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EMOTIONAL LABOR, OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY AND WORK ENGAGEMENT IN PORTUGUESE POLICE OFFICERS

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Dissertação no âmbito do Mestrado Integrado em Psicologia, ramo de Psicologia das Organizações e do Trabalho orientada pela Professora Doutora Carla Maria Santos Carvalho e pela Professora Doutora Ana Luísa Sousa Pinto e apresentada à Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências da Educação da Universidade de Coimbra.

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Resumo

Partindo da teoria do emotional labor, temos como objetivo estudar as relações entre as dimensões do emotional labor (exigências e estratégias), o work engagement e a identidade ocupacional em polícias. Pretendemos, assim, analisar os eventuais efeitos do emotional labor tanto no work engagement como na identidade ocupacional, bem como consideramos formas de prevenção e/ou mitigação dos efeitos destas relações. Uma amostra de 924 profissionais da Polícia de Segurança Pública (PSP) em Portugal respondeu a um conjunto de questionários: Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), Emotion Work Requirements Scale (EWRS) (Best et al., 1997), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b) e Social Identity Scale (SIS) (Cameron, 2004). Os dados obtidos foram alvo de uma análise estatística, utilizando-se nomeadamente, a correlação e a regressão linear múltipla. Em termos globais, os resultados sugerem a existência de uma relação entre as exigências emocionais (i.e., supressão de emoções negativas e expressão de emoções positivas) e as estratégias (i.e., deep e surface acting) do trabalho emocional para com o work engagement, bem como para com a identidade ocupacional. Estes resultados são discutidos e pistas para investigações futuras são propostas, dada a riqueza do tema.

Palavras-chave: Emotional labor, work engagement, identidade ocupacional, polícias, PSP, intervenção/prevenção

Nota: A presente dissertação seguiu esta formatação, tendo em conta que vai ser submetida para a revista *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*

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Emotional labor, occupational identity and work engagement in Portuguese police officers

Starting from emotional labor theory, we aim to study the relationships between the dimensions of emotional labor (requirements and strategies), work engagement and occupational identity in police. Therefore, we intend to analyze the possible effects of emotional labor both on work engagement and occupational identity, as well as ways of prevention and/or mitigation of the effects of these relationships. A sample of 924 professionals of the Public Security Police (PSP) in Portugal answered a set of questionnaires: Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), Emotion Work Requirements Scale (EWRS) (Best et al., 1997), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b) e Social Identity Scale (SIS) (Cameron, 2004). The data obtained were the target of a statistical analysis, using, namely, correlation and multiple linear regression. Overall, the results include the existence of a relationship between emotional demands (i.e., suppression of negative emotions and expression of positive emotions) and strategies (i.e., deep and surface acting) of emotional labor towards work engagement, as well as occupational identity. These results are discussed and, clues to future investigations are proposed, given the richness of the theme.

Keywords: Emotional labor, work engagement, occupational identity, police officers, PSP, intervention/prevention

Main text introduction

The development of society has increased the service work or public service (Hwang et al., 2020; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugliesi, 1999; Singh & Glavin, 2017), which implies interactions between employees (i.e., service providers) and clients (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Martin, 1999; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; van Gelderen et al., 2011, 2017). Across the various service work (Lan et al., 2020; Schaible & Six, 2016), police work aims to ensure public safety 24/7 (Martin, 1999; van Gelderen et al., 2017), that is, keep the law (e.g., preventing crime, maintaining peace and public order) (Martin, 1999; Van Maanen, 2010), and, at the same time, help people (e.g., by providing services to citizens)

(Emeriau-Farges et al., 2019; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016). Thus, "police work is multifaceted, stressful, difficult and dangerous. Moreover, constant confrontation with the human face of our country's most severe social problems almost inevitably engenders in some officers such a dim view of the public they are supposed to serve that they eschew completely the role of 'servant' for that of 'warrior" (Americaan Civil Liberties Union, as cited in Daus & Brown, 2012, p. 306). It will therefore go beyond street surveillance, the arrest of suspects, the issuance of traffic tickets or the response to citizens' alerts (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Daus & Brown, 2012; Martin, 1999; van Gelderen et al., 2007; Van Maanen, 2010). Furthermore, in addition to bravery and physical strength, police work requires communication and human relations skills (Martin, 1999). It should be noted that, compared to the various public service, police work is the most emotionally demanding (Choi & Guy, 2020; Hwang et al., 2020; Kale & Gedik, 2020; Martin, 1999), due not only to the diversity of daily interpersonal interactions (Adams & Buck, 2010; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Daus & Brown, 2012; Richardsen et al., 2006; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2017), but also to the daily confrontation with situations of high risk and danger, uncertainty, stress (Hwang et al., 2020; Van Maanen, 2010) and unpredictability (Lan et al., 2020). Thus, it is marked by daily confrontation with emotionally demanding interpersonal interactions with people at their worst (Martin, 1999), such as suspects and victims of crime, aggressive or drunken civilians, people in need (Adams & Buck, 2010; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Brunetto et al., 2014; Daus & Brown, 2012; Lennie et al., 2020; Martin, 1999; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2014). It should be noted that, situations like these require the performance of emotional labor (Martin, 1999; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Ward et al., 2020), that involves the use of strategies to adjust the desired emotional expression according to the ongoing interactions (Pugliesi, 1999). Thus, it may have effects on both work engagement (Basinska & Dåderman, 2019; van Gelderen et al., 2017) and occupational identity (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Pugliesi, 1999; Schaible, 2006; van Gelderen et al., 2014). Accordingly, emotional labor may put police officers at risk for their physical and mental health (Hwang et al., 2020; Kale & Gedik, 2020). So, we question the relationships that can be established between the emotional labor dimensions (demands and strategies) and work engagement and occupational identity in the Portuguese Police. Then, in the present study, we intend to: 1) identify the emotional labor demands required in police work at the level of interaction with target groups; 2) test the prediction of emotional labor dimensions (demands and

strategies) on work engagement and occupational identity. Although there are several studies conducted on emotional labor in the police and law enforcement context (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Daus & Brown, 2012; Kwak et al., 2018; Lennie et al., 2020; Martin, 1999; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Schaible & Gecas, 2010; Schaible & Six, 2016; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2011, 2017), there are few that relate the concept to work engagement (van Gelderen et al., 2014; Yoo & Arnold, 2014) and occupational identity (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Schaible, 2006).

Theoretical background

Emotional labor

Police work, to be effective, requires the emotional control of police officers (Martin, 1999) during their interactions with the public (Daus & Brown, 2012; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2014, 2017). So, the goal is to maintain a high level of professionalism (Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Schaible & Six, 2016; van Gelderen et al., 2017), demarcated by facial and physical expression of neutrality (Kale & Gedik, 2020), consistency and control (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Schaible & Six, 2016). Thus, Police officers are compelled to regulate emotions, performing daily emotional labor (Martin, 1999; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Ward et al., 2020), which is a complex construct (Blau et al., 2010). It was coined by Hochschild (1983), being "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7). However, at the level of emotional labor, we should take into account aspects such as frequency, duration, intensity and variety of emotional displays (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Police officers should be able to quickly change their emotional expressions (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Grandey, 2000; Guy et al., 2008; Martin, 1999; Morris & Feldman, 1996; van Gelderen et al., 2011, 2017), as they must manifest: negative emotions (e.g., anger) to deal with situations of aggression, conflict and manipulation; positive emotions (e.g., sympathy) in situations that require some compassion (e.g., victims of crime or violence, death, illness) (Bakker & Heuven, 2006); and neutrality to maintain order and professionalism (van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2011, 2014, 2017; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016). Likewise, it should be noted that emotional labor can be conceptualized according two lenses: job-focused emotional labor (i.e., occupational emotional requirements) and employee-focused emotional labor (i.e.,

managing emotions to cope with occupational requirements) (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Associated with job-focused emotional labor are the display rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), that "are socially learned (…) and prescribe different procedures for the management of affect displays in various social settings, roles, etc." (Ekman & Friesen, 1969, p. 75). Accordingly, these rules consider the characteristics of both the worker and those who are present when evoking, as well as the context in which it occurs (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). However, display rules can be both explicit or implicit (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; van Gelderen et al., 2007; Zapf, 2002), depending on contextual requirements (Daus & Brown, 2012; Schaible & Six, 2016) or a particular situation (Singh & Glavin, 2017). These rules may cause some constraints on individuals' emotional expression, affecting them negatively, because they can "make employees feel like they cannot be themselves or respond to situations in a natural way." (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003, p. 951).

The employee-focused emotional labor indicates the efforts of managing and displaying emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugliesi, 1999). In the case of police work, individuals may have to suppress felt emotions (e.g., anger) or display unfelt emotions (e.g., sadness) (Hochschild, 1983; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; van Gelderen et al., 2011, 2014, 2017). To do this, they select the appropriate emotional displays (Schaible & Six, 2016) to create or alter the desired emotional expression according to ongoing interactions (Pugliesi, 1999). Organizational display rules lead police officers to perform emotional labor, resorting to strategies such as surface or deep acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2011, 2014, 2017; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016). Surface acting concerns the representation of feelings, which individuals mask how they really feel (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Individuals pretend unexperienced emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), that is, they simulate emotions that are not felt in reality by prudently presenting verbal and nonverbal cues (e.g., facial expression, gestures, tone of voice) (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Martin, 1999). However, the expressed emotion is different from the felt emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), and emotional dissonance may emerge (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). This

phenomenon understands the stress arising from the difference between the emotions actually felt and those feigned (Hochschild, 1983). Deep acting comes naturally from training, through which people spontaneously express a real feeling, which had previously been self-induced (Hochschild, 1983), i.e., the control of internal thoughts and feelings in compliance with display rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Individuals can either directly encourage the intended feeling (Grandey, 2000) as they can use a trained imagination (Hochschild, 1983). Therefore, deep acting has the indirect effect of behavior change, going beyond impression management and behavior manipulation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). It should be noted that older police officers are more likely to use deep acting strategies while younger ones tend to resort to surface acting strategies (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016).

Police officers are well aware of the physical dangers to which they are subjected, but are less aware of both the psychological risks and the consequences on their mental health (Au et al., 2019). In this sense, emotional labor can be beneficial (Hochschild, 1983), however, it may also have adverse consequences (Grandey, 2000), being seen as a double-edged sword (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Regarding benefits, emotional labor can facilitate self-expression, personal well-being and a sense that work is significant (i.e., attribution of meaning to work) (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), thus leading to work engagement (Guy et al., 2019). Although workers may feel emotionally defeated, they feel at the same time accomplished (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016) and proud of their work (Choi & Guy, 2020). Similarly, it can be understood as self-enhancer when workers control their emotional management (Pugliesi, 1999). Likewise, police officers can benefit from a greater sense of personal achievement due to the use of tactics that imply the expression of negative emotions (Schaible & Six, 2016). Also, at costumer service performance, emotional labor can be beneficial (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Customers can be seen as ways to regulate workers' emotions for positive interactions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000). Therefore, positive emotional expressions can increase self-efficacy (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016) and improve worker performance (Grandey, 2000). Finally, emotional labor, specifically deep acting, can be beneficial in terms of job satisfaction (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). Police officers who have positive emotions tend to experience grater job satisfaction (Pugliesi, 1999; Siu et al., 2015). Accordingly, "When workers strongly identify with the occupational role or organizational imperatives regarding emotion

management, performance of emotional labor that produces desired outcomes could increase job satisfaction." (Pugliesi, 1999, p. 131).

Nevertheless, the use of surface and deep acting strategies can be harmful to individuals (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Martin, 1999). As mentioned above, as a result of surface acting, emotional dissonance can emerge (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Schaible & Gecas, 2010; van Gelderen et al., 2011, 2017), which presupposes a higher energy expenditure (van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2014), thus depleting individual energy resources (Bakker & Heuven, 2006). This may prevent the acquisition of other energy-related resources (van Gelderen et al., 2007), stimulating higher tension levels (van Gelderen et al., 2014, 2017). However, a lower energy level can lead to a more negative affective state (van Gelderen et al., 2017). Emotional dissonance can cause emotional exhaustion (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; van Gelderen et al., 2011, 2014, 2017) and depersonalization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Schaible & Gecas, 2010; Schaible & Six, 2016; van Gelderen et al., 2007). It can also contribute to feelings of hypocrisy (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and inauthenticity (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2003; Lennie et al., 2020; Pugliesi, 1999; Singh & Glavin, 2017), which can have outcomes such as job dissatisfaction (Hochschild, 1983; Schaible & Six, 2016), alienation (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Sommerfeldt & Kent, 2020), cynicism (Schaible, 2006) and burnout (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Daus & Brown, 2012; Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Grandey, 2000; Hwang et al., 2020; Kwak et al., 2018; Lennie et al., 2020; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Schaible & Gecas, 2010; Schaible & Six, 2016; van Gelderen et al., 2007, 2014, 2017). It should be noted that burnout is one of the most prevalent medical conditions among police officers (Adams & Buck, 2010; Mastracci & Adams, 2020) that is characterized by three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, which concerns the exhaustion of emotional resources due to work overloads; depersonalization, that is, a negative, cold or detached response, which may include loss of optimism; and reduced personal accomplishment, which is allusive to the reduction of the sense of self-efficacy at work, in which individuals manifest inability to cope with work requirements, which may occur due to lack of social support and opportunities for professional development (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Likewise, due to emotional dissonance, on days marked by high emotional demands, police officers may experience reduced self-esteem (Kwak et al., 2018; Morris &

Feldman, 1996; Sommerfeldt & Kent, 2020; van Gelderen et al., 2017), anxiety (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Lennie et al., 2020) or depression (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Daus & Brown, 2012; Hochschild, 1983; Hwang et al., 2020). Regarding deep acting strategies, they can lead to self-alienation, in which the workers damage their sense of self and authenticity (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). As a result, police officers can stimulate significantly higher levels of depersonalization, as well as exacerbated levels of emotional exhaustion (Schaible & Gecas, 2010; Schaible & Six, 2016). Job satisfaction, in addition to the benefit, can also be considered as a consequence of the individuals' emotional labor, being reduced (Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Moreover, at the customer service there may be consequences, when there are physical and/or resource limitations, greater customer flow, as well as contradictory and/or ambiguous costumer requirements (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Finally, withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, leaving the work floor, turnover) also arise as a result of long-term emotional labor (Grandey, 2000).

Work engagement

Another phenomenon that, in recent years, has been focused is the work engagement, which is considered as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. (…) [it] refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior." (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Vigor occurs when individuals have high levels of mental resilience and energy throughout their work, as well as a willingness to strive and persist in it, even in the presence of difficulties (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Dedication arises when individuals manifest a sense of meaning, enthusiasm, pride, inspiration and challenge in carrying out their work (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Finally, absorption occurs when individuals are so focused and involved in their work that time passes quickly, without noticing, as well as manifesting difficulty in separating themselves from work (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). It should be noted that work engagement is part of a continuum, which ends in work disengagement, that is, "the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances." (Khan, 1990, p. 694). In a study with police

recruits, Kaiseler et al. (2014) found that the use of behavioral disengagement, together with more active coping strategies predicted higher levels in all dimensions of work engagement (i.e., absorption, vigor and dedication).

A concept that is strongly associated with work engagement is burnout (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Basinska & Dåderman, 2019; Kanste, 2011; Lennie et al., 2020; Upadyaya et al., 2016; Yoo & Arnold, 2014), being seen as opposites (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Work engagement is a positive aspect, related to well-being, while burnout is negative one, being harmful (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Burnout is characterized by the combination of exhaustion (i.e., low activation) and cynicism (i.e., low identification), while work engagement is characterized by vigor (i.e., high activation) and dedication (i.e., high identification) (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Exhaustion and cynicism (burnout dimensions) are directly opposed to vigor and dedication (work engagement dimensions), respectively (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Likewise, work engagement encompasses absorption, while burnout includes reduced professional efficacy (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Nevertheless, unlike the previous two elements, absorption and low professional efficacy are conceptually distinct aspects, although they are not in an implicit continuum (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Different levels of burnout and work engagement may indicate different degrees of investment, protection and withdrawal of personal resources in the work process (Basinska & Dåderman, 2019). Although they can be seen as opposites, the absence of burnout does not necessarily imply the presence of work engagement and vice versa (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Professional effectiveness seems to be a work engagement component (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a). Compared to non-engaged workers, engaged employees: experience more active and positive emotions, are more receptive to new experiences and to discovering new lines of thought or action, and may exhibit proactive behavior as well as express greater interest in learning something new (Bakker et al., 2014). Therefore, engaged employees achieve better performance (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010), because: they experience positive emotions, which help in searching for new ideas and constructing resources; they have better health, thus being able to devote all their energy to work; they seek feedback and support to create new resources; and they have the ability

to transmit their involvement to colleagues, improving the team's performance (Bakker, 2009).

Work engagement is an important indicator of well-being at work, although it has not been widely studied as a positive result of emotional labor (van Gelderen et al., 2014). Suppression or deliberate inhibition of emotions can positively affect engagement at the end of a working day, regardless of whether the expressed emotions are falsified (van Gelderen et al., 2014). It can be beneficial for the daily well-being of police officers, since it can be a beacon, which helps in task execution (van Gelderen et al., 2014). Furthermore, suppression or deliberate inhibition of emotions may be positively related to job performance (van Gelderen et al., 2014). Emotional labor is positively related to daily work engagement (van Gelderen et al., 2014). A high level of work engagement at the beginning of the shift can promote increased in both energy and resource benefits, thereby improving work engagement at shift end (van Gelderen et al., 2014, 2017). Additionally, deep acting strategies relate to lower levels of work engagement, when emotional recognition capacity was reduced (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). However, surface acting strategies are related to higher levels of work engagement, when emotional recognition capacity was high (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). It should be noted that police officers are highly likely to show exhaustion, while high engagement is expected (Basinska & Dåderman, 2019). Although the police profession is stressful, police officers have relatively high levels of work engagement (Brunetto et al., 2014; Richardsen et al., 2006).

Considering the previous emotional labor (demands and strategies) and work engagement research presented above, we formulated the following sets of hypotheses:

H1a: The demands of the expression of positive emotions predict positively work engagement.
H1b: The demands of suppressing negative emotions predict negatively work engagement.
H1c: The demands of great intensity and emotional variability predict negatively work engagement.
H2a: The deep acting strategies predict positively work engagement.
H2b: The surface acting strategies predict negatively work engagement.

Occupational identity

Inherent in the human condition is the need to belong to a larger group (Ashforth et al., 2008; Hoggett et al., 2014). Over the past 30 years, the social identity perspective has played an important role in research in both group behavior and intergroup relationships (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017). The social identity construct consists of "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1974, p. 69). Therefore, Cameron (2004) proposed a multidimensional model of social identity, composed by three dimensions, namely cognitive centrality, ingroup affect and ingroup ties. Centrality concerns the cognitive prominence of the members of a group, i.e., the subjective importance of the group for each element of the group (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017). It is operationalized through the frequency with which the group arises in its members' thoughts and the group' subjective importance to self-definition (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017). Ingroup affect is allusive to the evaluative facet of social identity, encompassing the specific emotions arising from the group membership: being happy or regretful (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017). Finally, ingroup ties are related to the psychological bonds that attach to the group, i.e., the perception of similarity and connection with other group members (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017).

Arising from social identity, emerges the concept of occupational identity (Bradford, 2014; Hoggett et al., 2014; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017), also known as vocational, work, professional, or career identity (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). It is like badges used by the police (or "presentation cards"), which locate individuals in an organization, as well as define them at the level of their profession (Ashforth et al., 2008). Occupational identity is characterized by continuity and change, and is shaped and composed by the transformation of the interpersonal relationships around which it takes place (Brown et al., 2007). Although occupational identity doesn't arise from nothing, it is constructed over time, through the occurrence of "a give-and-take process between the self and others." (Van Maanen, 2010, p. 122), being formed through the interaction between social, personal and situational identities (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011; Van Maanen, 2010). Additionally, it is processed through cognitive, affective and behavioral

mechanisms (Machado, 2003; Sluss & Ashforth, 2008). Individuals engage in an organizational structure, form a collective mentality, where they assimilate and conform to behavioral rules and norms, as well as affective ties with people who coexist in it (Machado, 2003; Sluss & Ashforth, 2008). Occupational identity formation is relevant to verify how the individuals are cognitively and actively linked to their professional group (Ashforth et al., 2008; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017; Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). Occupational identity therefore promotes a positive self-esteem (Machado, 2003). Then, we can affirm that occupational identity is an essential component of the individual's global identity (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011).

In the case of police work, the organization itself creates a strong sense of identity among its members (Hoggett et al., 2014; Workman-Stark, 2017). Police identity (i.e., police occupational identity) can be described by an existing "blue identity" (Violanti & Samuels, 2007), in which there is a vast and complex range of activities in the fight against crime (Dick & Cassell, 2004; Workman-Stark, 2017). Accordingly, "Being a police officer forms a fundamental part of an individual's self-concept, therefore what happens to the police is of great importance to them" (Hoggett et al., 2014, p. 6). What happens to a police officer can impact (both positively and negatively) with all police officers, since "being a police officer is a fundamental part of their self-concept (who they are) and they perceive the fate of the police as being that of their own." (Hoggett et al., 2014, p. 33). It should be noted that even the same individual may have more or less distinct identities with the occupation, department or task force (Ashforth et al., 2008). Within the police profession, individuals can identify more with the work they perform, the division, station or post they integrate, and/or the organization in general (Workman-Stark, 2017). If police identity is threatened or altered, as a result, normative rules of police behavior may be changed (Hoggett et al., 2014).

Police identity encompasses a sense of belonging, which captures members' value and improves their self-esteem (Bradford, 2014). A strong occupational identity is a good predictor of emotional health and life satisfaction (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). There is also a positive relationship between professional identity and psychosocial functioning (Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). Similarly, high organizational identification seems to be a precursor to personal achievement, providing higher levels of work engagement (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). Moreover, the benefits of police identity compensate any

harmful effects arising from disagreements between important reference groups (Schaible, 2006). However, there are potential emotional risks arising from the fundamental discrepancy in occupational identity (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Police work constitutes "a visible occupation and represents an identity that officers cannot easily turn off." (Workman-Stark, 2017, p. 51). Similarly, traditional policing can be seen as a promoter of a sense of elitism and isolation from the general public (Schaible, 2006). Also, at the level of self-esteem there is a potential emotional risk, in which occupational identity can be emotionally weakened when someone is forced to separate from the group (e.g., layoff, transfer, retirement) or when the group underperforms or becomes socially stigmatized (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Occupational identity is related to emotional labor (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Pugliesi, 1999; Schaible, 2006; van Gelderen et al., 2014). The attempt to align felt emotions with those expressed, through deep acting, can strengthen individuals' identification with their work role (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Correspondingly, strong police identity presupposes greater energy investment in deep acting strategies (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). Accordingly, "individuals who are highly identified with their work roles are more likely to perform deep acting than surface acting." (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003, p. 374). Similarly, police officers tend to develop strong police identities, which can be an aggravating factor of emotional dissonance, because police officers' self-identification conflicts with imposed expectations (Schaible, 2006). Therefore, police officers are more or less likely to feel emotional dissonance, depending on how central their occupational identity is and how coherent they are with their job duties (Schaible, 2006).

After verifying the literature on emotional labor (demands and strategies) and occupational identity, as set out above, we formulated the following sets of hypotheses:

H3a: The demands of the expression of positive emotions predict positively occupational identity.

H3b: The demands of suppressing negative emotions predict negatively occupational identity.

H3c: The demands of great intensity and emotional variability predict negatively occupational identity.

H4a: The deep acting strategies predict positively occupational identity.

H4b: The surface acting strategies predict negatively occupational identity.

Method

Participants and procedures

The sample was composed by 924 members of the Public Security Police (PSP) in Portugal, who participated in the study voluntarily. This law enforcement has approximately 19745 elements (Sistema de Segurança Interna, 2020). However, this data relates to 2019, as no more recent report has yet been published. The participants' mean age was 45.69 years (*SD* = 8.493), being 647 police officers (*M* age = 45.30 years; *SD* = 8.241), 173 chiefs (*M* age = 49.25 years; *SD* = 6.773) and 104 officials (*M* age = 42.18 years; *SD* = 10.452). Although the sample was formed mostly by men (*N* = 822, 89.0%), it also included women (*N* = 96, 10.4%) and, the remaining, people with another gender.

To achieve the objectives of this research, we collect data using self-response questionnaires (Hill & Hill, 2012). However, previous work was necessary to adapt the items of the instruments used to European Portuguese. Although the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b) was already translated and adapted for the Portuguese population, there was also a need to translate and adapt the other scales used for European Portuguese, that is, Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), Emotion Work Requirements Scale (EWRS) (Best et al., 1997) and Social Identity Scale (SIS) (Cameron, 2004). To do this, we considered the steps recommended by Hill and Hill (2012): a) the translation of the scales from Brazilian Portuguese to European Portuguese, b) back-translation of the items by an expert in the original language – in our case Brazilian Portuguese, c) comparison of the two versions and discussion of some disparities. It should be noted that this work was carried out by a committee of experts (EC), composed of five professionals, two of them from psychology (with at least 5 years' research experience) and one is a PSP member, having used the think aloud protocol.

Then, according to Beaton et al. (2000), we pre-test the instruments used, by applying the pre-final version of the scales in a small sample of police officers (i.e., our target population). These individuals filled out the questionnaires and were then interviewed, aiming to explore the meaning of the items and the answers (Beaton et al., 2000). We thus guarantee "that the adapted version is still retaining its equivalence in an applied situation" (Beaton et al., 2000, p. 3189). Nevertheless, despite this step provides important information on the interpretation of the items present in the scales, it does not

refer to essential processes (e.g., validity, reliability) for a well-achieved cross-cultural adaptation (Beaton et al., 2000). It should be noted that it is possible to carry out some tests of validity and reliability at this step (Beaton et al., 2000), but, we did not make them, because the sample size is too small.

Similarly, we prepared a project summary where we explained both the objectives and benefits of the study in order to obtain approval from the National Direction of PSP. We also converted the scales used into a link on the LimeSurvey Platform, which was shared with PSP, to verify its security in terms of anonymity and confidentiality. The data collection phase began after obtaining the PSP's approval for the security of the link to access the scales. Contact with the participants was made online, through the PSP's intranet, since there was internal disclosure of the link (to access the scales). This phase fulfilled the schedule. Subsequently, statistical analyses were performed for this stage, which will be described later. It should also be noted that the present study complies with the basic ethical principles for the responsible conduct of research involving people. Informed consent was requested from all participants, and authorization was obtained from the authors of the scales, to carry out the cultural adaptation and validation of the scale in the Portuguese context of Portugal.

Measures

In the present study, we used: *Emotional Labour Scale* (ELS) (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), translated and adapted into Brazilian Portuguese by Alves (2015); *Emotion Work Requirements Scale* (EWRS) (Best et al., 1997), translated and adapted into Brazilian Portuguese by Alves (2015); *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), translated and adapted for European Portuguese by Simães and Gomes (2012), research version; and *Social Identity Scale* (Cameron, 2004), translated and adapted version for Brazilian Portuguese by Nascimento and de Souza (2017), having been named the *Three-Factor Scale of Social Identity* (TSSI). Below we present the instruments in more detail. It should be noted that, to characterize the sample, we added a set of sociodemographic issues, such as: gender, age, marital status, career, region of activity, type of service (i.e., external/internal), and education level.

Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) measures not only emotional labor strategies (i.e., deep and surface acting) as distinct dimensions, but also emotion related occupational requirements (i.e., the duration of interactions, frequency,

intensity, and diversity of emotional display). The scale contains simple and neutral items, being brief in its application (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). In the present study, we used the reduced version by Alves (2015), adapted to the military police context. It contains only seven items (compared to the 15 of the original scale), and starts from the following question "In my work as a police officer, how often...". The items are answered on a 5-point Likert scale: 1- never; 2- rarely; 3- sometimes; 4- many times; 5- always (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

Emotion work requirements scale (EWRS) measures the "employee perceptions of the requirements to express positive emotions and suppress negative emotions as part of one's work role." (Best et al., as cited in Brotheridge & Lee, 2003, p. 366). It aims to measure the extent to which workers are forced to camouflage their emotions in the course of their work (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Therefore, since it implies the concealment of real emotions, the EWRS may be associated with the surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). As with the previous scale, for this study we adapted the scale to the military police context by Alves (2015). It includes six items, and has as its starting question "In my day-to-day work as police, how often I am asked or required...". Therefore, in each question, the respondents specify their answer to: a) other police officers; b) superiors; (c) "criminals" and "offenders"; and d) "victims". Like the previous one, items are answered on a 5-point Likert scale: 1- never; 2- rarely; 3- sometimes; 4- many times; 5- always (Alves, 2015).

Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b) constitutes a self-report questionnaire, which aims to measure the three dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication and absorption. It has been widely translated into several languages and used in investigations with different professional groups (e.g. police, nurses, doctors, teachers, social workers) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b; Simães & Gomes, 2012). There are two versions of the scale: the full version (seventeen items) and the reduced version (nine items) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004b; Simães & Gomes, 2012). In the present study we used the full version of the scale (i.e., 17 items), translated and adapted to the European Portuguese by Simães and Gomes (2012), which is a research version. Items are answered on a 7-point Likert scale: 0- never; 1- almost never (few times a year or less); 2- rarely (once a month or less); 3-

sometimes (sometimes a month or less); 4- often (once a week); 5- very often (a few times a week); 6- always (every day) (Simães & Gomes, 2012).

Social Identity Scale (Cameron, 2004), or more recently referred as a *Three-Factor Scale of Social Identity* (TSSI) (Nascimento & de Souza, 2017), measures the three dimensions of the social identity construct: centrality, ingroup affect and ingroup ties (Cameron, 2004; Nascimento & de Souza, 2017). In the present study, we used the version adapted to the professional context of Nascimento and de Souza (2017), that reflects the subjects' professional identity. It is composed by nine items, distributed by the three dimensions of the construct, which are answered on a 5-point Likert scale: 1- totally disagree; 2- I moderately disagree; 3- neither agree nor disagree; 4- agree; 5- totally agree (Nascimento & de Souza, 2017).

Strategy of analyses

We performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), to validate all the scales, using *Analysis of Moment Structures program* (AMOS, version 25.0). To ensure that each item represented the construct for the factor, we defined the factor load (ranging from 0 to 1) above .40. In order to test the hypotheses under study, we also performed correlation and multiple linear regression using the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software* (SPSS, version 25.0). To characterize the sample, we used descriptive statistics (i.e., measures of central tendency, dispersion and frequency). Therefore, in the SPSS software, we checked the characteristics of the distribution and univariate normality, through the values of skewness and kurtosis of each item. According to Mâroco (2014), there was no violation of the normal distribution assumption, given that skewness < 2 and kurtosis < 7.

Results

At the level of CFA analyses, according to Mâroco (2010): the ratio between χ^2/df has a sum of adjustment for values between 2 and 5, and a good adjustment for values between 1 and 2; RMSEA has an acceptable adjustment for values between .05 and .10, and very good adjustment for values below .05; GFI, CFI and NFI have a sum value between .80 and .90, a good adjustment for values between .90 and .95, and a very good adjustment for values greater than .95. Kline (2016) also states that the TLI has a good adjustment

for values equal to or greater than .90. It should be noted that, in the RMSEA analysis, we must also consider the confidence interval, which in AMOS is given to 90% (Steiger, as cited in Byrne, 2016), and the approximation test of adjustment, which should not have statistical significance (i.e., $p > .05$) (Byrne, 2016). The scales used present good adjustment rates according to the criteria mentioned above. *Emotional Labour Scale* (ELS): χ^2/df = 8.93; RMSEA = .09; GFI = .97; CFI = .94 e NFI = .94. *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES): χ^2/df = 10.09; RMSEA = .10; GFI = .87; CFI = .94 e NFI = .93. However, it was necessary to exclude item 16 (e16), as it saturated the factor, with a value of .27 (which is less than .40) Similarly, we performed four covariates measurement errors. *Social Identity Scale* (SIS): χ^2/df = 4.51; RMSEA = .06; GFI = .98; CFI = .98 e NFI = .97. In the case of *Emotion Work Requirements Scale* (EWRS), we considered the assumption that the police, depending on the target of interaction, react differently. So, we performed the CFA for each interaction group - *other police officers*: χ^2/df = 3.38; RMSEA = .05; GFI = .99; CFI = .99 e NFI = .98; *superior*: χ^2/df = 3.93; RMSEA = .06; GFI = .99; CFI = .99 e NFI = .98; *victims*: χ^2/df = 5.57; RMSEA = .07; GFI = .98; CFI = .98 e NFI = .98; *criminals*: χ^2/df = 8.17; RMSEA = .09; GFI = .98; CFI = .97 e NFI = .96. It is also important to verify the internal consistency (or reliability) of the scales (Mâroco, 2010), thus resorting Cronbach's alpha, whose values range from 0 to 1 (Mâroco & Garcia-Marques, 2006). According to Murphy and Davidsholder (as cited in Peterson, 1994), we consider that reliability unacceptable when values are less than .60, low to .70 values, moderate to high for values between .80 and .90, and high when values are greater than .90. So, all the dimensions involved in the study, of all the scales used, present a Cronbach's alpha, ranging from .68 to .93.

Work engagement

The results obtained through correlation analysis are presented in Table 1. The surface acting variable has a moderate Pearson coefficient ($r = -.31$, $p < .01$), according to the typology proposed by Cohen (1988). The PEE ($r = .22$, $p < .01$) and SNE variables ($r = -.10$, $p < .01$) have a small Pearson coefficient (Cohen, 1988). Finally, intensity and variety demands ($r = .04$, $p \geq .05$) and deep acting variables ($r = .06$, $p \geq .05$) have a null Pearson coefficient.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations and, correlations between independent variables and work engagement.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Work engagement	3.901	1.34	—					
2. PEE	3.65	.74	.22[**]	—				
3. SNE	3.19	.95	-.10[**]	.45[**]	—			
4. Intensity and variety	2.87	.83	-.04	.11[**]	.16[**]	—		
5. Deep acting	3.30	.92	.06	.28[**]	.27[**]	.26[**]	—	
6. Surface acting	3.24	.95	-.31[**]	.12[**]	.45[**]	.22[**]	.24[**]	—

Notes: PEE – Positive emotion expression; SNE – Suppression of negative emotions. $N = 924$.
$^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Multiple regression analysis indicates that 17.2% of the work engagement is predicted by emotional labor, which we explain below. Regarding emotional labor demands: positive emotion expression is positively related to work engagement ($\beta = .510$, $p < .05$) and negative emotion suppression has an inverse relationship with work engagement ($\beta = -.146$, $p < .05$). Thus, the results suggest that the more the police officers express positive emotions, the greater their work engagement. On the other hand, the more police officers suppress negative emotions, the lower their work engagement. However, intensity and variety demands are not related to work engagement. Regarding emotional labor strategies: deep acting is related to work engagement ($\beta = .130$, $p < .05$) and surface acting has an inverse relationship with it ($\beta = -.443$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the results suggest that the more the police officers internalize their displayed emotions, the higher their work engagement. However, when they fake their expressed emotions, they tend to manifest less work engagement. Briefly, our results support hypotheses H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b, while H1c was not corroborated.

Occupational identity

The results obtained through correlation analysis can be found in Table 2. Except for the SNE variable, whose Pearson coefficient is null (Cohen, 1988), all other variables have a small Pearson coefficient (Cohen, 1988): PEE ($r = .13$, $p < .01$), intensity and variety demands ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), deep acting ($r = .23$, $p < .01$) and surface acting ($r = .12$, $p < .01$).

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and, correlations between independent variables and occupational identity.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Occupational identity	3.23	.45	—					
2. PEE	3.65	.74	.13**	—				
3. SNE	3.19	.95	.08*	.45**	—			
4. Intensity and variety	2.87	.83	.25**	.11**	.16**	—		
5. Deep acting	3.30	.92	.23**	.28**	.27**	.26**	—	
6. Surface acting	3.24	.95	.12**	.12**	.45**	.22**	.24**	—

Notes: PEE – positive emotion expression; SNE – Suppression of negative emotions. $N = 924$. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Multiple regression analysis indicates that 9.1% of occupational identity is predicted by emotional labor. Regarding emotional labor demands, both PEE ($\beta = .053$, $p < .05$), and the intensity and variety demands ($\beta = .103$, $p < .05$) are related to occupational identity. These results suggest that the more the police express positive emotions, the greater their occupational identity. Likewise, the more intense and diverse the emotions expressed by the police officers, the greater their occupational identity. However, SNE requirements are not related to occupational identity. At the level of emotional labor strategies, only deep acting is related to occupational identity ($\beta = .076$, $p < .05$). The results suggest that the greater the internalization of emotions to be expressed, the greater the identity to the profession. However, surface acting strategies were not related to occupational identity. Briefly, although our results support the hypotheses H1a and H2a, the hypotheses H1b, H1c and H2b were not supported.

Discussion

Through the present research, we intend to evaluate the relationships between the demands and emotional labor strategies in both work engagement and occupational identity of Policemen from Portuguese Security Police. Regarding work engagement, the results obtained are mostly consistent with past research (e.g., Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; van Gelderen et al., 2014). The results of the present study suggest that the suppression of negative emotions may negatively affect work engagement, not consistent to previous research. Suppression of negative

emotions can positively affect work engagement (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; van Gelderen et al., 2014). Therefore, "police officers who have to suppress negative emotions (e.g., anger, fear) to adequately deal with manipulation and aggression may feel positive emotions (e.g., pride, joy)" (Bakker & Heuven, 2006, p. 436). The results of the present study also suggest that expressing positive emotions can promote work engagement, being consistent with previous research (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Kwak et al., 2018). Police officers who express positive emotions are increasing their interest in their work, as well as promoting a sense of professional accomplishment (Kwak et al., 2018). However, it should be noted that both suppression of negative emotions and expression of positive emotions are inherent to police work (van Gelderen et al., 2007). The results of our study suggest that emotional demands of intensity and variety are not related to work engagement, not being in line with past research, although it is ambiguous (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Kwak et al., 2018; Morris & Feldman, 1996). On the one hand, the intensity and variety of emotions can facilitate burnout, as it increases police cynicism (Kwak et al., 2018). Police who express various emotions tend to distance themselves from the public or become disinterested in their work (Kwak et al., 2018). On the other hand, the intensity and variety of emotions can be positively related to personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). It should be noted that "police officers need to master the art of constantly switching between this human and disciplinary emotional expression." (Bakker & Heuven, 2006, p. 426).

At the level of the strategies used, the results suggest that deep acting can promote work engagement, being congruent with previous literature (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; van Gelderen et al., 2017; von Gilsa et al., 2014). Therefore, "deep acting is considered to be the better regulation strategy because it requires the displayed emotions actually to be felt and thus the employee to be authentic." (von Gilsa et al., 2014, p. 893). The solution to cope with the emotional labor demands, may be in deep acting strategies (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Consequently, these strategies can help police officers develop skills to help citizens effectively, as well as to provide a quality service (van Gelderen et al., 2017). On the other hand, the results suggest that surface acting strategies used by police may reduce work engagement, which is consistent with the past research (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Mastracci & Adams, 2020; Öngöre, 2020). When police officers use surface acting strategies, they can't anticipate their own reactions (Mastracci & Adams, 2020), thus exerting greater effort to fake emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002),

which can cause emotional exhaustion (Öngöre, 2020). Likewise, surface acting contributes to reduced sense of personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). It should be noted that both emotional exhaustion and the sense of personal accomplishment represent two dimensions of burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998), which is regarded as opposed to work engagement (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004a).

About occupational identity, the results obtained suggest relationships with some of the dimensions of emotional labor (i.e., PEE, intensity and variety demands, and deep acting). It should be noted that this topic needs more research, because the current is scarce. The results of our study suggest a relationship between emotional demands of intensity and variety and occupational identity. In this sense, an emotional is not easy to fake, demanding a lot of effort, which is why "work roles requiring display of intense emotions entail more deep acting and thus greater effort on the part of role occupants" (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 990). The results of our study suggest that deep acting strategies are related to occupational identity, consistent with previous research. The use of these strategies can strengthen occupational identity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Humphrey et al., 2015). Therefore, an attempt "to align one's feelings with displayed emotions through deep acting serves to reinforce identification with one's work role." (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003, pp. 373–374). Likewise, when police officers manifest a high identity with the department to which they belong, they tend to exercise more deep acting (Bhowmick & Mulla, 2016). The results we have reached suggest that there is no relationship between surface acting strategies and occupational identity. However, Brotheridge and Lee (2003) report a negative relationship, which is explained by distorting real feelings. In conclusion, "When people identify with their roles and have a good person-job fit, the use of deep acting and even surface acting may affirm and reinforce their sense of authenticity and role identity." (Humphrey et al., 2015, p. 764).

Research implications

The results obtained in the present study have some practical implications, aiming at mitigating the effects of emotional labor on both work engagement and occupational identity. And then, improving levels of well-being and job satisfaction.

First, we focus on what can be done at the individual level, i.e., what police officers can do to effectively regulate their emotions. In this way, they can use strategies

in terms of emotional resilience (Adams & Buck, 2010), to cope with negative automatic thoughts through positive emotions and cognitive flexibility (Lan et al., 2020), aiming for emotional well-being (Au et al., 2019). Likewise, regular physical exercise may be associated with emotional resilience, making individuals "more resistant to the emotional effects of acute stress" (Childs & de Wit, 2014, p. 5). It may also be beneficial to use mindfulness strategies, which have demonstrated positive effects on stress reduction (Eberth & Sedlmeier, 2012) and emotional management (de Vibe et al., 2017). These strategies reduce the experience of negative emotions (Bergman et al., 2016) and promote well-being (Eberth & Sedlmeier, 2012). It should be noted that the "Mindfulness may be defined as the skill to non-judgementally observe sensations, thoughts, emotions and the environment, while encouraging openness, curiosity and acceptance." (de Vibe et al., 2017, p. 11).

Secondly, we emphasize what the organization can do to manage the effects of emotional labor to help police officers effectively cope with their emotions. To do this, we highlight the role that Organizational Psychologist can perform in mitigating the effects of emotional labor both on work engagement and occupational identity. Human Resources Management (HRM) can play an essential role in processes such as recruitment and selection, socialization (Martin, 1999; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) and training (Schaible, 2006). At the level of recruitment and selection, the skills and abilities, of candidates to cope with conflicting situations should be considered (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Schaible & Gecas, 2010). All candidates should be carefully evaluated, being emotional stability an essential criterion, so that "individuals [can] learn the rules regarding the content, intensity, and variety of emotions demanded in performing their work role" (Martin, 1999, p. 113). Another aspect to consider is the candidates' self-efficacy, as it can attenuate the negative effects of any stressor and emotional dissonance-inducing event (Abraham, 1998). Likewise, HRM can consider candidates' emotional intelligence (Kwak et al., 2018), since when elevated, individuals tend to perform better some police tasks (e.g., negotiating with suspected criminals) (Brunetto et al., 2012).

At the level of socialization process, the newcomer police officers "learn the rules regarding the content, intensity, and variety of emotions demanded in performing their work role" (Martin, 1999, p. 113). The "war" stories transmitted in police academies, must be strengthened in this process, emphasizing teamwork, solidarity and perseverance,

as well as patience and acceptance to the pain (Martin, 1999). So, older police officers should share stories of their experience, guiding rookies about organizational display rules (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). At the level of emotional labor, explanations largely come through socialization experiences (Daus & Brown, 2012). It can be beneficial to conduct team building (Maslach et al., 2001) with newcomer police officers to strengthen their occupational identity (Van Maanen, 2010; Workman-Stark, 2017). Therefore, "Professional socialization requires the officer to develop appropriate skills in controlling affective responses to tragic or unpleasant circumstances." (Mastracci & Adams, 2020, p. 4).

Regarding to training, which can be to train police officers, in police academies, or as a recurring practice (to develop skills and abilities), in the context of emotion regulation, training aims to understand (Brunetto et al., 2012; van Gelderen et al., 2007) and empower police officers to handle work' emotional demands (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Kwak et al., 2018; van Gelderen et al., 2017) and develop work engagement (Lan et al., 2020) effectively. It should be noted that recurrent training should be provided for both police officers and supervisors (Kwak et al., 2018). Police training should focus on proper behavior in various situations and at the same time provide insight into the relationship between expressed and truly felt emotions (van Gelderen et al., 2017). So, a training program can be developed at the level of emotional resilience (Adams & Buck, 2010), focusing on aspects such as: coping with negative automatic thoughts, positive emotions, cognitive flexibility (Lan et al., 2020) and emotional well-being (Au et al., 2019). Mindfulness programs (e.g., Mindfulness Based Stress Reduction Program) may also be beneficial at this level (Bergman et al., 2016; Kale & Gedik, 2020).

Finally, supervision role and reward system are also important. Supervision role is associated with high levels of perceived well-being (Brunetto et al., 2014; van Gelderen & Bik, 2016). When supervisors are prone to supportive (van Gelderen & Bik, 2016) and fair (Ashforth et al., 2008), being at the same time, aware of the needs of their subordinates (Wolter et al., 2019), we are faced with quality supervision (Burke, 1994). Therefore, an effective supervision leadership style (e.g., health-oriented) can promote work engagement (Richardsen et al., 2006; Upadyaya et al., 2016), well-being (Maria et al., 2019) and successful performance of occupational tasks (Lan et al., 2020). Leadership should include aspects such as "being "professional" (following correct procedures, high

standards of performance), being managerial (strategic, strong leadership skills) and ethical (tolerance, openness and valuing equality of opportunity)." (Thomas & Davies, 2002, p. 184). Regarding reward systems, HRM can adopt strategies that are observable by police officers (e.g., flexible working hours, reasonable workloads) (Martin, 1999), to stimulate their well-being and work engagement (Brunetto et al., 2014). It should be noted that the rewards can be financial (e.g., increases, promotions) (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Sutton, 1991) or socio-emotional (e.g., recognition, support and useful supervision) (Brunetto et al., 2014). However, socio-emotional rewards tend to increase support perceptions (Brunetto et al., 2014)

Limitations

The present study had some limitations, which we should mention. Firstly, regarding the generalization of the results, we consider that although they can be generalized to the PSP (which was our study's focus), they cannot be generalized to all Portuguese law enforcement agencies or other emotionally demanding occupations (e.g., doctors, nurses, rescuers/first responders, paramedics, teachers, call-centers employees). Likewise, given the current PSP headcount and response rate, we believe that the conclusions of this study should be viewed with some caution. Secondly, although we considered it enriching and interesting, we have not studied separately each of the variables positive emotion expression (PEE) and suppression of negative emotions (SNE), that is, PEE with other police officers, PEE with superiors, PEE with victims, PEE with criminals, SNE with other police officers, SNE with superiors, SNE with victims and SNE with criminals. So, we could have an extensive view of the prediction of these variables both in work engagement and occupational identity.

Thirdly, the data were collected during the pandemic of the new coronavirus (COVID-19), which in itself may have influenced the participants' responses (Drew & Martin, 2020). Coronavirus causes respiratory, neurological and enteric diseases, spreading "person to person, through close contact (within about 3–6 feet), that is, through respiratory droplet expelled in the air during coughing or sneezing by an infected person." (Ramesh et al., 2020, p.16). It should be noted that as a result of this pandemic, numerous challenges have been posed around the world (Alcadipani et al., 2020). Accordingly, it "presents critical challenges for police leadership in supporting personnel in an environment that has both physical and mental health impacts." (Drew & Martin, 2020,

p. 32). Police officers therefore play an essential role in monitoring the spread of the disease by enforcing restrictive measures, as well as supporting other government agencies in helping affected communities (Alcadipani et al., 2020). However, police officers are faced with high exposure to COVID-19, thereby increasing the risk of contamination (Alcadipani et al., 2020) and, as a result, mental health problems (e.g., stress and trauma) may arise (Drew & Martin, 2020).

Future research

We conclude the present work with some directions for future research. First, future research can focus on the sociodemographic differences, aiming for a deeper understanding of the phenomena studied and outlining intervention strategies. It would be important to analyze the possible differences in terms of gender, professional career (i.e., police officer, chief and official), the various regions of the country (e.g., Lisbon Metropolitan Command, Évora District Command, Madeira Regional Command), age (i.e., between older and younger police) and seniority in the police.

Secondly, future research should extend the target population of our research to all Portuguese law enforcement agencies. In this sense, we would have a greater understanding of the reality of this professional class. Likewise, future research should make comparisons between the various Portuguese law enforcement agencies in order to know if some of them perform more daily emotional labor than others.

Thirdly, future research can focus on studying other emotionally demanding professions (e.g., doctors, nurses, first responders, teachers, call-center staff). Overall, we can get a comprehensive view of the most emotionally demanding occupations in Portugal, as well as their impact on work engagement and occupational identity. Therefore, we could compare the various occupations at this level, to verify which are more or less demanding from an emotional point of view. Finally, we could compare the emotional labor strategies that are most used in each occupation or institution.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Request for authorization to conduct the study

Ex.mo Sr. Superintendente da PSP – Doutor Rui de Moura,

A equipa de investigação da Universidade de Coimbra, da qual fazem parte as Prof. Doutoras Carla Carvalho e Ana Luísa Pinto e as mestrandas Joana Teixeira, Soraia Oliveira, Micaela Gomes e Andreia Graça, pretende realizar dois estudos que incidem na temática das emoções, sentimentos e afetos em contextos de trabalho (EMOTRAB), sendo um ao nível da regulação emocional e estilos de decisão, e o outro no âmbito do trabalho emocional, identidade ocupacional e envolvimento no trabalho com polícias portugueses. Os mesmos têm o intuito de avaliar a influência da regulação emocional na tomada de decisão, mas também o modo como os polícias lidam com as suas emoções no ambiente de trabalho. Assim, pretende-se conhecer o impacto das exigências do trabalho emocional em polícias, bem como analisar eventuais diferenças ao nível da expressão de emoções positivas por parte dos mesmos (i.e., se as emoções manifestadas pelos polícias para com similares, superiores e "vítimas" difere das que são expressas para com "suspeitos" e "criminosos"). Por conseguinte, a equipa de investigação gostaria de ter o privilégio de poder realizar os estudos acima mencionados com a instituição de prestígio que é a PSP.

Para realizar esta investigação, é necessária a recolha de informação, através de questionários online, seguida do seu tratamento e análise, de forma agregada e nunca de forma individualizada. Deste modo, pretende-se contribuir para a produção de novos conhecimentos nesta área de investigação e, assim, sugerir alguns benefícios para a PSP, ao nível da intervenção prática. Em resumo, poderá possibilitar a adequação e melhoria dos processos no âmbito da Gestão de Recursos Humanos à realidade da PSP, nomeadamente ao nível do recrutamento e seleção, avaliação de desempenho e formação. Procura-se que estas práticas organizacionais possam promover o bem-estar dos polícias e a sua satisfação no trabalho, bem como o envolvimento no trabalho e a eficácia na tomada de decisão, tornando-os melhores no desempenho das suas funções e eficazes na autogestão das suas emoções.

No decorrer do estudo, a equipa compromete-se ao anonimato e confidencialidade de todos os dados facultados, de acordo com o Código Deontológico da Ordem dos

Psicólogos Portugueses (princípio específico 7.6. Anonimato e confidencialidade de dados recolhidos, que refere a recolha de dados estritamente necessários à realização do estudo, sendo os mesmos confidenciais e anónimos, não sendo identificada a identidade dos participantes). De igual modo, rege-se pelos princípios éticos e deontológicos relativos à investigação científica do Código Deontológico da Ordem dos Psicólogos Portugueses, nomeadamente, os princípios específicos 7.8. Esclarecimento pós-investigação (i.e., facultar aos participantes oportunidades de esclarecer eventuais dúvidas, bem como de obter informação adicional sobre os objetivos, resultados e conclusões do estudo) e 7.10. Integridade científica (i.e., realizar o estudo em conformidade com os princípios mais elevados de integridade científica). Similarmente, toda e qualquer divulgação/publicação dos dados facultados apenas será realizada após autorização prévia da PSP, tal como sucede na elaboração e discussão do trabalho académico. Também se compromete, no final do estudo, à entrega de um exemplar do trabalho académico à PSP.

A Soraia Oliveira pretende realizar uma dissertação de mestrado sobre a temática do trabalho emocional, identidade ocupacional e envolvimento no trabalho com polícias portugueses, cujo objetivo geral consiste em avaliar as relações entre as dimensões do trabalho emocional (exigências e estratégias) e o envolvimento no trabalho, testando o papel mediador da identidade profissional nessas relações numa amostra de polícias portugueses. O trabalho emocional pode ser definido como o modo pelo qual os colaboradores de uma organização precisam de gerir os seus sentimentos com objetivo de exibir as emoções socialmente desejadas ou necessárias para desempenhar um trabalho de maneira eficiente. Assim, o trabalho emocional tem vinculado fatores organizacionais e individuais (e.g., regras de exibição, pressão, autocontrolo, responsabilidade e requisitos associados à tarefa), bem como pode ter um impacto positivo e/ou negativo no bem-estar pessoal no que diz respeito, nomeadamente, à satisfação no trabalho, stresse ou envolvimento no trabalho, sendo importante aprofundar a investigação neste âmbito. Por conseguinte, tenciona-se replicar o que a nossa equipa de investigação parceira brasileira efetuou, ou seja, a realização de dois estudos que procuraram relacionar os construtos de trabalho emocional, envolvimento no trabalho e identidade profissional de polícias portugueses. Apesar de ter grande importância na manutenção da segurança, esta categoria ocupacional (profissional) ainda é pouco estudada, especialmente nos aspetos emocionais relacionados com o trabalho. Neste sentido, a investigação acima mencionada

parte da seguinte questão Que relações podem ser estabelecidas entre as dimensões do trabalho emocional (exigências e estratégias) e o envolvimento no trabalho de polícias portugueses?. De um modo mais específico, pretende alcançar os objetivos que se seguem: identificar as exigências de trabalho requeridas no trabalho dos polícias a partir dos grupos-alvo de interação; e testar a predição das dimensões do trabalho emocional (exigências e estratégias) sobre o envolvimento no trabalho.

Appendix B: Informed consent

Prezado/a participante,

O presente estudo tem como principal objetivo avaliar como os polícias lidam com as suas emoções no ambiente de trabalho. Neste sentido, o mesmo permite a produção de conhecimentos que fundamentem discussões acerca de práticas voltadas para os polícias, contribuindo assim para políticas e ações direcionadas para a melhoria da saúde destes trabalhadores.

O estudo está a ser realizado pela equipa de investigação da Universidade de Coimbra, da qual fazem parte as Prof. Doutoras Carla Carvalho e Ana Luísa Pinto e a Mestranda Soraia Oliveira. Neste sentido, a execução do mesmo apenas é possível por meio da sua participação, respondendo individualmente ao questionário que segue, cuja duração é de aproximadamente 20 minutos.

Acresce referir que a sua participação não acarreta quaisquer riscos ou custos para si, apenas o dispêndio de um pouco do seu tempo.

É de salientar que toda a informação facultada neste questionário é anónima e confidencial. Assim, as respostas obtidas serão agrupadas e trabalhadas estatisticamente em conjunto com as dos demais participantes. De igual modo, as informações recolhidas podem ser utilizadas para fins de divulgação científica, de acordo com a ética em investigação científica em vigor em Portugal.

A sua participação é voluntária, pelo que pode desistir do estudo a qualquer momento, sendo para tal necessário não concluir o preenchimento do questionário e, assim, nenhuma das suas respostas será utilizada. É de referir que, neste estudo, não há respostas corretas ou erradas, uma vez que se pretende conhecer o que pensa, solicitando-lhe que responda com honestidade.

Agradeço a sua colaboração! Se tiver algum comentário ou dúvida sobre o estudo em questão, por favor, entre em contato com Soraia Oliveira (soliveirace@outlook.com).

Atenciosamente,

A equipa de investigação

Appendix C: Scales used in the study

Para responder a cada grupo de questões a seguir, por favor, considere a sua experiência quotidiana de trabalho como polícia, pensando em como se sente em relação ao próprio trabalho e às interações com outros polícias, com os seus superiores, com os "criminosos" e com a população em geral. No espaço ao lado de cada item assinale o número que melhor corresponda à sua perceção/resposta, de acordo com os códigos abaixo descritos.

Appendix C1: EWRS (Best et al., 1997)

No meu dia a dia de trabalho como polícia, com que frequência sou solicitado/a ou requerido/a a...

1	2	3	4	5
Nunca	Raramente	Algumas vezes	Frequentemente	Sempre

		1	2	3	4	5
1. **Expressar tranquilidade** mesmo quando estou **tenso/a, agitado/a ou irritado/a**, como em abordagens, prisões e situações de perigo						
2. **Expressar simpatia** com: (Por exemplo: dizendo que entende como o outro se sente, ou que acha uma pena algo ter acontecido)	2.a) Outros polícias					
	2.b) Superiores					
	2.c) "Criminosos" e "Delinquentes"					
	2.d) "Vítimas"					
3. **Expressar cordialidade** perante: (Por exemplo, sorrir, cumprimentar, apertar as mãos)	3.a) Outros polícias					
	3.b) Superiores					
	3.c) "Criminosos" e "Delinquentes"					
	3.d) "Vítimas"					

		1	2	3	4	5
4. **Esconder** a minha **raiva** ou deceção perante:	4.a) Outros polícias					
	4.b) Superiores					
	4.c) "Criminosos" e "Delinquentes"					
	4.d) "Vítimas"					
5. **Esconder** o meu **desagrado** perante:	5.a) Outros polícias					
	5.b) Superiores					
	5.c) "Criminosos" e "Delinquentes"					
	5.d) "Vítimas"					
6. **Esconder** o meu **medo** perante:	6.a) Outros polícias					
	6.b) Superiores					
	6.c) "Criminosos" e "Delinquentes"					
	6.d) "Vítimas"					

Appendix C2: ELS (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003)

No meu trabalho como polícia, com que frequência...

1	2	3	4	5
Nunca	Raramente	Algumas vezes	Frequentemente	Sempre

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Faço um esforço para, de facto, sentir as emoções que necessito expressar para com outros polícias e com a população					
2. Tento experienciar de verdade os sentimentos que esperam de mim no trabalho como polícia					
3. Escondo os meus sentimentos verdadeiros em relação a determinadas situações					
4. Demonstro/Expresso emoções intensas no dia a dia de trabalho na PSP					
5. Expresso muitas emoções diferentes no meu trabalho como polícia					
6. Resisto em expressar os meus sentimentos verdadeiros durante o meu trabalho					
7. Mostro muitas emoções diferentes quando interajo com outros polícias, com "criminosos" e com cidadãos					

Abaixo são apresentadas 17 afirmações que indicam sentimentos que pode ter em relação à sua atividade profissional. Por favor leia atentamente cada afirmação e indique com que frequência se sente assim relativamente ao seu trabalho. Se nunca se sentiu assim relativamente ao seu trabalho assinale no <u>número 0</u> (zero). Se já se sentiu assim, indique quantas vezes isso aconteceu, escolhendo um número de 1 a 6 para descrever quantas vezes isso aconteceu.

Nunca	Quase nunca	Raramente	Às vezes	Frequentemente	Muito frequentemente	Sempre
0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
	Poucas vezes por ano ou menos	Uma vez por mês ou menos	Algumas vezes por mês ou menos	Uma vez por semana	Algumas vezes por semana	Todos os dias

	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1. No meu trabalho, sinto-me cheio/a de energia							
2. O meu trabalho tem imenso sentido e significado para mim							
3. Sinto que o tempo "voa" quando estou a trabalhar							
4. No meu trabalho, sinto-me com força e vigor							
5. Estou entusiasmado/a com o meu trabalho							
6. Quando estou a trabalhar, esqueço tudo o resto à minha volta							
7. O meu trabalho inspira-me							
8. Quando me levanto pela manhã, tenho vontade de ir trabalhar							
9. Eu sinto-me feliz quando estou a trabalhar intensamente							
10. Eu tenho orgulho no trabalho que faço							
11. Sinto-me envolvido/a com o meu trabalho							
12. Eu sou capaz de trabalhar por períodos de tempo muito longos							
13. Para mim, o meu trabalho é desafiador							
14. "Deixo-me levar" pelo meu trabalho							
15. No meu trabalho, eu sou muito forte mentalmente							
16. É difícil "desligar-me" do meu trabalho							
17. No meu trabalho sou sempre persistente, mesmo quando as coisas não correm bem							

A seguir, encontram-se afirmações que ilustram os hábitos, as práticas e as opiniões dos polícias acerca da forma como lidam com a sua profissão e o reconhecimento do trabalho que desenvolvem. Responda às afirmações de acordo com os códigos abaixo.

1	2	3	4	5
Discordo Totalmente	Discordo moderadamente	Nem concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo Totalmente

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Ser polícia é uma parte importante de quem sou					
2. Na minha vida diária, frequentemente penso sobre o que significa ser polícia					
3. Frequentemente arrependo-me de ser polícia					
4. Não me sinto bem em ser polícia					
5. Sinto que me adapto bem quando estou entre polícias					
6. Sinto fortes vínculos com outros polícias					
7. Tenho muito em comum com os outros polícias					
8. Ser polícia é um importante reflexo de quem sou					
9. Só de pensar sobre o facto de que sou polícia, às vezes, tenho maus sentimentos					

Appendix C5: Sociodemographic data

Esta é a última parte do questionário, gostaríamos de o/a conhecer um pouco melhor.

1. Sexo ( ) Masculino ( ) Feminino ( ) Outro
2. Idade_____anos
3. Estado Civil ( ) Solteiro/a ( ) Casado/a ( ) Viúvo/a ( ) Separado/a ou Divorciado/a ( ) União de facto ( ) Outro
4. Há quantos anos trabalha na PSP?_____ Anos
5. Carreira que ocupa atualmente na PSP: ( ) Oficial ( ) Chefe ( ) Agente

6. Alocação atual (Comandos Territoriais de Polícia)

( ) Comando Regional da Madeira   ( ) Comando Distrital de Évora

( ) Comando Regional dos Açores   ( ) Comando Distrital de Faro

( ) Comando Metropolitano de Lisboa   ( ) Comando Distrital de Guarda

( ) Comando Metropolitano do Porto   ( ) Comando Distrital de Leiria

( ) Comando Distrital de Aveiro   ( ) Comando Distrital de Portalegre

( ) Comando Distrital de Beja   ( ) Comando Distrital de Santarém

( ) Comando Distrital de Braga   ( ) Comando Distrital de Setúbal

( ) Comando Distrital de Bragança   ( ) Comando Distrital de Viana do Castelo

( ) Comando Distrital de Castelo Branco ( ) Comando Distrital de Vila Real

( ) Comando Distrital de Coimbra   ( ) Comando Distrital de Viseu

7. Tempo na carreira: _____ anos

8. Setor de atuação

( ) Serviço Externo (policiamento na rua, rondas, tropas de choque, entre outros)

( ) Serviço Interno (atividades burocrática, atendimento ao público, atividades técnico-administrativo diversas)

( ) Misto

Tempo: _____ (anos)

9. Nível de Escolaridade mais elevado que completou

( ) 1.º ciclo do ensino básico (4.º ano)   ( ) Ensino superior
                                                   (bacharelato ou licenciatura)
( ) 2.º ciclo do ensino básico (6.º ano)

( ) 3.º ciclo do ensino básico (9.º ano)   ( ) Mestrado

( ) Ensino secundário/técnico-profissional (12.º ano)   ( ) Doutoramento

Mais uma vez, a nossa equipa de investigação agradece a sua participação nesta investigação!