ random\ regression\ model}$

Table 4.4
General results of HLM analyses[a]

Model and parameter	Criterion								
	Perceived service orientation	Customer pleasantness	Customer arousal	Customer power (superiority)	Customer power (security)	Employee pleasantness	Employee arousal	Employee power (superiority)	Employee (security)
Null model									
Proportion of between-person variance	.14	.15	.18	.16	.29	.20	.41	.39	.19
Random regression model									
variance in intercept (τ_{00})	0.04**	0.30**	0.36**	0.16**	0.72**	0.21**	0.48**	0.37**	0.20**
R^2	.38	.62	.60	.50	.57	.54	.51	.33	.57
Intercepts-as-outcome model									
R^2	.09	.07	.00	.00	.00	.09	.04	.00	.08

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

In the first HLM analysis (see Table 4.5, column 2), perceived service orientation was regressed on all other variables. Hypotheses 5a-c predicted significant relationships between the three customer affect dimensions and perceived customer orientation. Customer pleasantness and customer power (security) emerged as significant predictors providing support for Hypotheses 5a and 5c, but not for Hypothesis 5b, because customer arousal was unrelated to perceived service orientation. Also, affect-related competence was directly related to perceived service orientation.

In the next four analyses (Table 4.5, columns 3-6), the customer affect dimensions were regressed on service employee affect dimensions (Hypotheses 4a-c) and affect-related competence (Hypotheses 3a-c). Customer pleasantness was related to service employee pleasantness and service employee power. Customer arousal was related to service employee arousal. Thus, Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported. With regard to customer power (Hypothesis 4c) the picture is more complex, due to the separation of the two power dimensions. Customer power (superiority) was positively related to service employee pleasantness and service employee power (security). Customer power (security) was positively related to service employee arousal and service employee power (security), and negatively related to service employee power (superiority). Thus, both positive (as predicted) and negative relationships between the power variables could be found. Affect-related competence was positively related to customer pleasantness, supporting Hypothesis 3a, but unrelated to customer arousal and customer power, failing to support Hypotheses 3b and 3c.

In the last set of analyses (Table 4.5, columns 7-9) the three service employee affect variables were regressed on service employee affect-related competence. Affect-related competence was positively related to service employee pleasantness and power (security), supporting Hypotheses 2a and 2c, but unrelated to service employee arousal, contradicting Hypothesis 2b.

Table 4.5
HLM coefficients of intercepts- as-outcome models[a]

	Criterion								
	Perceived service orientation	Customer pleasantness	Customer arousal	Customer power (superiority)	Customer power (security)	Employee pleasantness	Employee arousal	Employee power (superiority)	Employee power (security)
Customer pleasantness	0.114** (0.033)		-0.549** (0.060)	0.113** (0.045)	0.167* (0.076)				
Customer arousal	-0.018 (0.033)	-0.480** (0.054)		-0.075* (0.044)	-0.235** (0.076)				
Customer power (superiority)	0.017 (0.034)	0.111* (0.053)	-0.080 (0.089)		0.671** (0.077)				
Customer power (security)	0.047* (0.024)	0.127* (0.060)	-0.223** (0.061)	0.262** (0.040)					
Employee pleasantness	0.069* (0.035)	0.106* (0.062)	0.008 (0.087)	0.094* (0.055)	-0.020 (0.070)		-0.438** (0.079)	-0.231** (0.075)	0.466** (0.060)
Employee arousal	-0.035 (0.035)	-0.021 (0.055)	0.167* (0.072)	-0.074 (0.052)	0.196* (0.085)	-0.399** (0.067)		-0.121* (0.067)	-0.109* (0.059)
Employee power (superiority)	0.024 (0.035)	-0.030 (0.068)	0.014 (0.072)	0.051 (0.057)	-0.236** (0.064)	-0.166** (0.049)	-0.067 (0.060)		0.359** (0.038)
Employee power (security)	-0.074* (0.041)	0.157* (0.087)	0.017 (0.086)	-0.098* (0.051)	0.133* (0.077)	0.446** (0.067)	-0.192** (0.079)	0.525** (0.070)	
Affect-related competence	0.193** (0.050)	0.428** (0.170)	-0.171 (0.216)	-0.070 (0.122)	-0.170 (0.197)	0.435** (0.158)	-0.360 (0.245)	0.114 (0.198)	0.319* (0.150)

Note. Standard errors in parentheses
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. One-tailed tests.

Figure 4.4. Overview of path analytic results
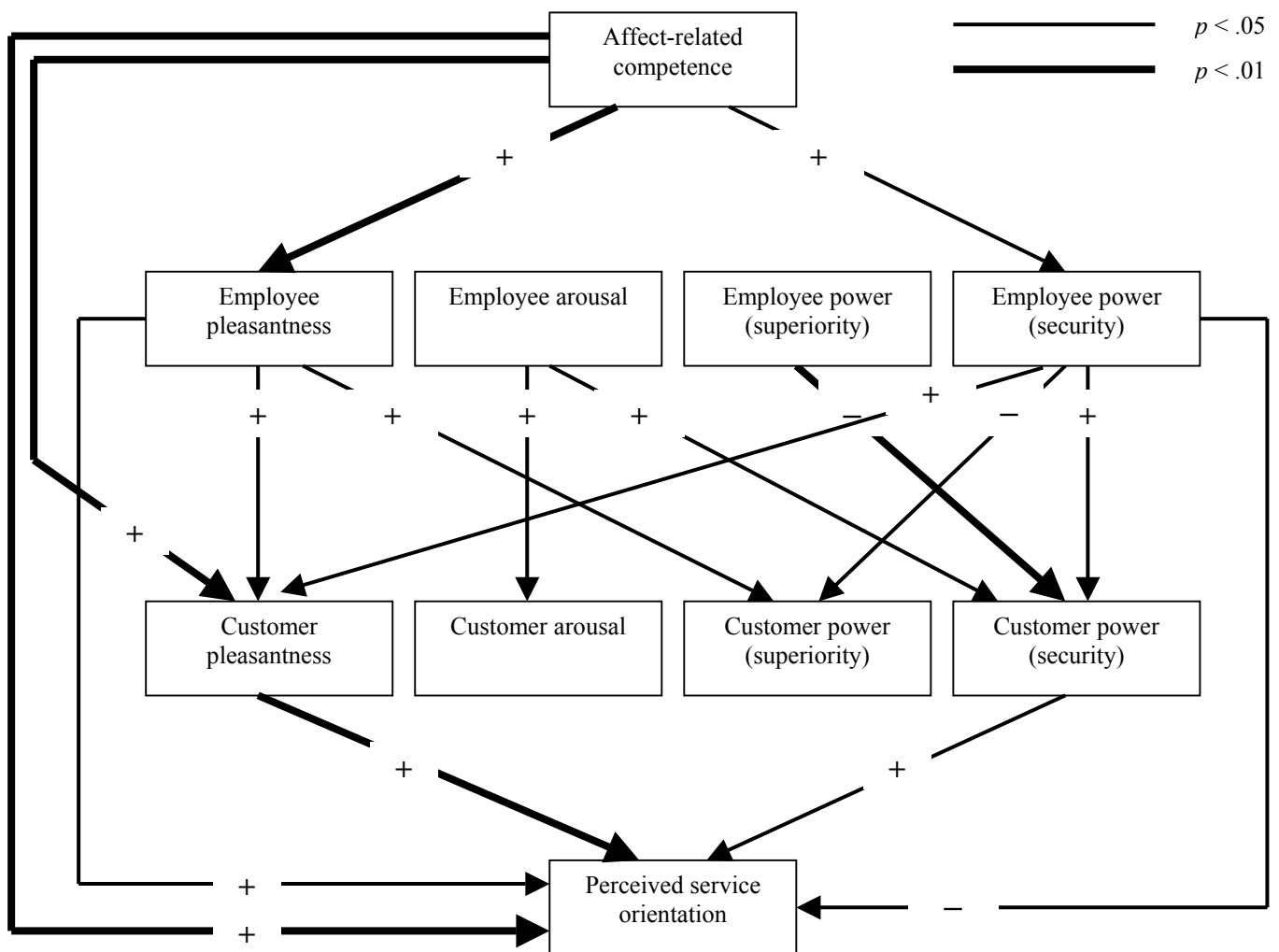
Note. For clarity of presentation, relationships between affect dimensions within an interactant are not shown

4.4 Discussion

The main objective of this study was to test a two-level model that linked service employees' affect-related competence to customer evaluations (conceptualized as perceived service orientation). More specifically, the model predicted that affect-related competence would be associated with service employees' and customers' affective states during service encounters. Customer affect in turn was hypothesized to be related to customers' perceptions of service orientation. The findings support large parts of the model (Figure 4.4). I now want to discuss the results in more detail, following the order of the hypotheses.

Affect-related competence and perceived customer orientation

The significant relationship (zero-order correlation r = .36) between overall affect-related competence and perceived service orientation (Hypothesis 1) is noteworthy. In the Pugh (2001) study no such relationship was found. This might be due to the different structure of the service encounters in both studies. More specifically, the distinction between strong and weak situations (Mischel, 1973) might play a role. Pugh (2001) studied encounters in a retail bank that were rather script-like. This means that the encounters were strong situations because individual behavior was to a large part determined by situational constraints (i.e., by a predefined behavior script). The present study, in contrast, investigated primarily situations in which the service employees had to advise customers in complex financial affairs (investments and loans). These encounters were weak situations because the course of action was hard to predict and, therefore, the service employees' behavior was less bound to fixed procedures. Mischel (1973) pointed out that the weaker a situation is, the more important individual differences become. Thus, the weak situations in this study may have left more room for differences in affect-related competence to become effective than the strong situations in the Pugh study.

The results of the HLM path analysis suggested two avenues for the relationship between the affect-related competence and perceived service orientation. The first avenue emerged as predicted. Affect-related competence was associated with the affective state of service employees and customers in a service encounter which in turn were related to the customers' perception of service orientation. More specifically, affect-related competence showed positive relationships with service employee pleasantness, service employee power (security), and customer pleasantness, supporting three of six hypotheses (Hypotheses 2a-c, and 3a-c). Thus, although not every dimension of the interactants' affect was influenced by the service employees' competence, the findings suggest that affect-related competence affected both interactants in a direct way. On a more general level the results support the view that affect-related competence is associated with a specific affective atmosphere in service encounters. The second, somewhat unexpected, avenue was represented by a direct link between affect-related competence and perceived service orientation. This relationship may suggest that some of the behaviors shown by the service employee were not reflected in the customers' reported affect but nevertheless influenced the customers' evaluation. For example, in the process of assessing the customers' affective state, perhaps competent service employees are able to gather information about the customer that leads to the selection of *instrumentally* better consulting strategies.

Emotional contagion

The hypotheses concerning the contagion effects (Hypotheses 4a-c) were largely supported. With one exception, significant relationships were found between the respective dimension of service employee and customer affect: Service employee pleasantness was positively related to customer pleasantness, service employee arousal to customer arousal, and service employee power (security) to customer power (security). Thus, emotional contagion processes can be described on different dimensions of affect which goes beyond the common one-dimensional approach of emotional contagion. Moreover, these results support the notion that affective contagion processes in service encounters not only take place on a surface level (service employees' expression of emotion leads to customers affective reaction; Pugh, 2001) but also on a deeper level, in the sense that an affective state of one interactant has its counterpart in the other interactant (Hatfield et al., 1994).

In general, the results with regard to the power dimension are rather complex. First, it was found that the power dimension had a multidimensional structure itself. Feelings of superiority and feelings of security were identified as distinct aspects of power affect. Moreover, by differentiating the power construct in this manner, the results of the HLM path analysis supported two positions that made contradictory predictions. On the one hand, there was support for the position that powerful individuals make other people feel more powerful (cf. McClelland, 1973). The results showed that customers feel more secure when service employees feel more secure. On the other hand, the findings provided some support for the notion that in social interactions power processes can follow "rules of complementarity" (Kiesler, 1983; Orford, 1986), suggesting that dominance of one interactant leads to feelings of powerlessness in the other. I found that service employees' feelings of superiority were negatively associated with customers' security. Also, service employees' feelings of security was related to customers' feelings of inferiority. Thus, the results revealed a rather complex picture with simultaneous reciprocal and complementary processes, depending on which aspect of power affect one is looking at. These findings clearly suggest that more research on power is needed, both with respect to conceptualization and measurement (cf. Rafaeli & Kluger, 2000) and with respect to the role of power perceptions in social interactions.

Affective experience and perceived customer orientation

With regard to the relationship between customer affect and perceived service orientation (Hypotheses 5a-c), customer pleasantness and customer power (security), but not customer arousal, emerged as significant predictors, thus, supporting two of the three

hypotheses. Apart from the absence of an effect for customer arousal (see discussion below), these results in general align with those from previous studies that found a link between customers' affect and customers' service evaluations (e.g., Oliver, 1993; Pugh, 2001), but also go somewhat further because to my present knowledge power affect has not been studied before as a predictor of customer evaluations. The finding that customer power explained variance above and beyond customer pleasantness in perceived service orientation fits well with Russell's (1991) argument that the power dimension becomes important especially in interpersonal contexts.

The role of arousal

When used as a predictor in the path analyses, service employee and customer arousal did not explain additional variance (with the exception of the contagion Hypothesis 4b). This is probably due to the high negative correlation between arousal and pleasantness, which resulted in almost no *unique* predictive power for arousal. Accordingly, it can be suspected that in the context of financial consulting a high level of arousal may be perceived as an aversive state and therefore is evaluated as unpleasant. Maybe the interactants' inferred that a high level of arousal can impair their capability to process information accurately. This result, however, should not lead to the conclusion that the two dimensions can be used interchangeably. Besides the conceptual necessity for their differentiation (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), one can argue that the empirical relationship between pleasantness and arousal is to some extent context specific (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Rafaeli & Kluger, 2000). For example, while in the present case a high level of arousal is associated with a low level of pleasantness, in amusement parks a high level of arousal may be considered an important part of the positive service experience, suggesting a positive relation between the two variables. In support of this notion of context specificity, Kluger, Rafaeli and Greenfeld (1999) found that the relationship between arousal and the time spent in a store was positive for discount stores (suggesting a positive relation between arousal and pleasantness) but negative for expensive boutiques (suggesting a negative relation).

Contributions and limitations

To sum up, this study provided several contributions to the literature. First, it established a link between affect-related competence and customer evaluations. Anecdotal or theoretical accounts about this relationship have been given (e.g., Goleman, 1998; Härtel, et al., 1999) but clear empirical evidence was lacking. Second, this study added to and furthered

the understanding about affective processes in the service encounter. I extended previous research in the sense that I demonstrated contagion effects for different affect dimensions. Third, this investigation can be added to the rare studies that have applied a dyadic approach for studying services and service evaluations (e.g., Jimmieson & Griffin, 1998; Masterson, 2001; Pugh, 2001; Schmit & Allscheid, 1995; Schneider & Bowen, 1985). Fourth, service encounters with multiple customers per service employee were studied. Instead of aggregating the data to the service employee level, I employed a multilevel approach which has the advantage of conserving the whole variance in the respective variable. Fifth, I have introduced a new methodological approach by combining HLM with path analysis. This procedure allowed the testing of the cross-level model as a whole.

A possible limitation of the study refers to the selection of the service employees and the customers. The participation of the service employees was voluntary, a situation which may have resulted in a systematic bias. In field research it is a common phenomenon that high performance employees are more likely to volunteer for a study. Similarly, although the service employees were told to hand out the questionnaires to customers back-to-back, the distribution of customer evaluations may be biased to a certain extent. Unsatisfied customers may have refused to oblige to the request or service employees may not even have tried to ask obviously dissatisfied customers. This would result in an overrepresentation of more satisfied customers. Both sample biases would lead to range restrictions in some of the variables. However, a range restriction often has the consequence that actual effects are underestimated (Nunnally, 1978). In this case the coefficients would be rather conservative estimates, which would make the findings even more compelling.

Service employee and customer affect was assessed only after the service encounter. This raises the concern that there might have been systematic biases in the recall of a previous affect state. However, both service employee and customer filled out the questionnaire only minutes after the encounter, which should minimize the disturbing effects of recall errors.

The model and the path analytic procedure assumed a causal chain that cannot be tested directly in a cross-sectional design. Alternative links can be possible as well. For example, the affective contagion process were modeled as one-directional, that is, from service employees to customers, but the customers might influence the service employees' affective state as well. However, I assume that in the type of service encounters studied here, with a disequilibrium in expertise, the path from service employees to customers is stronger. Nevertheless, to model causal relationships, future research should consider a design with multiple measurement points within a service encounter.

5. Reducing the negative outcomes of emotion work: The moderating role of affect-related competence (Study 2)

In recent years research has paid much attention to the phenomenon of emotion work. In her book "The managed heart", which marked the starting point for the scientific study of emotion work, Hochschild (1983) described the topic as follows:

> The corporate world has a toe and a heel, and each performs a different function: one delivers a service, the other collects payment for it. When an organization seeks to create demand for a service and then delivers it, it uses the smile and the soft questioning voice. Behind this delivery display, the organization's employee is asked to feel sympathy, trust, and good will. On the other hand, when the organization seeks to collect money for what it has sold, its employee may be asked to use a grimace and the raised voice of command. Behind this collection display the employee is asked to feel distrust and sometimes positive bad will. In each kind of display, the problem for the employee becomes how to create and sustain the appropriate feeling. (Hochschild, 1983, p. 137)

Emotion work has been defined as the regulatory effort to express organizationally desired emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, 1989; Zapf et al., 1999). As implied in the above quotation, it depends largely on organizational or professional norms which emotions are desired. For example, while a flight attendant is expected to display predominantly pleasant emotions (e.g., friendliness), a bill collector has to use negative emotions (e.g., irritation) that signal a threat to the respective person which in turn should lead to a proper response to the obligations (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991).

It has been argued that emotion work is a stressor and that it taxes the psychological (and physiological) system of the service employee (Grandey, 2000; Zapf et al., 1999). Indeed, research has repeatedly demonstrated the negative relationship between emotion work and service employees' psychological health (e.g., Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zapf et al., 1999). Given these results, the question arises if there are factors that can prevent or at least "buffer" this detrimental effect. Although the answer may have important implications for personnel selection, training or job design, to my knowledge research has not yet addressed this issue empirically.

Some scholars have argued that service employees' affect-related skills (e.g., emotional intelligence) might function as such a "buffer" or psychological resource (e.g., Abraham, 1999a; Grandey, 2000). Thus, in this study I will test the hypothesis that affect-related competence is a psychological resource that moderates the relationship between emotion work and the service employees' well-being. More specifically, I propose that affect-related competence influences emotion work via two pathways. The first pathway relates to the moderating role of affect-related competence on the relationship between workplace characteristics and emotional dissonance. The second pathway relates to the moderating role of affect-related competence on the relationship between emotional dissonance and well-being.

As a theoretical background for the hypotheses, in the following paragraphs I will first describe the two dominant perspectives on emotion work. These two perspectives differ in the core concepts used to describe the central mechanisms of emotion work (I.e., emotional dissonance or surface/deep acting). I will then describe a selection of antecedents and outcomes of emotional dissonance. Finally, I will discuss the moderating role of affect-related competence in emotion work.

5.1 Theory and hypotheses

5.1.1 Two perspectives on emotion work

Since Hochschild's (1983) seminal work, several models of emotion work have been offered. They all build on the concepts introduced by Hochschild. Two perspectives can be identified that differ in the way they describe and conceptualize the central mechanism(s) through which emotion work unfolds its negative impact. More specifically, while the first perspective focuses on the concept of emotional dissonance, the second focuses on the concepts of surface acting and deep acting. In the following a brief description of these two perspectives and how they are related will be given.

Models focusing on emotional dissonance

Emotional dissonance is defined as the discrepancy between felt and displayed emotion, and in the models of Zapf et al. (1999) and Morris and Feldman (1996) it is the crucial variable that causes damage to employees' health[1]. To illustrate, Zapf et al. (1999) applied principles of the action theory approach of work stress (cf. Frese & Zapf, 1994) to the field of emotion work. Central to action theory is the notion that the objective work environment affects behavior through cognitive or regulating processes that are closely connected to cognitive structures such as goal hierarchies or general knowledge structures (Frese & Zapf, 1994). In line with action theory, Zapf et al. (1999) distinguished three aspects of the work environment that are linked to behavior and well-being of employees: emotional regulation requirements, emotional regulation possibilities, and emotional dissonance. Emotional regulation requirements comprise, among others, the requirement to be sensitive to clients' emotions or the frequency of emotion display. Emotional regulation possibilities refer to the influence service employees have on their own behavioral or cognitive strategies used to serve the customer (e.g., interaction control). Finally, regulation problems (or stressors) impair effective fulfillment of the task. For Zapf et al. (1999), emotional dissonance is such a regulation problem. In agreement with predictions, it was found that emotional dissonance is negatively related to individual well-being and positively related to burnout (Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zapf et al., 1999)

Models focusing on surface acting and deep acting

The models of Grandey (2000) and Brotheridge and Lee (2002) focus on the process of managing emotions via surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting denotes the regulation of expressive behavior. Building on emotion regulation theory (e.g., Gross, 1998), Grandey (2000) argued that surface acting can be described as response-focused emotion regulation. In this mode, a service employee simply tries to modify his or her emotional *display* in the desired direction, even though the actual emotion might differ from it (e.g., the service employee smiles although he or she feels anger toward a customer). Deep acting, on the other hand, describes the direct modification of *felt* emotions. Deep acting can be understood as antecedent-focused emotion regulation (Grandey, 2000). In this mode, a service employee

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[1] It has to be noted that Zapf et al. (1999) consider emotional dissonance a workplace characteristic, whereas for Morris and Feldman (1996) it is a subjective experience. However, emotional dissonance *sensu* Zapf et al. (1999) might be strongly influenced by subjective experiences. Zapf et al. (1999) instructed the participants to answer like any employee who is doing the same job would answer. However, participants might not be accustomed to differentiate between their own emotional experience and that of any other potential jobholder. Therefore, the participants' answers might be based to a large extent on their own emotional experience which they use as a proxy for the assessment of emotional dissonance as a workplace characteristic.

modifies the way he or she feels by changing his or her perception of the situation (e.g., through reframing; Gross 1998). While both surface acting and deep acting are predicted to have a mainly negative impact on individual well-being, deep acting is argued to do so to a lesser extent, because in this mode there is a stronger correspondence between felt and expressed emotion. Research indeed has supported this proposition. For example, it was shown that surface acting has more detrimental effects on burnout and performance than deep acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, in press).

Relations between emotional dissonance, surface acting, and deep acting

Although the two perspectives on emotion work focus on different core concepts, they are conceptually related (Grandey, 2000). More specifically, the experience of emotional dissonance implies the use of surface acting. When service employees experience that their displayed emotion differs from their actual affective state (emotional dissonance), they have already engaged in surface acting (of course, given that the displayed emotion equals the appropriate emotion).

The concept of deep acting has no direct counterpart in the models that focus on emotional dissonance. While there are good theoretical reasons to assume that deep acting is important in the regulation processes involved in emotion work (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983), the operationalization of deep acting is problematic. Typical items of scales that measure deep acting reflect the *conscious* changing of emotions (e.g., "I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show", see Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, in press). However, service employees might as well engage in preconscious or *automatic* emotion regulation. This might even be the more frequent modus. As a matter of fact, research suggested that repeated practice of regulation strategies leads to automaticity and that individuals are most often not aware of these automatic processes (cf. Bargh & Chartrand, 1999; Frese & Zapf, 1994). Therefore, while the conscious regulation of emotions can be assessed by self-report, the automatized part of deep acting remains unmeasured.

Because of these measurement problems but also because the emotional dissonance conceptualization is more parsimonious, in this study emotional dissonance was chosen as the central emotion work variable to be examined. In the following, I will briefly look at antecedents and outcomes of emotional dissonance.

5.1.2 Antecedents of emotional dissonance

Previous research has identified several person- and workplace-related antecedents of emotional dissonance (or surface acting). For example, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) found that service employees high in self-monitoring engaged in more surface acting. Moreover, studies showed that role internalization or role identification helps and employee to align with organizationally desired emotions because both variables decreased emotional dissonance and surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Other antecedents relate to workplace characteristics. For example, low levels of emotional dissonance were associated with service employees' job autonomy and control (Morris & Feldman, 1997; Pugliesi, 1999).

In this study I focused on two workplace characteristics hypothesized to be related to emotional dissonance: emotional demands and time pressure. I now want to describe these variables in more detail.

Emotional demands

Emotional demands are requirements that concern the accurate display of emotions. These demands reflect organizational or professional norms, which the service employee acquires in the socialization process and maintains through reward and punishment (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). In his qualitative study Sutton (1991), for example, described in detail how bill collectors learned which emotions should be expressed for different types of debtor and how appropriate behavior was continuously reaffirmed. Emotional demands have been conceptualized in two ways. First, they have been described as the *explicitness* of display rules in an organization (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, in press). Second, they have been conceptualized as the *frequency* or *intensity* of emotions to be displayed (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf et al., 1999). For both conceptualizations, emotional demands were predicted to be positively related to experienced emotional dissonance. Morris and Feldman (1996) argued that greater emotional demands make it more difficult for service employees to meet the expectations of their organizations. As a result, it should be more likely that the service employees' felt and displayed emotions differ. In line with this proposition, Grandey (in press) found a positive relationship between the existence of explicit display rules and surface acting. Similarly, Zapf et al. (1999) reported a positive link between several emotional requirements (e.g., frequency of showing positive emotions) and emotional dissonance. Accordingly, I hypothesize that there is a positive association between emotional demands and the level of emotional dissonance.

Hypothesis 1: Emotional demands are positively related to emotional dissonance

Time pressure

Time pressure is a job demand that results from insufficient time to complete a job task (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994). Daily experience tells us that time pressure is an important issue in service occupations, but to my knowledge, no study has empirically investigated the role of time pressure in emotion work. Past research showed, however, that time pressure is negatively related to employees' well-being (e.g., Garst, Frese, & Molenaar, 2000; Teuchmann, Totterdell, & Parker, 1999). The negative effects of time pressure can be explained by the effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). According to this model, a specific workload leads to specific psychobiological responses ("load reactions"). When the workload is removed these responses return to a pre-workload level, a process termed "recovery" (cf. Sonnentag, 2001). However, when an individual is confronted with time pressure, there is less opportunity to reduce the load reactions and, therefore, recovery is impaired. As a consequence, load reactions build up which, in the long, run can lead to decreased psychological and physiological well-being. Transferring this conceptualization to the domain of emotion work, I argue that time pressure increases emotional dissonance. Service employees have to invest effort in order to display appropriate emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1996). This effort, which leads to load reactions, needs to be balanced with phases of recovery. Time pressure decreases the possibilities for recovery and, thus, it should get increasingly difficult for the service employees to reach the desired level of affect display. This, in turn, should widen the gap between felt and displayed emotions.

Hypothesis 2: Time pressure is positively related to emotional dissonance

5.1.3 Consequences of emotional dissonance

The negative association of emotional dissonance/surface acting and well-being of service employees has been repeatedly demonstrated. The outcome variables studied so far are burnout (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, in press; Zapf et al., 1999), psychosomatic complaints (Zapf et al., 1999), job stress (Pugliesi, 1999), and job satisfaction (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zapf et al., 1999). These relationships may be best explained by physiological reactions (especially arousal) that accompany the efforts to suppress or inhibit actual feelings (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998).

In the present study job satisfaction was used as a work-related outcome variable and general well-being as a somewhat broader outcome variable. In line with the robust findings presented above I expect that emotional dissonance is negatively related to these two variables.

Hypothesis 3: Emotional dissonance is negatively related to job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 4: Emotional dissonance is negatively related to general well-being.

5.1.4 Affect-related competence as a psychological resource

So far I have looked at how emotional demands and time pressure might increase emotional dissonance, and how, in turn, emotional dissonance should be negatively related to service employees' well-being. The question arises of whether there are factors that can interrupt or at least influence this chain of reactions. Such factors are commonly referred to as psychological resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Frese & Zapf, 1994; Hobfoll, 1989). More specifically, Hobfoll (2001) defines resources "as those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued in their own right, or that are valued because they act as conduits to the achievement or protection of valued resources" (p. 339). I argue that affect-related competence functions as a psychological resource that helps the service employee to deal effectively with the requirements of the job. I propose two major pathways through which affect-related competence unfolds its influence on the workplace characteristics – emotional dissonance – outcome chain (see Figure 5.1). The first pathway concerns the influence of affect-related competence on the relationship between workplace characteristics and emotional dissonance. The second pathway concerns the influence of affect-related competence on the relationship between emotional dissonance and well-being.

Figure 5.1. Study model
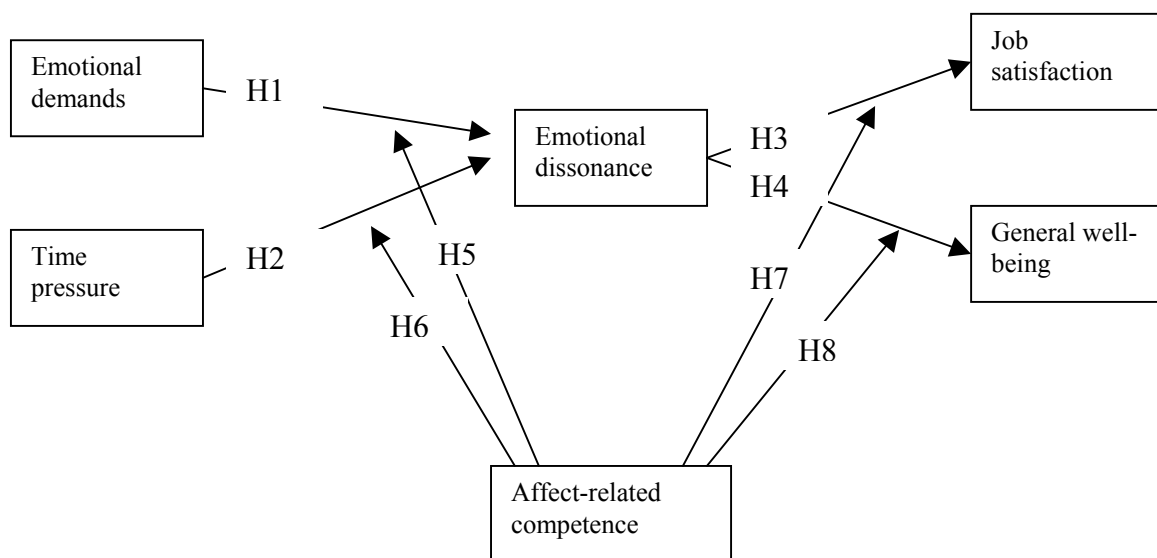
Pathway 1: Reducing the negative impact of workplace demands

I argue that in situations with high workplace demands, service employees high in affect-related competence experience less emotional dissonance. Since service employees with high affect-related competence are more effective in regulating their own affect, they may respond quickly to the demands of a service situation and close the gap between felt and displayed affect,

thus reducing emotional dissonance. As was pointed out above, Gross (1998) called this strategy of modifying the felt affect before it unfolds its (unwanted) consequences "antecedent-focus regulation" and he suggested that individuals can use several techniques to regulate themselves that can also be applied to service employees. For example, they can select or avoid certain situations (e.g., ask a colleague to deal with certain customers), redirect their attention toward the desired affect (e.g., think about pleasant things), or cognitively change the meaning of a situation (e.g., appraise an unpleasant situation as a challenge). Also, the competence to regulate the affect of customers may play a role because it helps to influence the customer as a potential source of negative affect. In the last chapter it was shown that the service employees' displayed affect "spills over" to the customer (see also Hatfield, et al., 1994; Pugh, 2001). Thus, a service employee who is able to create a positive affective state in the customer may profit from it because the positive affect feeds back to the service employee.

Thus, I hypothesize that in situations with high emotional demands, service employees higher in affect-related competence should experience less emotional dissonance than service employees low in affect-related competence.

> Hypothesis 5: Affect-related competence moderates the relationship between emotional demands and emotional dissonance: More competent employees experience less emotional dissonance in the face of high emotional demands than less competent service employees.

Affect-related competence should also moderate the relationship between time pressure and emotional dissonance. More specifically, given high levels of time pressure, service employees high in affect-related competence should experience less emotional dissonance. I have argued above that time pressure reduces the possibility for service employees to recover from the workload. Service employees who are more competent in regulating their own affect can better use the available time for recovery, because their regulation strategies are more efficient.

> Hypothesis 6: Affect-related competence moderates the relationship between time pressure and emotional dissonance: More competent service employees experience less emotional dissonance in the face of high time pressure than less competent service employees.

Pathway 2: Reducing the negative impact of emotional dissonance on well-being

As the second pathway I argue that affect-related competence should weaken the relation between emotional dissonance and the outcome variables. Service employees who are more competent in affective self-regulation may be more effective in their (upward-) regulation of the aversive state that results from the experience of emotional dissonance, and therefore recover more quickly. This would prevent the accumulation of negative affect that would otherwise lead to reduced job satisfaction and well-being (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Hypothesis 7: Affect-related competence moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction: More competent service employees experience more job satisfaction in the face of high emotional dissonance than less competent service employees.

Hypothesis 8: Affect-related competence moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and general well-being: More competent service employees experience more general well-being in the face of high emotional dissonance than less competent service employees.

Assessing affect-related competence

In Study 1 affect-related competence was assessed by adopting self-report measures of emotional intelligence. As described above, these self-report measures are reliable and economic but also have some disadvantages. For example, answers concerning one's own competence may be subject to a social desirability bias or may reflect the self-identity rather than actual abilities (Roberts et al., 2001; Spain, Eaton & Funder, 2000). Moreover, in this study I have to rely strongly on the service employees' perceptions of their work. If self-reports would also be used to measure affect-related competence, the problem of percept-percept biases (Crampton & Wagner, 1994) would possibly increase. A way to avoid this problem is to use peer ratings to measure affect-related competence. Similarly, Roberts et al. (2001) pointed out that such a procedure has not been used in the context of emotional intelligence but would be promising. Therefore, affect-related competence was measured in this study by asking peers to rate our target subjects.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Sample, materials, and procedure

The sample consisted of 121 service employees in the clothing retail business. The service employees were approached during working hours and were asked whether they would be willing to participate in a study about work demands in service professions. If they consented they were handed a package that included their own questionnaire and a questionnaire for the peer. The service employees were asked to give the peer questionnaire to a person who knew them sufficiently well. After a couple of days an assistant returned to the stores to pick up the service employees' questionnaires. The peer questionnaires were sent directly to me.

I handed out 160 packages from which 121 service employee questionnaires (response rate of 76 %) and 79 peer questionnaires (response rate of 65 % of the participating service employees) were returned. 57 percent of the service employees were female. The mean age was

31.1 years (SD = 9.7). On average, the service employees had an experience of 10 years as store assistants (SD = 9.3). They worked in stores that sold mixed apparel (35 %) or apparel exclusively for women (32 %), men (28 %), or children (5 %). With regard to the peer sample, 54 percent were female and the mean age was 33.5 years (SD = 11.2). On average, the peers have known the employee for 8.8 years (SD = 8.7).

5.2.2 Measures

Time pressure. Time pressure was measured with four items originally developed by Semmer (1982) and adapted to the service context. A sample item was "How often do you have to serve a customer faster than normal to get the work done?". The response format ranged from 1 (almost never) to 5 (very often). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .78.

Emotional demands. This measure comprised eight items of the "Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales" (FEWS; Zapf et al., 1999) that focused on three facets: how often the service employee has to show positive emotions (e.g., "Do you have to put the customers in a good mood?"), how often the service employee has to show empathy toward the customer (e.g., "How often do you have to be empathic toward the customer?"), and how often the service employee has to be sensitive to the emotions of the customer (e.g., "Is it important to know how the clients feel momentarily?"). The response format ranged from 1 (almost never) to 5 (very often). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .80.

Emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance was measured with three items of the FEWS (Zapf et al., 1999). A sample item was "How often do you have to show emotions that do not correspond to your actual emotions?". The response format ranged from 1 (almost never) to 5 (very often). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .86.

Affect-related competence. Affect-related competence as rated by the peers was computed as an index of five scales. The respective scales were adapted so that the service employee (named 'A') was the subject of the statements. First, *perspective taking* was measured with the respective subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980, 1983). A sample item was "Before criticizing somebody, 'A' tries to imagine how he/she would feel if he/she were in their place". One item had to be removed from the original scale because of its insufficient item-total correlation. Cronbach's alpha for the six-item scale was .79. Second, *affective self-regulation* was measured with four items of the subscale "repair" from the Trait Meta Mood Scale (Salovey et al., 1994). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .80. Third, r*egulation of other's affect* was measured with five items from the emotional intelligence questionnaire developed by Schutte et al. (1998; see Appendix A.1). The coefficient alpha of the scale was .86. Fourth and

fifth, two scales were used constructed of items especially developed for this study. The items that described various facets of affect-related competence were subjected to an exploratory main component factor analysis (varimax rotation) that revealed two factors. The first scale consisted of three items that focused on self-regulatory processes (e.g., "'A' knows very well how he can maintain a good mood"; see Appendix A.3) and was called *affect-related competence – internal.* Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .82. The second scale comprised six items that focused on dealing with other people (e.g., "'A' knows quickly what is going on in other people"; see Appendix A.3) and it was called *affect-related competence – external.* Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .84. The response format of all five scales ranged from 1 (not at all) to 5 (absolutely).

An exploratory main component factor analysis (varimax rotation) with the five scales revealed a single second-order factor. I also conducted a confirmatory factor analysis. A model with three first-order factors and a second-order factor (affect-related competence; see Figure 5.2) was tested. The affective self-regulation scale and the affect-related competence - internal scale formed a factor called *affect-related competence – self,* and the regulation of others' affect scale and the self-developed affect-related competence – others scale formed a factor called *affect-related competence – others.* The perspective taking scale was used as a single indicator for the factor *perspective taking* . The fit of the model was good: $\chi^2 = 14.3$, $df = 7$, $\chi^2/df = 2.1$, $p = .05$, GFI = .93, CFI = .95, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .12.

Figure 5.2. Measurement model of affect-related competence
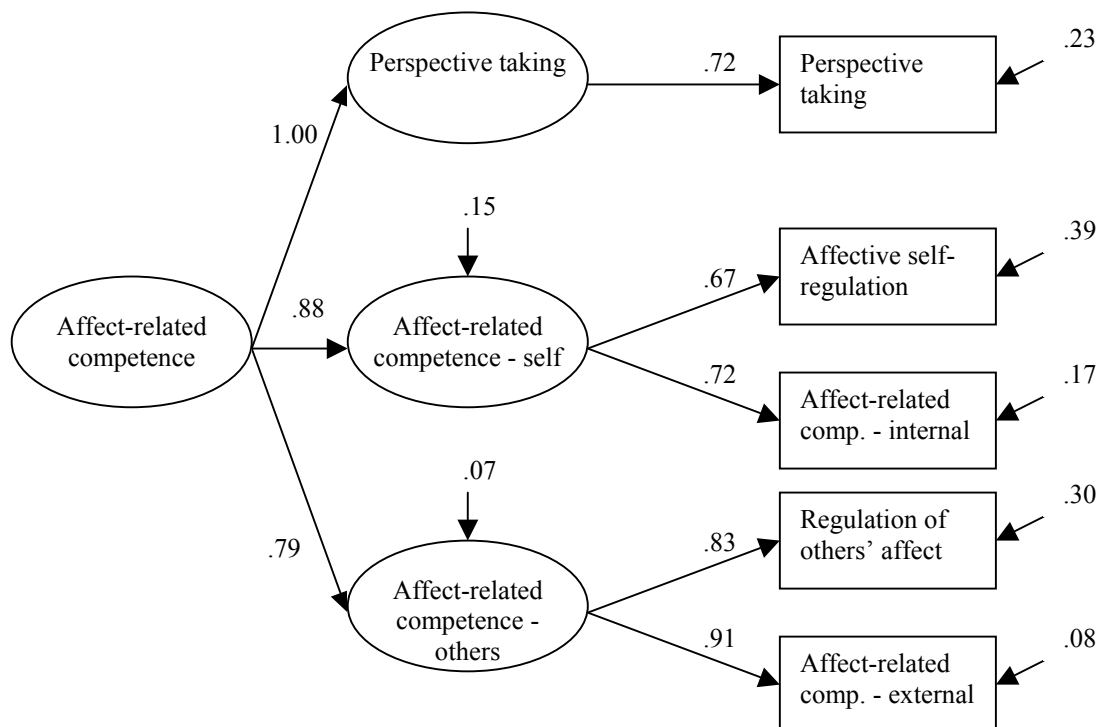
Based on these results, affect-related competence was computed as the average value of the five scales. Cronbach's alpha for this composite measure was .81.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with a scale developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). The scale consisted of 14 items that tap the satisfaction with regard to different aspects of the task and the work environment (e.g., opportunity to use skills, supervisor, pay etc.). The response format ranged from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .91.

General well-being. General well-being was measured with a scale developed by Bradburn (1969). Subjects had to indicate how often in the last six months they felt in a certain way (e.g., "I felt depressed and very unhappy"). The response format ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Cronbach's alpha of the nine-item scale was .76.

5.3 Results

Table 5.1 presents the intercorrelations of the study variables. The first set of hypotheses concerned the direct links between workplace characteristics, emotional dissonance, and outcome variables. As predicted in Hypothesis 1, emotional demands were positively related to emotional dissonance (r = .50). However, unexpectedly, time pressure was unrelated to emotional dissonance (r = .05; Hypothesis 2). Emotional dissonance was negatively related to both job satisfaction (r = -.18) and general well-being (r = -.19), supporting Hypotheses 3 and 4.

Table 5.1
Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations of study variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age	31.06	9.66								
2 Gender (0 = female, 1 = male)	0.43	0.50	.01							
3 Time pressure	3.10	0.89	.07	.19*	(.78)					
4 Emotional demands	3.41	0.78	.07	.10	.09	(.80)				
5 Emotional dissonance	3.34	0.94	-.03	-.06	.05	.50**	(.86)			
6 Affect-related competence	3.58	0.58	.06	.03	.11	.38**	.17	(.81)		
7 Job satisfaction	4.72	1.04	-.05	.06	-.14	.05	-.18*	.22	(.91)	
8 General well-being	3.76	0.54	.00	-.01	-.05	.06	-.19*	.24*	.61**	(.76)

N = 79-121.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

For the moderator analyses I used hierarchical regression analysis following the procedure suggested by Aiken and West (1991). Note that for these analyses the sample size was reduced to 79, because the peer-ratings of affect-related competence were used. First, all predictors were centralized. Next the interaction terms were calculated as a product of the original predictor and the moderator variable. Finally, the hierarchical regression analyses were conducted: In the first step I entered the centralized predictor and the moderator, and in the second step I entered the interaction term. Because detecting moderator effects with hierarchical regression analysis is rather difficult in field studies due to reduced power (McClelland & Judd, 1993), I applied a significance level of 10 percent. Graphs were also drawn in order to better interpret the moderator effects. As proposed by Aiken and West (1991), a low and a high level condition for the abscissa was created, whereby the low level condition was defined as a standard deviation below the mean of the respective predictor and the high level condition as a standard deviation above the mean.

Table 5.2 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analyses. In accordance with Hypothesis 5, affect-related competence moderated the relationship between emotional demands and emotional dissonance. The beta coefficient of the interaction term and the R^2 increment were significant. Figure 5.3 (first graph) depicts the result graphically. As expected, under conditions of high emotional demands service employees high in affect-related competence perceived less emotional dissonance than service employees with low levels of affect-related competence.

The results also supported Hypothesis 6 which predicted a moderator effect of affect-related competence for the time pressure – emotional dissonance relationship. Both the beta coefficient and the R^2 increment were significant and the graphical depiction (Figure 5.3, second graph) shows that the effects had the predicted direction.

Hypotheses 7 and 8, which predicted that affect-related competence moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction as well as between emotional dissonance and well-being, were supported. In both cases the inclusion of the interaction term yielded significant beta coefficients and R^2 increments. Figure 5.3 (third and fourth graph) shows that the moderator effects had the predicted direction. Service employees low in affect-related competence reported less job satisfaction and general well-being when emotional dissonance was high than service employees high in affect-related competence.

Table 5.2
Results of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Step	Variables entered	Emotional dissonance			Job satisfaction			Well-being		
		β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Predictor: Emotional demands										
1	Emotional demands	.49**								
	Affect-related competence	-.03								
			.23**	.23**						
2	Emotional demands	.46**								
	Affect-related competence	-.04								
	Emotional demands x affect-related competence	-.18+								
			.26**	.03+						
Predictor: Time pressure										
1	Time pressure	.15								
	Affect-related competence	.15								
			.05	.05						
2	Time pressure	.13								
	Affect-related competence	.18								
	Emotional demands x affect-related competence	-.27*								
			.12*	.07*						
Predictor: Emotional dissonance										
1	Emotional dissonance				-.22*			-.19+		
	Affect-related competence				.30**			.25*		
						.12*	.12*		.08*	.08*
2	Emotional dissonance				-.25*			-.21+		
	Affect-related competence				.35**			.29*		
	Emotional dissonance x affect-related competence				.26*					
						.18**	.06*		.12*	.04+

+ *p* < .10. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01.

Figure 5.3. Graphical depictions of the interactions
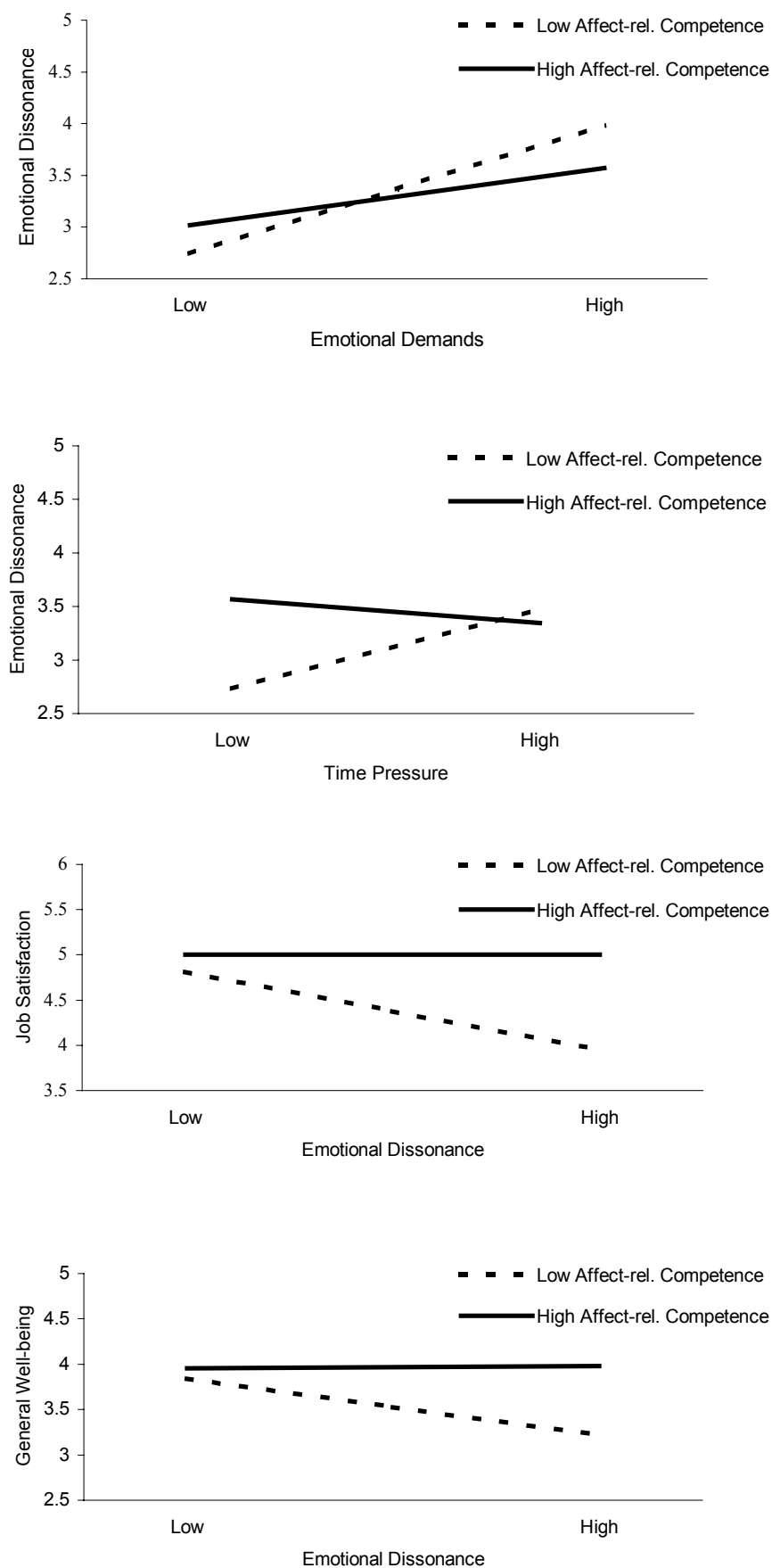
5.4 Discussion

The objective of this study was to illuminate the role of affect-related competence in emotion work. I proposed a two-step model in which affect-related competence functions as a psychological resource that moderates the relationship between antecedents and emotional dissonance, on the one hand, and between emotional dissonance and outcomes, on the other hand. The results largely support the hypotheses.

With respect to the antecedents and consequences of emotional dissonance the findings were predominantly supportive. First, in line with the prediction, emotional demands were positively associated with emotional dissonance. This aligns with previous findings that high emotional demands increase the likelihood that service employees fail to feel the expected emotion (Zapf et al., 1999). Second, time pressure was unrelated to emotional dissonance. However, the moderator analyses showed that behind this zero-order correlation, there are significant moderator effects (see below). Third, emotional dissonance was negatively related to both job satisfaction and general well-being. This finding adds to the bulk of literature that has documented the negative effects of emotion work on service employees' psychological health (e.g., Abraham, 1999b; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, in press; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Pugliesi, 1999; Zapf et al., 1999).

The moderator analyses yielded the predicted results. As hypothesized, affect-related competence was an important factor in determining how strongly emotion work was associated with well-being. Two pathways were proposed and successfully tested.

(1) Affect-related competence functions as a "buffer" against the demands of the work environment. As predicted, affect-related competence moderated the relationship between emotional demands and emotional dissonance. Service employees high in affect-related competence (compared to low-competence service employees) perceived less emotional dissonance when faced with high emotional demands. Emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998) provides several explanatory avenues. High competence service employees may engage in more effective antecedent-focused emotion regulation, that is, they have strategies that reduce the occurrence of emotional dissonance. For example, they may be more effective in focusing on the adequate emotions (attentional deployment). They also might tend to consider high emotional demands a challenge rather than a threat (cognitive change). Finally, they may also influence the customers' affect positively, which accordingly feeds back to themselves (situation modification). All these strategies can be considered a form of deep acting (Grandey, 2000). Therefore, it might be said that affect-related competence can be regarded as a dispositional base for deep acting.

Peer-rated affect-related competence also moderated the relationship between time pressure and emotional dissonance. Although the figural pattern deviated somewhat from what would be expected[2], the general statement is clear when expressed in correlational terms: while for service employees low in affect-related competence there was a positive relationship between time pressure and emotional dissonance, the relationship was zero (with a slight negative tendency) for service employees high in affect-related competence. Note that time pressure was not directly related to affect-related competence. This suggests that high-competence service employees did not generally experience less time pressure than their low-competence colleagues, but they were better in dealing with high time pressure conditions. An explanation might be that high-competence service employees use more efficient recovery strategies.

(2) Affect-related competence functioned as a moderator of the emotional dissonance – outcome relationship. In other words, for service employees high in affect-related competence the discrepancy between felt and displayed affect did not exert such negative effects on well-being and job satisfaction. As said before, the experience of emotional dissonance implies the use of surface acting. High-competence service employees may be better able to see both emotional dissonance and surface acting as a normal part of their work role. Therefore, they may recover much better from emotional dissonance by returning faster to a more adequate affective state. This recovery process may well have physiological correlates. As Grandey (2000) suggests, surface acting can lead to higher levels of physiological activation. It would be interesting to see whether throughout a certain period of time, the level of arousal changes differently for high-competence versus low-competence service employees.

Contributions and limitations

In my opinion, this study contributes to the literature in several ways: (1) Two research streams (emotion work and affect-related competence/emotional intelligence) have been empirically integrated that have several points of contact (Abraham, 1999a; Grandey, in press; Matthews & Zeidner, 2000). (2) With time pressure and affect-related competence two variables have been introduced, that have never been investigated before in the context of emotion work. The results of the moderator analyses suggest their importance for our understanding of emotion work. (3) Related to this point, it was demonstrated that the negative impact of emotion work on

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[2] In the low time pressure condition service employees high in affect-related competence had a higher level of emotional dissonance than employees low in affect-related competence. I cannot provide a reasonable explanation for this result other than that high competence employees in general had slightly higher levels of emotional dissonance. However, note that the correlation between affect-related competence and emotional dissonance was not significant. Therefore, I do not think that this pattern has a substantial meaning unless other studies have replicated it.

well-being can be attenuated by affect-related competence, and two distinct pathways have been empirically tested. The distinction of the pathways may be useful in the design of person-related interventions that are aimed at reducing the negative impact of emotion work (e.g., training programs). (4) A strength of this study is the measurement of affect-related competencies. Following suggestions of other scholars (Roberts et al., 2001) peer ratings have been used in order to circumvent known disadvantages of self-reports in the measurement of abilities and competencies (Spain et al., 2000).

However, peer ratings may have other disadvantages. The most obvious is that peers may simply not know the focal person well enough to accurately judge his or her abilities. Therefore, the peers were also asked how well they knew the focal person and 79 percent answered "well" or "very well". Thus, it can be assumed that the vast majority of peers had a sufficiently accurate picture of the focal person. The strength of the moderator effects is also surprising when one considers that only 9 percent of the peers were colleagues and the rest partners, friends, and acquaintances. Hence, one can minimize the possibility that the shared work environment influenced the ratings as well.

A possible limitation concerns the cross-sectional design of the study. In the study model a certain causal order of the variables have been implied. Other causal directions than those proposed in this study could be possible as well. For example, while most studies considered job satisfaction an outcome of emotion work, Grandey (in press) conceptualized job satisfaction as an antecedent for surface acting. She argued that job satisfaction leads to a more positive mood at work which, in turn, decreases the necessity for acting. Both directions - job satisfaction as an antecedent and as an outcome – make sense on a theoretical level and - similar to the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (cf. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) - gives reason to assume that both paths work simultaneously. Future longitudinal studies might illuminate the reciprocal character of this and other relationships.

6. The development and first validation of a situation-based interview measure to assess affect-related competence (Study 3)

In Study 1 and 2 affect-related competence was measured by using established self-report questionnaires of emotional intelligence. The use of these measures was regarded as suitable because of the conceptual similarities between affect-related competence and emotional intelligence, but particularly because they assess typical behavior. However, for some purposes self-report measures have methodical and practical disadvantages. Therefore, the objective in this study was to develop an alternative measure of affect-related competence. This measure is based on an interview procedure and relies on situations as stimuli for the subject's answers.

In this chapter, I will first review advantages and disadvantages of self-report questionnaires and I will outline why situation-based instruments can be a valid alternative. I will then illustrate the development of the interview measure and describe its statistical properties. Finally, I will report results on the convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity.

6.1 Self-report questionnaires and situation-based interviews

There is a long tradition of assessing dispositions, traits, or cognitive and affective tendencies by self-report questionnaires. This measurement approach has several advantages. It is economic (e.g., with respect to time or money) and mostly highly reliable. Also, individuals

are – obviously - as close as one can get to their own cognitive or affective experiences. However, self-reports are not free of distortions, for example due to self-serving or self-protecting biases (Paulhus, 1991; Spain et al., 2000). This poses a serious problem in contexts in which the results are directly related to organizational decisions (e.g., personnel selection). Moreover, for research purposes, the reliance on self-report questionnaires brings with it problems of percept-percept biases (e.g., Crampton & Wagner, 1994) and of specific answering styles such as the acquiescence bias (e.g., Paulhus, 1991). To overcome some of these problems in Study 2 I have used peer-reports as an alternative measure of affect-related competence.

A third way of assessing individuals' cognitive, affective or behavioral tendencies is to confront people in a standardized way with situations, that are relevant to the concept to be measured. The (mostly verbal) reaction to the situations is then used as the basis for expert ratings. This situation-based approach preserves the main advantage of self-reports - individuals have access to their inner life. At the same time it reduces the disadvantages that are attributable to the questionnaire method. Evidence for the validity of situation-based interviews comes, for example, from research on the "situational interview" and the "behavior description interview" (cf. Harris, 1989). The situational interview is a structured interview tool developed primarily for selection purposes (Latham & Saari, 1984; Latham, Saari, Pursell, & Campion, 1980). The basic idea is to confront an applicant with work-related situations and ask how he or she would act. The response is considered an approximation of typical work behavior and, therefore, a good predictor of job performance. The situational interview so far has been applied in a wide array of settings and the empirical results are encouraging (Latham, 1989). Moreover, in a meta-analysis McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, and Maurer (1994) showed that among the most frequently used interview procedures the situational interview predicted job performance best.

The behavior description interview (Janz, 1982; Janz, Hellervik, & Gilmore, 1986) is based on the assumption that future behavior can be best predicted by past behavior. Accordingly, subjects are not asked how they *would behave* in certain situations but how they *actually behaved* in the past. McDaniel et al. (1994) did not include the behavior description interview as a distinct category in there meta-analysis but the few empirical studies that have been conducted reported good predictive validity for the instrument (Harris, 1989).

In the domain of emotional intelligence Mayer et al. (1999) also developed a situation-based measure as part of the MEIS (see Chapter 2.5, Footnote 1). These subscales assessed the ability to manage emotions in the self and in others by confronting subjects with descriptions of emotion-related situations (e.g., a depressed colleague, the end of an intimate relationship). For each vignette subjects had to rate the effectiveness of four possible reactions. However, a

limitation of this method is that the individual's answer is restricted to predefined solutions. This may aggravate the tendency to respond in accordance of what is thought to be socially desirable in the given situation. Related to this, the instrument does not assess how individuals would typically act in these situation. Moreover, some people may develop quite different but equally competent solutions to a situation, and this information is not gathered.

Based on this discussion, the objective of this study was to develop and validate a measure of affect-related competence which is based on predefined situations. This measure is supposed to assess typical behavior and also should allow the subjects to answer in a free format. Therefore, the basic idea was to confront subjects with descriptions of real life situations with affective content and to elicit their typical cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions. The subjects should be guided by open questions but without restricting their verbal answers in any way. In the following I will describe the development of the measure.

6.2 Development of the measure

The interview measure was designed to reflect three dimensions (or subcompetencies) of affect-related competence: empathy, affective self-regulation and regulating other's emotions (for the following: regulating others). These dimensions were chosen because in Study 1 and 2 these dimensions have been identified as important for the work context. Also, they can be easily related to real life behavior and are therefore suitable for a situational interview. I wanted to develop a rather broad measure that uses situations from a variety of life contexts and which involves different affective states. Although affect-related competence is especially important for the work context, the assessment of the concept does not have to be restricted to this context, because the competencies are so basic that they should be visible also in other life contexts.

The first step in the development of the measure was to collect a sample of situations for which successful handling one of the three dimensions would be necessary. Scientific and popular literature was screened and colleagues were asked for descriptions of affectively competent behavior in real life. From a pool of situations five situations for each dimension were chosen (see Appendix A.4). The descriptions of the situations (or "stories" for the following) were pre-tested for comprehensibility. The interview was then administered to a sample of students.

6.2.1 Sample, procedure, and data analysis

The sample consisted of 120 undergraduate and graduate students from two large German universities. 60 were enrolled at the respective psychology department, and 60 at the respective school of business. 49 percent were female and the mean age was 25.1 years ($SD = 4.2$).

For the interview the subject was seated across the interviewer. The interviewer told the subject that he/she would read aloud fifteen real life stories and that after each story the interviewer would ask the subject two or three short questions. It would be important that the subject tries to put himself or herself in the stories. Then the interviewer read aloud the first story. If the subject did not understand certain aspects of the story, the interviewer reformulated the content of the story but did not give any additional information. Otherwise the interviewer proceeded to ask the questions. When the subject signaled the end of his or her answer, the interviewer continued with the next story which was always a story that pertained to a different dimension. The vast majority of the interviews took 15 to 25 minutes. The oral answers of the subject were recorded and transcribed. The transcribed answers were rated independently by two raters. For the ratings of the three dimensions specific rating scales were developed that are depicted in Table 6.1. Detailed descriptions of these scales are provided below.

Table 6.1
Rating scales for the interview measures

Rating scale	Description	Rating
Empathy		
Perspective taking	The subject comprehends the feelings of the focal person	0 (not at all) – 3 (to a great extent)
Empathic concern	The subject re-experiences the feelings of the focal person	0 (not at all) – 3 (to a great extent)
Empathic behavior	The subject thinks about or engages in helpful behavior	0 (would do nothing at all), 1 (would think about doing something), 2 (would actually doing something)
Affective self-regulation		
Positive approach	The subject shows a positive and active approach toward regulating the bad mood	0 (not at all) – 3 (to a great extent)
Change in mood	Change in mood after regulation	0 (no change) – 3 (strong positive change)
Regulating others		
Number of solutions	Unique number of solutions	0 - 3
Evaluation of solutions	Overall evaluation of effectiveness of the solutions	1 (very ineffective) – 5 (very effective)

Data analysis

The reliability and internal validity of the interview measures was assessed in a three-step procedure. First, intraclass correlations (ICC) were computed to assess the degree of agreement between the two raters following the procedures proposed by Shrout and Fleiss (1979) and McGraw and Wong (1996). As a rule of thumb, Klein, Bliese et al. (2000) proposed that a ICC value of at least .70 should be obtained. Table 6.2 presents means and ranges of the ICCs for every rating. Second, internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were computed. Third, the structure of the interview measures was further explored with confirmatory factor analyses using structural equation modeling (AMOS 4.0; Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999).

Table 6.2
Means and ranges of intraclass correlations for the interviewer ratings

	Empathy[a]			Affective self-regulation		Regulating others	
	Perspective taking	Empathic concern	Empathic behavior	Positive regulation	Effectiveness	Evaluation of solutions	No. of solutions
Mean of ICCs	.76	.77	.77	.75	.81	.79	.92
Range of ICCs	.71-.83	.71-.83	.71-.81	.71-79	.77-.86	.72-.84	.89-.96

[a] One story removed (see text for details)

6.2.2 Empathy

The five stories described incidents, in which the subject observed or was involved in a situation where a focal person was confronted with an emotion-laden incident (see Appendix A.4 for all stories). The focal person was described either as a stranger or as a person the subject disliked. This was done in order to avoid restriction of variability in answers because it was expected that most subjects would empathize with people they already liked. Three of the five stories for the empathy dimension were adapted from a situation-related measure of empathy developed by Holz-Ebeling and Steinmetz (1994). An example for a story is:

> Imagine that you are having lunch with a colleague which you actually don't like. He/she starts to tell you that he/she has some trouble with his/her supervisor and that he/she is very afraid of losing his/her job.

Each story was followed by two questions. The first question was "What do you feel or think in this situation?". Feeling and thinking was taken together because in a pretest I found that subjects had difficulties distinguishing the two modes. The second question was "What do you do or say in this situation?".

For the empathy measure, three ratings were made. First, in accordance with the conceptualization of Davis (1983), perspective taking and empathic concern were differentiated. For perspective taking the raters evaluated how strongly the subjects comprehended the feelings of the focal person. For empathic concern it was rated how strongly the subjects expressed that they re-experienced the affective state of the focal person. Both ratings ranged from 0 (not at all) to 3 (to a great extent). In addition, the tendency to act prosocially (empathic behavior) was assessed. It was rated whether the subjects told, they would do nothing at all (0), would think about acting (1), or would act positively or helpful toward the focal person (2).

After inspection of the ICC's, one story (story 10) had to be removed because of low levels of agreement. All the other coefficients reached the critical value of .70 (see Table 6.2). The ratings were averaged and then z-transformed. With these values I formed a single scale which was called "interview empathy". Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .66.

I further explored the structure of the interview empathy measure with structural equation modeling. First, I tested a one-dimensional model with all mean ratings loading on one factor. I did not expect a good fit of this model because - following Davis (1983) - I assumed that each of the three dimensions measured a somewhat distinct aspect of empathy. Indeed, the fit of the model was poor (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses for interview general empathy

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
1 One-dimensional model	83.5	44	1.90	.00	.89	.64	.55	.09	127.5		
2 Three-dimensional model with second order factor	76.7	43	1.78	.00	.90	.69	.61	.09	122.7		
3 Model 2 with story factors	43.6	37	1.12	.21	.93	.94	.91	.04[a]	101.6		
Model 2 & Model 1										4.8	6.8**
Model 3 & Model 2										21.1	33.4**

[a] 90% confidence interval includes .00.
** $p < .01$.

Next, I tested a three-dimensional model with a second order factor. In this model the first-order factors represented the three types of ratings. These factors loaded on a second-order factor representing affect-related competence. However, the fit of the model was still not satisfactory, although significantly better than the first model (Table 6.3). I hypothesized that the heterogeneity of the stories itself might be responsible for this result. Therefore, in a third model I introduced additional latent variables that represented the influence of the respective stories ("story factors", see Figure 6.1). This approach is very similar to the use of method factors in

multi-trait-multi-method studies or latent state-trait studies (e.g., Eid, 2000; Schmitt & Steyer, 1993). However, Eid (2000) showed that the introduction of method factors can lead to a non-interpretable model when each method is represented by a latent factor (problem of overfactorizing). He therefore suggested to use one factor less than there are methods (see also Eid, Lischetzke, Nussbeck, & Trierweiler, in press). Accordingly, in this and the following analyses I used one story factors less than stories were involved.

The third model indeed had a much better fit than the previous two models (Table 6.3)[1]. In part the loadings on the story factors were quite high.

Figure 6.1. Measurement model of general empathy (interview measure)
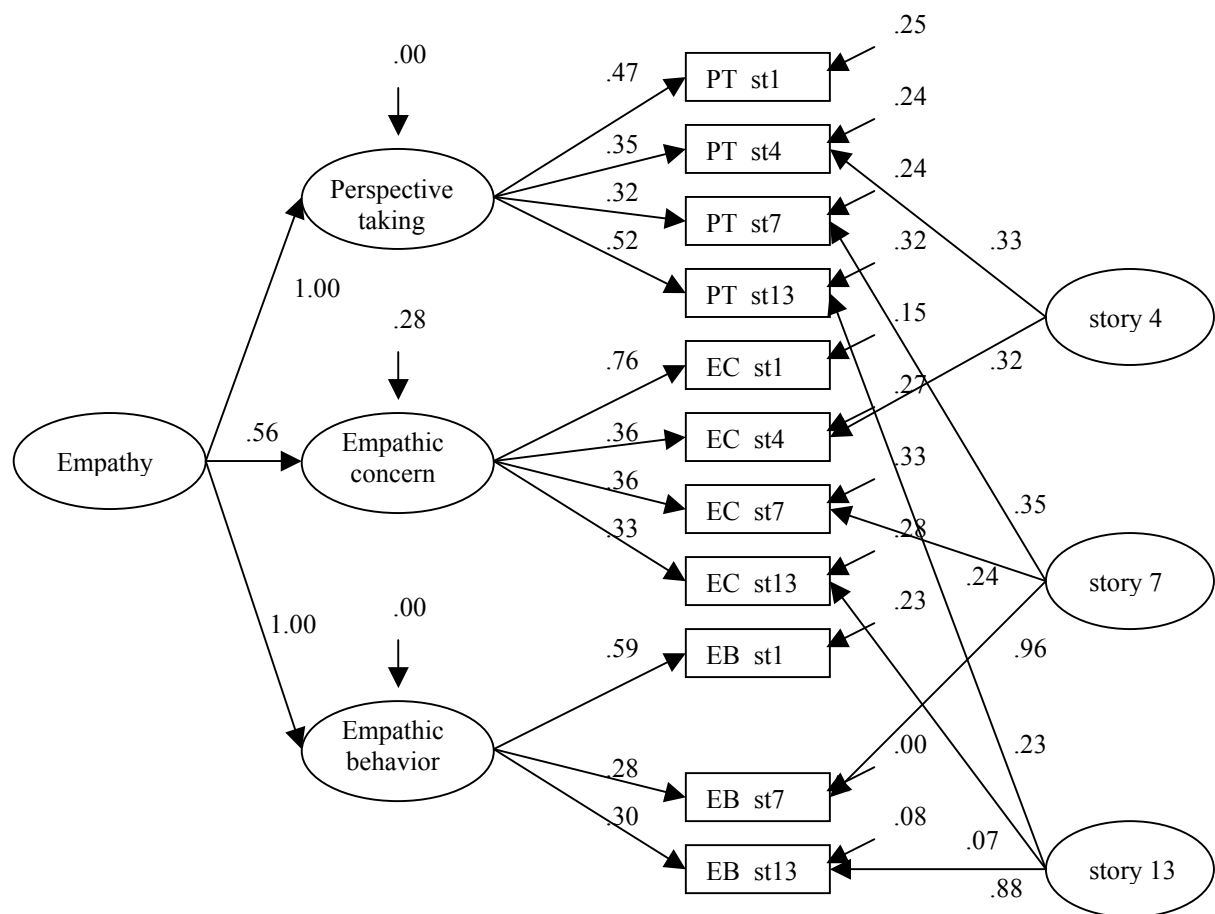
Note: PT=perspective taking, EC=empathic concern, EB=empathic behavior

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[1] Model specification: The loadings on the story factor 4 were fixed to 1. The variance for the error term of the variable EB_st7 was fixed to zero, because it had an initial value near zero. The variance for the error term of "perspective taking" and "empathic behavior" had to be fixed to zero to get an interpretable model, because in the initial model the variance was negative. Bollen (1989) argued that "impossible" estimates of parameters (here: negative variances) can occur when the true population parameter is located near to the maximum or minimum that is possible (here: variance = 0). These estimates of parameters can then be interpreted as sample effects. However, this interpretation is only valid, when the impossible estimation does not differ significantly from the maximum or minimum value (which indeed is the case here) and when it is plausible that the population parameter equals the maximum or minimum value.

Taken together, the results of the structural equation models suggested that with respect to the empathy interview measure the structure with three types of ratings is useful. The particularities of the stories, however, are an important source of variance as well.

6.2.3 Affective self-regulation

The five stories described incidents in which the subject had to deal with negative emotions following specific incidents. The negative emotions comprised disappointment, discouragement, negative arousal, anger, and annoyance. An example story is:

> Imagine you work as a waitress/waiter in a restaurant. Today, the restaurant is crowded and you are extremely busy. On one table there is a guest who is putting a lot of pressure on you and it seems you just never can please him enough. You start to get angry.

The story was followed by three questions: "What do you feel or think?", "What do you do?", and - if there was a regulation effort - "How do you feel afterwards?". This last question assessed if the regulation efforts were deemed to be successful in this specific situation.

It was first rated how strongly the answer exhibited a positive approach to the problem on a scale from 0 (not at all) to 3 (very strongly). Research suggests that individuals differ strongly in which strategy they prefer for affective upward-regulation, ranging from smoking a cigarette to using sophisticated stress management techniques (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999; Thayer, Newman, & McClain, 1994). As a consequence, the effectiveness of the same strategy differs from individual to individual. However, on a more abstract level, strategies that involve a positive and active approach seem to be more helpful in overcoming the negative affective state (Thayer et al., 1994; Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999). The following two answers to story 5 (unsuccessful fund-raising) provide examples of such a positive approach:

> I would think, that probably I have simply talked to the wrong person and the next time it will be better, and I simply must not give up and I must carry on, because on the next door it might look differently. (49)

> Probably I would think, why is everyone so unfriendly […] and [ask myself] if it is my fault […] that they don't give any money. I don't think I would give up, rather, I would try again and again and think: Come on, you still are friendly and positive. Maybe things go better then, and people give me some money […]. (89)

Second, it was rated how positively the subjects described the change of their mood as a result of their regulation effort. The scale ranged from 0 (no change) to 3 (strong positive change). The ICC's of the ratings were above the .70 threshold (Table 6.2). Two scales were built: (1) For the first all ten z-standardized mean ratings were included. This scale was called "Interview self-regulation (long form)". Cronbach's alpha was .56. Because this coefficient was relatively low, I tried to improve internal consistency by a stepwise elimination of ratings with low item-total correlations. (2) The resulting scale was called "Interview self-regulation (short form)" and included the four z-standardized mean ratings of story 5 and story 8. Cronbach's

alpha was .68. Although the internal consistency of the second scale was higher, the first scale was broader and therefore might have more predictive power. Thus, I opted to use both scales in the validity analysis.

For the confirmatory factor analysis only the interview measure of general self-regulation was considered (Figure 6.2). A one-dimensional model with one latent variable on which all ten mean ratings loaded had a poor fit (Table 6.4). For the next model I simply added four story factors (see above). This model had a very good fit[2]. Some ratings loaded very high on the respective story factor and rather low on the self-regulation factor. This may explain why the alpha coefficient of the scale was relatively low.

Table 6.4
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses for interview affective self-regulation (long form)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	Δχ^2
1 One-dimensional model	151.3	35	4.32	.00	.79	.22	.00	.18	191.3		
2 Model 1 with story factors	33.0	31	1.06	.37	.94	.99	.98	.03[a]	81.0		
Model 2 & Model 1										110.3	118.3**

[a] 90% confidence interval includes .00.
** *p* < .01.

Figure 6.2. Measurement model of general self-regulation (interview measure)
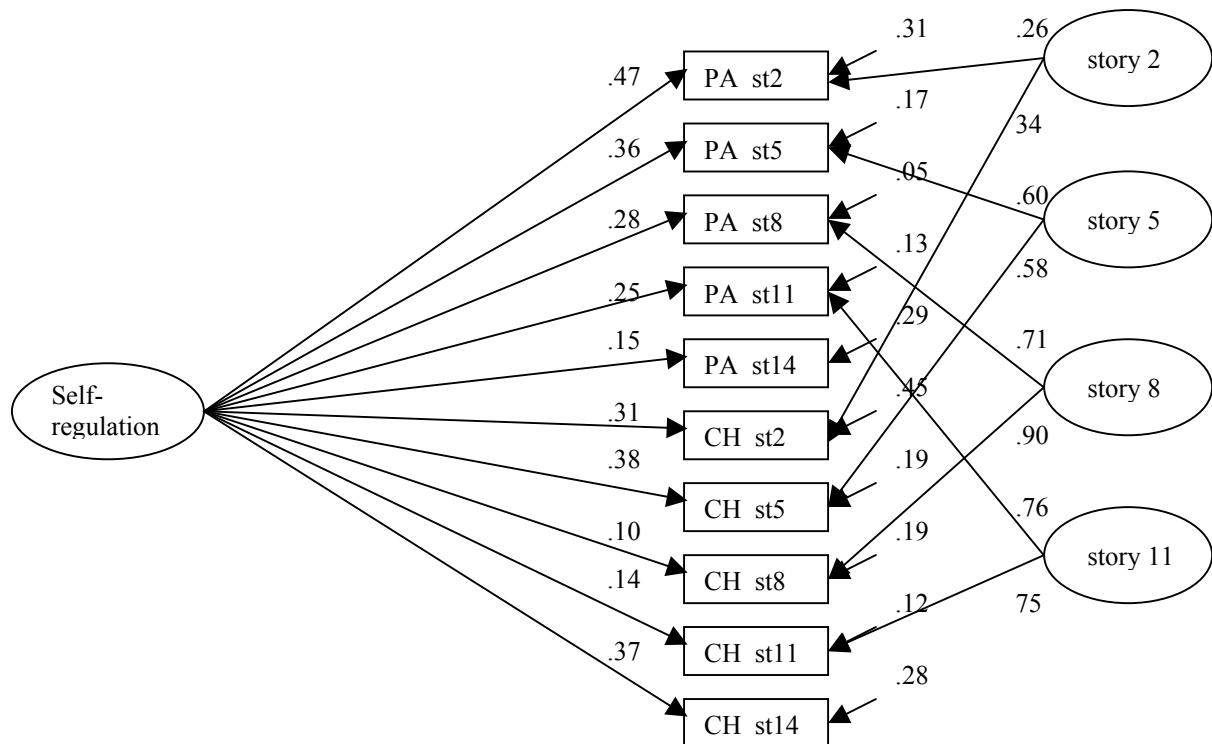
Note: PA=Positve approach, CH=change in mood

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[2] Model specification: The coefficients between the story factors and the respective observed variable were fixed to 1.

6.2.4 Regulating others

In these five stories the subject was confronted with one or more persons who showed negative emotions (e.g., embarrassment, anger) or were in a negative mood. The subject was supposed to feel obliged to change the persons' affective state from negative to neutral or positive. An example story is:

> Imagine you work in the sales department of a company. Today you are calling a very important customer to tell him that your company will not be able to meet the scheduled delivery date. On the phone the customer is getting upset and very angry.

Each story was followed by two questions: "What do you feel or think?" and "What do you do or say?". In addition, after the subject had described a strategy, the interviewer asked "What do you do if this will not work?". This question was repeated up to two times until the interviewee did not come up with a new strategy. This procedure - called "overcoming barriers" (Frese, Fay, Hillgruber, Leng, & Tag, 1997) - was used for two reasons. First, I reasoned that it might give a more accurate picture of the subjects' competence. For example, in pretests I realized that some subjects changed from an initially friendly behavior to aggressive behavior, as soon as the interviewer told them that the customers did not react the way the subjects expected. Thus, the first verbal reaction might sometimes show only one part of a typical reaction, and therefore the second or third barrier helps to get a clearer picture. Second, in real life the first strategy often is not successful, so part of the competence lies in the subject's capability to be flexible and to apply different strategies.

For the first rating a general evaluation was used, that is, the raters assessed the effectiveness of the strategies that the subjects described as a whole. Strategies were rated as more effective the more probable it seemed that the affect of the focal person would be changed toward an appropriate state. For every story, the two raters discussed in advance what good strategies would be. For the above story good strategies were: communicating responsibility of the company for the service failure, showing customer orientation, or offering some type of compensation. Poor strategies were: reacting aggressively or refusing to take responsibility (for examples for the other stories see Appendix A.5). The rating format ranged from 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective). For the second rating it was simply counted how many different strategies the subject presented (with a maximum of three). This value was used as a proxy for the flexibility of the subject.

All ICC's of the ratings were above the .70 threshold. Because of the different rating formats the mean ratings were z-transformed. With these ten ratings, a scale was formed called "Interview regulating others" that had a Cronbach's alpha of .75.

A confirmatory factor analysis again revealed a poor fit for a one-dimensional model (Table 6.5). As before, for the second model I added four story factors (Figure 6.3). This model provided an excellent fit[3]. The loading pattern revealed that for some ratings a large proportion of the variance was attributable to the stories and that some loadings on the regulating others factor were quite low. Nevertheless, I decided to retain these ratings, because their omission would have reduced the breadth of the measure (and also the alpha coefficient).

Table 6.5
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses for interview regulating others

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
1 One-dimensional model	419.4	35	11.98	.00	.65	.26	.05	.31	459.4		
2 Model 1 with story factors	33.8	29	1.17	.25	.94	.99	.99	.04[a]	85.8		
Model 2 & Model 1										373.6	385.6**

[a] 90% confidence interval includes .00.
** $p < .01$.

Figure 6.3. Measurement model of general regulating others (interview measure)
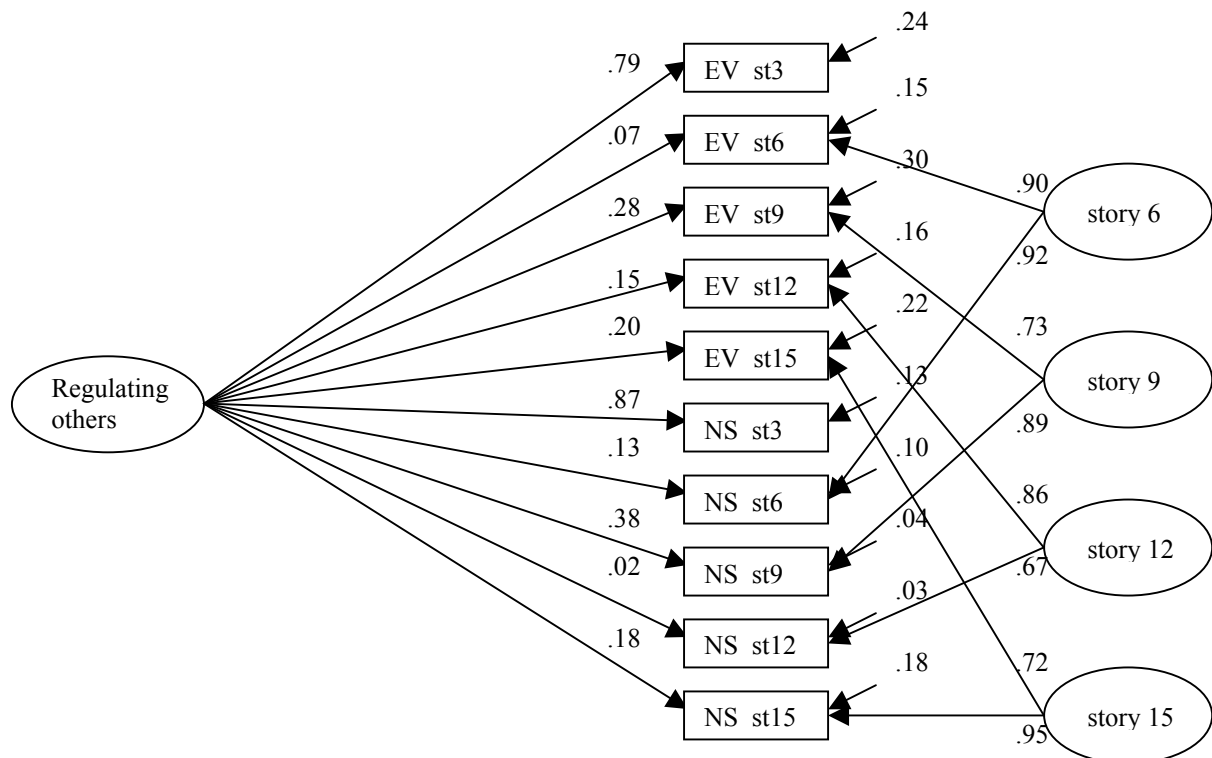
Note: EV=rater evaluations, NS=number of solutions

[3] Model specification: The coefficients between the story factors and the respective observed variable were fixed to 1. In addition, the covariances between the story factors 6 and 15, as well as between 9 and 12 were set free. This seemed to be justified because the stories described similarly structured social situations (stories 6 and 15: the target person had to face a group of people for which he/she felt responsible; stories 9 and 12: the target person had to deal with an irritated customer).

6.3 Convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity

The validity of the interview measures was evaluated with four types of variables: (1) scales that assessed the same (or analogue) dimensions of affect-related competence than the interview measures, (2) other dimensions of affect-related competence, (3) personality variables, and (4) different criteria from the workplace context and private life. Data was gathered both from subjects and from peers, but not for all variables. Therefore, I did not conduct a Multi-Trait-Multi-Method analysis (cf. Campbell & Fiske, 1959). In Table 6.6 the validation variables and the hypothesized relations to the interview measure are summarized. In the following I will outline these propositions in more detail.

Table 6.6
Validation variables and proposed relations to the interview measure

Validation variables	Dimensions of interview measure			Hypotheses
	Empathy	Affective self-regulation	Regulating others	
Analogue scales				
Perspective taking	++	+	+	H1a
Empathic concern	++	+	+	H1b
Personal distress	0	0	0	H1c
Affective self-regulation	+	++	+	H2
Regulating others	+	+	++	H3
Other dimensions of affect-related competence				
Attention to emotions	+	+	+	H4a
Clarity of emotions	+	+	+	H4b
Affective nonverbal communication	+	+	+	H5
Sensitivity to affective cues	+		+	H6
Personality variables				
Extraversion			+	H7
Neuroticism	-	-	-	H8
Agreeableness	+	+	+	H9
Ability to modify self-presentation	0	0	0	H10
Criteria				
Effectiveness in workplace situations	+	+	+	H11
Life satisfaction	+	+	+	H12
Relationship quality	+	+	+	H13
Social competence	+	+	+	H14

Note. Empty cells indicate that no hypothesis was specified.

++ strong positive relation   + positive relation   0 no relation   – negative relation

6.3.1 Hypotheses

Relations to analogue scales

Empathy. As was said above, empathy is a multidimensional concept (Davis 1980, 1983). In this study I focused on three dimensions: perspective taking, (the tendency to adopt the psychological standpoint of others), empathic concern (the tendency to develop feelings toward others in emotional situations), and personal distress (the tendency to feel uneasy or anxious in tense situations). Since every dimensions of empathy touches on somewhat different emotional processes, I predicted differential relationships with the situational measure of empathy. The interview question "What do you feel or think?" relates directly to the dimensions of perspective taking and empathic concern. Therefore, the measure should strongly correlate with these two facets. In contrast, I expected no relations to personal distress because the interview measure did not focus on this dimension.

> Hypothesis 1: Interview empathy is positively related to the questionnaire measures of (a) perspective taking and (b) empathic concern and (c) is unrelated to the questionnaire measures of personal distress.

Affective self-regulation and regulating others. Since the interview measures should assess the same competencies as the questionnaire measures I expected positive relationships.

> Hypothesis 2: The interview measure of affective self-regulation is positively related to the respective questionnaire measures.

> Hypothesis 3: The interview measure of regulating others is positively related to the respective questionnaire measures.

It has to be noted that I also expected every interview measure to be positively related to the analogue scales of the other two dimensions because all dimensions are part of affect-related competence. However, there should be higher correlations *within* one dimension than *between* dimensions.

Relations to other dimensions of affect-related competence

Attention to and clarity of emotions. To pay attention to and to ascribe correct meaning to one's affective state are prerequisites for an effective self-regulation (Salovey et al., 1995). Both concepts are part of affect-related competence and, thus, I expected them to show positive relations to the interview measures.

> Hypothesis 4: All three interview measures are positively related to (a) attention to emotions and (b) clarity of emotions.

Affective nonverbal communication. This concept describes the capability to communicate affect through nonverbal channels such as facial activity, body movement, or paraverbal

behavior (Friedman, Prince, Riggio, & DiMatteo, 1980). I expected positive relations between the interview measures and affective nonverbal communication. The correlation with the interview measure of regulating others should be somewhat higher because nonverbal communication of affective information is important for influencing others.

Hypothesis 5: All three interview measures are positively related to affective nonverbal communication.

Sensitivity to affective cues of others. Research showed that interindividual differences exist in how accurately nonverbal affective cues are perceived (e.g., Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Rosenthal et al., 1979). Both empathy and regulating others are based on such a correct appraisal of the affective state of social partners. Therefore, I predicted a positive correlation between these two interview measures and the sensitivity to affective cues of others.

Hypothesis 6: The interview measures of empathy and regulating others are positively related to the sensitivity to affective cues of others.

Relations to personality variables

Personality traits. As was pointed out, affect-related competence (in contrast to emotional intelligence) can be related to personality traits, if these relationships are theoretically well founded. I selected three dimensions from the Five-Factor model of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). *Extraversion* refers to the extent to which individuals show sociable and gregarious vs. reserved and quiet behavior. Since regulating others involves a certain sociability, I expected a positive correlation between the respective interview measure and Extraversion. *Neuroticism* describes the degree to which an individual is anxious and insecure vs. cool and self-confident. Especially the affective self-regulation may depend on the tendency to not get overwhelmed by one's own state of arousal. Similarly, if one is too busy with the own emotions one may not have the capacity to attend to and to actively regulate the feelings of others. Thus, I expected a negative relationship between Neuroticism and all three interview measures. Finally, *Agreeableness* describes the degree to which individuals are warm and cooperative vs. cold and antagonistic. This trait implies empathic and prosocial behavior, as well as good affective self-regulation. Hence, I predicted positive correlations between Agreeableness and all interview measures.

Hypothesis 7: Interview regulating others is positively related to Extraversion.
Hypothesis 8: All three interview measures are negatively related to Neuroticism.
Hypothesis 9: All three interview measures are positively related to Agreeableness.

Ability to modify self-presentation. This concept refers to individuals' tendency to adapt their behavior according to perceived situational cues (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). While a certain

flexibility in social situations may be useful to regulate the affective state of others, it may also be counterproductive in the sense that too much adaptation may signal a lack of self-confidence and trustworthiness to others. Therefore, I expected a null correlation with the interview measures.

Hypothesis 10: All three interview measures are unrelated to the ability to modify self-presentation.

Relations to different criteria

Because I was particularly interested in assessing the usefulness of the measure in the work context, I used a variety of criteria that concern workplace behavior. Furthermore, I added criteria that pertain to the private life of the subject (life satisfaction and relationship quality). Finally, I used general ratings of the subjects' social competence.

Effectiveness in different workplace situations. In Study 1 and 2 it was shown that affect-related competence is helpful when interacting with other people. Therefore, I selected three types of workplace situations that involve interpersonal behavior (job interview, working in groups, and working as a sales representative) and asked how the subject would perform in these situations. I hypothesized that the measures would be positively related to all three criteria.

Hypothesis 11: All three interview measures are positively related to the effectiveness in different workplace situations.

Life satisfaction and relationship quality. Affect-related competence might also be related to criteria outside the work context, such as life satisfaction and relationship quality. Life satisfaction might be influenced by the competence to regulate one's own emotion in the sense that negative or dysfunctional affect towards objects or subjects can be overcome more quickly. The effect of empathy and the competence to regulate others' affect on life satisfaction might be indirect. One can argue that through these competencies the social environment is favorably shaped which feeds back to one's appraisal of certain life aspects. Furthermore, the quality of an intimate relationship is also expected to be related to affect-related competence. All three dimensions might be necessary prerequisites for building and sustaining a satisfactory intimate relationship with another person.

Hypothesis 12: All three interview measures are positively related to life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 13: All three interview measures are positively related to relationship quality.

Social competence. Cherniss (2000) argued that the social competence concept focuses on the individuals' communication skills, while emotional competencies establish the ground for actually applying these skills. As an example he pointed out that "in order to listen well, [an

individual] must be able to monitor and regulate his or her own emotional reactions" (p. 449). Therefore, affect-related competence should be positively related to social competence.

Hypothesis 14: All three interview measures are positively related to social competence.

6.3.2 Method

Sample and procedure

The subjects that were interviewed also filled out a questionnaire that comprised the validation measures. In addition, the subjects were asked to hand out to a peer a questionnaire, that comprised in part the same validation measures. 82 peers sent back the questionnaire (return rate 68%). 36 percent of the peers were male. The mean age of the peers was 25.7 years (SD = 6.6). On average they knew the subject for 5.6 years (SD = 6.5). 95 percent of the peers indicated that they knew the subject well or very well.

Validity measures

Three sources to measure the validity variables were used: Self-reports, peer-reports and general interviewer ratings. For the peer-reports the wording of the original self-report items was adapted to focus on the subject (called 'A').

Empathy. First, perspective taking, empathic concern, and personal distress was measured with the respective subscales of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davies, 1980, 1983). Cronbach's alpha was .77 for perspective taking (seven items), .68 for empathic concern (six items), and .72 for personal distress (six items). Second, the same three scales were administered to a peer (internal consistencies .84, .82 and .73, resp.). Third, based on the general impression after the interview, the interviewer gave an overall rating of empathy (scale from 1 to 5).

Affective self-regulation. This dimension was measured as self-report and peer-report using the short version of the repair subscale of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey et al., 1995). Cronbach's alpha for the six-item scale was .78 for the self-report and .79 for the peer-report. Also, the interviewer gave an overall rating of this competence.

Regulating others. This dimension was measured as self-report and peer-report with seven items from the measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte et al. (1998; see Chapter 3 and 4, and Appendix A.1). Cronbach's alpha was .69 for the self-report and .63 for the peer-report. As before, there was also an overall interviewer rating.

Attention to and clarity of emotions. Both aspects were assessed only as self-reports with the short forms of the respective subscales of the TMMS (Salovey et al. 1995). Cronbach's alpha was .89 for the attention to emotions scale (13 items), and .83 for the clarity of emotions scale (eleven items)

Affective communication. This competency was measured both as self-report and peer-report with the Affective Communication Test (ACT; Friedman et al., 1980). The 13-item measure had a Cronbach's alpha of .75 and .77, respectively.

Sensitivity to affective cues of others. This concept was only assessed as self-report with the respective subscale of the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Cronbach's alpha was .70 (six items).

Personality traits. Extraversion, Neuroticism and Agreeableness were measured only as self-reports with the respective subscales of a German version of the NEO-FFI (Borkenau, 1993). Cronbach's alpha was .83 for extraversion (eleven items; one original item removed), .88 for neuroticism (twelve items), and .70 for agreeableness (twelve items).

Ability to modify self-presentation. This concept was measured only as self-report with the respective subscale of the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .80 (seven items).

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction was measured with items developed by Mayer et al. (1999). Subjects were asked how satisfied they were with their relationship (if applicable), their friends, their career, and their life in general. The scale showed a low internal consistency and, therefore, only single items were used.

Relationship quality. Relationship quality was measured with a scale developed by Forgas, Levinger, and Moylan (1994). The subjects had to indicate on a five-point bipolar scale how they would characterize their current or – if not applicable – their last relationship. The five adjective pairs were secure – insecure, disappointing – rewarding, interesting – boring, discouraging – hopeful, and happy – miserable. Cronbach's alpha was .86.

Effectiveness in different workplace situations. The effectiveness in different workplace settings was measured with single items, both as self-report and peer-report. I developed three items: "I [A] know[s] how to present myself [himself/herself) in job interviews", "I [A] would be a successful sales representative", and "I [A] am [is] doing fine in teamwork".

Social competence. Social competence was assessed by two items, asking the peers how they would rate the subject's social competence and how they would rate the subject's ability to deal with other people.

Table 6.7 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the study variables.

Table 6.7
Descriptive statistics on study variables

Scale	N	Response format	No. of items	M	S.D.	Alpha coefficients
Interview general empathy	119	-[a]	11	0[b]	0.48	.66
Interview self-regulation (short form)	115	-[a]	4	0[b]	0.72	.68
Interview self-regulation (long form)	117	-[a]	10	0[b]	0.45	.56
Interview regulating others	115	-[a]	10	0[b]	0.55	.75
Perspective taking (self-report)	120	1-5	7	3.58	0.57	.77
Perspective taking (peer-report)	82	1-5	6	3.39	0.69	.68
Empathic concern (self-report)	120	1-5	6	3.61	0.53	.72
Empathic concern (peer-report)	82	1-5	7	3.67	0.73	.84
Personal distress (self-report)	120	1-5	6	2.61	0.62	.82
Personal distress (peer-report)	82	1-5	6	2.53	0.63	.73
Direct rating empathy	114	1-5	1	2.99	0.99	-
Affective self-regulation (self-report)	120	1-5	6	3.48	0.65	.78
Affective self-regulation (peer-report)	82	1-5	6	3.51	0.65	.79
Direct rating affective self-regulation	114	1-5	1	2.89	0.78	-
Regulating others (self-report)	120	1-5	7	3.81	0.46	.69
Regulating others (peer-report)	82	1-5	7	3.89	0.48	.63
Direct rating regulating others	114	1-5	1	2.78	0.86	-
Attention to emotions	120	1-5	13	3.91	0.61	.89
Clarity of emotions	120	1-5	11	3.70	0.52	.83
Affective nonverbal communication (self-report)	120	1-5	13	3.30	0.51	.75
Affective nonverbal communication (peer-report)	82	1-5	13	3.37	0.55	.77
Sensitivity to affective cues	120	1-5	6	3.63	0.47	.70
Ability to modify self-presentation	120	1-5	7	3.30	0.55	.80
Extraversion	120	1-5	11	3.55	0.58	.83
Neuroticism	120	1-5	12	2.49	0.67	.88
Agreeableness	120	1-5	12	3.67	0.43	.70
Satisfaction with relationship	72	1-5	1	3.94	1.10	-
Satisfaction with friends	120	1-5	1	4.16	0.77	-
Satisfaction with career	120	1-5	1	3.87	0.92	-
Satisfaction with life	120	1-5	1	3.95	0.65	-
Relationship quality	120	1-5	5	2.16	0.81	.86
Selection interview	120	1-5	1	3.39	0.78	-
Selection interview (peer)	82	1-5	1	4.00	0.86	-
Working in groups	120	1-5	1	3.77	0.74	-
Working in groups (peer)	81	1-5	1	3.95	0.95	-
Working as sales representative	120	1-5	1	3.04	1.02	-
Working as sales representative (peer)	82	1-5	1	3.44	1.13	-
Social competence (peer)	82	1-5	1	4.33	0.75	-
Ability to deal with other people (peer)	82	1-5	1	4.17	0.70	-

[a] Not applicable because scale consists of z-standardized items
[b] Mean is zero because scale consists of z-standardized items

6.3.7 Results

Table 6.8 shows the intercorrelations of the interview measures and the analogue scales. The interview measures correlated positively but not too highly with each other. Moreover, the subjects' self-reports were quite similar to the peer-reports, with a range of correlations from .33 (perspective taking) to .52 (self-regulation).

Table 6.8
Correlations of interview measures and analogous scales

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 Age																		
2 Gender (0=male; 1=female)	-.04																	
3 Interview general empathy	.07	.30**																
4 Interview self-regulation (short form)	.28**	-.03	.29**															
5 Interview self-regulation (long form)	.25**	-.14	.17	.73**														
6 Interview regulating others	-.08	.01	.17	.02	.12													
7 Perspective taking (self-report)	.01	.21*	.23*	.12	.10	.21*												
8 Perspective taking (peer-report)	.16	.24*	.16	.25*	.18	.12	.33**											
9 Empathic concern (self-report)	-.02	.43**	.46**	.06	-.05	.17	.18*	.15										
10 Empathic concern (peer-report)	.15	.53**	.35**	.14	.08	.14	.32**	.45**	.48**									
11 Personal distress (self-report)	-.02	.24**	-.05	-.20*	-.26**	-.07	-.09	.06	.26**	.24*								
12 Personal distress (peer-report)	-.04	.33**	.02	-.08	-.20	-.02	.00	.07	.13	.27*	.48**							
13 Direct rating empathy	.01	.31**	.73**	.26**	.10	.10	.26**	.18	.37**	.30**	-.04	-.12						
14 Self-regulation (self-report)	-.01	-.13	.13	.23*	.30**	.17	.14	-.02	-.00	-.08	-.40**	-.29**	.15					
15 Self-regulation (peer-report)	.15	-.19	.09	.39**	.41**	.16	.14	.24*	.02	.08	-.31**	-.36**	.06	.51**				
16 Direct rating self-regulation	.22*	.02	.39**	.59**	.56**	.15	.27**	.20	.14	.19	-.31**	-.10	.39**	.29**	.22			
17 Regulating others (self-report)	.07	.26**	.30**	.07	.14	.34**	.55**	.18	.24**	.39**	-.06	.10	.25**	.18	.16	.20*		
18 Regulating others (peer-report)	.12	.33**	.29**	.14	.06	.38**	.38**	.48**	.35**	.61**	.06	-.03	.26*	.05	.28*	.18	.40**	
19 Direct rating regulating others	-.01	.00	.36**	.28**	.20*	.56**	.09	.05	.15	-.06	-.15	-.05	.42**	.28*	.22	.43**	.22*	.10

N = 75-120.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

Relations to analogue scales

The interview measure of empathy showed the expected positive relations with the respective questionnaire measures (Hypotheses 1a and 1b). The correlations with the empathic concern questionnaire scales (i.e., self-report and peer report) were higher than the correlations with the perspective taking scales (r = .46/.35 vs. r = .23/.16). The correlation with the interview measures and the direct rating was quite high (r = .73). Supporting Hypothesis 1c, the correlation with the personal distress scale was not significant (r = -.02/-.04). In line with Hypothesis 2, the two interview measures of self-regulation (i.e., short form and long form) were positively related to the questionnaire measures (r = .23/.39 and r = .30/.41, resp.). The two interview forms and the direct rating were also highly correlated (r = .59 and .56, resp.). Supporting Hypothesis 3, the interview measure of regulating others was positively related to the respective questionnaire scales (r = .34/.38) and to the direct rating (r = .56).

To corroborate the correlational results, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted with the general interview measures, the questionnaire measures and the direct ratings. To retain a reasonably large sample only the self–report data was used. Furthermore, as questionnaire measure for the empathy dimension only the empathic concern scale was used because it had the highest correlation with the interview measure. An exploratory main component factor analysis (varimax rotation) revealed a three factor solution. The loading pattern corresponded to the three proposed dimensions (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9
Exploratory factor analysis for different affect-related competence measures

Variable	Factor		
	1	2	3
Interview empathy	.86		
Empathic concern (self-report)	.70		
Direct rating empathy	.84		
Interview self-regulation (long form)		.84	
Affective self-regulation (self-report)		.58	
Direct rating self-regulation	.34	.77	
Interview regulating others			.91
Regulating others (self-report)	.31		.53
Direct rating regulating others		.34	.68
Eigenvalue	2.20	1.90	1.70
Percent of explained variance	24.45	21.06	19.12

Note. Loadings below .30 are not shown.

Confirmatory factor analyses further supported this structure. A one-dimensional model (all measures loaded on one factor) was tested against a three-dimensional model with a second-order factor. In the three-dimensional model the measures of one dimension loaded on the same latent factor. These three factors, in turn, loaded on a second-order factor, representing affect-related competence (see Figure 6.4). As expected, the three-dimensional model had a much better fit than the one-dimensional model (Table 6.10)[4]. In a third model I also added method factors to represent the measurement types (cf. Eid, 2000), but this model did not improve the fit and therefore is not presented.

Table 6.10
Fit indices for the confirmatory factor analyses for the affect-related competence dimensions

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	p	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC	ΔAIC	Δχ^2
1 One-dimensional model	136.4	27	5.05	.00	.79	.57	.42	.19	172.4		
2 Three-dimensional model with second-order factor	42.2	23	1.83	.01	.93	.92	.87	.09	88.2		
Model 2 & Model 1										94.2	84.2**

** *p* < .01

Figure 6.4. Three-dimensional model of affect-related competence
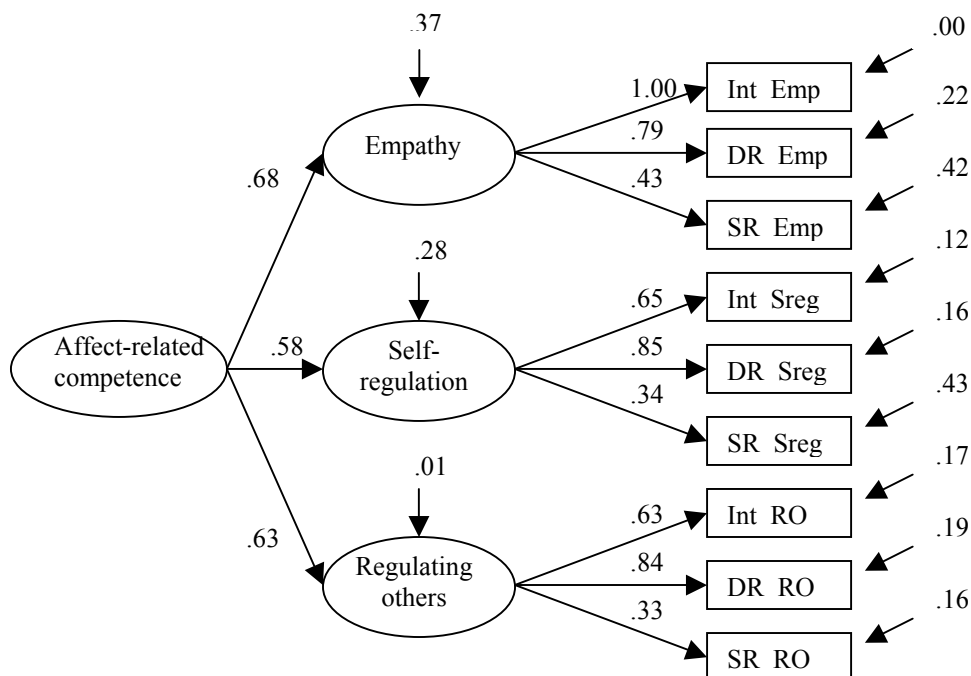
Note: Int=Interview, DR=direct rating, SR=self-report

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[4] Model specification: One error term of the manifest variables was fixed to zero. Also, the covariances between the error terms of the direct-ratings were set free.

Relations to other dimensions of affect-related competence

I predicted positive correlations between the interview measures and other dimensions of affect-related competence. However, the results were mixed (see upper part of Table 6.11). Although the correlations between the interview measures and both emotional attention and emotional clarity were positive, only one coefficient was significant (Hypotheses 4a and 4b). In partial support for Hypotheses 5, the two scales of affective nonverbal communication were significantly positively related to the interview measures of empathy and of regulating others (r = .23 - .29), but only weakly related to the two interview measures of self-regulation (r = -.02 - .21). Sensitivity to affective cues was positively related to interview regulating others (r = .24), but unrelated to interview empathy (r = .15) providing only mixed support for Hypothesis 6.

Table 6.11
Correlations of the interview measures, other dimensions of affect-related competence, and dispositional variables

Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Age	.03	.14	-.07	.02	.14	-.05	-.05	.17	.00
2 Gender (0=male; 1=female)	.40**	-.17	.12	.06	.15	.09	.31**	.20*	-.18
3 Interview general empathy	.36**	.09	.23*	.29**	.12	.22*	.17	.29**	.00
4 Interview self-regulation (short form)	.12	.14	-.02	.13	-.05	.07	-.13	.25**	.21*
5 Interview self-regulation (long form)	.08	.18	.07	.21	.02	.10	-.22*	.13	.16
6 Interview regulating others	.16	.11	.21*	.26*	.24**	.36**	-.09	.14	.17
7 Emotional attention									
8 Emotional clarity	-.03								
9 Affective nonverbal communication	.32**	.15							
10 Affective nonverbal communication (peer)	.37**	.18	.56**						
11 Sensitivity to affective cues	.40**	.14	.23*	.29**					
12 Extraversion	.15	.22*	.57**	.30**	.14				
13 Neuroticism	.32**	-.51**	-.20*	-.23*	.04	-.40**			
14 Agreeableness	.24**	.17	.14	.06	.10	.40**	-.17		
15 Ability to modify self-presentation	.12	.13	.29**	.32**	.14	.37**	-.21**	.14	

N = 69-121.
* p < .05. ** p < .01. Two-tailed tests.

Relationships with personality variables

The hypotheses regarding personality variables were partially supported. In accordance with the prediction (Hypothesis 7), Extraversion was positively related to interview regulating others. Hypothesis 8 received only weak support. Neuroticism was negatively related only to the long form of interview self-regulation. All other correlations were not significant. As hypothesized in Hypothesis 9, Agreeableness was positively related to interview empathy and

the short form of interview self-regulation, but unexpectedly not related to interview regulating others. In accordance with Hypothesis 10, the ability to modify self-presentation was not related to the interview measures, with the exception of the short form of affective self-regulation.

Relationships with different criteria

Table 6.12 presents the correlations between the interview measures and the criteria (shaded rows in part 1 and part 2 of Table 6.12). For clarity of presentation, mean correlations were computed by averaging the workplace criteria, the private life criteria (i.e., averaging the life satisfaction facets and relationship quality), and social competence, respectively.

Hypothesis 11 predicted positive relationships between the interview measures and the effectiveness in different workplace situations. The results showed a mixed pattern. In general, the correlations with peer-reported assessments were higher than with self-reported assessments. The effectiveness in selection interviews was unrelated to all three interview measures. However, it has to be noted that three of the eight correlations almost reached significance. The results with regard to "working in groups" were more promising. Interview regulating others was positively related to both self-reported and peer-reported predictions. Although interview empathy was unrelated to this criterion, both self-regulation interview measures and the measure of regulating others were positively related to the peer-rating (one coefficient significant on the 10% level). With regard to "working as a sales representative" both forms of interview self-regulation showed positive correlations (three out of four correlations significant). The interview measures of empathy and regulating others were unrelated to this criteria.

Hypothesis 12 could not be supported. Only one out of sixteen correlations between the four facets of life satisfaction and the interview measures was significant.

Hypothesis 13, which predicted a positive relation between relationship quality and all interview measures, received only partial support. Relationship quality was positively related to the interview measure of regulating others, but not to the other interview measures.

Finally, in support of Hypothesis 14, both peer-ratings of the subjects' social competence were positively related to all interview measures (two coefficients significant on the 10% level).

Table 6.12

Correlations of the four measurement types and the criteria

Criteria	Empathy					
	Interview general empathy	Perspective taking (self-report)	Perspective taking (peer-report)	Empathic concern (self-report)	Empathic concern (peer-report)	Direct rating empathy
Workplace criteria						
Selection interview	.09	.21*	.20	-.09	.23*	.17
Selection interview (peer)	.13	-.10	-.03	-.04	-.18	.11
Working in groups	.07	.13	-.03	.06	-.12	.02
Working in groups (peer)	.12	.45**	.28*	-.05	.01	.26*
Working as sales representative	.08	-.07	.14	-.10	.08	.08
Working as sales representative (peer)	.16	-.06	-.03	.00	-.09	.15
Mean correlation	*.11*	*.09*	*.09*	*-.04*	*-.01*	*.13*
Private life criteria						
Satisfaction with relationship	.15	.15	-.07	.01	.20	.20
Satisfaction with friends	.12	-.03	-.17	.11	.15	.05
Satisfaction with career	.05	-.16	-.28*	.01	-.22*	-.09
Satisfaction with life	.00	-.02	-.18	-.05	.03	-.06
Relationship quality	.06	.13	-.01	.04	.06	.06
Mean correlation	*.08*	*.01*	*-.14*	*.02*	*.04*	*.03*
Social competence						
Social competence (peer)	.23*	.17	.34**	.08	.27*	.30**
Ability to deal with other people (peer)	.20	.10	.29**	.10	.27*	.13
Mean correlation	*.22*	*.14*	*.32*	*.09*	*.27*	*.22*

N = 69-120.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

Table 6.12 (cont.)

Criteria	Affective self-regulation					Regulating others			
	Interview self-regulation (short form)	Interview self-regulation (long form)	Self-regulation (self-report)	Self-regulation (peer-report)	Direct-rating self-regulation	Interview regulating others	Regulating others (self-report)	Regulating others (peer-report)	Direct rating regulating others
Workplace criteria									
Selection interview	.15	.10	.07	.13	.23*	.16	.32**	.28	.12
Selection interview (peer)	.16	.08	.28*	.33**	.13	.11	-.01	.15	.16
Working in groups	.02	.06	.24**	.11	.14	.19*	.15	-.05	.18
Working in groups (peer)	.20	.23*	.14	.41**	.22	.39**	.28*	.37**	.35**
Working as sales representative	.19*	.27**	.08	.15	.21*	.11	.11	.08	.12
Working as sales representative (peer)	.14	.22*	.31**	.32**	.19	.19	.08	.16	.16
Mean correlation	*.14*	*.16*	*.19*	*.24*	*.19*	*.19*	*.16*	*.17*	*.18*
Private life criteria									
Satisfaction with relationship	.09	.16	.29*	.04	.13	.11	.11	.11	.09
Satisfaction with friends	-.04	.04	.17	.02	.19*	.01	.16	.05	-.08
Satisfaction with career	.01	.11	.35**	.10	.01	.29**	.06	.00	.12
Satisfaction with life	-.02	.13	.42**	.27*	.02	.13	.12	.09	.02
Relationship quality	-.10	.00	.18	.11	-.08	.24**	.06	.10	.15
Mean correlation	*-.01*	*.09*	*.28*	*.11*	*.05*	*.16*	*.10*	*.07*	*.06*
Social competence									
Social competence (peer)	.34**	.32**	.25*	.47**	.37**	.32**	.20	.50**	.27*
Ability to deal with other people (peer)	.26*	.21	.08	.39**	.03	.30**	.19	.52**	.07
Mean correlation	*.30*	*.27*	*.17*	*.43*	*.20*	*.31*	*.20*	*.51*	*.17*

N = 69-120.
* *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. Two-tailed tests.

Comparison of the measurement types

The use of four different measurement types also allowed their direct comparison with regard to the criteria. Table 6.12 presents the correlations between the criteria and the interview measures, self-report measures, peer-report measures, and direct ratings. For reasons of simplicity, only the mean correlations are described below.

Within the empathy dimension, the direct rating of empathy showed the strongest correlations with the workplace criteria (r_{mean}=.13). However, one has to note that in general the mean correlations were rather low. With regard to the private life criteria, the interview measure of empathy showed the highest mean correlation (r_{mean}=.08). The highest correlations with assessments of social competence existed with regard to peer-reported perspective taking (r_{mean}=.32), while also peer-reported empathic concern and interview empathy showed high correlations (r_{mean} = .27 and .22, resp.).

Within the self-regulation dimension, for the workplace criteria peer-reported self-regulation had the highest mean correlations (r_{mean}=.24). For the private life criteria the self-report measure showed the strongest relations (r_{mean}=.28). The same measure is also leading with respect to the social competence assessment (r_{mean}=.43), while the correlations with the two interview measures are also notable (r_{mean}=.30 and .27, resp.).

Within the dimension of regulating others, both the workplace criteria and the private life criteria correlated the strongest with the interview measure (r_{mean}=.19 and .16, resp.). The social competence assessments showed the strongest correlations with peer-reported regulating others (r_{mean}=.51), followed by the interview measure (r_{mean}=.31).

I also computed general indices for the four measurement types by averaging the respective measures of one type (Table 6.13). For the interview index, the interview measures of empathy, self-regulation (long form), and regulating others were averaged. For the direct rating index, the direct ratings for the three dimensions were averaged. For the self-report and the peer-report index, the respective scales for perspective taking, empathic concern, self-regulation, and regulating others were averaged. For the workplace criteria the interview index showed the strongest mean correlations (r_{mean}=.22). For the criteria in private life the self-report index was the best predictor (r_{mean}=.19). Finally, the peer-report index was the strongest predictors for the general peer assessment (r_{mean}=.52), followed by the interview index (r_{mean}=.42).

Table 6.13

Correlations of the four measurement type indices and the criteria

Criteria	Indices			
	Interview affect-related competence (index)	Self-report affect-related competence (index)	Peer-report affect-related competence (index)	Direct rating affect-related competence (index)
Workplace criteria				
Selection interview	.17	.20*	.29**	.22*
Selection interview (peer)	.16	.08	.07	.17
Working in groups	.16	.25**	-.03	.14
Working in groups (peer)	.40**	.37**	.35**	.36**
Working as sales representative	.20*	.01	.16	.17
Working as sales representative (peer)	.25*	.17	.10	.21
Mean correlation	*.22*	*.18*	*.16*	*.21*
Private life criteria				
Satisfaction with relationship	.21	.25*	.10	.19
Satisfaction with friends	.08	.17	.02	.06
Satisfaction with career	.21*	.13	-.16	.01
Satisfaction with life	.12	.23*	.06	-.01
Relationship quality	.16	.18*	.09	.06
Mean correlation	*.16*	*.19*	*.02*	*.06*
Social competence				
Social competence (peer)	.45**	.31**	.54**	.41**
Ability to deal with other people (peer)	.38**	.20	.49**	.10
Mean correlation	*.42*	*.26*	*.52*	*.26*

N = 69-120.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

6.4 Discussion

The objective of this study was to develop a valid instrument to assess affect-related competence, for use in both research and applied settings. To avoid typical problems of self-report questionnaires I chose an approach that built on real-life situations as stimuli and that used free verbal answers as basis for the ratings. The instrument focused on three dimensions of affect-related competence: empathy, affective self-regulation, and regulating others' affect. In general, support for the reliability and validity of the measure was found. I will now discuss the results in more detail.

Statistical properties of the interview measures

The analyses concerning the reliability and the internal validity of the interview measures yielded positive results. The level of agreement between the two raters was high. After removal of one story, all intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC's) were above the .70 boundary proposed by Klein et al. (2000). This is even more positive when one takes into account that some ratings left room for a certain degree of subjectivity.

The alpha coefficients of the interview measures were ranged from .56 (interview self-regulation (long form)) to .75 (interview regulating others). One could object that these values are rather low. However, I think that the values have to be put into perspective. Two aspects are important. First, relatively low internal consistencies seem to be a typical characteristic of situation-based measures. Indeed, other situation-based instruments have similar or even lower alpha coefficients with considerable more items. For example, for the situation-based 24-item subscales of the MEIS (Mayer et al., 1999), which was described above, researchers have reported alpha coefficients between .43 and .72 (Ciarrochi et al. 2000; Mayer et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2001). Furthermore, studies that have used the situational interview technique also reported low internal consistencies, ranging from .61 with 34 items (Weekley & Gier, 1987) to .73 with 20 items (Latham & Saari, 1984). Therefore, although less items were used, the alpha coefficients of the interview measures were well in the range that are typically found for comparable measures. Second, the objective was to build an instrument that assesses the dimensions of affect-related competence in a broad way, that is, with situations from different life domains. Often, the price of heterogeneity is a lower internal consistency. But the advantage of a broad measure lies in a higher degree of usability in different contexts and for different outcomes. The comparison of the two versions of interview self-regulation is a point in case. Although the long form has a considerable lower alpha coefficient than the short form (.56 vs. .68), nine of the thirteen correlations between the long form and the criteria were higher than the correlations between the short form and the criteria.

Thus, in my opinion the alpha coefficients are still acceptable if compared to similar measures and given the fact that the objective was to develop a broad measure of affect-related competence. Nevertheless, the improvement of internal consistency should be an objective for further development of the measure. In the confirmatory factor analyses strong loadings on the story factors were found which suggests that the stories were rather heterogeneous. While - as I said - I would not regard this a disadvantage *per se*, one may consider the use of somewhat more homogeneous stories. The challenge is to find a compromise between internal consistency and breadth of use.

Convergent and discriminant validity

With regard to the relations between the interview measures and the analogous measures of affect-related competence, the hypotheses were supported. On average, the correlations within dimensions were higher than the correlations within methods. Factor analyses with self-report measures and direct ratings confirmed the proposed three-dimensional structure.

The results with regard to other dimensions of affect-related competence were not very supportive. Emotional attention, emotional clarity, and the sensitivity to affective cues did not correlate as high with the interview measures as expected. Only the correlations with the capability to communicate nonverbally were somewhat higher. Similar to this study, Davies et al. (1998) and Fox and Spector (2000) provided mixed results with regard to the relationship between emotional attention/emotional clarity and other affect-related skills. Thus, it might be that at least these two questionnaires measures have validity problems. Therefore, in future applications of the interview measure it should be tested if other scales for these variables yield different results.

The correlational pattern with regard to personality constructs supported my stance towards the relationship between affect-related competence and personality, although not all hypotheses were supported. I argued that significant correlations between these two psychological domains may be theoretically meaningful. For example, they may inform us whether certain dispositions make it more likely that affect-related competencies are developed. The positive relationships between extraversion and interview empathy/regulating others suggest that extraversion is generally associated with a stronger orientation towards the affect of others. The relationships with neuroticism showed an interesting pattern: While neuroticism was negatively related to self-regulation, the direction of the sign was reversed for the empathy interview measure. This may suggest that for neurotic individuals higher empathy may go hand in hand with less competence for self-regulation. Maybe the stronger focus towards other people reduces the psychological capacities for self-regulation processes.

Finally, it also has to be noted that none of the correlations between the interview measures and the personality traits was so high as to question the distinctiveness of the measures – a result that stands in positive contrast to some self-report measures of affect-related skills developed in the past (cf. Newsome et al., 2000).

Criterion validity

In general, the results concerning the criterion validity of the interview measures are satisfactory, although the correlations with some of the criteria were not as high as expected. The

interview measures were positively related to criteria that concern the effectiveness in the workplace and the assessment of the subjects' social competence. They were not as strongly associated with criteria that relate to the private life of the subject. This may suggest that the instrument in general is more appropriate for work contexts than for private contexts.

The results revealed that interview empathy showed the weakest and interview regulating others showed the highest correlations with the criteria. On a more abstract level, this may point to a hierarchical model of affect-related competence. In such a model empathy would be an antecedent of other sub-competencies (such as regulating others) and therefore more distal to real life outcomes. In this sense, empathy might be a necessary but not a sufficient antecedent of positive effects. The dimension of regulating others, instead, would be more proximal to real life outcomes, with the dimension of affective self-regulation taking a middle position.

One has to keep in mind that the workplace criteria – assessed as self-reports and peer-reports - are only approximations of actual behavior. The use of self-reported criteria is quite common in the first validation of instruments (e.g., Mayer et al., 1999). In this respect, the use of peer-reports is already a step forward. The next step, however, would be to relate the measure to actual behavior, for example in real job interviews or in teamwork settings.

Comparison of measurement types

With respect to criterion validity the interview measures are at least an equally good, often even superior alternative to other measures of affect-related competence. Comparing the interview measures with the other three types of measures (self-report, peer-report, and direct-rating), the picture was quite promising. The interview measures either showed the highest correlations with the criteria categories or differed not much from the measure with the highest correlation. This is an astonishing result, given the fact that the criteria were either assessed as self-reports or peer-reports and that there probably exists some same-source effect that inflates the correlations between respective measurement types. Moreover, when the index of the interview measures (computed as an aggregate of the subdimensions) was used, the correlations with the criteria increased considerably. For some criteria (e.g., working in groups social competence) the correlations reached levels that can be considered quite high.

Although not in the center of attention, the direct ratings emerged as another way of assessing affect-related competence. The ratings were based on relatively broad assessments for each dimension, made by a single rater immediately after the interview. The direct ratings were not as strongly correlated with the workplace criteria and the social competence than the regular interview measures, but the difference is not too large. Thus, the direct ratings might be useful

for a quick and easy assessment, but they are probably not as accurate and as predictive as the two-rater approach.

Conclusion

In this chapter I have presented a situation-based interview measure of affect-related competence that has strengths and weaknesses. Although there is room for improvement with regard to statistical properties, I think that the measure is already an alternative to established self-report instruments and it can a be a useful tool for both research-oriented and practical assessments in the work context. Because the subscales of the measure correspond to those dimensions that are associated with customer evaluations and service employees' well-being (see Chapter 3 and 4), I am confident that the interview measure is particularly valuable for the service context. Further development of the measure, thus, should focus on the application in different service sectors (e.g., financial sector, retail sector) and for different purposes (e.g., personnel selection, personnel development).

7. Conclusion

Psychological aspects of services have become a prominent issue in recent years, in both research and business (cf. Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). One route of interest has focused on the question of how services can provide high levels of service quality and customer satisfaction. As a crucial factor the face-to-face interaction between the service employee and the customer has been identified. The service encounter has been described as the "moment of truth" in which it is decided if service industries earn or loose money. A second route of interest has focused on detrimental effects of service work on the service employees. It has been found that high levels of emotion-related requirements are negatively related to service employees' well-being and, ultimately, on their productivity. The question has arisen of how these effects can be avoided or at least attenuated. A third route of interest has focused on how abilities, skills or competencies of service personnel can be assessed accurately and efficiently.

In the foregoing chapters I have tried to find answers to these questions by taking a perspective that has emphasized the role of affect and affect management in service work. More specifically, I have applied the concept of affect-related competence to all three areas of interest and I have tried to illuminate some of the processes through which this concept works. The detailed discussions of the theoretical considerations and empirical results were provided in the respective chapters. Therefore, I want to close with a brief summary that highlights the main findings. I organize this summary around the following aspects: (a) the conceptualization of

affect-related competence, (b) the structure and measurement of affect-related competence, (c) the relationship between affect-related competence, affective states and customer evaluations, and (d) the relationship between affect-related competence and emotion work.

7.1 The conceptualization of affect-related competence

I have defined affect-related competence as the competence to perceive and appraise accurately the affective state of the self and of others; the competence to express emotions; the competence to access and/or generate certain affective states when they facilitate thought; the competence to understand affect (emotions, feelings, mood states) and affect-related knowledge; and the ability to regulate affect in the self and the other to promote effective work-related behavior. Thus, affect-related competence is a concept that focuses on the work context. To some extent it builds on the concept of emotional intelligence and especially on the theoretical work of Mayer and Salovey (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Like these authors I regard the processing and utilization of information, that either is affective itself or has a affect-related denotation, as a crucial factor in explaining and predicting human feeling, thinking, and acting. However, as I have outlined, affect-related competence differs in some respect from the emotion intelligence concept. First, a affect-related competence describes typical behavior and not maximal behavior (as in the intelligence domain). Second, the competence approach emphasizes the mutability of competence dimensions, for example through training. Third (and to some extent the consequence of the first point), empirical relations between affect-related competence and personality traits or cognitive of intelligences can be theoretically meaningful and are not a nuisance *a-priori*.

7.2 The structure and measurement of affect-related competence

Affect-related competence consists of several subcompetencies. These subcompetencies refer to the dimensions of perception, appraisal, expression, and utilization of affective or affect-related information as well as to affect regulation. In the studies I focused on three or four subcompetencies: sensitivity to affective cues (refers to the perception dimension; only used in Study 1), empathy (that is, perspective taking or empathic concern; refers to the appraisal dimension), affective self-regulation (refers to the regulation dimension) and regulation of others' affect (refers to the regulation dimension). I opted to restrict myself to these variables for

economic reasons, but, even, more based on theoretical considerations that these variables are central for effective affect management in service work.

The conceptualization of affect-related competence implies a structure in which the subcompetencies are distinct but nevertheless relate to a single second-order factor, similar to a g-factor in the intelligence domain. In all three studies confirmatory factor analysis provided clear evidence for such a structure. This result is even more compelling when one takes into account that the proposed structure holds for three different data sources: self-reports, peer-reports, and interview ratings.

The use of different measurement approaches is a particular strength of this work. In Study 1 affect-related competence was measured with self-report questionnaires and in Study 2 with peer-report questionnaires. For the sub-competencies I used established scales of emotional intelligence. This was based on the argument that these scales measure typical rather than maximal behavior and therefore are suitable for our purposes. In Study 3 I developed and validated an interview measure of affect-related competence that is useful not only in research but also in applied settings (especially in the service context), and that allows to draw a richer picture of the target subject than it would be possible with a questionnaire.

7.3 Affect-related competence, affective states and customer evaluations

Providing high service quality and inducing customer satisfaction is the most important goal for many services. Starting point of the empirical studies was the argument that successful service work implies the effective management of affect. An appropriate affective state of both the service employee and the customer provides the basis for a smooth interaction and subsequent positive evaluations. I described affect-related competence as the dispositional base for such an effective affect management ("affect management as affect-related competence in action").

Applying a dyadic approach, one objective of Study 1 was to answer the question if affect-related competence is positively associated with customer evaluations. In this regard the results were clear. Service employees' affect-related competence was related to how the customers and evaluated the employees' service orientation throughout a specific service encounter. Up to this point, research on the relationships between person factors, such as personality traits or affectivity, and service performance has yielded rather disappointing results (George, 1991; Mount et al., 1998; Vinchur et al., 1998). In this respect, the results of Study 1 can be considered a step forward.

The study has also closed the gap between the dispositional perspective and the situational perspective on service work. The results suggested that one of the mechanisms, through which affect-related competence works, is to induce an appropriate affective atmosphere in the service interaction. This atmosphere has been conceptualized as a four-dimensional affective space (pleasantness, arousal, superiority, and security) and contagion effects between the affective state of service employees and customers have been demonstrated.

There are, of course, other factors that are associated with the interactants' affective perceptions and evaluations in a service encounter. Research showed, for example, that the general service climate in the organization (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998), the physical or symbolic environment (Bitner, 1992; Wasserman et al., 2000) or the affective state of the customer before the service encounter (Mano, 1999) can have a strong influence. Nevertheless, the service employees' affect-related competence is a factor to which more attention should be given in future research.

7.4 Affect-related competence and emotion work

Service work can also have negative effects for the service employees' psychological well-being, as described in research on emotion work. The results in Study 2 indicated that affect-related competence can be a psychological resource that has a protective function for the service employee. More specifically, I found evidence for a two-step model. First, affect-related competence attenuated emotional dissonance that resulted from high workplace demands. Second, as emotional dissonance can not be avoided completely, affect-related competence reduced the negative effect of the dissonance on psychological well-being.

Conceptualizing affect-related competence as a psychological resource, I have linked this concept to stress research. Stress research has always recognized the role of affect, especially with regard to appraisal and coping processes (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, there has been a shift in focus by acknowledging that work itself, and especially service work, comprises affect-related aspects. As a consequence, the expression of emotions as part of the work task (or emotion work) has been described as a source of stress (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Zapf et al., 1999). Affect-related competence, then, can be regarded as a dispositional base for an effective coping with emotional demands and stressors of service work (see also Grandey, 2000; Matthews & Zeidner, 2000).

7.5 Directions for future research

By introducing and applying the concept of affect-related competence I have tried to provide some useful theoretical and empirical answers to questions that arose from the growing economic importance of service jobs. I hope that the answers stimulate psychological research as well as the design and management of services. Although in the respective studies I have already proposed some ideas were future research might go, I now want to outline briefly three major directions future research might take.

First, research should further specify the construct of affect-related competence. More research is necessary in describing the nomological net in which this concept is embedded. The theoretical connections to other psychological domains (e.g., cognitive intelligences) need to be described and empirically investigated. Related to this, the valid measurement of affect-related competence remains an important issue. Questionnaires of affect-related competence can still be improved. The situation-based interview measure also needs to be further developed.

Second, the empirical basis for the concept needs to be broadened. The results of the three studies have to be replicated in other service contexts (e.g., more technically oriented services such as computer retailers). It would also be interesting to see which boundary conditions might have an effect on the relation between affect-related competence and customer evaluations. For example, in the discussion section of Study 1 it was suspected that affect-related competence might not be so important for more script-like service encounters (i.e., strong situations). This hypothesis can be tested by directly comparing service contexts that differ on how much behavioral flexibility they allow. Also, the concept should be applied to other domains of service work, such as complaint management.

Third, research should investigate in greater detail the relationship between affect-related competence and affective processes in service encounters. More specifically, it would be interesting to explore this relationship by mapping affective states of service employees throughout working days (or weeks). The "experience sampling method" (ESM; Alliger & Williams, 1993) would allow to study such processes. With SEM one could determine whether affect-related competence is associated with specific affective patterns (e.g., the "average" affective state, the affective variability, the number of affective "peaks"; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus 1999). These patterns, then, could be related to the experience of emotional dissonance and well-being, but also to customer evaluations.

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Appendix

A.1 Statistical properties of the scale "Regulation of other's affect"

Table A.1.1
Items and item characteristics of the self-report scale "Regulation of other's affect" s (cf. Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Schutte et al., 1998)

Item	Format	Study 1			Study 3		
		M	SD	r_{it}	M	SD	r_{it}
I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	1-5	3.95	0.73	.58	4.08	0.71	.49
Other people find it easy to confide in me	1-5	4.16	0.60	.46	3.92	0.74	.52
I like to share my emotions with others	1-5	-	-	-	3.36	1.08	.36
I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others	1-5	3.98	0.68	.63	3.54	0.68	.29
I compliment others when they have done something well	1-5	4.11	0.69	.69	4.03	0.75	.36
I help other people feel better when they are down	1-5	3.63	0.80	.50	3.92	0.71	.37
I find it hard to understand why other people feel in a certain way (R)	1-5	-	-	-	3.82	0.78	.44
			a = .79			a = .69	

Table A.1.2
Items and item characteristics of the peer-report scale "Regulation of other's affect" s (cf. Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Schutte et al., 1998)

Item	Format	Study 2			Study 3		
		M	SD	r_{it}	M	SD	r_{it}
'A' knows when to speak about his/her personal problems to others	1-5	3.99	0.99	.69	4.04	0.83	.34
Other people find it easy to confide in 'A'	1-5	4.21	1.05	.65	4.53	0.65	.23
'A' likes to share his/her emotions with others	1-5	-	-	-	3.05	1.06	.25
'A' presents himself/herself in a way that makes a good impression on others	1-5	4.08	1.02	.73	4.12	0.80	.33
'A' compliments others when they have done something well	1-5	4.01	0.99	.63	3.84	0.87	.44
'A' helps other people feel better when they are down	1-5	3.96	0.99	.71	3.98	0.81	.42
'A' finds it hard to understand why other people feel in a certain way (R)	1-5	-	-	-	3.62	0.97	.43
			a = .86			a = .63	

A.2 Statistical properties of the scale "Perceived service orientation" (study 1)

Table A.2.1
Items and item characteristics of the scales "Perceived service orientation" (study 1)

Item	Format	M	SD	r_{it}
The consultant gave me all the information that I needed	1-6	5.61	0.56	.60
The consultant was responsive to my needs and wishes	1-6	5.62	0.60	.53
During the whole meeting I understood clearly what was said	1-6	5.41	0.74	.67
During the whole meeting I kept a good overview of the topic	1-6	5.32	0.80	.66
The consultant made many proposals and suggestions	1-6	5.32	0.74	.37
			a = .78	

A.3 Statistical properties of the scales "Affect-related competence –internal" and "Affect-related competence – external" (Study 2)

Table A.3.1
Items and item characteristics of the scales "Affect-related competence - internal" and "Affect-related competence – external" (Study 2)

Item	Format	M	SD	r_{it}
Affect-related competence - internal				
‚A' has his/her mood under control	1-5	3.82	0.86	.62
In general 'A' is able to repair his/her mood when he/she is feeling bad	1-5	3.42	0.96	.69
Generally 'A' knows how he/she can maintain his/her good mood.	1-5	3.69	0.86	.70
			a = .82	
Affect-related competence – external				
In general 'A' has the ability to take the perspective of others	1-5	3.65	1.00	.69
'A' feels with people who are unlucky	1-5	3.66	1.04	.68
When 'A' encounters a situation where others are in a bad situation he is concerned and feels uneasy	1-5	3.53	0.97	.64
'A' knows how to express his/her feelings	1-5	3.68	0.92	.49
'A' knows in a moment what is going on within other people	1-5	3.38	0.92	.64
In general 'A' has the ability to influence other people's feelings and moods	1-5	3.60	0.92	.53
			a = .84	

A.4 Stories for situation-based interview (German and English versions)

German (original) version

INSTRUKTION:

Ich werden Ihnen im Folgenden 15 verschiedene Situationen vorlesen. Bitte stellen Sie sich vor, dass Sie es sind, der/die die jeweils verschiedenen Situationen erlebt. Vielleicht kennen Sie die eine oder andere Situation aus Ihrem Leben, vielleicht ist Ihnen eine solche Situation auch noch nie begegnet. Übernehmen Sie unabhängig davon bitte jede Situation ohne Veränderung so, wie sie vorgegeben ist. Versuchen Sie, sich so gut wie möglich in die jeweilige Situation hineinzuversetzen. Nach der Beschreibung jeder Situation werde ich Ihnen einige Fragen dazu stellen.

Gibt es noch irgendwelche Fragen Ihrerseits?

1.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie stehen im Supermarkt an der Kasse in einer langen Schlange. Eine junge Frau, die gerade an der Reihe ist, kramt mit hochrotem Kopf in ihrer Handtasche. Schließlich gibt sie auf und muß der Kassiererin mitteilen, dass sie ihre Geldbörse heute nicht finden kann. [Empathy]

2.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie haben vor drei Wochen eine sehr wichtige Klausur geschrieben, von der Sie sich eine gute Note erhofft hatten. Nun bekommen Sie die Klausur zurück und sehen, dass Sie lediglich eine vier bekommen haben. Sie fühlen sich enttäuscht. [Affective self-regulation]

3.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind Geschäftsmann/-frau. Sie sitzen gerade mit Ihrem Kompagnon und einem Geschäftsmann, mit dem Sie heute einen wichtigen Vertrag abschließen wollen, bei einem Geschäftsessen. Während der Unterhaltung läßt Ihr Kompagnon eine Bemerkung fallen, die Ihren Geschäftspartner offenkundig verärgert. [Regulation of others]

4.) Stellen Sie sich vor, sie stehen an der Kasse Ihres Stammsupermarktes und wollen bezahlen. Die Kassiererin, die Ihnen sehr unsympathisch ist, da sie immer mürrisch und griesgrämig ist, will Ihnen gerade Ihr Wechselgeld rausgeben. Da kommt der Verkaufsleiter und schnauzt Sie vor allen Kunden an, weil Sie ein Regal falsch eingeräumt hat. [Empathy]

5.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind Mitglied in einem gemeinnützigen Verein. Heute gehen Sie von Haustür zu Haustür, um Spenden für ein neues Projekt zu sammeln. Nun haben Ihnen zehn Personen hintereinander eine Absage erteilt. Sie beginnen, sich entmutigt zu fühlen. [Affective self-regulation]

6.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie feiern eine Party. Im Laufe des Abends merken Sie, dass Ihre Gäste sich zu langweilen scheinen und die Party nicht richtig in Schwung kommt. [Regulation of others]

7.) Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sitzen in der Mittagspause mit einem Kollegen / mit einer Kollegin am Tisch, den/die Sie nicht besonders mögen. Während des Essens erzählt diese Person Ihnen, dass er/sie große Probleme mit dem Chef hat und Angst hat, seinen/ihren Job zu verlieren. [Empathy]

8.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sitzen im Zug und sind auf dem Weg zu einem wichtigen Termin. Plötzlich bleibt der Zug außerplanmäßig stehen. Wenn der Zug zu lange stehen bleibt, werden Sie nicht pünktlich zu Ihrem Termin kommen. Sie haben keine Möglichkeit, Kontakt nach außen aufzunehmen (kein Handy o.ä.). Sie beginnen, nervös zu werden. [Affective self-regulation]

9.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind Kellner/-in in einem Restaurant. Heute beschwert sich einer Ihrer Stammgäste bei Ihnen über eine Familie am Nebentisch, deren Kinder sehr viel Lärm machen. Sie versprechen Ihrem Stammgast, mit der Familie zu reden, was Sie dann auch tun. Nach einigen ruhigen Minuten beginnen die Kinder erneut, Lärm zu machen, woraufhin Ihr Stammgast wieder nach Ihnen ruft. [Regulation of others]

10.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sehen während eines Spaziergangs im Park eine Bekannte, die Sie nicht so gut leiden können. Sie wissen, dass sie seit langem nach einem Lebenspartner sucht, aber bis jetzt hat es nie richtig geklappt. Heute geht sie mit einem gutaussehenden Mann Arm in Arm. Beide wirken sehr verliebt und richtig ausgelassen. [Empathy]

11.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sehen im Kino einen Film, der Ihnen sehr gut gefällt. Vielen Leuten im Kino scheint der Film jedoch nicht zu gefallen, denn es wird zusehens unruhiger im Kino. Sie beginnen, sich zu ärgern. [Affective self-regulation]

12.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie arbeiten im Vertrieb einer großen Firma. Heute müssen Sie einen sehr guten Kunden von Ihnen anrufen, um ihm mitzuteilen, dass Sie einen vereinbarten Liefertermin nicht einhalten können. Der Kunde reagiert sehr unwirsch und verärgert. [Regulation of others]

13.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, auf einer Party fällt Ihnen ein arrogant wirkender junger Mann auf. Er schaut kritisch auf eine Gruppe von Leuten, die sich prächtig zu amüsieren scheinen. Plötzlich hören Sie, wie sich jemand aus der Gruppe ganz abfällig über ihn äußert. Er scheint dies auch mitbekommen zu haben. [Empathy]

14.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie bedienen in einem Bistro und haben heute besonders viel Stress. An einem Tisch sitzt ein Kunde, der Sie ganz besonders scheucht und dem Sie gar nichts recht machen können. Sie beginnen, sich genervt zu fühlen. [Affective self-regulation]

15.)   Stellen Sie sich vor, Sie sind Trainer/-in einer Volleyballmannschaft. Heute haben Sie ein Turnier. Sie haben das erste Spiel des Turniers wegen eines Fehlers eines der Spieler/-innen verloren. Nach dem Spiel kommt es zu einer Auseinandersetzung zwischen den Spielern, weil alle dem/der Spieler/-in, der/die den Fehler gemacht hat, harte Vorwürfe machen. In einer Stunde geht das Turnier weiter. [Regulation of others]

<u>English version (translation)</u>

INSTRUCTION

In the following I will read 15 different situations. Please try to imagine, that you are the person that experiences this situation. There are some situations with which you might be familiar, other situations you might have never encountered. Please accept every situation without modification and the way I have read it. Please try to put yourself in the situation as good as possible. After each situation I will ask you some questions about it.

Do you have any further questions?

1.)   Imagine you are standing in a long queue at the supermarket. At the beginning of the line a young lady is about to pay. She is rummaging in her handbag with an increasingly embarrassed look on her face. Finally, she gives up and tells the cashier that she can't find her purse. [Empathy]

2.)   Imagine you have had an written exam three weeks ago and you hoped to get a good grade. Now the results are out and you realize that you only got a 'D'. You feel disappointed. [Affective self-regulation]

3.)   Imagine that you are a businessman/businesswoman. You are sitting at a business lunch with your business partner and another businessman with whom you want sign an important deal. During the conversation your partner is dropping a comment about which the other businessman is obviously upset.

4.)   Imagine you are standing at the cash desk in your regular grocery store. The cashier who you don't like very much because she is always crabby and crouchy, is about to give you your change. All of the sudden her supervisor is coming around the corner and snubs her in front of the customers for making a mistake in replenishing the stocks. [Empathy]

5.)   Imagine that you are a member of a non-profit organisation. Today you are going from door to door to raise money for a new project. Ten people in a row have refused to give you any money. You start to feel discouraged. [Affective self-regulation]

6.)   Imagine you give a Party. In the course of the evening you realize that your guests seem to be bored and the party is not really exciting. [Regulation of others]

7.)   Imagine that you have lunch with a colleague who you don't like. He/she starts to tell you that he/she has some trouble with his/her supervisor and that he/she is very afraid of losing his/her job. [Empathy]

8.)   Imagine that you are sitting in a train on the way to an important appointment. Suddenly the train makes an unscheduled stop. You realize that you won't be able to come to the appointment in time if the train stops too long. You do not have a possibility to contact someone (there is no cellular phone, etc.). You start to get nervous. [Affective self-regulation]

9.) Imagine that you work in a restaurant as a waiter/waitress. Today one of your regular guest is complaining about a family on a table nearby, because the children are making too much noise. You promise the guest to talk to the family, what you indeed do. After some quiet minutes the children start to get noisy again, whereupon the your regular customer calls for you a second time. [Regulation of others]

10.) Imagine during a walk in the park you are watching an woman you know but dislike. You are aware of the fact that she was looking for a partner for a long time but without success. Today she is walking with a handsome man hand in hand. They seem to be excited and really in love

11.) Imagine you are in the cinema and you are watching a movie, that you really find exciting. However, many people seem to dislike the movie and eventually it gets noisier in the cinema. Your start to get angry. [Affective self-regulation]

12.) Imagine you work in the sales department of a company. Today you are calling a very important customer to tell him that your company will not be able to meet the scheduled delivery date. On the phone the customer is getting upset and very angry. [Regulation of others]

13.) At a party you an arrogant looking young man is attracting your attention. He is looking snidely at a group of people who obviously are enjoying the party. Suddenly someone out of the group makes a rather disparaging remark about the man. It seems that the young man has heard the remark. [Empathy]

14.) Imagine you work as a waitress/waiter in a restaurant. Today, the restaurant is crowded and you are extremely busy. On one table there is a guest who is putting a lot of pressure on you and it seems you just never can please him enough. You start to get angry. [Affective self-regulation]

15.) Imagine that you are the coach of a volleyball team. Today you are playing a tournament. You have lost the first game because of an error of one player. After the game an argument starts and all players attack the one team mate because of the error. In one hour the next game will start. [Regulation of others]

A.5 Evaluation of solutions for the interview measure "Interview regulating others": Examples for ineffective and effective strategies

Table A.3.1
Examples for effective strategies of regulating others in interviews

Story	Ineffective strategies	Effective strategies
Story 3 (upset businessman)	• Talk with your business partner later • Ignore the feelings of the businessman	• Apologize right at the spot • Talk about matters openly and try to fix the problem
Story 6 (boring party)	• Do nothing • Hope that something will happen	• Approach guests actively • Organize a game, live music etc.
Story 9 (noisy family in restaurant)	• Do nothing because it is not my problem • I talk to the family but only once	• Take care that both sides feel comfortable • Offer a free drink or a new seat • Organize toys for the kids
Story 12 (angry customer)	• React aggressively • Say I am not responsible for the delay	• Apologize for the delay • Take responsibility in the name of the company • Offer some compensation
Story 15 (team against team mate)	• Blame the team mate, too • Yell at the team	• Take care of motivation of both sides • Provide a positive outlook to the next game

A.6 Questionnaires for Study 1

□ □ □

Mitarbeiterbogen

1.
Bitte geben Sie bei den folgenden drei Fragen an, wie zufrieden Sie mit dem Kundengespräch sind. Beim Ankreuzen können Sie abstufen zwischen 1 („Ich bin vollkommen zufrieden") und 6 („Ich bin vollkommen unzufrieden").

Wie zufrieden sind Sie…

… mit dem Ergebnis des vorangegangenen Gesprächs?

vollkommen zufrieden ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ vollkommen unzufrieden

… mit ihrem Verhalten in dem Gespräch?

vollkommen zufrieden ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ vollkommen unzufrieden

2.
Beschreiben Sie nun bitte, wie sie sich während des vorangegangenen Gesprächs gefühlt haben? Wie war ihre Stimmung? Kreuzen Sie dazu bitte bei den folgenden drei Wortpaaren diejenige Ziffer an, die ihre Stimmung am besten beschreibt.

Im Gespräch fühlte ich mich …

-						+

sehr gelassen	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr nervös
sehr unwohl	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr wohl
sehr unterlegen	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr überlegen
sehr ruhig	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr aufgeregt
sehr unsicher	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr sicher
sehr unangenehm	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr angenehm

3.
Bitte geben Sie im folgenden an, wie sehr sie den Aussagen zustimmen. Sie können bei Ihrer Antwort abstufen zwischen 1 („Die Aussage trifft genau zu") und 6 („Die Aussage trifft überhaupt nicht zu").

Der Kunde war im Gespräch kooperativ.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich habe den Gesprächsablauf stark gesteuert.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich habe mit vielen Vorschlägen und Anregungen durch das Gespräch geführt.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Kunde hat im Gespräch jederzeit verstanden, worum es geht.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Kunde hat während des Gesprächs die ganze Zeit den Überblick behalten.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

4. Allgemeine Angaben zum Gespräch

Dauer des Gesprächs: __ __ __ (in Minuten)

Ort des Gesprächs: Beratungs-zimmer ○ Arbeitsplatz ○ Schalterhalle ○

Gespräch aus den Bereichen: Service ○ Anlage ○ Kredit ○

Ergebnis des Gesprächs: Treffer ○ Interesse ○ Abneigung ○

Geben Sie an, wie komplex das Problem/Anliegen des Kunden nach ihrer Einschätzung war.

einfach ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ komplex

Sehr geehrte Kundin, sehr geehrter Kunde,

wir möchten Sie in Zukunft noch besser beraten und betreuen. Bitte teilen sie uns daher anhand der folgenden Fragen mit, wie Sie unseren Service beurteilen. Ihre Antworten werden anonym ausgewertet und sind für die weitere Optimierung unserer Beratung eine wichtige Informationsquelle.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Unterstützung!

1. Bitte geben Sie bei den folgenden drei Fragen an, wie zufrieden Sie mit uns sind. Beim Ankreuzen können Sie abstufen zwischen 1 („Ich bin vollkommen zufrieden") und 6 („Ich bin vollkommen unzufrieden").

Wie zufrieden sind Sie…

… mit dem Ergebnis des vorangegangenen Gesprächs?

vollkommen zufrieden ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ vollkommen unzufrieden

… mit dem Verhalten des Beraters in dem Gespräch?

vollkommen zufrieden ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ vollkommen unzufrieden

… im allgemeinen mit dem Service der Bank?

vollkommen zufrieden ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ vollkommen unzufrieden

2. Beschreiben Sie nun bitte, wie sie sich während des vorangegangenen Gesprächs gefühlt haben? Wie war ihre Stimmung? Kreuzen Sie dazu bitte bei den folgenden Wortpaaren diejenige Ziffer an, die ihre Stimmung am besten beschreibt.

Im Gespräch fühlte ich mich …

	-						+	
sehr gelassen	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr nervös
sehr unwohl	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr wohl
sehr unterlegen	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr überlegen
sehr ruhig	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr aufgeregt
sehr unangenehm	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr angenehm
sehr unsicher	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	sehr sicher

3. Bitte geben Sie im folgenden an, wie sehr sie den Aussagen zustimmen. Sie können bei Ihrer Antwort abstufen zwischen 1 („Die Aussage trifft genau zu") und 6 („Die Aussage trifft überhaupt nicht zu").

Der Berater hat mir alle Informationen und Auskünfte gegeben, die ich benötigte.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Berater ist auf meine persönlichen Bedürfnisse eingegangen.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Berater verfolgte vor allem die Interessen der Bank.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Berater steuerte den Gesprächsablauf.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Der Berater führte mit vielen Vorschlägen und Anregungen durch das Gespräch.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich konnte im Gespräch jederzeit verstehen, worum es geht.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich konnte während des Gesprächs die ganze Zeit den Überblick behalten.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich würde einem Bekannten, der mich um Rat fragt, die Bank weiterempfehlen.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

Ich kann mir vorstellen, in naher Zukunft die Bank zu wechseln.

Die Aussage trifft genau zu ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ trifft überhaupt nicht zu

4. Angaben zu ihrer Person

Alter: _____ Jahre   Geschlecht: Frau ○   Mann ○

Wie häufig hatten Sie mit dem Berater bereits zu tun?

○ sehr oft   ○ oft   ○ einige Male   ○ selten   ○ noch nie zuvor

Bitte stecken Sie den ausgefüllten Fragebogen in den beigefügten Briefumschlag und geben Sie Ihn verschlossen an den Berater zurück. Vielen Dank!

Liebe Teilnehmerin, lieber Teilnehmer,

zunächst möchten wir uns für Ihre Bereitschaft bedanken, an unserer Fragebogenstudie teilzunehmen.

Diese Befragung ist Teil eines internationalen Forschungsprojektes, dass sich mit Anforderungen an Dienstleistungsberufe beschäftigt. Aus diesem Grunde ist Ihre Erfahrung für uns eine **große Unterstützung**.

Viele der folgenden Fragen betreffen den Umgang mit Stimmungen und Emotionen. Diese Thematik mag Ihnen vielleicht im ersten Moment ungewöhnlich erscheinen. Es hat sich in den letzten Jahren jedoch gezeigt, wie wichtig die Berücksichtigung dieser Faktoren ist, um Berufe mit Kundenkontakten besser verstehen zu können.

Auf den folgenden Seiten geht es um Ihre Angaben bzw. Einschätzungen, die entweder allgemeiner Natur sind oder sich speziell auf Ihre Tätigkeit beziehen. Manche Fragen sind eher persönlicher Natur. Wir wollen Sie deshalb an dieser Stelle ausdrücklich darauf hinweisen, dass die hier gemachten Angaben **absolut anonym** behandelt werden und schon aus gesetzlichen Gründen auf gar keinen Fall an Ihren Arbeitgeber oder anderen Personen weitergegeben werden dürfen.

Bitte beantworten Sie möglichst alle Fragen. Beachten Sie auch, dass die Anzahl der Antwortalternativen wechseln kann. Kreuzen Sie **pro Frage nur eine Antwort** an.

Beantworten Sie die Fragen bitte so, wie **Sie** die Dinge sehen. Es gibt **keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten**, sondern nur unterschiedliche Meinungen und Einstellungen. Wenn Sie sich an manchen Stellen nicht ganz sicher sind, kreuzen Sie bitte die Alternative an, die noch **am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft.**

Wenn Sie den Fragebogen ausgefüllt haben, dann können Sie Ihn mit beiliegendem Umschlag direkt an uns zurückschicken.

Noch einmal vielen Dank für Ihre Unterstützung!

Abteilung A&O-Psychologie, Universität Gießen

Sie finden auf den folgenden Seiten verschiedene Aussagen, die sich auf ihre Gedanken und Gefühle, sowie auf Ihr Verhalten in verschiedenen zwischenmenschlichen Situationen beziehen. Kreuzen Sie bitte jeweils die Antwortalternative an, die am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft.

Dabei bedeutet		
	1	- die Aussage **trifft gar nicht** auf Sie **zu**
	2	- die Aussage **trifft wenig** auf Sie **zu**
	3	- die Aussage **trifft teilweise** auf sie **zu**
	4	- die Aussage **trifft überwiegend** auf Sie **zu** und
	5	- die Aussage **trifft voll** auf Sie **zu**.

		1	2	3	4	5

Wie schätzen Sie sich allgemein selbst ein...?

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.	Ich versuche, Meinungsverschiedenheiten von allen Seiten zu sehen bevor ich eine Entscheidung treffe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.	Ich verspüre oft Mitleid und Sorge für Leute, denen es weniger gut geht als mir.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3.	Ich finde es manchmal schwierig, die Dinge vom Standpunkt eines anderen Menschen aus zu sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.	Manchmal habe ich nicht viel Mitleid mit Leuten, die Probleme haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5.	Wenn ich sehe, dass jemand ausgenutzt wird, will ich ihn irgendwie beschützen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6.	Ich versuche öfters, meine Freunde dadurch besser zu verstehen, dass ich mir vorstelle, wie die Dinge aus ihrer Sicht aussehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7.	Gewöhnlich beunruhigt mich das Unglück anderer Leute nicht sehr.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8.	Wenn ich mir sicher bin, dass ich in einer Sache recht habe, verschwende ich nicht viel Zeit damit, mir die Argumente anderer anzuhören.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9.	Wenn ich sehe, dass jemand ungerecht behandelt wird, habe ich oft nicht sehr viel Mitleid mit ihm.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10.	Ich bin oft ziemlich gerührt von Dingen, die ich sehe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11.	Ich glaube, dass es bei jeder Sache zwei Seiten gibt und ich versuche, beide zu betrachten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12.	Ich würde mich selbst als eine ziemlich weichherzige Person sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13.	Wenn ich böse auf jemanden bin, versuche ich normalerweise, mich für eine Weile in seine Situation zu versetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14.	Bevor ich jemanden kritisiere versuche ich mir vorzustellen, wie ich mich an seiner Stelle fühlen würde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.	Ich versuche positiv zu denken, egal wie schlecht ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.	Wenn ich beunruhigt bin, wird mir klar, dass die „guten Dinge im Leben" Illusionen sind.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3.	Wenn ich beginne, mich über etwas aufzuregen, versuche ich, mich an die angenehmen Seiten des Lebens zu erinnern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.	Obwohl ich manchmal traurig bin, habe ich meistens eine optimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5.	Ich komme gut mit meinen Gefühlen klar.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6.	Egal wie schlecht ich mich fühle, ich versuche an positive Dinge zu denken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7.	Ich lasse mich niemals von meinen Gefühlen überwältigen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8.	Obwohl ich manchmal fröhlich bin, habe ich meistens eine pessimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Wie würden Sie sich allgemein selbst beschreiben...?

1 trifft gar nicht zu	2 trifft wenig zu	3 trifft teilweise zu	4 trifft überwiegend zu	5 trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich weiß, wann ich mit anderen über persönliche Probleme sprechen kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Andere Leute finden, dass sie mir leicht vertrauen können.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich mag es, meine Gefühle mit anderen zu teilen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich organisiere gerne Veranstaltungen, auf denen man sich amüsieren kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich präsentiere mich in einer Art und Weise, die bei anderen einen guten Eindruck hinterläßt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Ich gebe anderen Komplimente, wenn sie etwas gut gemacht haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Wenn jemand mir über ein wichtiges Ereignis in seinem/ihrem Leben erzählt, fühle ich fast, als hätte ich es selbst erlebt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich helfe anderen, sich besser zu fühlen, wenn es ihnen schlecht geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Ich nutze gute Stimmungen, um Probleme anzugehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich finde es schwierig zu verstehen, warum andere auf eine bestimmte Weise empfinden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Wie schätzen Sie sich im Allgemeinen selbst ein...?

1 trifft gar nicht zu	2 trifft wenig zu	3 trifft teilweise zu	4 trifft überwiegend zu	5 trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich besitze die Fähigkeit, mein Verhalten zu ändern, wenn ich fühle, dass es die Situation verlangt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Oft gelingt es mir, die wahren Gefühle von Menschen zu erkennen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich besitze die Fähigkeit, anderen Menschen *den* Eindruck von mir zu vermitteln, den ich will.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Wenn ich mich mit jemandem unterhalte, bemerke ich beim anderen bereits die kleinste Veränderung im Gesichtsausdruck.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Wenn ich merke, dass das Bild, das ich abgebe, nicht ankommt, kann ich es sofort entsprechend ändern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Meine Intuition ist ziemlich gut, wenn es um das Verstehen der Gefühle und Wünsche anderer geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Es fällt mir schwer, mein Verhalten an verschiedene Menschen und verschiedene Situationen anzupassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich erkenne gewöhnlich, wenn andere einen schlechten Witz machen, selbst wenn sie überzeugend lachen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Ich kann mein Verhalten den Gegebenheiten jeder Situation anpassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Wenn ich etwas Unpassendes gesagt habe, bemerke ich es sofort bei meinem Gesprächspartner.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Selbst wenn es zu meinem Vorteil sein könnte, habe ich Schwierigkeiten, gute Miene zu bösem Spiel zu machen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Wenn mich jemand anlügt, dann bemerke ich es sofort am Verhalten der Person.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Sobald ich weiß, was die Situation verlangt, ist es für mich leicht, mein Verhalten entsprechend anzupassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Zum Abschluß noch einige Fragen zu Ihrer Person.

SD1   Wie **alt** sind Sie?

_____ Jahre

SD2   **Geschlecht**

Frau   ( ) 1   Mann   ( ) 2

S D   Wie lange arbeiten Sie bereits für dieses Unternehmen?

_____ Jahre

SD8   Wie lange führen Sie diese Tätigkeit schon aus?

_____ Jahre

SD4   Welche **Berufsausbildung** haben Sie insgesamt?

keinen Abschluß   ( ) 1
abgeschlossene Lehre   ( ) 2
Meisterprüfung o. Abschluß einer Fachschule ( ) 3
Diplom, Magister o.ä.   ( ) 4

Haben Sie noch Anmerkungen zum Fragebogen oder zu diesen Themen generell?
Wir würden uns sehr über Ihre Kommentare und Meinungen freuen.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

So, dass war's auch schon. Bitte stecken Sie nun den Bogen in den dafür vorge-

sehenen Umschlag.

Wir hoffen, es hat Ihnen ein bißchen Spaß gemacht und bedanken uns nochmals

für Ihre Mitarbeit!

A.7 Questionnaires for Study 2

Lieber Teilnehmer / liebe Teilnehmerin,

zu Beginn möchte ich mich für Ihre Bereitschaft bedanken, an unserer Fragebogenstudie teilzunehmen. Zum Hintergrund erst einmal ein paar Anmerkungen: diese Studie dient einer wissenschaftlichen Untersuchung an der Universität Gießen. Wir interessieren uns für Berufe mit Kundenkontakten, insbesondere für Emotionen während der Kundenberatung, und wie sich dies innerhalb und außerhalb des Berufes auswirkt.

Auf den folgenden Seiten geht es um Ihre Einschätzungen in Bezug auf bestimmte Themengebiete. Dabei handelt es sich teilweise um Angaben, die eher Ihre **allgemeine Einstellung** betreffen und teilweise um **berufsspezifische Aussagen**. Wichtig ist, dass Sie immer angeben, was **Sie** denken oder fühlen und nicht wie erwünscht ein solches Verhalten an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz ist. Ihre Aussagen werden auf jeden Fall **anonym** behandelt und dienen rein wissenschaftlichen Zwecken. Aufgrund dessen benötige ich keine weiteren Angaben zu Ihrer Person, außer ein paar allgemeinen Daten (wie Alter und Geschlecht).

Beigefügt finden Sie ein Kuvert mit einem Fragebogen, der nicht direkt an Sie gerichtet ist, sondern an eine Person, die Ihnen nahesteht und Sie gut kennt. Bei dieser Person kann es sich um, **Ihren Partner/ Ihre Partnerin**, um **Freunde** oder **Verwandte** handeln. Auf jeden Fall jemand, der Ihnen **nahe steht** und bereit ist, ein paar kurze Fragen über Sie zu beantworten. Bitte geben Sie das beiliegende, bereits frankierte Kuvert an eine von Ihnen auserwählte Person.

Noch einmal vielen Dank für Ihre Mithilfe!

Bevor Sie beginnen, beachten Sie bitte folgende Hinweise:

bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen und **lassen Sie keine aus.** Beachten Sie weiterhin, dass die Anzahl der Antwortalternativen wechseln kann. Kreuzen Sie **pro Frage nur eine Antwort** an. Manche Formulierungen werden Ihnen ähnlich erscheinen, bitte lassen Sie sich dadurch nicht irritieren, und fahren Sie wie zuvor mit der Bearbeitung der Fragen fort.

Beantworten Sie die Fragen, die an Sie gerichtet sind, bitte so, wie **Sie persönlich** die Dinge sehen. Es gibt **keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten**, sondern nur unterschiedliche Meinungen und Einstellungen. Wenn Sie sich an manchen Stellen nicht ganz sicher sind, kreuzen Sie bitte die Alternative an, die noch **am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft.**

Viel Spaß beim Bearbeiten der Fragen!

Zu Beginn erst einmal Ihre allgemeinen Angaben:

Wie alt sind Sie?   _____ Jahre

Ihr Geschlecht?   Frau ( )   Mann ( )

Wie lange arbeiten Sie schon im Verkauf?   _____ Jahre

Welche Berufsausbildung haben Sie?
    keinen Abschluss   ( )
    abgeschlossene Lehre   ( )
    Meisterprüfung o. Abschluss einer Fachschule   ( )
    Diplom, Magister o.ä.   ( )

Auf den nächsten Seiten werden eine Reihe von Fragen über Ihre Arbeit gestellt. Dabei geht es um die **Arbeitsbedingungen** und nicht darum, wie gut oder wie schlecht Sie persönlich die Arbeit verrichten. Stellen Sie sich vor, dass ein **Kollege oder eine Kollegin** mit dem gleichen Wissen und Können **die Fragen genauso beantworten** müsste wie Sie.

sehr selten / nie	selten (etwa 1x pro Woche)	gelegentlich (etwa 1x am Tag)	oft (mehrmals am Tag)	sehr oft (mehrmals in der Stunde)
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Wie oft müssen Sie in Ihrem Beruf sehr komplizierte Entscheidungen treffen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Wie oft haben Sie es mit Kunden zu tun, die besonders komplizierte Anliegen haben?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Können Sie bei Ihrer Tätigkeit Neues dazulernen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Wie oft gibt es in Ihrer Tätigkeit Situationen, in denen Sie genau überlegen müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Wie häufig stehen Sie unter Zeitdruck?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Wie häufig passiert es, dass Sie sich nicht so lange um einen Kunden kümmern können, wie Sie es normalerweise tun wollten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Wie oft kommt es vor, dass Sie aufgrund eines hohen Kundenandranges nicht oder verspätet eine Pause einlegen können?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Wie häufig wird bei Ihrer Tätigkeit verlangt, eine hohe Anzahl an Kunden zu beraten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Bitte beantworten Sie nun, inwiefern folgendes auf Ihre Tätigkeit zutrifft.

sehr wenig	ziemlich wenig	etwas	ziemlich viel	sehr viel
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Wenn Sie Ihre Arbeit insgesamt betrachten, inwieweit können Sie die Reihenfolge Ihrer Vorgehensweise in einem Beratungsgespräch selbst festlegen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Wenn man Ihre Tätigkeit insgesamt betrachtet, wieviel Möglichkeiten zu eigenen Entscheidungen bietet Ihnen Ihre Arbeit?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Können Sie selbst bestimmen, auf welche Art und Weise Sie einen Kunden beraten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Wieviel Einfluss haben Sie darauf, welchen Kunden Sie beraten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Wie sehr können Sie sich auf die folgenden Personen verlassen, wenn es in Ihrer Tätigkeit schwierig wird?

sehr wenig	ziemlich wenig	etwas	ziemlich viel	sehr viel
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Auf meinen direkten Vorgesetzten...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Auf meine Kollegen...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Wie sehr unterstützen diese Personen Sie, so dass Sie es in Ihrer Tätigkeit leichter haben?

sehr wenig	ziemlich wenig	etwas	ziemlich viel	sehr viel
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ihr direkter Vorgesetzter...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ihre Kollegen...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Wie sehr sind die Personen bereit, Ihre Probleme im Zusammenhang mit Ihrer Tätigkeit anzuhören?

	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ihr direkter Vorgesetzter...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ihre Kollegen...	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Nachfolgend werden einige Fragen bezüglich bestimmter Situationen in Ihrem Beruf gestellt. Dabei geht es um Anforderungen, die durch die Arbeit mit Kunden entstehen. Diese Anforderungen sind **unabhängig von Ihrer Person**, d.h. sie werden **an jeden gestellt, der diese Arbeit übernimmt**. Deshalb bitten wir Sie, die folgenden Fragen so auszufüllen, dass Kolleginnen oder Kollegen, die die gleiche Arbeit ausführen, auch die gleichen oder ähnliche Antworten geben würden. Maßgebend für Ihre Antwort ist hierbei, **wie und wie häufig eine bestimmte Situation bei Ihnen vorkommt** und nicht, wie erwünscht ein solches Verhalten an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz ist.

sehr selten / nie	selten (etwa 1x pro Woche)	gelegentlich (etwa 1x am Tag)	oft (mehrmals am Tag)	sehr oft (mehrmals in der Stunde)
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Kommt es bei Ihrer Tätigkeit vor, dass Sie angenehme Gefühle gegenüber den Kunden zum Ausdruck bringen müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Kommt es bei Ihrer Tätigkeit vor, dass Sie unangenehme Gefühle gegenüber den Kunden zum Ausdruck bringen müssen (z.B. Strenge oder Ärger, wenn Regeln nicht eingehalten werden)?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Müssen Sie die Kunden in eine angenehme Stimmung versetzen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Kommt es vor, dass Sie ja nach Situation unterschiedliche Gefühle zeigen müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Wie häufig gehört es zu Ihrer Aufgabe, dass Sie gegenüber einem Kunden sehr bestimmt und streng auftreten müssen (z.B. bei starker Überschreitung bestimmter Regeln)?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wie häufig gehört es zu Ihrer Aufgabe, dass Sie sich gegenüber den Kunden verständnisvoll zeigen müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Wie häufig gehört es zu Ihrer Aufgabe, dass Sie gegenüber den Kunden Ihr Mitgefühl ausdrücken müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Wie häufig kommt es vor, dass Sie an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz Gefühle unterdrücken müssen, um nach außen hin „neutral" zu erscheinen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

sehr selten / nie	selten (etwa 1x pro Woche)	gelegentlich (etwa 1x am Tag)	oft (mehrmals am Tag)	sehr oft (mehrmals in der Stunde)
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
9. Erlaubt es Ihre Arbeit, ein Gespräch mit den Kunden zu beenden, wenn Sie es möchten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Können Sie die Dauer, in der Sie sich den Kunden zuwenden, unabhängig von den Bedürfnissen der Kunden selbst bestimmen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wie häufig kommt es an ihrem Arbeitsplatz vor, dass der Kontakt mit dem Kunden und die damit verbundene Bearbeitung des Kundenauftrags in einer Zeit abgewickelt werden muss, die vom Arbeitgeber vorgegeben ist?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Wie häufig können Sie selbst bestimmen, welche Gefühle Sie gegenüber den Kunden zeigen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Wie häufig kommt es vor, dass Sie im Kontakt mit den Kunden Gefühle auf eine ganz bestimmte Art und Weise zeigen müssen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. Wie oft kommt es an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz vor, dass man nach außen hin Gefühle zeigen muss, die nicht mit dem übereinstimmen, was man momentan gegenüber dem Kunden fühlt?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15. Wie oft kommt es an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz vor, dass man nach außen hin angenehme Gefühle zeigen muss, während man innerlich gleichgültig ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16. Wie oft kommt es bei Ihrer Tätigkeit vor, dass Sie nach außen hin Gefühle zeigen müssen, die nicht mit Ihren eigentlichen Gefühlen übereinstimmen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. Ist es bei Ihrer Tätigkeit erforderlich, sich in die Kunden einzufühlen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18. Ist es für Ihre Tätigkeit von Bedeutung zu wissen, wie sich die Kunden momentan fühlen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. Gehört es zu Ihrer Arbeit, sich in die Kunden hineinzuversetzen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Anschließend werden zwei „Verkäufer/innen" mit unterschiedlichem Verhalten an Ihrem Arbeitsplatz vorgestellt. Versuchen Sie zu entscheiden, welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze Ihrem am Ähnlichsten ist .

1 genau wie der von A	2 ähnlich wie der von A	3 zwischen A und B	4 ähnlich wie der von B	5 genau wie der von B

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A muss bei seiner/ihrer Arbeit gegenüber den Kunden nur oberflächliche Gefühle zeigen. B zeigt bei seiner/ihrer Arbeit auch intensive Gefühle. Welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze ist Ihrem am ähnlichsten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A ist genau vorgeschrieben, in welcher Situation er/sie Gefühle gegenüber den Kunden zeigen muss. B kann selbst entscheiden, ob und in welcher Situation er/sie Gefühle gegenüber den Kunden äußert. Welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze ist Ihrem am ähnlichsten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Für die Arbeit von A ist es wichtig, aufkommende Gefühle nach außen nicht zu zeigen. Für die Arbeit von B ist es bedeutungslos bzw. von geringer Bedeutung, wenn er/sie Gefühle nach außen zeigt. Welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze ist Ihrem am ähnlichsten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A muss die Beendigung eines Gesprächs von der Stimmungslage der Kunden abhängig machen. B kann den Kontakt mit den Kunden nach Belieben beenden, ohne Folgen für den weiteren Arbeitsablauf. Welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze ist Ihrem am ähnlichsten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A muss gegenüber den Kunden nur angenehme oder unangenehme Gefühle zeigen. B muss gegenüber den Kunden sowohl angenehme als auch unangenehme Gefühle zeigen. Welcher der beiden Arbeitsplätze ist Ihrem am ähnlichsten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Auf den verbleibenden Seiten nun noch einige Fragen zu Ihrer Stimmung und Zufriedenheit. Bitte geben Sie in Bezug auf die vorgegebenen Situationen an, wie Sie sich gefühlt haben und wie zufrieden oder unzufrieden Sie sind.

Wie war Ihre Stimmung in den letzten sechs Monaten? Wie häufig traf Folgendes auf Sie zu?

	1	2	3	4	5
	nie	zeitweise	manchmal	häufig	immer

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich habe mich gelangweilt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich habe mich gefreut, weil mir etwas ganz besonders gut gelungen ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich fühlte mich niedergeschlagen oder sehr unglücklich.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich hatte das Gefühl, dass mir alles gelingt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich war rastlos und unruhig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Ich fühlte mich sehr einsam und fern von anderen Menschen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Ich habe mich gefreut, weil meine Leistung anerkannt wurde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich fühlte mich richtig wohl und voller Lebensfreude.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Ich war beunruhigt, weil mich jemand kritisiert hatte.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Bei den nachfolgen Fragen beachten Sie bitte den Wechsel der Antworthäufigkeiten. Wie zufrieden oder unzufrieden sind Sie mit…

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ich bin äußerst unzufrieden	Ich bin sehr unzufrieden	Ich bin mäßig unzufrieden	Ich bin weder zufrieden noch unzufrieden	Ich bin mäßig zufrieden	Ich bin sehr zufrieden	Ich bin äußerst zufrieden

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. ...der räumlichen Arbeitsplatzgestaltung?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. ...der Freiheit, Ihre eigene Arbeitsstrategie zu finden?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. ...Ihren Mitarbeitern?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. ...der Anerkennung, die Sie für Ihre Arbeit erhalten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. ...Ihrem direkten Vorgesetzten?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. ...dem Ausmaß an Verantwortung, das Sie tragen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. ...der Höhe Ihrer Bezahlung?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. ...den Möglichkeiten, Ihre Fähigkeiten zu nutzen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. ...den Beförderungs-/Aufstiegschancen?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. ...dem Management der Organisation?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. ...der Aufmerksamkeit, die Ihnen gegenüber Ihren Vorschlägen entgegengebracht wird?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. ...Ihrer Arbeitszeit?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. ...dem Ausmaß an Abwechslung in ihrer Arbeit?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. ...Ihrer Arbeitsplatzsicherheit?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Zu guter Letzt noch ein paar weitere Fragen zu Ihrer Zufriedenheit.

1	2	3	4	5
nie	zeitweise	manchmal	häufig	immer

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich denke darüber nach, meine Arbeitsstelle zu verlassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich habe die Absicht, mich nach einer neuen Stelle umzuschauen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich habe die Absicht, die Arbeitsstelle zu wechseln/zu kündigen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Noch einmal vielen Dank für Ihre Bereitschaft die Fragen zu beantworten!

Den vorliegenden Fragebogen haben Sie von **einem/r Freund/in, einem/r Verwandten, einem/r Bekannten bzw. von Ihrem/r Partner/in** erhalten.

Auf den nächsten Seiten finden Sie verschiedene Aussagen, die sich auf eben diese Person beziehen. Dabei sollen Sie die Person in Bezug auf verschiedene Gedanken und Gefühle, sowie auf sein/ihr Verhalten in verschiedenen zwischenmenschlichen situationen einschätzen. Es ist sicherlich oft nicht ganz einfach, andere Personen einzuschätzen. Da Sie Ihren Bekannten aber sehr gut kennen, dürfte Ihnen das antworten nicht so schwer fallen. Bitte beachten Sie, dass Sie **keine Fragen auslassen** und versuchen Sie **möglichst genau** Ihren Bekannten zu beschreiben. Natürlich ist dies nicht immer 100%ig möglich, deshalb kreuzen Sie bitte die Alternative an, die noch **am ehesten** auf ihn bzw. sie zutrifft. Beachten Sie, dass Sie **pro Frage nur eine Antwortalternative** ankreuzen und dass **Sie keine Frage auslassen**.

Wenn Sie den Fragebogen komplett beantwortet haben, geben Sie diesen bitte in den beigefügten Rückumschlag und schicken Sie diesen so schnell wie möglich an uns zurück. Das Porto bezahlen natürlich wir. Alle Ihre Angaben werden von uns selbstverständlich anonym behandelt.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Mithilfe und Viel Spaß beim Bearbeiten der Fragen!

Zunächst möchten wir Sie um einige allgemeine Angaben bitten.

Wie alt sind Sie selbst? _____ Jahre

Sind Sie   männlich   •
                        weiblich   •

In welchem Verhältnis stehen Sie zu der Person, die Sie nachfolgend einschätzen?

Er/sie ist...   mein Partner/meine Partnerin •
                        ein Freund/eine Freundin   •
                        ein Verwandter/ein Verwandte   •
                        ein Bekannter/eine Bekannte •

Wie lange kennen Sie diese Person schon?_____ Jahre

Wie gut kennen Sie diese Person?   sehr gut   •
                                    gut   •
                                    mittelmäßig   •
                                    nicht so gut •
                                    kaum   •

In den folgenden Fragen werden wir die Person, die Sie einschätzen sollen, der Einfachheit halber „A" nennen.
Nachfolgend werden allgemeine Aussagen vorgegeben. Versuchen Sie sich A in diesen Situationen vorzustellen. Kreuzen Sie dann zu den jeweiligen Aussagen bitte die Antwort an, die am ehesten auf A zutrifft.

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft ein wenig zu	trifft mittelmäßig zu	trifft über- wiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Obwohl A manchmal traurig ist, hat er/sie meist eine optimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A versucht an positive Dinge zu denken, egal wie schlecht er/sie sich fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Wenn A beunruhigt ist , erinnert er/sie sich an die angenehmen Seiten des Lebens.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A versucht positive Gedanken zu haben, egal wie schlecht er/sie sich fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Wenn A merkt, dass er/sie außer Fassung gerät, versucht er/sie sich selbst zu beruhigen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. A macht sich keine Sorgen, wenn er/sie in zu guter Stimmung ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. A hat nicht viel Energie, wenn er/sie glücklich ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Wenn A ärgerlich ist, lässt er/sie dies gewöhnlich zu.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Immer, wenn A sich in einer schlechten Stimmung befindet, ist er/sie pessimistisch was die Zukunft angeht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Wenn A in zu guter Stimmung ist, erinnert er/sie sich an die Realität, um sich „herunter zu bringen".	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wenn A beunruhigt ist, wird ihm/ihr deutlich, dass die guten Dinge im Leben Illusionen sind.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Obwohl A manchmal fröhlich ist, hat er/sie meistens eine pessimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Bitte geben Sie zu den folgenden Aussagen an, wie sich A in den vorgegebenen Situationen am ehesten verhält oder was - Ihrem Empfinden nach - am ehesten in ihm/ihr vorgeht.

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft ein wenig zu	trifft mittelmäßig zu	trifft über- wiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A findet es manchmal schwierig, die Dinge vom Standpunkt eines anderen Menschen aus zu sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A versucht, Meinungsverschiedenheiten von allen Seiten zu sehen, bevor er/sie eine Entscheidung trifft.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A versucht häufiger, seine Freunde dadurch besser zu verstehen, indem er/sie sich vorstellt, wie die Dinge aus deren Sicht aussehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Wenn A sich sicher ist, dass er/sie in einer Sache recht hat, verschwendet er/sie nicht viel Zeit damit, sich die Argumente anderer anzuhören.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A glaubt, dass es bei jeder Sache zwei Seiten gibt und versucht, beide zu betrachten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wenn A böse auf jemanden ist, versucht er/sie normalerweise, sich für eine Weile in die Situation des anderen zu versetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Bevor A jemanden kritisiert, versucht er/sie sich vorzustellen, wie er/sie sich an der Stelle des anderen fühlen würde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Die nächsten Fragen sind ähnlich den Vorherigen. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Folgendes Auf A zutrifft.

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft ein wenig zu	trifft mittelmäßig zu	trifft über- wiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A weiß, wann ich mit anderen über persönliche Probleme sprechen kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Andere Leute finden, dass sie A leicht vertrauen können.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A mag es, seine/ihre Gefühle mit anderen zu teilen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A organisiert Veranstaltungen (z.B. Partys), die andere genießen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A präsentiert sich in einer Art und Weise, die bei anderen einen guten Eindruck hinterlässt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. A gibt anderen Komplimente, wenn sie etwas gut gemacht haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Wenn A jemand über ein wichtiges Ereignis in seinem Leben erzählt, fühlt er/sie fast als hätte er/sie es selbst erlebt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. A hilft anderen, sich besser zu fühlen, wenn es ihnen schlecht geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. A nutzt gute Stimmungen um Probleme anzugehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. A findet es schwierig zu verstehen, warum andere auf eine bestimmte Weise empfinden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Zuletzt bitten wir Sie, noch ein paar allgemeine Einschätzungen über A abzugeben. Bitte kreuzen Sie weiterhin an, was am ehesten auf A zutrifft.

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft ein wenig zu	trifft mittelmäßig zu	trifft über- wiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A hat allgemein seine/ihre Stimmung „gut im Griff".	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A kann sich im Allgemeinen gut selbst aufbauen, wenn er/sie sich schlecht fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A weiß generell, wie er/sie eine gute Stimmung aufrecht erhalten kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A kann sich im Allgemeinen gut in andere Personen hineinversetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A fühlt oft mit Personen, denen es schlecht geht, mit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wenn A erlebt, dass andere sich in einer negativen Situation befinden, fühlt er/sie Besorgnis und Unruhe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. A kann im Allgemeinen gut Gefühle ausdrücken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. A weiß immer gleich, was mit anderen Menschen los ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. A kann generell gut die Gefühle und Stimmungen anderer beeinflussen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Noch einmal vielen Dank für Ihre Bereitschaft die Fragen zu beantworten! Bitte vergessen Sie nicht, den Brief möglichst bald in den nächsten Briefkasten zu werfen.

Vielen Dank!

A.8 Questionnaires for Study 3

Liebe Untersuchungsteilnehmerin, lieber Untersuchungsteilnehmer!

Sie finden auf den folgenden Seiten verschiedene Aussagen, die sich auf ihre Gedanken und Gefühle, sowie auf Ihr Verhalten in verschiedenen zwischenmenschlichen Situationen beziehen. Kreuzen Sie bitte jeweils die Antwortalternative an, die am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft.

Dabei bedeutet
1 - die Aussage **trifft gar nicht** auf Sie **zu**
2 - die Aussage **trifft wenig** auf Sie **zu**
3 - die Aussage **trifft teilweise** auf sie **zu**
4 - die Aussage **trifft überwiegend** auf Sie **zu** und
5 - die Aussage **trifft voll** auf Sie **zu**.

Beachten Sie, dass Sie pro Frage nur eine Antwortalternative ankreuzen und dass Sie keine Frage auslassen. Wenn Sie sich bei einer Aussage nicht sicher sind, wählen Sie die Antwortalternative, die noch am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Mitarbeit!

	1	2	3	4	5
	trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich verspüre oft Mitleid und Sorge für Leute, denen es weniger gut geht als mir.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich finde es manchmal schwierig, die Dinge vom Standpunkt eines anderen Menschen aus zu sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Manchmal habe ich nicht viel Mitleid mit Leuten, die Probleme haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. In Notfallsituationen fühle ich mich besorgt und unbehaglich.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich versuche, Meinungsverschiedenheiten von allen Seiten zu sehen bevor ich eine Entscheidung treffe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wenn ich sehe, dass jemand ausgenutzt wird, will ich ihn irgendwie beschützen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Manchmal fühle ich mich hilflos, wenn ich inmitten einer sehr gefühlsbeladenen Situation stecke.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich versuche öfters, meine Freunde dadurch besser zu verstehen, dass ich mir vorstelle, wie die Dinge aus ihrer Sicht aussehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Wenn ich sehe wie jemand verletzt wird, bleibe ich eher ruhig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Gewöhnlich beunruhigt mich das Unglück anderer Leute nicht sehr.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wenn ich mir sicher bin, dass ich in einer Sache recht habe, verschwende ich nicht viel Zeit damit, mir die Argumente anderer anzuhören.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Es macht mir Angst, in angespannten emotionalen Situationen zu sein.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Wenn ich sehe, dass jemand ungerecht behandelt wird, habe ich oft nicht sehr viel Mitleid mit ihm.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. Ich kann normalerweise ziemlich kompetent mit Notfällen umgehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15. Ich bin oft ziemlich gerührt von Dingen, die ich sehe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
16. Ich glaube, dass es bei jeder Sache zwei Seiten gibt und ich versuche, beide zu betrachten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. Ich würde mich selbst als eine ziemlich weichherzige Person sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18. Ich neige dazu, in Notsituationen die Kontrolle zu verlieren.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. Wenn ich böse auf jemanden bin, versuche ich normalerweise, mich für eine Weile in seine Situation zu versetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20. Wenn ich jemanden sehe, der dringend Hilfe in einem Notfall braucht, drehe ich durch.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21. Bevor ich jemanden kritisiere versuche ich mir vorzustellen, wie ich mich an seiner Stelle fühlen würde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich denke oft über meine Gefühle nach.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Manchmal kann ich nicht sagen, wie ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich versuche positiv zu denken, egal wie schlecht ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich denke nicht, dass es sich lohnt, seinen Gefühlen oder Stimmungen viel Aufmerksamkeit zu schenken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich bin selten verwirrt über meine Gefühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Obwohl ich manchmal traurig bin, habe ich meistens eine optimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Normalerweise kümmere ich mich nicht viel darum, was ich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich kann nie sagen, wie ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Wenn ich beunruhigt bin, wird mir klar, dass die „guten Dinge im Leben" Illusionen sind.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich schenke meinen Gefühlen nicht viel Aufmerksamkeit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Meine Überzeugungen und Meinungen scheinen sich ständig zu ändern, je nachdem wie ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Wenn ich beginne, mich über etwas aufzuregen, versuche ich, mich an die angenehmen Seiten des Lebens zu erinnern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Ich glaube, dass man aus dem Herzen heraus handeln sollte.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. Es ist mir oft bewußt, welche Gefühle ich gegenüber bestimmten Dingen oder Angelegenheiten habe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15. Obwohl ich manchmal fröhlich bin, habe ich meistens eine pessimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16. Die beste Art, mit meinen Gefühlen umzugehen, ist für mich, sie voll und ganz auszuleben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. Normalerweise bin ich über meine Gefühle verwirrt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
	trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
18. Egal wie schlecht ich mich fühle, ich versuche an positive Dinge zu denken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. Man sollte sich niemals von seinen Emotionen leiten lassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20. Ich komme gut mit meinen Gefühlen klar.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21. Ich lasse mich niemals von meinen Gefühlen überwältigen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
22. Ich schenke meinen Gefühlen viel Aufmerksamkeit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
23. Ich kann mir keinen Reim auf meine Gefühle machen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
24. Gefühle geben dem Leben Richtung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
25. Gewöhnlich bin ich mir über meine Gefühle im Klaren.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
26. Es würde den Leuten besser gehen, wenn sie weniger fühlen und mehr denken würden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
27. Gewöhnlich kenne ich meine Gefühle gegenüber einer bestimmten Angelegenheit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
28. Gefühle sind eine menschliche Schwäche.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
29. Ich weiß fast immer ganz genau, wie ich mich fühle.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
30. Es ist normalerweise vergeudete Zeit, über seine Gefühle nachzudenken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
	trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich weiß, wann ich mit anderen über persönlichen Probleme sprechen kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Andere Leute finden, dass sie mir leicht vertrauen können.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich mag es, meine Gefühle mit anderen zu teilen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich organisiere gerne Veranstaltungen, auf denen man sich amüsieren kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich präsentiere mich in einer Art und Weise, die bei anderen einen guten Eindruck hinterläßt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Ich gebe anderen Komplimente, wenn sie etwas gut gemacht haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Wenn jemand mir über ein wichtiges Ereignis in seinem/ihrem Leben erzählt, fühle ich fast, als hätte ich es selbst erlebt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich helfe anderen, sich besser zu fühlen, wenn es ihnen schlecht geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Ich nutze gute Stimmungen, um Probleme anzugehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich finde es schwierig zu verstehen, warum andere auf eine bestimmte Weise empfinden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
	trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Wenn ich gute Musik höre, kann ich schlecht stillstehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.	Mein Lachen ist leise und gedämpft.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3.	Ich kann Emotionen problemlos auch über das Telefon ausdrücken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.	Während einer Unterhaltung berühre ich häufig meine Freunde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5.	Ich mag es nicht, von vielen Menschen angeschaut zu werden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6.	Für gewöhnlich habe ich einen neutralen Gesichtsausdruck.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7.	Ich würde einen guten Schauspieler/eine gute Schauspielerin abgeben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8.	In einer Gruppe von Leuten bleibe ich gerne unauffällig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9.	Wenn ich mich unter fremden Menschen aufhalte, bin ich schüchtern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10.	Wenn ich möchte, kann ich einen verführerischen Blick aufsetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11.	Ich bin schlecht in Pantomime.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12.	Auf Parties stehe ich im Zentrum der Aufmerksamkeit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13.	Ich zeige, dass ich jemanden mag, indem ich ihn berühre oder umarme.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
	trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Ich besitze die Fähigkeit, mein Verhalten zu ändern, wenn ich fühle, dass es die Situation verlangt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2.	Oft gelingt es mir, die wahren Gefühle von Menschen zu erkennen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3.	Ich besitze die Fähigkeit, anderen Menschen *den* Eindruck von mir zu vermitteln, den ich will.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4.	Wenn ich mich mit jemandem unterhalte, bemerke ich beim anderen bereits die kleinste Veränderung im Gesichtsausdruck.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5.	Wenn ich merke, dass das Bild, das ich abgebe, nicht ankommt, kann ich es sofort entsprechend ändern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6.	Meine Intuition ist ziemlich gut, wenn es um das Verstehen der Gefühle und Wünsche anderer geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7.	Es fällt mir schwer, mein Verhalten an verschiedene Menschen und verschiedene Situationen anzupassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8.	Ich erkenne gewöhnlich, wenn andere einen schlechten Witz machen, selbst wenn sie überzeugend lachen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9.	Ich kann mein Verhalten den Gegebenheiten jeder Situation anpassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10.	Wenn ich etwas Unpassendes gesagt habe, bemerke ich es sofort bei meinem Gesprächspartner.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11.	Selbst wenn es zu meinem Vorteil sein könnte, habe ich Schwierigkeiten, gute Miene zu bösem Spiel zu machen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12.	Wenn mich jemand anlügt, dann bemerke ich es sofort am Verhalten der Person.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13.	Sobald ich weiß, was die Situation verlangt, ist es für mich leicht, mein Verhalten entsprechend anzupassen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich habe gerne viele Leute um mich herum.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich bin leicht zum Lachen zu bringen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich halte mich nicht für besonders fröhlich.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich unterhalte mich wirklich gerne mit anderen Menschen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich bin gerne im Zentrum des Geschehens.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Ich ziehe es gewöhnlich vor, Dinge allein zu tun.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Ich habe oft das Gefühl, vor Energie überzuschäumen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich bin ein fröhlicher, gut gelaunter Mensch.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Ich bin kein gut gelaunter Optimist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich führe ein hektisches Leben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Ich bin ein sehr aktiver Mensch.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Lieber würde ich meinen eigenen Weg gehen, als eine Gruppe anzuführen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich kann mich in Bewerbungsinterviews gut verkaufen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich komme gut mit dem Arbeiten in Gruppen klar.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Ich glaube, dass ich ein/e erfolgreiche/r Verkäufer/in wäre.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich kann mich in mündlichen Prüfungen gut verkaufen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich bin nicht leicht beunruhigt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich fühle mich anderen oft unterlegen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Wenn ich unter starkem Streß stehe, fühle ich mich manchmal, als ob ich zusammenbräche.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich fühle mich selten einsam oder traurig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Ich fühle mich oft angespannt und nervös.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Manchmal fühle ich mich völlig wertlos.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Ich empfinde selten Furcht oder Angst.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Ich ärgere mich oft darüber, wie andere Leute mich behandeln.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Zu häufig bin ich entmutigt und will aufgeben, wenn etwas schief geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich bin selten traurig oder deprimiert.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Ich fühle mich oft hilflos und wünsche mir eine Person, die meine Probleme löst.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Manchmal war mir etwas so peinlich, dass ich mich am liebsten versteckt hätte.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ich versuche, zu jedem, dem ich begegne, freundlich zu sein.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Ich bekomme häufiger Streit mit meiner Familie und meinen Kollegen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Manche Leute halten mich für selbstsüchtig und selbstgefällig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Ich würde lieber mit anderen zusammenarbeiten, als mit ihnen zu wetteifern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Im Hinblick auf die Absichten anderer bis ich eher zynisch und skeptisch.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Ich glaube, dass man von den meisten Leuten ausgenutzt wird, wenn man es zuläßt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Die meisten Menschen, die ich kenne, mögen mich.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Manche Leute halten mich für kalt und berechnend.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. In Bezug auf meine Einstellungen bin ich nüchtern und unnachgiebig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Ich versuche, stets rücksichtsvoll und sensibel zu handeln.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wenn ich Menschen nicht mag, so zeige ich ihnen das auch offen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Um zu bekommen, was ich will, bin ich notfalls bereit, Menschen zu manipulieren.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Die folgenden Fragen betreffen Ihre Zufriedenheit mit bestimmten Lebensbereichen. Kreuzen Sie bitte jeweils die Antwortalternative an, die am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft. Bitte beachten Sie, dass sich die Antwortalternativen geändert haben. Hier bedeutet die 1, dass Sie mit dem jeweiligen Lebensbereich völlig unzufrieden sind und die 5, dass Sie völlig zufrieden sind.

1	2	3	4	5
völlig unzufrieden	überwiegend unzufrieden	teils /teils	überwiegend zufrieden	völlig zufrieden

	1	2	3	4	5	Trifft nicht zu
1. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer derzeitigen Partnerschaft?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrem Freundeskreis?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	
3. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit dem bisherigen Verlauf Ihres Berufsweges?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	
4. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrem Leben insgesamt?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	

Bitte versuchen Sie nun, Ihre derzeitige (oder Ihre letzte) Beziehung/ Partnerschaft durch die folgenden Gegensatzpaare zu kennzeichnen. Dabei kennzeichnen die Zahlen 1 und 5 die beiden Extreme, während die Zahlen 2 bis 4 Abstufungen darstellen. Bitte kreuzen Sie jeweils die für Sie zutreffende Zahl an.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Sicher	1	2	3	4	5	Unsicher
Befriedigend	1	2	3	4	5	Enttäuschend
Interessant	1	2	3	4	5	Langweilig
Lohnend	1	2	3	4	5	Nutzlos
Hoffnungsvoll	1	2	3	4	5	Entmutigend
Glücklich	1	2	3	4	5	Unglücklich

Zuletzt benötigen wir noch einige Angaben zu Ihrer Person.

Wie alt sind Sie?   _____

Geschlecht: ☐ männlich
                      ☐ weiblich

Was studieren Sie?   _____

Semesterzahl: _____

Wohnen Sie   ☐ alleine?
                      ☐ bei Ihren Eltern?
                      ☐ in einer WG?
                      ☐ mit Ihrem Partner/Ihrer Partnerin zusammen?

Welchen Job streben Sie nach dem Studium an?   _____

Welche Abiturnote hatten Sie? _____
(natürlich nur, wenn Sie
es uns verraten wollen)

So, dass war's auch schon.

Wir hoffen, es hat Ihnen ein bißchen Spaß gemacht und bedanken uns nochmals

für Ihre Mitarbeit!

Die vorliegenden Fragebögen haben Sie von einem/r Freund/in, einem/r Verwandten, einem/r Bekannten bzw. von Ihrem/r Partner/in erhalten.

Auf den nächsten Seiten finden Sie verschiedene Aussagen, die sich auf eben diese Person beziehen. Dabei sollen Sie die Person im Bezug auf verschiedene Gedanken und Gefühle, sowie auf sein/ihr Verhalten in verschiedenen zwischenmenschlichen Situationen einschätzen. Kreuzen Sie bitte jeweils die Antwortalternative an, die Ihrer Meinung nach am ehesten auf Ihre/n Freund/in, ... zutrifft. Beachten Sie, dass Sie pro Frage nur eine Antwortalternative ankreuzen und dass Sie keine Frage auslassen.

Natürlich ist es teilweise schwer, jemand anderen zu beurteilen, weil kein Mensch vollkommen in einen anderen hinein schauen kann. Deshalb wählen Sie bitte, wenn Sie sich bei einer Aussage nicht sicher sind, die Antwortalternative, die Ihrer Meinung nach noch am ehesten zutrifft. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Wenn Sie die Fragebögen komplett beantwortet haben, geben Sie diese bitte in den beigefügten adressierten Rückumschlag und schicken Sie diesen so schnell wie möglich an uns zurück. Das Porto bezahlen natürlich wir.
Alle Ihre Angaben werden von uns selbstverständlich anonym behandelt.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Mitarbeit!

Zunächst möchten wir Sie um einige allgemeine Angaben bitten.

Wie alt sind Sie selbst?   _____ Jahre

Sind Sie   männlich   ☐
                  weiblich   ☐

In welchem Verhältnis stehen Sie zu der Person, die Sie im Folgenden einschätzen?
Er/sie ist ...   mein Partner/meine Partnerin   ☐
                   ein Freund/eine Freundin   ☐
                   ein Verwandter/eine Verwandte   ☐
                   ein Bekannter/eine Bekannte   ☐

Wie lange kennen Sie diese Person schon?   _____ Jahre

Wie gut kennen Sie diese Person?   sehr gut   ☐
                                     gut   ☐
                                     mittelmäßig   ☐
                                     nicht so gut ☐
                                     kaum   ☐

In den folgenden Fragebögen werden wir die Person, die Sie einschätzen sollen, der Einfachheit halber „A" nennen.

1 trifft gar nicht zu	2 trifft wenig zu	3 trifft teilweise zu	4 trifft überwiegend zu	5 trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Obwohl A manchmal traurig ist, hat er/sie meistens eine optimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A versucht an positive Dinge zu denken, egal wie schlecht er/sie sich fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Wenn A beginnt, sich über etwas aufzuregen, versucht er/sie sich an die angenehmen Seiten des Lebens zu erinnern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A macht sich keine Sorgen, wenn er/sie in zu guter Stimmung ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. Wenn A merkt, dass er/sie außer Fassung gerät, versucht er/sie, sich selbst zu beruhigen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. A versucht positiv zu denken, egal wie schlecht er/sie sich fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. A hat nicht viel Energie, wenn er/sie glücklich ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Wenn A ärgerlich ist, läßt er/sie dies gewöhnlich zu.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Immer wenn A sich in einer schlechten Stimmung befindet, ist er/sie pessimistisch was die Zukunft angeht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Wenn A in zu guter Stimmung ist, erinnert er/sie sich an die Realität, um sich auf den Boden zurückzubringen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wenn A beunruhigt ist, wird ihm/ihr klar, dass die „guten Dinge im Leben" Illusionen sind.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Obwohl A manchmal fröhlich ist, hat er/sie meistens eine pessimistische Haltung.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

1 trifft gar nicht zu	2 trifft wenig zu	3 trifft teilweise zu	4 trifft überwie- gend zu	5 trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A verspürt oft Mitleid und Sorge für Leute, denen es weniger gut geht als ihm/ihr.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Es ist schwierig für A, die Dinge vom Standpunkt eines anderen Menschen aus zu sehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. Manchmal hat A nicht viel Mitleid mit Leuten, die Probleme haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. In Notfallsituationen fühlt A sich besorgt und unbehaglich.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A versucht, Meinungsverschiedenheiten von allen Seiten zu sehen, bevor er/sie eine Entscheidung trifft.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wenn A sieht, dass jemand ausgenutzt wird, will er/sie ihn irgendwie beschützen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Manchmal fühlt A sich hilflos, wenn er/sie inmitten einer sehr gefühlsbeladenen Situation steckt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. A versucht öfters, seine/ihre Freunde dadurch besser zu verstehen, dass er/sie sich vorstellt, wie die Dinge aus ihrer Sicht aussehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Wenn A sieht wie jemand verletzt wird, bleibt er/sie eher ruhig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Gewöhnlich beunruhigt A das Unglück anderer Leute nicht sehr.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Wenn A sich sicher ist, dass er/sie in einer Sache recht hat, verschwendet er/sie nicht viel Zeit damit, sich die Argumente anderer anzuhören.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Es macht A Angst, in angespannten emotionalen Situationen zu sein.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Wenn A sieht, dass jemand ungerecht behandelt wird, hat A öfters nicht sehr viel Mitleid mit ihm.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. A kann normalerweise ziemlich kompetent mit Notfällen umgehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
15. A ist oft ziemlich gerührt von Dingen, die er/sie sieht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16. A glaubt, dass es bei jeder Sache zwei Seiten gibt und er/sie versucht, beide zu betrachten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. A ist eine ziemlich weichherzige Person.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18. A neigt dazu, in Notsituationen die Kontrolle zu verlieren.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. Wenn A böse auf jemanden ist, versucht er/sie normalerweise, sich für eine Weile in seine Situation hineinzuversetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20. Wenn A jemanden sieht, der dringend Hilfe in einem Notfall braucht, dreht er/sie durch.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21. Bevor A jemanden kritisiert versucht er/sie sich vorzustellen, wie er/sie sich an seiner Stelle fühlen würde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

1 trifft gar nicht zu	2 trifft wenig zu	3 trifft teilweise zu	4 trifft überwie- gend zu	5 trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A weiß, wann er/sie mit anderen über persönlichen Probleme sprechen kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. Man kann A leicht vertrauen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A mag es, seine/ihre Gefühle mit anderen zu teilen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A organisiert gerne Veranstaltungen, auf denen man sich amüsieren kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A präsentiert sich in einer Art und Weise, die bei anderen einen guten Eindruck hinterläßt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. A gibt anderen Komplimente, wenn sie etwas gut gemacht haben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. Wenn jemand A über ein wichtiges Ereignis in seinem Leben erzählt, fühlt A fast, als hätte er/sie es selbst erlebt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. A hilft anderen, sich besser zu fühlen, wenn es ihnen schlecht geht.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. A nutzt gute Stimmungen, um Probleme anzugehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. A findet es schwierig zu verstehen, warum andere auf eine bestimmte Weise empfinden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

1. A kann sich in Bewerbungsinterviews gut verkaufen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A ist sozial kompetent.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A würde ein/e erfolgreiche/r Verkäufer/in sein.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A kann gut mit anderen Menschen umgehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A kommt gut mit dem Arbeiten in Gruppen klar.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. A kann sich in mündlichen Prüfungen gut verkaufen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Wenn A gute Musik hört, kann er/sie schlecht stillstehen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A`s Lachen ist leise und gedämpft.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A kann Emotionen problemlos auch über das Telefon ausdrücken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. Während einer Unterhaltung berührt A häufig seine/ihre Freunde.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A mag es nicht, von vielen Menschen angeschaut zu werden.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Für gewöhnlich hat A einen neutralen Gesichtsausdruck.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. A würde einen guten Schauspieler/eine gute Schauspielerin abgeben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. In einer Gruppe von Leuten bleibt A gerne unauffällig.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Wenn A sich unter fremden Menschen aufhält, ist er/sie schüchtern.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Wenn A möchte, kann er/sie einen verführerischen Blick aufsetzen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. A ist schlecht in Pantomime.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Auf Parties steht A im Zentrum der Aufmerksamkeit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. A zeigt, dass er/sie jemanden mag, indem er/sie ihn berührt oder umarmt .	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Zuletzt möchten wir Sie bitten, noch einige allgemeine Einschätzungen über Ihre/n Freund/in abzugeben.

1	2	3	4	5
trifft gar nicht zu	trifft wenig zu	trifft teilweise zu	trifft überwiegend zu	trifft völlig zu

	1	2	3	4	5
1. A hat allgemein seine/ihre Stimmung „gut im Griff".	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
2. A kann sich allgemein gut selbst aufbauen, wenn er/sie sich schlecht fühlt.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
3. A weiß allgemein, wie er/sie eine gute Stimmung aufrecht erhalten kann.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
4. A kann sich allgemein gut in andere Personen hineinversetzten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
5. A fühlt allgemein oft mit Personen, denen es schlecht geht, mit.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
6. Wenn A erlebt, dass andere sich in einer negativen Situation befinden, fühlt er/sie Besorgnis und Unruhe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
7. A kann allgemein gut Gefühle ausdrücken.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. A weiß immer gleich, was mit anderen Menschen los ist.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. A kann allgemein gut die Gefühle und Stimmungen anderer beeinflussen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

So, das war`s auch schon. Bitte vergessen Sie nicht, den Fragebogen an uns zurückzuschicken. Wir bedanken uns noch einmal herzlich für Ihre Mitarbeit

Erklärung

Ich erkläre: Ich habe die vorgelegte Dissertation selbständig und nur mit den Hilfen angefertigt, die ich in der Dissertation angegeben habe. Alle Textstellen, die wörtlich oder sinngemäß aus veröffentlichten oder nicht veröffentlichten Schriften entnommen sind, und alle Angaben, die auf mündlichen Auskünften beruhen, sind als solche kenntlich gemacht.

Gießen, den 12.03.03