

ELEPHANT IN THE ROOM: A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL
EXPERIENCES ON BURNOUT AMONG CHINESE REPORTERS

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Abstract

This dissertation is conceived to examine the emotional labor of Chinese frontline reporters and its effects on their job burnout. For both detailed descriptive and generalizable findings, the mixed-method approach combining qualitative in-depth interviews with 31 reporters and a quantitative survey with 276 reporters was employed in the study. Findings from the in-depth interview demonstrate that reporters' emotional labor engagement mainly occurs while interacting with their subjects. In response to different scenarios and the subject personalities, they leverage various emotional labor strategies, including surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression to express desirable emotions. Additionally, according to their description, reporters' daily journalistic practices, occupational attitudes, mental and physical well-being, as well as personal life might be impacted by their involvement in the complex emotional mechanism. The follow-up survey reveals the effect of the demand on emotions at work and reporters' experience of engaging in surface acting magnify their levels of job burnout. Meanwhile, the use of problem-focused coping strategies can reduce reporters' job burnout caused by emotional labor engagement. Findings in this study fill the gap in understanding the mechanism of reporters' emotional labor engagement and its impacts on their job burnout. The theoretical and empirical implications of these findings are discussed.

Chapter 1: Introduction

*When we enter the workplace we bring our loves, hates,
anxieties, envies, excitement, disappointments and pride.
We will meet and mix with others who have their own cares
and concerns, their own emotional agendas.*

—Stephen Fineman

There were corpses, dust, and debris everywhere and people were crying and shouting. I am a reporter; I couldn't collapse in front of the earthquake victims! But I never thought that I'd get depression since I thought I was professional, rational, and calm! When I finished the reporting of that earthquake and got back to Beijing, the shots of the earthquake and corpses kept on flashing before my eyes and I could even smell the dust in that field. I didn't want to talk to anybody, including my wife, and just locked myself in the bedroom and smoked every day. (Interviewee #22)

These are the words of a frontline Chinese newspaper reporter with more than 15 years in journalism sharing his experience of reporting on the Great Wenchuan earthquake in China on May 13, 2008. In another story, a female cultural journalist was cyberbullied by her readers because of her news report about a famous intellectual. She cried and said,

They (netizens) thought that I made a sensational news and distorted the intellectual's meaning. So, they just attacked me by using those bad words on our news application and social media. I felt the anger boiling up inside me but I can only digest it by myself because I am a reporter. (Interviewee #30)

The workplace is usually stereotyped as a rational, orderly, clear-thinking, and feeling-free environment (Fineman, 2003; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Management scholars also tend to support the "administrative rationality" principle and consider emotion as a potential dysfunction in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). As Max Weber (1968, p.975) argues, "the more it is 'dehumanized,' the more completely it succeeds in eliminating from official business love, hatred, and all purely personal, irrational, and

emotional elements which escape calculation.” However, as the examples above illustrate, in practice, emotion is an integral and inevitable part of organizational life.

Beginning in the 1970s, under the influence of the “affective revolution” in psychology, the value of emotionality in organizational psychology and behavior has begun to be recognized in academia (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Emotion has thus come to be regarded as “part of the warp and weft of work experiences and practices” (Fineman, 2000, p.2), since it does not only shape workers’ perceptions, intentions, and actual behaviors, but influences their interactions with others as well (Frijda, 1986; Zhang & Zhu, 2008).

Studies on emotions in the workplace have burgeoned over the past few decades – many of them are from the emotional management perspective – in an attempt to understand how emotion can be effectively expressed and experienced in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Emotional labor, as the emotional management strategy has received attention in recent years. Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labor as obeying display rules to express desired emotions in work. Employees’ adoption of emotional labor strategies such as suppressing or faking their emotions while interacting with other helps them appropriately express emotions in different work settings so that work effectiveness can be improved (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Many individuals in service industries and certain other professions – such as human resource consultants, engineers, nurses, and social workers – are found involving in emotional labor to interact with others based on organizational or industrial rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983, 2003).

Purpose of the Study

The term “objectivity” is regarded as one of the core values of legacy journalism. Research on emotion has remained an “epistemological blind spot” in the profession for decades, since such research is seen as being in opposition to or a threat to objectivity and other normative aspects of journalism (Brayne, 2008; Schudson, 2001; Thomson, 2018). Wahl-Jorgensen (2020) argues that the emergence of digital and social media has boosted an “emotional turn” in the journalism research field, which leads to an increasing investigation in the relationship between emotion and journalism. However, the existing studies in this field have mainly focused on the impact of emotional content in the media on audience behavior and engagement (Thomson, 2018) but paid less attention to journalists’ experience in emotional labor (Hopper & Huxford, 2015). As Kotišová (2019a) describes, “journalists’ emotions and their effect on reporting remain black boxes, elephants in the room of journalism studies.” The journalistic work is produced by humans and indeed journalism is a key vocation to examine in study the influences of emotional labor because journalists have to engage in face-to-face interactions with their interviewees, other related professionals, like public relations (PR) officers, and even readers/audiences. Furthermore, since journalists are always operating in the first-responder role during crises and traumatic events (Clay, 2020), they sometimes have to suppress their natural feelings and appear to be feeling something else about the event in order to continue their reporting (Hopper & Huxford, 2017).

Although increased attention has been paid to this topic in research, the emotional labor construct remains without a clear conceptualization and operationalization, especially in journalistic professions. As Monteiro, Marques, and Roberto (2016) point

out in their review research, unlike many recognized first responders, the emotional demands on journalists have not been fully examined, and journalists may not even be aware of the impact of such demands on their work and daily life. Therefore, by combining in-depth qualitative interviews and a quantitative survey, the current study purposes to present a preliminary investigation of journalists' engagement in emotional labor in the context of Chinese culture. It also aims to provide practical implications for journalism training and education to help journalists manage emotions in work.

In mainland China, for years, all levels of the media industry operated fully under the hegemony of the Communist Party of China (CPC). For example, the CPC subsidized the media, assigned chief officers, and censored all news coverage. Moreover, media professionals, including reporters, editors, designers, and copywriters were all trained as propaganda tools of the CPC (Pan, 2000). Economic reform swept across China from the early 1990s, which also temporarily liberalized the Chinese media system (Chu, 1994; Lee, 1994). At that time, the CPC reduced or even cut off subsidies to almost all media organizations and thus transformed them from “command mouthpieces” to “profit-making propaganda units” (Lee, He, & Huang, 2007, p. 24). Although the media reform was carried out under the control of the CPC, Chinese journalists at that time enjoyed more autonomy and journalistic professionalism (Rong, 1998). To best serve “two masters”, journalists acted as party propagandists to serve the CPC on the one hand, but, on the other hand, they also tried to work professionally as journalists to meet the market requirements (Pan, 2000).

When the current party and national leadership came into power in 2012, in an attempt to revive Maoist ideology, a series of policies was introduced which further

emphasized Chinese journalists' duty to protect the CPC and lead public opinion in a politically correct direction (Tong, 2017; Wang, 2016). Such ideology and policies also resulted in a wave of Chinese cyber-nationalism. Critical news reports towards government can be easily attacked online by extreme patriots (Fang & Repnikova, 2018). Consequently, both the number of Chinese professional journalists and their reporting space declined dramatically (Tong, 2017). With a stricter code of practice, journalists are expected to suppress their natural emotions and professional aspirations during their work, which leads to high levels of emotional self-control. Furthermore, the continued ideological and political controls from the CPC and society might inhibit journalists' awareness of the increased emotional demands they are subjected to. Their physical and psychological health and the stability of the newsroom could thus be influenced by such a lack of awareness. Thus, more knowledge of the emotional impact of work experiences on the work and daily life of Chinese journalistic professionals is needed to develop training plans and support services for these professionals and improve their well-being.

Specifically, this study examines how Chinese reporters describe their emotional experiences in different work settings during their daily work, how they manage with such experiences, and the effect of emotional management on their levels of burnout. The reason that this study focuses on the linkage between emotional experiences and burnout is that, although such a relationship has been found in many other professions (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Zhang & Zhu, 2008), it has seldom been examined in the field of journalism. Moreover, burnout is a significant indicator of work effectiveness and the quality of journalistic work (Burke & Matthiesen, 2004; Jung & Kim, 2012; Reinardy, 2008); an understanding of how emotional experience could cause burnout is

thus important for both scholars and practitioners. More importantly, reporters' coping strategies for dealing with such emotional experiences and the effect of such strategies on levels of burnout are explored in this study as well. This research is not only useful for specific training on strategies for dealing with emotional labor among journalists but also for enabling news organizations and managers to be more proactive in providing assistance.

Chapter Arrangements

This dissertation contains eight chapters. Chapter 1 starts with an overview of this research, including its purpose, the research methodology, and the main contents of each chapter. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature addressing the main concepts, theoretical framework, and major research questions and hypotheses of this study. The first section teases out the literature about emotions in the workplace and the definition and development of the term emotional labor in different professions generally and the journalistic context particularly. The second section concentrates on previous literature defining and analyzing employees' burnout and then specifically review the theoretical investigations of journalists' level of burnout. In the last section of this chapter, the research context and the literature on Chinese reporters' vocational development and emotional experiences are discussed. Chapter 3 introduces the study's research methodology, the rationale for combining in-depth interview and survey, and the measurement tools of each examined variable in this study. As the mixed method is the main research method used, it is discussed in detail, including the sampling and data collection procedure of each method, interview questions, measurements, and the reliability and validity of each method. Chapter 4 and 5 presents the results of qualitative

in-depth interview data and research questions. How Chinese reporters describe their emotional experience in their daily work, their experience of emotional labor, and the impacts of such experience on their daily work and life are discussed in detail in these chapters. Chapter 6 and 7 presents the statistical results of the survey data and the hypotheses. Specifically, Chapter 6 reports the descriptive analysis of the data. Chapter 7 shows both confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis of the proposed model to reveal results of how demands of emotion, engagement in emotional labor, coping strategies, and burnout are correlated. The results of this research are discussed and the implications addressed in Chapter 8. It draws conclusions and elaborate on the theoretical and practical contributions of the study. The limitations of the research are also discussed and suggestions for future research are made.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This labor requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others—in this case, the sense of being cared for in a convivial and safe place. This kind of labor calls for a coordination of mind and feeling, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that we honor as deep and integral to our individuality.

—Arlie R. Hochschild

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. First, a literature review of emotions in the workplace and the definition of emotional labor, as well as the relevant theoretical arguments, are discussed. Previous research on emotions in the workplace and emotional labor, especially in the Chinese context, are reviewed in the first section of this chapter. Second, with burnout being the most important consequence of ineffective emotional labor management, the existing literature on this topic is reviewed in the second section. Based on the assessment, the definitions of burnout and the development of burnout research in the Chinese context are clarified. Grounded in these two parts of literature, the research questions and hypotheses are then presented.

Emotions in the Workplace

Since the affective revolution began sweeping across the humanities and social sciences in the 1970s, a considerable number of empirical studies has been conducted to understand the role of affect in different fields (Clough & Halley, 2007). In organizational behavior research, the rational decision model dominated studies of organizational attitudes and behaviors for many decades (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007). However, informed by the affective turn and Kuhn's theory of paradigm, Barsade,

Brief, and Spataro (2003) argue that the study of emotion in organizations has emerged as a paradigm in the organizational behavior field since the 1990s.

As Fineman (2003) notes, our emotions are central to almost everything we do. Similarly, in the workplace, emotion is “an integral and inseparable” part of organizational life, since people’s experiences in their work are full of emotions – from moments of excitement or frustration to an enduring sense of meaning and satisfaction (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Therefore, such a paradigm shift involves a growing body of different research streams about the influence of emotions on organizational behaviors and the implications thereof (Tse, Troth, & Ashkanasy, 2016).

To understand the role of emotion in the workplace, it is crucial to first clarify the definition of emotion and identify its parameters. Emotion is broadly defined as a relatively short-term subjective feeling state that reacts to a specific environmental stimulus (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003). According to Massumi (2002) and Wahl-Jorgensen (2020), different from the term “affect,” emotion is the personal interpretation of the affective experience, and it can also develop as collective resonance through circulation. To map the terrain of emotion in the workplace, Miller, Considine, and Garner’s (2007) review study summarizes five types of emotion in the workplace. These types include emotional labor, originally proposed by sociologist Arlie Hochschild in 1983, which describes workers’ inauthentic emotion in interaction with customers and clients and relates to emotion control and management; emotional work, which also stems from the work itself but represents authentic emotion during interaction with customers and clients; emotion with work, which describes emotion generated from interaction with colleagues; emotion at work, which consists of personal

emotion from non-work sources, but which is experienced in the workplace (e.g., family-related worries); and emotion toward work, which refers to emotion in which work is the target of the feeling (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007).

Research on emotion in the workplace concentrates on multiple areas. The influence of emotion in organizations is one of the important streams in these studies. By testing different types of emotion, Frijda (1986) found that emotion could lead to physical and mental changes, as well as subsequent actions taken by people. To be specific, in the workplace, available empirical evidence demonstrates that positive emotion results in positive organizational attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, career commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Wall, Russell, & Moore, 2017). On the other hand, negative emotion might result in organizational withdrawal behaviors, including emotional dissonance, professional inefficacy, and high staff turnover rates (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003).

Considering the effect of emotion on employees' attitudes and behaviors, scholars have focused more on understanding the management of emotions in the workplace in the past decade, particularly because regulated emotions or strategic emotional displays have been found to be closely correlated with the quality of service, desired customer response, and organizational success (Hochschild, 1983, 2003; Zhang & Zhu, 2008).

Emotional labor. Managing emotions at the individual level is related to employees' resilience, work performance, and physical and mental well-being, which has prompted the increasing attention to emotion-regulatory processes (Troth, Lawrence, Jordan, & Ashkanasy, 2018). According to Lazányi (2011), more and more organizations

and professions have prescribed with expectations to professionals' emotional expressions. The phenomenon of employees regulating or "faking" emotions to comply with their job requirements is commonly known as emotional labor, which is an important aspect of managing emotion in the workplace (Lazányi, 2011; Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007).

The discussion of emotional labor begins with the landmark work, *The Managed Heart: The Commercialization of Human Feeling*, published by sociologist Arlie Hochschild in 1983 (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2014). Hochschild was the first to distinguish between emotional labor and physical labor in the job and defined it as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (Hochschild, 1983, p.7). She investigated the emotional experiences of flight attendants and bill collectors to understand how employees express "right" emotions for their job (Hochschild, 1983). According to Hochschild (1983), particularly in these voice-to-voice or face-to-face jobs, workers are usually required to fake their feelings and showed smiles and good humor to sustain a positive relationship with customers. As a result, these workers usually suffer organizational withdrawal behaviors, such as burnout, a decrease in productivity, and high turnover rates because of the emotion-regulatory process (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Hochschild, 1983).

After decades of theoretical development, three conceptualizations of emotional labor have emerged that have greatly influenced the research field (Grandey, 2000). One of the earliest conceptualizations was the aforementioned one from Hochschild. Informed by Goffman's (1959) dramaturgical perspective, Hochschild (1983) postulated that the work setting is the stage, the customer is the audience, and the employee is the actor.

From this perspective, employees can achieve organizational goals by appropriately managing their emotions.

While engaging in emotional labor, employees have different ways of generating the appropriate emotional expression (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007). Surface acting and deep acting are the two key strategies for regulating emotions reported in the emotional labor literature (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Specifically, surface acting means that, in order to meet organizational requirements or professional norms, employees suppress or even disguise what they feel and “put on a mask” to display an expected emotion. Flight attendants, for example, always wear a smile on their faces when serving drinks to passengers, even if they are in a bad mood (Hochschild, 1983; Lazányi, 2011; Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007). In contrast, deep acting refers to consciously regulating emotional expressions as sincere feelings to fit job requirements (Hochschild, 1983; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). For instance, flight attendants may generate cognitive empathy to understand passengers’ emotions while dealing with difficult passengers (Hochschild, 1983; Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007). However, although emotional labor can help employees achieve organizational goals, Hochschild (1983) also proposed that surface acting might have stronger harmful effects than deep acting on employees, including negative moods, increased stress, and burnout.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labor as “the act of displaying the appropriate emotion” (p. 90). In contrast with Hochschild’s (1983) definition, emotional labor, according to Ashforth and Humphrey, relates to which emotions should be publicly expressed rather which emotions are actually felt. In other words, instead of considering emotional labor as internal states, they defined emotional labor as an external

behavior, since it is the actual behavior (or at least a rule of behavior) that is directly related to frontline employees. Furthermore, instead of highlighting the importance of surface and deep acting, Ashforth and Humphrey found that, in line with social identity theory, employees' experiences in emotional labor are positively related to their task effectiveness and job performance, and this relationship is moderated by employees' social and personal identities.

The third important perspective on emotional labor comes from the interactionist approach proposed by Morris and Feldman (1996). They believed that employees' engagement in emotional labor could be partially determined by the social environment and defined it as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions" (p. 987). Moreover, they originally conceptualized emotional labor as having four dimensions – namely, frequency of appropriate emotional display, attentiveness to required display rules, variety of emotions to be displayed, and emotional dissonance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In addition, instead of focusing on the consequences of engaging in emotional labor, they identified a series of organizational-, job-, and individual-level factors that affect employees' expression of emotions in their work. Such factors include gender, task variety, job autonomy, the closeness of monitoring, and power of role receiver (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The contribution made by this approach lies first in the use of four dimensions (frequency, duration, variety, and dissonance) to measure the concept of emotional labor. More importantly, based on this conceptualization, a quantitative research approach could be used in studies on emotional labor.

As a common component across a wide range of jobs, the antecedents of performing emotional labor have been investigated in different professions. Several existing studies have explored the relationship between individual differences and their relation to individuals' tendency to engage in emotional labor (e.g., Dahling & Perez, 2010). Beginning with Hochschild (1983), the gender difference in predicting emotional labor experience has been frequently examined. Many studies highlight that female employees are more likely to exercise control over their emotions at work than their male counterparts (e.g. Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Moreover, age was also found to be a predictor of people's emotion-regulation skills. For example, Dahling and Perez (2010) suggest that employees' age is positively associated with deep acting but negatively related to surface acting. This finding is linked to experienced workers' tendency to minimize conflicts and negative feelings in the workplace to a greater extent than their younger counterparts (Dahling & Perez, 2010). Thoits (1985) also suggests that members of minority groups frequently engage in emotional labor since they are more likely to confront conflicts in their jobs. With regards to these demographic variables, previous studies have also revealed their relationship to a person's emotional adaptivity and, in turn, how this affects their level of emotional labor (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Psychologists have started to explore the link between the Big Five personality traits and emotional labor in recent decades. For instance, in Diefendorff, Crovel, and Gosserand's (2005) research, they analyzed data relating to employed students and found that individuals with high levels of extraversion and neuroticism frequently experienced emotional labor.

In addition to demographic variables, job- and organizational-based antecedents have also been extensively examined in predicting emotional labor experience. Among existing studies, the effects of emotional requirements and organizational rules have been most explored (Bono & Vey, 2005). To be specific, the evidence shows that the frequency, duration, and routineness of interpersonal interactions in a job are highly related to engagement in emotional labor (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). In terms of organizational rules, organizational norms about emotional expression strongly influence emotional labor. An interesting finding from Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) is that with the rule of expressing positive emotions, employees tend to have deep acting while emotional displays, whereas an emphasis on suppressing negative emotions in an organization results in surface acting. Meanwhile, in terms of other job and organizational factors, Morris and Feldman's (1996) research list the antecedents of different dimensions of emotional labor. They conclude that closeness of monitoring and routineness of task affect the frequency of emotional labor display, whereas the variety of expressed emotions might be caused by job characteristics and power role of receiver. What is more, power role of receiver and routineness of task are associated with attentiveness to required emotional expression rules as well (Morris & Feldman, 1996). In addition to these variables, person–job fit, person–organization fit, and organizational trust have also been found to be predictors of employees' use of emotional labor skills (e.g., Lee & Madera, 2019; Rafique et al., 2017).

Compared with these studies in the antecedents of emotional labor, there is a larger body of literature focusing on the different consequences of applying emotional labor strategies. In general, previous studies reveal that emotional labor strategy is more

beneficial to an organization than to the employee, as the appropriate emotions demonstrated by employees relate to organizational effectiveness, high-quality service, increased customers, and so forth (e.g., Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Lazányi, 2011). However, there are various studies that examine the negative consequences of emotional labor experience for individual employees (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). In a review of other research, Hülshager and Schewe (2011) classified these negative outcomes as personal ill-being, such as a high level of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and taking substances; job-related ill-being, including job dissatisfaction, organizational detachment, and so on; and, finally, poor job performance (e.g., Lee & Madera, 2019). However, according to Miller and Koesten (2008), as a multidimensional process, the emotional labor that employees engage in is not uniformly negative. In particular, when employees experience self-enhancement while using emotional labor strategies, the experience can improve their professional practice (Pugliesi, 1999). For example, Shuler and Sypher's (2000) field study involving 911 dispatchers found that emotional labor could be considered as "comic relief, as a fix, and as altruistic service," improving their job performance even though the process was painful (p. 81).

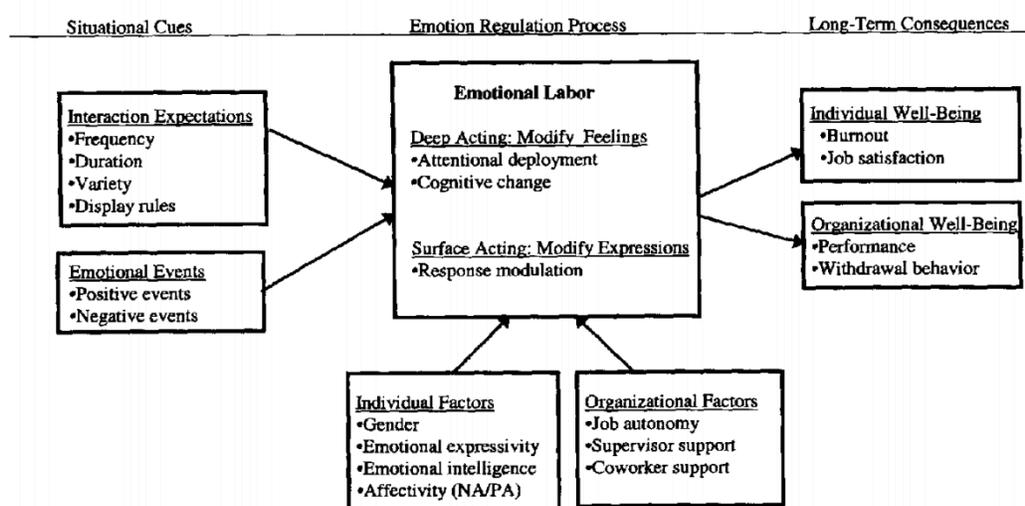
In addition, various emotional labor strategies, including surface acting and deep acting, have been linked to different outcomes. According to Hochschild (1983) and subsequent empirical investigations, a surface acting strategy requires more inauthentic expressions, which is linked to job stress, poor performance, and lower levels of physical and mental well-being (Rafique et al., 2017). In Lee and Madera's (2019) latest review study, informed by conservation of resources theory, they further explain that faking emotions could deplete emotional resources, which links surface acting to negative

individual and organizational consequences, such as emotional exhaustion, burnout, and lower job satisfaction. Furthermore, as explained by mood spillover theory, individuals might transfer the anxiety or other negative moods from surface acting to their relationships with family members (Krannitz, Grandey, Liu, & Almeida, 2015). On the other hand, the influence of deep acting on personal, organizational, and family-related outcomes is inconsistent. Evidence from former studies in various professions shows that employees' deep acting experience could lead to lower emotional exhaustion, job stress, and burnout, but higher job satisfaction and work effectiveness as well as improved organizational reputation (e.g., Huang et al., 2015; Wang, Hall, & Taxer, 2019). However, according to Hülshager and Schewe's (2011) meta-analysis review study, in some studies, deep acting showed no relation to either individual well-being or job performance improvement. Other research has found that time-related variables (e.g., long-term period of acting), individual character traits (e.g., positive or negative affect), and organizational environment (e.g., feeling of challenge) moderate the relationship between deep acting experience and personal or organizational outcomes (Huang et al., 2015; Judge, Woolf, Hurst, 2009; Wang, Hall, & Taxer, 2019). In summary, surface acting is generally related to undesirable outcomes, whereas deep acting improves desirable outcomes.

It is important to note that previous studies and measures of emotional labor define the term as having three components – namely, emotional requirements, emotion regulation, and emotion performance (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). However, Grandey (2000) argues that, based on the research findings, emotional labor is an entire process experienced by the employee. Therefore, based on the previous conceptualizations and

informed by emotion-regulation theory, Grandey (2000) proposes a linear process model of the relationships among antecedents, emotional labor, and frontline workers' well-being at both individual and organizational levels (see Figure 1). According to Grandey (2000), the process of emotional labor can be triggered by various personal and organizational factors, but has two main situational antecedents or predictors: expectations from the organization about emotion expression and events at work. Therefore, in this model, the first antecedent is the emotion expression rules – such as frequency, duration, and variety of interactions with customers or clients – which act as cues for workers' surface and deep acting emotional regulation process. Different from previous studies, the model was first to introduce the negative or positive emotion associated with acute events at work as a predictor of emotional regulation among employees. Then, drawing on previous studies, the regulation processes of surface acting and deep acting are shown to result in employee stress and mental illness as well as lower organizational well-being (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998).

Figure 1. Grandey's (2000) Model of Emotion Regulation at Work (Adapted from Grandey, 2000).



Since its introduction, Grandey's model has been tested within different professions. For example, when testing this emotion-regulation model within five occupational groups (service/sales, manager, physical labor, clerical staff, and physical laborers), Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that employees who reported higher levels of emotional work demands also had higher levels of regulation behaviors. In predicting the burnout dimensions across occupations, frequency, intensity, variety, and duration of interactions with customers were found to be predictors of decreasing personal accomplishment but not of employees' emotional exhaustion or depersonalization (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Emotion in journalism. As mentioned above, the notion of emotional labor, the emotional regulation model, as well as the consequences of emotional labor have been examined in many different professions to study emotions at work (e.g. Brook, Koch, & Wittel, 2013; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). However, in the journalism field, in particular, frontline journalists are required to detach emotions and deliver unbiased news due to the journalistic ideology of professionalism and objectivity. Therefore, emotion in journalism is a field of study that has been "largely invisible and under-researched," since it has an association with sensationalism and the loss of quality in journalism (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2019a, p. 674).

These normative guidelines and empirical evidence led to a boundary being constructed between emotion and journalism. However, with the impact of the affective revolution and changes in the journalism landscape, scholars have noticed that emotion has begun to play a crucial role in news production and consumption processes (Beckett & Deuze, 2016). Yet, the importance of emotions to journalism has not really been

focused on in journalism studies and is still in the earliest stage of exploration (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2019a, 2019b). In existing literature, as Thomson (2018) concluded, most studies on emotions and journalism have not broken away from traditional media effect research and have placed more emphasis on the emotionality in reporting or the impact of emotional content on audiences. Pantti's (2010) research was one of the first studies to give insight into the use of emotions in reporting. By interviewing 32 Finnish and Dutch broadcast journalists, she revealed that journalists incorporate emotional elements into their reports to engage audiences and facilitate the understanding of news (Pantti, 2010). In other words, for journalists, emotional storytelling does not challenge the normative role of journalism. In another empirical study that analyzed articles from three Australian newspapers, Corcoran (2016) pointed out that emotions and emotional words have become an important media frame in Australian journalism. Similarly, in Wahl-Jorgensen's studies about Pulitzer Prize-winning news reports, she found that the examined news stories relied heavily on emotional storytelling, indicating that emotion is a significant driving force behind prize-winning journalism's ability to attract audiences (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2013a, 2013b).

Wahl-Jorgensen's (2019a, 2019b, 2020) series of theoretical studies also provided a profound summary of the important role of emotions in determining "emotional turn" in journalism studies. By reviewing several previous studies on the impact of emotions on news products and audience engagement, she traced the emotional turn in journalism studies and argued that the current media ecology is further accelerating emotional journalism (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020). This trend is because the development of social media and the increasing user-generated contents in mainstream media popularized a

“more personalized, subjective and emotional narrative” (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2016, p. 137). Furthermore, Beckett and Deuze’s (2016) earlier research also revealed that, due to the current financial crisis in journalism industry, emotional elements have been adapted to be more frequent and diverse to engage audiences. Other empirical evidence shows that emotional intelligence is also being specified more and more as a requirement for journalistic professionals. For example, one of the job vacancies posted by *Forum Communications Company* for a multimedia reporter stipulated that prospective employees must have the “ability to handle sensitive and emotional situations, maintain confidentiality, balance demands, set priorities and manage multiple issues/projects at a time.” Another example is an advertisement placed by *Cray Television Station* for a multimedia journalist, where they were seeking someone “who can present genuine emotion about the topic of the story.”

In recent years, nuanced investigation has been undertaken to further conceptualize the relationship between emotions and journalism production and consumption processes. For instance, by focusing on the emotion of anger in political news coverage, Wahl-Jorgensen (2018) revealed the role of emotional narratives in mediating political life. Emotionality not only facilitates news engagement but can also enhance and provide guidelines for journalistic performance (Glück, 2016; Kotišová, 2020). To achieve quality news coverage, Beckett and Deuze (2016) argue that emotional narratives and engagement could be considered an essential component of good journalism because audiences not only expect timely and reliable news but a range of emotions as well. This stream of research, in general, draws scholars’ attention to the fact

that journalism practices and products involve a complex balance between rationality and emotionality (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020).

Despite the increasing investigation of the role of emotion in the news production process, the view of “journalists as detached observers” has meant that the emotional impact on journalists has been less recognized (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020, p. 175). Wahl-Jorgensen (2019a) presented, through long-term and cross-national data, rich and valuable information about the impact of radical changes in the journalism field on journalistic roles, norms, and values. However, the underlying causes of these changes and the ways in which they affect journalists have not been addressed in the previous research. Therefore, Wahl-Jorgensen further suggests that focusing on the emotional impact of journalistic labor could greatly improve the understanding of transformation in journalism (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2019a, 2019b).

Emotional labor in a journalistic context. The long-standing principles in journalism require journalistic practitioners to be uninvolved observers of the events being reported (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020). The logic behind this commitment is that the credibility of news can be only achieved when journalists detach emotions from their reports (Peters, 2011). However, this assumption fails to trace the reality of journalists’ daily practice and over-emphasizes the ability of journalists to regulate their emotions, as journalists often suppress or construct feelings to meet organizational and professional requirements (Hopper & Huxford, 2015).

In recent years, especially after the September 11 terrorist attack in the United States (US), the psychological well-being and emotional health and management of journalists has started to be acknowledged by scholars and practitioners (Monteiro,

Marques, & Roberto, 2016; Thomson, 2018). Subsequently, research specifically on the role of emotions in journalists covering traumatic events has expanded (Kotišová, 2019b). One interview-based study, for example, showed that British journalists who covered traumatic news experienced “a broad, complex and fundamental tension” in handling objectivity and emotional engagement in journalism (Richard & Rees, 2011, p. 864). As explained by Hopper and Huxford (2015), frontline journalists often act as “first responders” to witness and event and are sometimes even victims of the disasters, conflicts, and controversial issues on which they report. This reality is due to journalists being expected to routinely cover traumatic events that involve unexpected injuries and deaths (McMahon & McLellan, 2008). Taking photojournalists as an example, Thomson’s (2018) study echoes this finding and suggests that visual journalistic practice can be an emotionally intense activity, especially for those journalists who cover a range of emotionally intense situations such as wars, natural disasters, and everyday accidents.

To further elaborate on these experiences, McMahon (2001) emphasized that print journalists who cover these traumatic incidents also consistently experience lasting emotional reactions after witnessing or interviewing victims. In another study examining war journalists and their emotional experiences while reporting, she argues that it was inevitable for them to avoid emotional responses since they are still humans (McMahon, 2010). In this study, one of her interviewees from *The New York Times* shared that she always experienced an enormous amount of emotion during interviews and that it felt hard to “go back and forth between response as a person and as a journalist” (p. 43). Taking the reporting of the COVID-19 pandemic as an example, there is increasing awareness within the profession of emotional experiences among frontline journalists

while covering the pandemic. Hoda Kotb, the host of the NBC's *Today Show*, was brought to tears in front of the camera after interviewing Drew Brees, who donated US\$5 million to Louisiana State. Hoda Kotb is not the only reporter to show emotional moments while reporting on the pandemic (Clay, 2020). Two other anchors from CNN – Erin Burnett and Don Lemon – cried on air when they conducted live interviews with COVID-19 victims and reported on the impact of the pandemic. More importantly, in addition to focusing on traumatic news reporting and journalists covering traumatic events specifically, previous studies found that journalistic work for political or cultural journalists also draws emotional experiences into their jobs (Kotišová, 2020). Even for obituary-type stories, Griffin (2009) found that journalists can experience emotional exhaustion before and after reporting. Sadness, anger, and emotional tears are signals indicating that journalistic practices are always to some extent emotional, which also leads to the necessity of researching journalists' emotional experiences through journalism studies (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020).

Based on the existing literature, there is evidence to suggest that journalistic practitioners are expected to control their emotional reactions and expressions during the course of their work (Meltzer, 2010; Pantti, 2010). In order to fulfill daily work requirements, journalists frequently have to go out of the newsroom and interact with primary sources for fact-checking and obtaining quotes. As explained by Wahl-Jorgensen (2019a), such daily practices involve much invisible emotion management, especially when journalists' emotions conflict with professional norms. In addition to journalists being required to detach personal feelings from reports, Wahl-Jorgensen (2019a) also listed that when they “build rapport with sources, negotiate access and confidentiality,

and consider audience responses,” journalists are required to control emotions to achieve work expectations (p. 675). Therefore, journalists’ capacity to manage emotions could be viewed as one of the crucial foundations of the job (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020), which also makes the profession an ideal field to study to understand emotions regulation and its impacts (Hopper & Huxford, 2015).

Emotional labor, as a process of emotional management, can provide a lens to understand this emotion-regulation process in journalistic work. Emotional labor is usually considered an essential component to be engaged in by persons in service or caring professions, such as flight attendants, medical professionals, social workers, and educators (Hochschild, 1983; Kwon, 2019; Larson & Yao, 2005; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Similarly to these professions, journalists have to engage in face-to-face interactions with their interviewees; other related professionals, like PR officers; and even readers/audiences to build stories and establish connections with sources. At the same time, in seeking to achieve unbiased reporting, they are also expected to regulate emotions in compliance with ethical and professional standards. Moreover, since journalists are frequently sent to disaster scenes, there are more opportunities for them to suppress or even fake their naturally occurring feelings to meet organizational and professional expectations (Clay, 2020; Hopper & Huxford, 2017). As McMahon and McLellan (2008) described, journalists who cover traumatic events are “filters and gatekeepers, allowing through some descriptions and images of trauma and holding back others” (pp. 101). Although evidence shows that journalistic work is a key vocation to examine in studies on the influences of emotional labor, research on this profession has largely been overlooked (Thomson, 2018; Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020).

Among the limited available literature, a study by Hesmondhalgh and Baker (2008) can be identified as the first empirical study on the emotional labor experience of news people. Focusing on workers in the television industry in the UK, their ethnographic study found that, in order to manage strong emotions and keep good working relations, young television employees have to engage in emotional labor experiences (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2008). Based on 20 interviews with frontline journalists, Hopper and Huxford (2015) also found that newspaper and online journalists were indeed engaging in emotional labor through suppressing natural emotions – such as sympathy, pity, and guilt – to uphold professional journalistic norms. In a later study in 2017, Hopper and Huxford analyzed the 18 highest-selling news-writing textbooks. Based on this analysis, they proposed that the concept of emotional labor should be visibly addressed in textbooks in order to help journalism students learn how to manage emotions or emotional trauma during their future work (Hopper & Huxford, 2017).

Further evidence regarding the existence of emotional labor has been found in a variety of media formats in which frontline journalists are involved. For example, Soronen's (2018) ethnographic study about workers in Finnish fashion-oriented lifestyle magazines demonstrated that editors of lifestyle magazines experienced emotional labor at three levels – namely, maintaining a good relationship with readers, collaborating with team members, and situating oneself in an uncertain working environment. Moreover, only focusing on photojournalists, Thomson (2018) also mapped journalists' engagement in emotional labor and their emotion-management strategies. He found that photojournalists regularly change their emotional expressions for various purposes; for instance, to comfort their subjects and not alienate them, they may enhance emotion; to

be more professional, detached, and balanced, they may suppress emotion (Thomson, 2018). Furthermore, based on in-depth interview data, Thomson found that the scope of the event, the duration of the interaction, the circumstances of the interaction, and the subject's temperament might impact photojournalists' engagement in emotional labor (Thomson, 2018). The recent research conducted by Miller and Lewis (2020) is the first to connect emotional labor and harassment in broadcast newsrooms. They revealed that female broadcast journalists are forced to perform a great deal of emotional labor while dealing with harassment or minimizing abuse. These findings support the notion that emotional labor is an inevitable component while engaged in a journalistic role and might have a profound impact on both news products and journalists' physical and psychological well-being. However, the majority of existing studies, except a very few (Kelling, 2018), are qualitative in nature (consisting of either in-depth interviews or an ethnographic approach), and the effects of emotional labor have been quantitatively tested to a far lesser extent. Therefore, besides qualitative data, quantitative methods are also used in this present study to further verify the relationship between journalists' engagement in emotional labor and their well-being.

Emotional labor research in the Chinese context. Emotion is understood differently across cultures (Krone & Morgan, 2000). In Western culture, there is less rigidity about emotional expressions; consequently, emotional expressions perceived as disingenuous or "fake" are disliked (Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005). As Zhang and Zhu (2007) describe, emotion is perceived as "volatile fluids in a container, meaning that emotions seethe, bubble, or simmer within the body" (p. 109). In contrast, in Chinese traditional culture, individuals are expected to subdue their emotions or true feelings to

retain one's dignity (literally: to "save face" – *mianzi*) and maintain group harmony (Sun, 1991).

Many previous studies have found that because of China's Confucian culture and collectivistic tendency, emotional management – including neutralizing inner feelings, suppressing overt emotions, and downplaying positive emotions – is highly valued in China (e.g., Bond, 1986). In other words, Chinese people usually tend to report a high level of emotional management. Eid and Diener's (2001) study confirmed this phenomenon. By examining samples from China and the US, they found that, in comparison to people in Western cultures, Chinese people usually adhere to a strong norm of managing their emotions so as to achieve emotional moderation, since overt emotions are usually considered dangerous (Eid & Diener, 2001).

In view of these cultural differences, the role of emotion and emotional management in the Chinese workplace has received increasing research attention in recent years. Since the 2000s, many empirical studies with an interest in the role of emotional labor in determining job satisfaction, burnout, and emotional exhaustion among educators, medical workers, and services professionals have been conducted. For instance, Zhang and Zhu's (2007) research about employees in Chinese higher education revealed that college teachers favored deep acting over surface acting in their work, and the latter had a deleterious effect on their burnout levels and job satisfaction. Similarly, by using service worker samples, Allen, Diefendorff, and Ma (2014) found that the emotional management strategies of surface acting and deep acting were more frequently used by Chinese service workers when compared with employees in the US.

Furthermore, both surface and deep acting were found to be significant predictors of Chinese employees' levels of burnout.

Emotions in different work settings, and employees' experiences in emotional labor, and the effect thereof on employees' well-being have been discussed frequently since 2010 by Chinese scholars in different research fields (e.g., Huang, Wu, & Tang, 2010; Tian, 2010). In general, with the rise in hospital–patient conflicts in China, many relevant studies focus on medical professionals' emotional expression and emotional management while interacting with patients. The findings indicate that medical professionals in China experience high levels of emotional labor management, which significantly affects their levels of burnout and work efficiency (e.g., Li & Tan, 2009; Zhou, Wu, Jin, 2010). Educators' emotional expression is another popular topic examined by Chinese scholars. In this research trend, educators' working years, gender, and seniority of their role were all found as significant predictors of the intensity of their emotional expression and management (e.g., Wu, Liu, Ling, & Lu, 2011).

Although newsrooms in China are undergoing a profound transition, the role of emotions in Chinese journalists has not been systematically addressed in research. Studies about Chinese reporters can be traced back to the mid- to late-1990s. At that time, communication scholars in Hong Kong and Taiwan started to conduct trans-regional comparative studies to understand the different levels of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, or other vocational attitudes related to the quality of news production among reporters in mainland China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan (e.g., Chan, Zhu, & Wu, 1998; Lo & Chan, 2004). Studies of reporters and their vocational issues started to draw attention from mainland communication scholars later. As the study conducted by Zhang (2016)

summarizes, Chinese reporters' professional identity, journalistic ethics, occupational conditions, and newsgathering and editing abilities in the new media era have been frequently discussed by scholars in mainland China in recent years.

However, as noted in the aforementioned review, the literature on reporters' emotional experiences and expression from mainland China is not as theoretically rich as the much larger body of work on non-reporters. Similar to their Western counterparts, Chinese reporters are expected to interview or develop connections with sources to build news stories. The digital era has pushed them to connect with their sources even more closely in order to compete with ubiquitous social media platforms, such as WeChat, Weibo, and so forth. (Wang & Sparks, 2020). Meanwhile, driven by the shrinking market, Chinese journalists have also realized the importance of emotional news and user-generated content to engage audiences, which requires them to be more emotionally involved so as to interact effectively with audiences (Wang & Sparks, 2020; Zhou & Zhou, 2016). Thus, effective emotional expression and management is preferred by both journalists and media organizations.

More importantly, in contrast to journalists in democratic countries, Chinese media and journalists are regulated by the CPC (e.g. Hassid, 2011). With the heavy media regulation, journalists in China tend to be under pressure to report critical coverages, as this type of news is seen to mobilize people and threaten political stability in China (Bandurski & Hala, 2010; Wang & Sparks, 2020; Zhang, 2019). China's Propaganda Department sends out daily regulations to newsrooms prohibiting any stories that show the negative side of the CPC's performance (Cunningham, 2003; Zhang, 2003). Even for traumatic news stories, Chinese journalists are instructed to remove natural emotions and

convey “positive energy” (also known as *zhengnengliang* in Chinese). For instance, examining the news about the SARS outbreak, Zhang (2019) found that, at that time, news people were asked to frame the pandemic as controllable, although they realized the high risk associated with the virus. However, the media commercialization in mainland China in the 1990s boosted professional aspirations among Chinese journalists. Previous studies showed that many Chinese journalists viewed Western professional norms as their ideals for journalistic practice (Chan, Pan, & Lee, 2004; Pan & Lu, 2003). Such great discrepancies between journalists’ day-to-day practice and professional aspirations might thus result in their heavily engaging in emotional management.

In addition, the current internet ecology has also stimulated the management of emotions among Chinese journalists. The latest wave of Chinese cyber-nationalism has created spaces for extreme ideas and comments online. Negative news reports about China and people who published such news have frequently been targeted by extreme patriots (Fang & Repnikova, 2018), which might also arouse strong emotional experiences in Chinese journalists. Thus, considering all the evidence, the Chinese journalism profession is a rich site to learn about emotional labor experiences and their impact. An empirical study also indirectly reflected this conclusion: Prof. Liu Jinglin, the director of the Communication University of China, mentions that over 34% of frontline reporters in China experience emotional disorder problems (Li, 2002). According to Liu, irregular working hours, frequent exposure to disturbing aspects of society, and the requirement to constantly update news collection techniques cause great mood swings among Chinese reporters (Li, 2002).

The existing literature tends to link Chinese reporters' emotional expressions to journalistic professionalism and emphasizes the importance of rationality in their work. For example, Luo (2015) argues that, in order to become a professional reporter, the practitioner should control and alter their emotions, especially when they experience negative emotions in their work. Taking breaking news reporting as an example, Lei (2014) points out that, even for traumatic events, journalistic ethics require frontline reporters to be rational while interacting with victims or their family members. However, previous studies about emotional expression and management in Chinese reporters are very descriptive and only broadly argue that professional reporters should actively manage their emotions during interviewing; these studies lack theoretical support, however.

Therefore, in view of the cultural preference for thinking through emotions, the role of reporters, and their job characteristics, it is reasonable to assume that Chinese reporters might engage in more emotional labor management in their daily work. Consequently, in attempting to answer Wahl-Jorgensen's (2019b) call for a better understanding of "the lived experiences of professionals," the following research questions are posed in the present study:

RQ1: How do Chinese reporters describe their emotional experience in their daily practice?

RQ2: How do Chinese reporters adopt emotional labor strategies in their daily practice?

RQ3: How do Chinese reporters describe the impact of emotional labor on their work and daily life?

The antecedents of engagement in emotional labor among Chinese journalists and the effect of such experiences on their work and life have never been statistically tested in previous studies. Based on the emotional labor model proposed by Grandey in 2000, there are two main situational antecedents affecting employees' engagement in emotional labor (Grandey, 2000; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). These two situational cues are, first, the expectations that organizations have of their employees' interactions with others during work and, second, the events at work that can arouse an emotional response (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). In terms of the relationship between these cues, Grandey posited that organizations' demands related to emotional expression are associated with more emotion regulation or emotional labor among employees (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000). For the events at work, Grandey (2000) argues that a particular work event might lead to a specific emotional response in an employee. Furthermore, negative events result in more emotion regulation (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002). Therefore, based on Grandey's model, two related hypotheses are proposed to understand the possible predictors of Chinese journalists' emotional labor experience:

H1: Perceived emotional demands, including frequency, duration, variety, and intensity of interaction with others in the journalistic job, relate positively to Chinese reporters' experience of emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.

H2: Negative affectivity originating from interactions with interviewees in daily work are positively associated with Chinese reporters' experience of emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.

Burnout

The most frequently cited definition of burnout is from Maslach and Jackson (1986). They defined burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that usually occurs among employees who do “people work” (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). This term is first mentioned in Bradley’s (1969) study on probation officers running a community-based treatment program for young adult offenders. To keep clinic staff from experiencing burnout in their work, Herbert Freudenberger (1974) systematically reviewed and discussed the physical signs and behavioral indicators of burnout as well as the possible interventions that could help clinic staff avoid burnout. Freudenberger is generally regarded as the founding father of the concept of burnout syndrome (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Because these burnout researchers came from social and clinical psychology fields, the earliest studies tended to frame the concept from either interpersonal relations or psychological disorder perspectives (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). More importantly, early burnout literature, in general, was descriptive and relied more on unsystematic observation rather than on empirical research.

Empirical research on burnout started to flourish from the 1980s onwards. During that time, the research perspective changed to emphasize the work attitudes and behaviors caused by burnout, since many of these researchers came from the industrial-organizational psychology field. Maslach and colleagues conducted several empirical studies involving human services professionals to examine and further develop the concept of burnout. In 1981, Maslach and Jackson (1981) developed the first Measure Burnout Inventory (MBI). Although this measurement scale was developed using the data

from human services professions, it has been widely adopted to evaluate the burnout levels of professionals such as medical doctors, educators, and social workers (Liu & Lo, 2018). Then, incorporating the definition of burnout proposed by Maslach and Jackson in 1986, Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, and Jackson (1996) developed a general survey version of the MBI, which includes three dimensions: exhaustion (Ex), cynicism (Cy), and professional efficacy (Pe). In the same study, they further defined burnout as a process of mental exhaustion and depersonalization that can occur among individuals who encounter chronic job stressors.

During several decades of research, various theoretical frameworks have been developed to understand burnout. Burnout was first understood as the product of a stressful working environment or the gap between expected self-actualization and reality. Subsequent to the development of the three MBI subscales, burnout has come to be understood as developing in sequential stages. Specifically, exhaustion was assumed to develop first in response to high demands and overload. Exhaustion would then lead to individuals having negative reactions to their job (cynicism). If these responses continued to be present, the next stage would be feelings of inadequacy and failure (reduced personal accomplishment or professional inefficacy). As concluded by Maslach and Leiter (2016), the majority of recent models tend to understand burnout from the stress perspective. In addition, such stress is believed to be generated by imbalances between work demands and individual resources. Two models of the demands–resources imbalance are commonly used to understand employee burnout: the job demands–resources (JD-R) model and the conservation of resources (COR) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Specifically, the JD-R model focuses on the notion that burnout arises

when individuals experience incessant job demands and have inadequate resources available to address and reduce those demands. The COR model assumes that burnout arises as a result of persistent threats to available resources. Consequently, when individuals perceive that the resources they value are threatened, they strive to maintain those resources, and the loss of resources or even the impending loss of resources may aggravate burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018).

Burnout can also be understood from a person–job mismatch perspective. For example, the areas of work–life model identifies six key areas in which these mismatches take place: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Such mismatches can affect an individual's level of experienced burnout, which, in turn, determines various outcomes, such as job performance, social behaviors, and personal well-being.

In the existing literature, burnout syndrome has been found among many different professionals, including policemen, firefighters, medical professionals, teachers, and social workers (e.g. Kyriacou, 1987; Lloyd, King, & Chenoweth, 2002; West, Dyrbye, Sloan, & Shanafelt, 2009). Across occupations, there are common causes of burnout. For instance, in a review of three decades' studies on burnout, Maslach and Leiter (2016) found that workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values are the six key domains that have been linked to burnout. With regards to the consequences of burnout, previous studies revealed that employees with higher levels of burnout were likely to report a range of psychological and physical health problems and display more withdrawal behaviors, such as job dissatisfaction, low organizational commitment,

turnover intention, and actual turnover. With the development of positive psychology, recent research has started to focus on employees' job involvement, which is generally viewed as the opposite of burnout (e.g. Griffin et al., 2010).

Emotional labor and burnout. In addition to identifying these organizational-, job-, and individual-related factors and in line with the affective turn in the psychology field, leading scholars, such as Hochschild (1983, 2003), suggested that behaviors performed in emotional labor, like maintaining a smiling face while dealing with tough situations or customers, could be very stressful and might result in high levels of employee burnout. Thus, burnout has become a frequently studied negative consequence in emotional labor literature (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Based on previous studies, many mechanisms have been developed to understand the dynamics between emotional labor engagement and burnout. As Jeung, Kim, and Chang (2018) summarized in their review study, the COR theory is the most popular theoretical framework applied to explore this relationship. According to this theory, employees lose their resources while suppressing or faking their natural emotions, which, in turn, might contribute to a decrease in well-being.

The other main mechanism in the relationship between emotional labor and burnout concerns surface and deep acting (Jeung, Kim, & Chang, 2018). As explained by Grandey (2000), when engaging in surface acting, employees must inhibit or suppress their feelings to follow desirable professional or social norms. However, such activity has been found to increase individuals' endocrine and autonomic nervous system activity, which, in turn, might result in distress, higher blood pressure, other physical illnesses, and, eventually, burnout (Gross, 1998; Jeung, Kim, & Chang, 2018). Even though the

role of deep acting in predicting employees' psychological well-being differs in professions, in general, deep acting was considered as a negative predictor of employees' psychological dysfunction. For example, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) suggested that the use of deep acting could significantly reduce professional inefficacy among employees in "people work" (e.g., social worker, nurse, and bank clerk) and have positive benefits to their job performance. However, previous research also revealed that employees' wages and characteristics might mediate the relationship between emotional labor engagement and their level of burnout (e.g., Celiker, Ustunel, & Guzeller, 2019; Prentice, Chen, & King, 2013).

Burnout in journalism. In the journalism field, burnout syndrome has been found in different countries and territories (e.g., the US, Norway, Finland, Serbia, China, Taiwan, etc.) and among different job positions (e.g., editor, reporter, photographer, etc.; Jung & Kim, 2012; MacDonald, Saliba, Hodgins, & Ovington, 2016; Reinardy, 2011). Endres (1988) conducted the earliest study on levels of burnout in journalists. This study found that stress or tension in work could lead to early burnout, especially for young people engaged in newspaper work. Following the development of Schaufeli and colleagues' (1996) Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBS-GS) burnout measurement, the majority of current burnout studies focusing on the field of journalism have adopted this scale and found that, in general, journalists experience average levels of exhaustion and professional inefficacy, but high levels of cynicism (e.g. Reinardy, 2006, 2008, 2012, 2013a). However, as Reinardy (2011) mentions, until the early 2000s, only a few burnout studies involving journalists had been conducted.

There is a lack of theoretical understanding of burnout in the journalism field in comparison to other fields. In other words, the majority of relevant studies focus on practical concerns and try to identify a profile of those journalistic employees who are more likely to be at risk for burnout. For example, based on certain demographic variables, Cook, Bank, and Turner (1993) found that burnout among copy editors and reporters was the result of lower levels of involvement, peer cohesion, supervisor support, autonomy, task orientation, clarity, and physical comfort and higher levels of work pressure. In recent decades, an increasing number of studies have emerged that use a job demands–resources balance perspective to understand burnout syndrome in journalists. Drawing on COR theory, Reinardy (2013a) argues that resources such as organizational support and job satisfaction are depleted through high levels of job demands, role overload, and work–family conflict, which could lead to greater levels of burnout among journalists. Liu and Lo (2018) adopted the job demands–resources model to analyze the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between Taiwan journalists’ burnout and their turnover intention. In addition to the job demands–resources balance perspective, some studies also consider burnout from an organizational development perspective. Lewin’s (1947) organizational development theory assumed that, after an organization reorganizes or downsizes, the comfort level of employees in that organization will decrease correspondingly. Reinardy (2010, 2013b) applied the organizational development theory and confirmed that higher levels of organizational change result in greater levels of burnout in newspaper and broadcast journalists.

During the past three decades of research, many variables have been identified as indicators linked to journalist burnout. MacDonald et al. (2016) identified three main

sources of journalist burnout. First, burnout can result from multiple stressors that the journalists are facing in their family and work, such as stress caused by post-traumatic stress disorder, interpersonal communication, and so on. Second, the number of changes taking place in the journalism industry can also lead to higher levels of burnout.

MacDonald et al. (2016) conclude that the increased journalistic job demands – such as higher workload, long hours, or a 24/7 news cycle – caused by advances in technology are linked to burnout. Third, the gap between journalistic education and the practical work can also cause journalists to quickly become disillusioned, which, in turn, can increase their burnout level.

Based on these three main sources of burnout, several accompanying factors, such as low payment, constantly meeting deadlines, working long hours, and adopting new technology, have been identified as significant predictors of journalist burnout (e.g. Reinardy, 2008, 2011). In general, based on the existing literature, these indicators can be classified into three categories: personal factors, organizational factors, and job-related factors. Demographically, journalists' age has been shown to be negatively related to their levels of burnout, especially their experienced exhaustion level (Cook, Banks, and Turner, 1993). Meanwhile, their years in journalism is also negatively related to level of burnout. However, the link between gender and burnout remains unclear, as the empirical results have been mixed. For example, Cook and Banks (1993) found that there was no clear relationship between gender and burnout, while several studies by Reinardy (e.g. 2009, 2013a) found that female journalists reported a higher level of burnout than their male counterparts. Moreover, female journalists' stress is not only caused by work-

related issues but also by family issues and broader social issues, such as sexism and discrimination in the workplace.

In addition to demographic variables, certain characteristics of the particular media organization in which a journalist works are also linked to levels of burnout. A series of studies conducted by Reinardy (e.g. 2006, 2013b) found that journalists working at newspapers or broadcasting companies with smaller circulation or market size usually experienced greater levels of burnout – particularly exhaustion and personal inefficacy. In addition to circulation or market size, different journalistic positions can also be considered predictors of burnout. Jung and Kim (2012) found that Korean frontline reporters had a significantly higher level of burnout than other general staff in newspapers. Reinardy's (2006) research on US journalists indicated that sports editors were more likely to report a higher level of burnout than their colleagues who worked as sports writers or other sports desk personnel. In general, as MacDonald et al. (2016) summarize, editors and reporters seem to experience higher levels of burnout than those in other roles, as do journalists in non-management positions.

Beyond demographic and organizational variables, the work-related factors linked to journalist burnout have been covered well by the existing literature. The identified factors include salary, job autonomy, role demands, work–family conflict, interpersonal demands, physical demands, work conditions, and organizational support (Jung & Kim, 2012). Previous research has also examined the link between these indicators and the three subscales of burnout. Specifically, perceived organizational support and work–family conflict are strongly related to journalists' emotional exhaustion. Other work-related variables that are associated with exhaustion include increased job demands and

workload, low level of income, and decreased job autonomy. In terms of cynicism, Reinardy (2013a, 2013b) found that role overload and low organizational trust are significant indicators of journalists' level of cynicism. In addition to these two variables, other factors – such as autonomy, capacity for innovation, perceived organizational support, and physical comfort – have also been found to have predictive power in relation to burnout. Furthermore, emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and low levels of personal efficacy are also related to organizational support, salary, autonomy, and levels of trust and morale. However, MacDonald et al. (2016) concluded that the relationship between journalists' burnout levels and the nature of their relationships with sources, victims, and family and friends of victims has not been established in previous research. Furthermore, the link between burnout and journalists' personality traits as well as poor physical health should be examined in the future.

Most burnout studies in the journalism field explore the causal processes linking certain situational or personal factors to journalists' burnout levels. Increased burnout levels, in turn, lead to certain negative consequences, including poor job performance, job dissatisfaction, diminished productivity, high turnover, and so on. Among these outcomes, one of the most important and most examined is job dissatisfaction. Past research has found that, regardless of the country in question, when journalistic workers experience a high level of burnout, they are less satisfied with their income, work environment, supervisor, and/or other features of their job (Liu & Lo, 2018; Jung & Kim, 2012). The relationship between journalists' burnout level and their turnover intention or actual turnover behavior has also been frequently tested in various studies. For example, Weaver et al. (2007) found that burnout was one of the top reasons that journalists

expressed intentions to leave their jobs. Moreover, in testing the relationship between burnout and career commitment, Reinardy (2011) found that journalists who have intentions to leave their newspaper were more likely to report a higher level of cynicism and emotional exhaustion. In addition, drawing from the job demands–resources model, several studies (e.g. Reinardy, 2011; Liu & Lo, 2018) suggest that the relationship between burnout and journalists' turnover intention is significantly mediated by their levels of job satisfaction. In addition to linking burnout to organizational withdrawal behaviors, some studies have also linked journalists' burnout levels to other individual outcomes. Since burnout is highly related to stressors experienced by employees in their work, outcomes that relate to physical health and mental well-being have been examined in certain studies. Monteiro, Marques, and Roberto (2016) conclude that journalists' burnout levels can even influence their family stability. In addition to such outcomes, previous studies also argue that the quality of news products and the operation or management of media companies is also highly affected by employees' burnout levels. Thus far, however, there has been a lack of empirical studies to support such arguments.

Burnout among Chinese journalists. In China, the research on employee burnout started in the 1990s (Jiang, 2014). Several empirical studies have explored employees' levels of burnout and the antecedents thereof among different professionals, such as educators, policemen, and medical workers in the Chinese context (Zhao, 2011). Individual factors – such as personality traits, work commitment, and self-concept – and organizational factors – including job characteristics, work pressure, and organizational support – have been identified as important factors predicting employees' levels of burnout (e.g., Chen, 2019; Deng & Chen, 2019).

With the rapid development of media convergence and multi-platform news production processes in mainland China, the increasing level of burnout among Chinese reporters has begun to attract the attention of researchers in recent decade years (Jiang, 2014). In 2005, the *Journal of Chinese Reporters (Zhongguo Jizhe)* published articles from frontline reporters in newspapers, news agencies, and radio stations that discuss their experiences in burnout and the possible causes. According to these articles, the main reasons for burnout among reporters are a loss of interest in work and long working hours (Jiang, 2014). However, these early studies relied heavily on individuals' personal experiences but lacked a clear conceptual framework that could systematically examine job burnout in reporters. Cao's work in 2008 is the first to provide a comprehensive understanding of three dimensions of burnout among Chinese frontline reporters. By examining data from 12 television stations in China, she concluded that 18.8% of reporters were experiencing emotional exhaustion, while 16.0% of them reported a high level of cynicism at work. Furthermore, over 17.0% of reporters experienced a high level of professional inefficacy. More importantly, unfair rewards and a lack of job autonomy were found to be two significant factors leading to Chinese reporters' burnout, which, in turn, related to their turnover intention (Cao, 2008).

Since the 2010s, newspapers in China have been buffeted by digitalization and media convergence (Liu, 2019). Most Chinese newspaper newsrooms and frontline reporters are struggling to adapt to the new working environment (Leng, Wang, & Liu, 2013; Lin & Tan, 2014). The research on burnout in Chinese newspaper reporters in the new era has expanded in recent years. For example, Zhao's (2011) in-depth interview research with 30 newspaper reporters in Beijing indicated that both individual and

environmental factors could lead to job burnout. Specifically, reporters' ability and their motives to work were highly related to their levels of burnout, while relevant external environmental factors include unfair rewards system, lower levels of achievement, as well as lack of leadership support (Zhao, 2011). In another study that combined survey and in-depth interviews, Yao (2017) revealed that newspaper journalists' resilience in work mediated the relationship between their perceived work stress and levels of burnout.

However, although many burnout-related factors have been identified in previous studies, the effect of emotional aspects on Chinese reporters' levels of burnout has not been extensively examined. According to Grandey's (2000) proposed model, burnout is the main consequence when employees are overly involved in emotional interactions with customers. By examining engagement in emotional labor in different professions, several studies further found that surface acting is positively related to the three dimensions of burnout, while deep acting is negatively related to burnout (Totterdell & Holman, 2003; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Therefore, in the Chinese journalism context, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a: Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.

H3b: Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is negatively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.

In addition to the antecedents and consequences of burnout among journalists, another important area of burnout research in journalism is the intervention strategies that can be utilized to cope with burnout syndrome. According to the existing literature, such intervention can be implemented after burnout has occurred or as a preventative strategy

to protect journalistic workers from burnout. A systematic review of 28 articles on journalists' coping strategies that were published from 2002 to 2015 identified several internal and external resources that are drawn upon by journalists (Monteiro, Marques, & Roberto, 2016). Informed by Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) research, coping strategies can be classified as control coping and escape coping. Specifically, controlling emotions to distance themselves from their emotional reactions and pursuing social, family, or friends' support are the common control coping methods that journalists use to deal with burnout. On the other hand, some common escape coping methods include withdrawing themselves from difficult situations in their work; using black humor to escape uncomfortable working experiences; using substances, such as alcohol, medicine, or drugs; and doing other physical activities to relieve stress and tension.

In the Chinese journalism research field, there are few studies focusing on the role of coping strategies in relation to burnout. Some literature has shown that being more sociable with others, reducing negative emotions, finding family–work life balance, or pursuing hobbies are all effective strategies for reporters to combat job burnout (Li, 2010; Wang & Jiang, 2018). However, these studies failed to provide empirical evidence to reveal the role of such strategies in reducing levels of burnout. Thus, to understand the place of coping strategies in the relationship between employees' experiences of emotional labor and burnout, the following related hypothesis is posed:

H4: Coping strategies are negatively associated with Chinese reporters' level of job burnout.

Summary

Journalistic work is a profession that generates many different emotions as it requires intensive person-to-person interaction with key players, including interviewees, PR professionals, as well as readers/audiences. In China, because of the media landscape and media policy, journalists are more likely to emotionally engage with their reports and key stakeholders in work. However, questions regarding what happens when Chinese journalists experience emotions in their work, how they manage their natural feelings while reporting, and what the impact of such experience is on their work and life have never been systematically answered in literature.

This study attempts to fill this research gap by using an emotional labor perspective to map how Chinese journalists interpret their emotional experiences before, during, and after interviews. Furthermore, in order to verify and explore the antecedents and consequences of engaging in emotional labor among Chinese journalists, this study also develops a theoretical model (Figure 2) that is informed by Grandey's (2000) model of emotion regulation at work. This model starts with conditional variables – including interaction expectation and affectivity of events – that lead to surface acting and deep acting emotional labor experiences. These experiences, in turn, influence journalists' levels of burnout. Furthermore, the role of coping strategies in the relationship between Chinese journalists' emotional labor engagement and job burnout is also examined in this study. Based on this theoretical model, three research questions and five hypotheses are proposed (the rationale for each question and hypothesis is based on the literature discussed above). Table 1 summarizes the research questions and hypotheses proposed in the present study.

Figure 2. *Proposed Model for Understanding Journalists' Emotional Experiences and the Effect of Intervention on Burnout.*

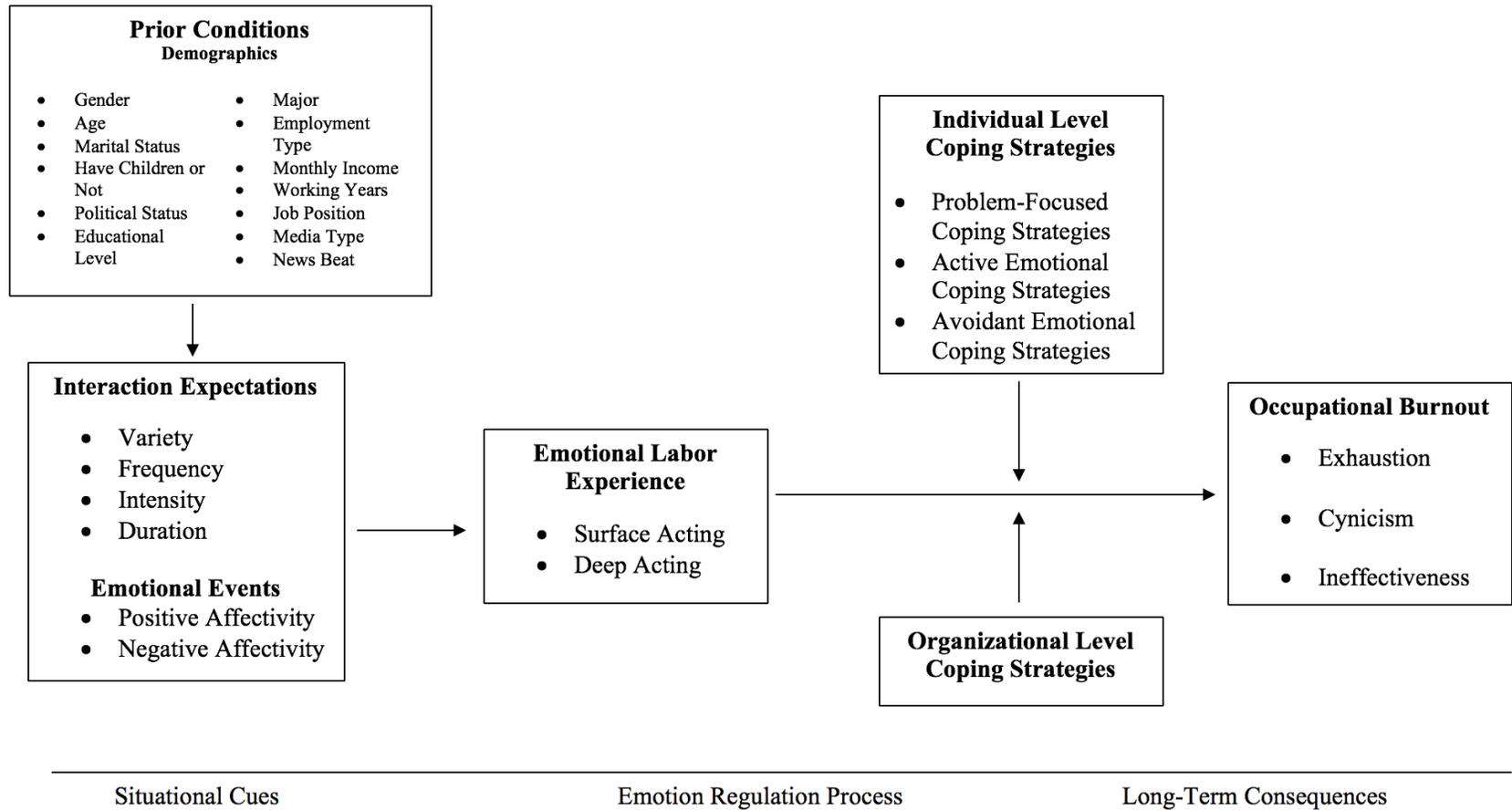


Table 1. *Summary of Research Questions and Hypotheses.*

Research Questions
RQ1: How do Chinese reporters describe their emotional experience in their daily practice?
RQ2: How do Chinese reporters adopt emotional labor strategies in their daily practice?
RQ3: How do Chinese reporters describe the impact of emotional labor on their work and daily life?
Hypotheses
H1: Perceived emotional demands, including frequency, duration, variety, and intensity of interaction with others in the journalistic job, relate positively to Chinese reporters' experience in emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.
H2: Negative affectivity originating from interactions with interviewees in daily work are positively associated with Chinese reporters' experience in emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.
H3a: Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.
H3b: Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is negatively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.
H4: Coping strategies are negatively associated with Chinese reporters' level of job burnout.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Their emotional experience was articulated by their position within the hierarchy and corresponding professional tasks; the means of making news, in terms of both processes and material resources; the work with words and images; the feed of disturbing content and the responsibility to tame it and pass it on; and above all, the work their selves, stimulating certain emotional reactions and suppressing other, trying to do their job well and to stay healthy at the same time. All these aspects together—all the technologies, or matrices of practical reason telling people how successful professionals should conduct themselves and operate their bodies, souls, and thoughts—constructed the forms of subjectivity that were most appropriate to the social practice in question, in this case the journalistic profession.

— Johana Kotišová

This study employed an exploratory sequential mixed-methods design using both qualitative and quantitative data to explore emotion and emotional labor in Chinese frontline reporters. To be specific, this design consisted of a two-phase approach using semi-structured in-depth interviews to identify the taxonomy of emotional labor in Chinese reporters and potential relationships among engagement in emotional labor, levels of burnout, and coping strategies. Then, building on the results of the qualitative phase, a quantitative survey was conducted with Chinese frontline reporters to examine the relationships among emotional demands, the reporters' engagement in emotional labor, coping strategies, and reporters' levels of burnout. Overall, the results from both the qualitative and quantitative approaches aimed to provide a full picture of the important role of emotions in determining reporters' work life quality and well-being.

This methodology chapter provides a detailed introduction and the rationale for the research methodology used in this study. First, this chapter addresses the rationale for using a mixed-methods approach. Next, the chapter introduces detailed sampling methods, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and measurement scales

for both qualitative and quantitative data. Finally, the reliability and validity of the research methods and measurements are also reported in this chapter.

Rationale for Mixed-Methods Approach

Mixed-methods research involves combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods in a single study (Yin, 2006). At the beginning of its development in the 1980s, this approach originally considered qualitative and quantitative methods as two separate research strands (Creswell, 2009). However, such a dichotomy limited the evaluation and understanding of the studied phenomenon (Yin, 2006). Then, as mixed-methods studies became more popular in the mid-1990s, academia began to discuss combining these two strands (Creswell, 2009). Although the ontology, epistemology, and methodology of qualitative and quantitative research are different, according to Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002), the combination of these two approaches is useful in some research areas because complex phenomena require data from multiple perspectives.

The mixed-methods community often discusses topics like how qualitative and quantitative data can be integrated, the value and contribution of integration, and the steps to conduct mixed-methods research. More importantly, scholars have constantly discussed the necessary foundation for combining qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006; Yin, 2006). In general, the two approaches can be mixed because they share a unified logic, and the same rules of inference apply to both; second, they have the same commitment to understanding human conditions, having a rigorous research analysis process and a common goal of disseminating knowledge for practical use; and finally, epistemological purity does not

always produce effective research, particularly for complex social issues (e.g., Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002; Torrance, 2012).

However, instead of having more parallel studies, Yin (2006) argued that, in order to advance the use of mixed methods, qualitative and quantitative approaches should be combined in at least one of five areas: (1) research questions, (2) units of analysis, (3) samples for study, (4) instrumentation and data collection methods, and (5) analytic strategies. Scholars have suggested different methods for designing mixed-methods studies. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), different approaches toward mixed-methods designs can be classified into four typologies, namely, triangulation design, embedded design, explanatory design, and exploratory design. Some designs aim to triangulate the data, while other research designs place more emphasis on timing, such as simultaneous or sequential mixed-methods approaches (Morse, 1991). There are also some scholars who focus more on the priority of the qualitative and quantitative strands in the study by using descriptions such as qualitatively driven or equivalent status mixed-methods approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Finally, the interaction level is also a consideration to distinguish the types of mixed-methods designs (Creswell & Clark, 2011). For example, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) used the term “full integrated” to describe a mixed-methods research design.

However, Creswell and Clark (2011) concluded that at the core of these typologies are three main designs: (1) convergent, (2) explanatory sequential, and (3) exploratory sequential. The convergent design, which is the same as the triangulated design, aims to compare the qualitative and quantitative results to validate the data and to obtain a comprehensive understanding of a problem. Explanatory sequential design starts

with quantitative data, and then the follow-up qualitative study aims to explain the results of the quantitative analysis. Conversely, qualitative data and analysis drive the exploratory sequential mixed-methods design. Then, grounded in the exploratory results, the quantitative study that follows aims to assess the new concepts found in the qualitative analysis for a larger population (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

The purpose of this exploratory sequential design is to use the results of the first qualitative method to inform the second quantitative method. Malina, Nørreklit, and Selto (2011) argue that mixed methods can help produce a more comprehensive understanding of the complex relations between humans and their social world. Moreover, according to Creswell and Clark (2011), the exploratory sequential mixed-methods design is most suitable for studying an emergent theory or when the measurement instructions for examined variables are not available. With regards to the present study, despite the increasing understanding of the importance of emotions in the workplace, the emotional terrain in journalism is largely unexplored (Thomson, 2018; Wahl-Jorgensen, 2019a). In the Chinese context, the recognition of emotions in journalistic works remains understudied. Therefore, to better explore the research questions and hypotheses, the exploratory sequential approach is more appropriate to the present study.

Mixed-Methods Design in this Study

In the journalism studies field, the majority of journal articles use the quantitative and qualitative methods separately, while only around 2% of journal articles use a mixed-methods approach (Kamhwai & Weaver, 2003; Trumbo, 2004). Thus, considering the lack of research into the emotional experience of journalists, the exploratory sequential mixed-methods approach adopted in this study not only provides some theoretical

interfaces to holistically understand the role of emotions in journalism but also fills the methodological gap. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), this mixed-methods research design has two variants, including the instrument development model and the taxonomy development model. Specifically, the former model is used to develop a quantitative instrument based on qualitative results, whereas the latter aims to identify the potential relationship, develop a classification system, or formulate an emergent theory (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Morgan, 1998).

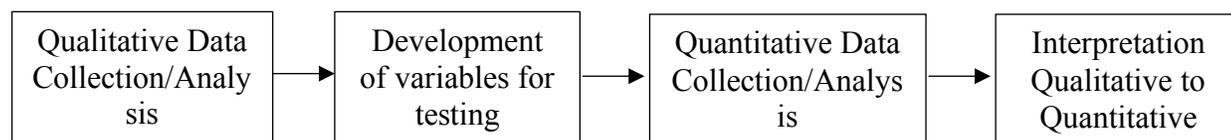
Informed by this classification, the taxonomy development model was applied to provide deep insight into Chinese reporters' emotional experiences and their impacts while interacting with others by using qualitative data collection and analysis methods. Previous research has found that the qualitative research method can be used to discover and build a theory (Keating, 1995). Having the purpose of revealing the subjective meaning behind a particular sociocultural action or phenomenon, a qualitative research approach can offer a holistic description of the complexities of social life; reveal the participants' feelings, opinions, and experiences; as well as present an interpretation of social behaviors (Rahman, 2017; Tetnowski & Damico, 2001). Grandey (2000) argues that employees' emotional labor experience is a complex process. Therefore, the initial qualitative study was an ideal approach to better conceptualize the term of emotional labor and understand the impacts of emotional labor on Chinese journalists' levels of burnout.

Furthermore, in a meta-analysis study, MacDonald et al. (2016) found that the majority of existing studies for understanding journalists' burnout tend to use the quantitative research approach. To fully understand the dynamic between emotional labor

experience and burnout, the present study's approach of combining qualitative data with quantitative analysis allows for deep understanding of the impact of emotions experienced by Chinese reporters in their workplaces on their levels of burnout and possible coping strategies. Among different types of qualitative research methods, the semi-structured in-depth interview method was specifically chosen for use in the qualitative section of this study, since the in-depth interview is ideal for studying little-explored phenomena (Patton, 2005). Furthermore, the interactional nature of in-depth interviews gives access to a wealth of details and is thus the best way to capture subjects' values, motivations, experiences, and feelings (Ferrucci & Vos, 2017; Wimmer & Dominick, 2000).

To further verify and examine the universality of the identified conceptual categories of emotional labor and its relationship to burnout from the qualitative data within different samples, a follow-up quantitative survey was used. As this survey involved random selection of a relatively larger sample, the quantitative approach could corroborate the qualitative results and transfer the findings to a sub-population (Kelle, 2006; Rahman, 2017), which is the general journalist group in this study. Figure 3 demonstrates the methodological model applied in this study.

Figure 3. *The Taxonomy Development Model of Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods Design Process.*



The necessity of this research design is reflected in many previous studies. Since the introduction of the measurement of emotional labor, the most common research method used in understanding emotional labor in different professions has been the

quantitative survey (Matteson & Miller, 2013). There are only a few studies that have applied a mixed-methods approach. For example, by combining self-reported quantitative data with discourse analysis, Meyer and Turner (2006) studied the emotions between instructors and students in the class. Brown, Horner, Kerr, and Scanlon (2014) used a quantitative survey and content analysis to investigate the relationship between K-12 teachers' emotional labor experience and professional identities. Therefore, scholars have called for the need to apply more innovative methods, such as the mixed-methods or multilevel approach, to understand emotions in the workplace, since the emotion-management process is complex (Ghanizadeh & Royaei, 2015; Meyer & Turner, 2006). In journalism studies, almost all of the existing empirical studies in emotional labor among journalists have used the qualitative interview approach. The mixed-methods research approach used in this study could thus provide a comprehensive understanding of journalists' emotional labor and its relationship with burnout by pulling together both qualitative and quantitative data.

Researcher's role

According to Maxwell (2002), the role of the researcher in social sciences has two main components: the values the researcher brings to the study and the relationship between the researcher and the studied subjects. In the mixed-methods study, one possible issue related to the design is the researcher's role, since it fundamentally differs in a qualitative versus a quantitative study (Sciarra, 1999). Depending on the assumptions of the qualitative approach, researchers' personal knowledge, experience, emotions, and values are involved in data collection and analysis so that researchers are more engaged with the research process (Sciarra, 1999). However, quantitative research is considered

“value-free,” as researchers believe knowledge should be generated independently from the knower (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sciarra, 1999). Therefore, in the present mixed-methods study, the researcher had to take on different roles while collection and analyzing data.

In the qualitative strand of this study, the researcher first design interview questions for the semi-structured interview based on pervious literature and personal working experience. Then, the researcher took an interviewer role to access interviewees’ thoughts about emotions, emotional labor experience, and the impact of engaging in emotional labor on their work and life. The interviews were very emotional, as the Chinese frontline journalists were repeatedly asked to recall their personal experiences in their work. However, since the researcher was a former journalist in China and experienced same emotional moments in work before, the rapport with interviewees and understanding of interview narratives could be a benefit associated with the researcher’s background (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Interviewees also appeared to be comfortable disclosing their emotional experiences during the interviews with the researcher. In addition to acting as an interviewer, the researcher simultaneously took an active observer role during the interview (Tedlock, 2003). Thus, the researcher not only took notes about interviewees’ verbal and non-verbal responses throughout the interview but also wrote personal memos after every interview to summarize personal thoughts about the interviewee and the whole interview process to provide a reference in data analysis.

In the quantitative research strand, the role of the researcher was more independent from the study and the respondents to avoid the potential bias (Sciarra, 1999). Therefore, all the measurements of examined variables in the quantitative section

were developed by using previous research. The measurement was then revised based on the pilot test with Chinese journalists. The researcher's perceptions, emotions, and personal knowledge were detached from the process to ensure the validity of the research.

Sampling and Data Collection

In using a mixed-methods approach that combines qualitative in-depth interviews and a quantitative survey, the current study utilized two sampling and data collection procedures.

Qualitative data sampling and collection. As previously mentioned, the current study was exploratory in nature and first adopted a semi-structured qualitative research method, utilizing in-depth, face-to-face interviews as the means for data collection. However, different from a standard in-depth interview, the interviews in this study could be more emotionally demanding, since the success of the interviews relied heavily on the interviewees' willingness to disclose personal emotions connected to their work. For example, some of the proposed questions included "When you interact with your interviewees, have you ever experienced emotions? Please describe the circumstances."; "How do you engage in emotion management in different work settings with different people?"; and "How did such emotional aspects affect your job and personal life?" Therefore, considering the sensitive research questions, the interviewees were recruited using snowball sampling based on the researcher's social networks.

After completing the interview, the interviewees were also asked to suggest potential future interviewees from among their friends or colleagues. Snowball sampling is the most widely used form of non-probability sampling in various disciplines in the social science research field (Noy, 2008; Tansey, 2007). Although the reliability and

representativeness of this method have often been criticized by scholars, subjects are more receptive during the interview when the researcher is introduced as trustworthy by someone familiar to the subject (Small, 2009). It is thus an effective technique to be used in an exploratory study with “difficult-to-observe phenomena” (Hendricks & Blanken, 1992, p.21). However, to limit sample selection bias, reporters in various forms of media with different working experience and demographic traits were recruited to guarantee the diversity of the initial set of interviewees.

In terms of sample size in the qualitative research, Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) posit that it largely depends on the term “saturation,” which means no new information and themes are emerging in the data. Because this is an exploratory study, Small’s (2009) sequential interviewing approach with case-based logic was used. Eight preliminary interviews were completed in January 2019 to gain a basic understanding of Chinese reporters’ experiences in emotional labor in their work and the impact of such experience on their work and personal life. Following Small’s (2009) sequential interviewing procedure, the interview questions were refined and additional interview questions were added based on the results yielded by the first-round interviews. The remaining 23 interviews were then conducted between December 2019 and January 2020 to re-evaluate the understanding of the role of emotion in reporters’ daily work and its impact on reporters’ work and personal life. Among these 31 interviewees, eight were broadcast reporters, nine were new media reporters, and the rest worked for print media.

Before the interviews, the recruited interviewees were provided with a consent form to sign and were informed regarding the purpose of this study, participant confidentiality, how long the interview would last, and their right to decline to answer

any question during the interview. They were also informed that the whole interview would be recorded. The interviews were conducted in Chinese, and each interview lasted 60–120 minutes. During the interviews, the reporters were asked to recall their emotional experiences when interacting with their interviewees, readers/audiences, and other possible third parties. They were also encouraged to provide multiple examples to elaborate on the issues, the impact of the issues on their daily work, and their coping strategies (see Appendix A).

The first eight interviews were transcribed and then translated into English. By utilizing thematic analysis, the operationalization of reporters' engagement in emotional labor and their coping strategies to reduce stress caused by emotional expressions in work was identified. Then, the findings were used to help form the questionnaire for the follow-up survey. After completing another 23 interviews, a total of 31 transcriptions were thoroughly examined by thematic analysis to identify a framework for Chinese reporters' perspectives on emotional labor, the impact of this labor on their levels of work burnout, and their coping strategies. To guarantee the validity and reliability of the analysis, other researchers who are fluent in both Chinese and English were consulted to review the data, and then their evaluation was compared with the findings to be in line with the investigator's triangulation process.

Table 2. *Information about the 31 Interviewees.*

No.	Gender	Experience	Media	Beat
Interviewee #1	Male	13 Years	TV	Business/Investigative
Interviewee #2	Male	5 Years	TV	Feature Stories
Interviewee #3	Female	10 Years	TV	Science/Health News
Interviewee #4	Female	16 Years	TV	International News
Interviewee #5	Female	15 Years	TV	Science/Health News
Interviewee #6	Male	20 Years	TV	International News
Interviewee #7	Female	2 Years	Radio	Social News
Interviewee #8	Male	10 Years	Radio	Political News
Interviewee #9	Female	4 Years	Magazine	City News
Interviewee #10	Female	16 Years	Magazine	Investigative News
Interviewee #11	Male	3 Years	Magazine	Business News
Interviewee #12	Female	4 Years	Magazine	Investigative News
Interviewee #13	Male	2 Years	News Agency	Technology News
Interviewee #14	Male	3 Years	Newspaper	Investigative News
Interviewee #15	Male	15 Years	Newspaper	Business News
Interviewee #16	Male	6 Years	Newspaper	Legal News
Interviewee #17	Male	20 Years	Newspaper	Social/Political News
Interviewee #18	Male	10 Years	Newspaper	Social/Political News
Interviewee #19	Male	6 Years	Newspaper	Social News
Interviewee #20	Male	Less than 1 Year	Newspaper	Investigative News
Interviewee #21	Male	11 Years	Newspaper	Legal News
Interviewee #22	Male	15 Years	Newspaper	Social/Political News
Interviewee #23	Male	9 Years	New Media	Legal News
Interviewee #24	Female	5 Years	New Media	Freelance
Interviewee #25	Female	6 Years	New Media	Military News
Interviewee #26	Male	4 Years	New Media	Business News
Interviewee #27	Female	4 Years	New Media	Social/Breaking News
Interviewee #28	Male	6 Years	New Media	Business News
Interviewee #29	Female	2 Years	New Media	Social/Breaking News
Interviewee #30	Female	5 Years	New Media	Culture News
Interviewee #31	Female	7 Years	New Media	Business News

Quantitative data sampling and collection. Based on the findings from the in-depth interviews, a follow-up survey was utilized to first validate the operationalization of concepts revealed by the qualitative data and then examine the relationships among emotional demands, engagement in emotional labor, coping strategies, and burnout. Multiple steps were incorporated to guarantee the reliability and validity of the measurement scales. First, each examined variable was measured by using at least three

items; second, all the measurement scales were translated into Chinese, and other researches were invited to check the validity of the translation; finally, a pilot test was conducted with at least 50 frontline Chinese reporters in December 2019 to confirm the credibility of all the measurements.

Since Chinese journalists vary in terms of their types of work, media, work locations, and even work times, the researcher originally planned to distribute paper-based questionnaires to newsrooms in Beijing to achieve a high response rate. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic in mainland China, digital questionnaires were sent out to frontline reporters from different newsrooms in Beijing. The main reason for choosing frontline reporters from Beijing was because Beijing, with its political, cultural, and economic power as the nation's capital, has become the media center of China (Huang, 2012). According to Huang (2012), Beijing has a high density of news agencies, media groups, branches, and talent. For example, the Chaoyang District attracts numerous talented professionals, such as reporters, directors, producers, actors, and investors, from all over China (Chen, 2004). Moreover, as Xia and Yuan (2017) argue, the media development in different areas of China is quite uneven. In comparison to media markets in other provinces, the media structures in Beijing are the most complicated landscape, as it includes not only local-level media companies but also central-level media, such as *China Central Television (CCTV)*, *Xinhua News Agency*, and *the People's Daily*; sectoral-level media, including *the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference Journal* and *China Education Daily*; as well as other cross-regional joint media, like *Beijing News*. Given the intensified media competition, the media landscape in Beijing is well-known as the metropolitan area in China with the most active media (Beach, 2004).

However, political control of the media has been tightening in recent years; therefore, as a municipality that is directly controlled by the government, Beijing is the site with the most frequently released regulations related to media, journalists, and news products (Beach, 2004; Xia & Yuanm 2017). It could thus be assumed that reporters in Beijing are the ideal subjects to use to learn about their emotional experiences, since they are more frequently required to engage in emotional management during their work than journalistic practitioners in other areas of China.

Since the survey data was analyzed using a structural equation modeling (SEM) technique, the choice of sample size was made based on the sample size requirements for SEM. However, various rules-of-thumb related to sample size for applied SEM have been suggested in previous studies – including 5 to 10 samples for each estimated parameter, a subject-to-variable ratio of at least 5, or a minimum of 100–200 observations for whole model (e.g. Boomsma, 1982; Bryant & Yarnold, 1995; Wolf et al., 2013). In general, as Bentler and Yuan (1999) argue, with a sample size of 200 or above, the model is very stable under different conditions and allows for reliable inference. Accordingly, based on the rules-of-thumb suggested by previous studies, the target sample size of the present study was at least 200.

For data collection, it was originally planned to use a stratified sampling method in this survey study. By reducing the sampling error, the stratified sampling method can generate more accurate estimates than a simple random sampling method (Podgurski et al., 1990). Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, however, the digital questionnaire was first sent to 31 interviewees from 22 different media companies in Beijing, including five different broadcast channels, 11 print media, and six new media platforms. These 31

interviewees were then asked to send their completed questionnaires to their companies' WeChat work groups from January to March 2020. The reason for using the purposive sampling technique in the current study was because, in addition to attempting to understand journalists' emotional labor experiences, this study also tried to determine the impacts of different media platforms and news beats on such emotional experiences among journalists. In other words, the purpose of the quantitative sample technique was to represent a wide range of different types of reporters in Beijing. Therefore, purposive sampling was a good fit for this study, as it could be used to select a broader group of samples and design comparisons among different categories of the sample (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Also, to ensure an adequate response rate, each respondent was offered a coupon valued at around US\$3 for completing the survey. In total, 276 valid questionnaires were collected.

Quantitative measurement. The purpose of the survey was to collect generalizable data to validate the operationalization of emotional labor and examine the predictive role of emotional labor in Chinese reporters' work. The measurement of each variable was developed by combining previous studies and the qualitative data in this present study. Then, the proposed theoretical model was revised correspondingly (see Figure 4). Specifically, the main examined variables were:

Demands of emotion. This study used items from Brotheridge and Grandey's (2002) study measuring reporters perceived demands of emotion in their job. Based on the measurement scales, respondents were asked to evaluate the demands of emotion in their work in terms of the duration, frequency, intensity, and variety. The duration of emotional interactions with interviewees was measured with two items by asking "On an

average day at work, how many interviews I have? _____” and “A typical interaction I have with an interviewee takes about ___ minutes.” The duration of emotional requirement was computed by multiplying the number of “interviews conducted per day” by the “duration of time spent for each interview.”

Then, respondents were asked to rate on an average day at work how frequently (1) display specific emotions while interviewing required by your job, (2) adopt certain emotions required as part of your job; and (3) express particular emotions needed for your job, on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5=always). The average of the three items was used to create a composite measure of “frequency” ($M=3.14$, $SD=.88$), with a high value indicating a high level of emotion demands. The scale yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of .718. Similarly, the intensity and variety of emotional expression were assessed three items, respectively on the same 5-point Likert scale. For items to evaluate intensity of emotional expression while interviewing, the three items were (1) express intense emotions, (2) express certain strong emotions, and (3) show some strong emotions. These items were averaged to create a composite measure of “intensity” ($M=2.80$, $SD=.83$) with a Cronbach’s alpha of .720. The items measuring variety of emotional expressions were (1) display many different kinds of emotions; (2) express many different emotions, and (3) display many different emotions when interacting with others. The average of the items was used to create a composite measure of “variety” ($M=3.14$, $SD=.88$) with .719 Cronbach’s alpha.

In addition to perceived demand of emotions in work, the other situational cue in this study is emotional events. This variable was measured using Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). This scale

had two subscales each consisting of 10 adjectives that describe different feelings and emotions. Based on the qualitative data, it showed that Chinese journalists were more likely to use emotional labor strategies while interacting with interviewees. For that matter, in the questionnaire, Chinese journalists were asked to indicate on average to what extent they have felt this way while interacting with interviewees on a 5-point Likert scale with 1 = “very slightly or not at all” and 5 = “extremely.” In detail, positive affectivity items included enthusiastic, interested, determined, excited, inspired, alert, active, strong, proud, and attentive, while the negative affectivity items were scared, afraid, upset, distressed, jittery, nervous, ashamed, guilty, irritable, and hostile. The ten negative emotion items were computed together, then divided by then to generate an index of “negative affectivity” ($M=2.43$, $SD=.69$) with .859 Cronbach’s alpha. The other ten items were averaged to measure “positive affectivity” ($M=3.19$, $SD=.62$) with a .811 Cronbach’s alpha value.

Emotional labors. In Grandey’s (2000) model of emotion regulation at work, emotional labor was measured by two categories, including surface acting and deep acting. However, from the qualitative data in this study, in addition to these two situations, the interviewed Chinese frontline journalists mentioned that sometimes they also expressed the natural emotions during or after interviews. Therefore, considering this finding in the qualitative strand, emotional labor in this study was measured with the 14-item emotional labor strategies developed by Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005). The scale was developed to measure three types of emotional labor strategies: surface acting, deep acting, and authenticity or expression of naturally felt emotions. Participants were asked to rate each item using a 5-point Likert scale (5 = “Strongly Agree”; 1 =

“Strongly Disagree”). The items were slightly adapted to fit the journalism context. Finally, seven-item scale was used to assess surface acting while interacting with interviewees, four-item scale measuring deep acting, and three-item scale measuring expression of naturally felt emotions. Specifically, by combining Grandey’s (2003) and Kruml and Geddes’ (2000) measurement scales, seven items to measure surface acting while communicating with interviewees were (1) I put on an act in order to deal with interviewees in an appropriate way; (2) I fake a good mood when interacting with interviewees; (3) I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with interviewees; (4) I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job; (5) I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job; (6) I show feelings to interviewees that are different from what I feel inside; and (7) I fake the emotions I show when dealing with interviewees. Based on the CFA result, five items were averaged to form a composite measure of “surface acting” with a Cronbach’s alpha of .814, a mean of 2.91 and a standard deviation of .84. Four items assessing Chinese reporters’ deep acting while interacting with interviewees were (8) I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to interviewees; (9) I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others; (10) I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to interviewees; and (11) I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to interviewees. These four items were computed together to create a measure of “deep acting” ($M=3.74$, $SD=.78$) with a Cronbach’s alpha of .848. Finally, three items to measure their expression of naturally felt emotions were (12) the emotions I express to interviewees are genuine; (13) the emotions I show interviewees come naturally; and (14) the emotions I show interviewees match what I spontaneously feel. A composite measure

of “naturally express” ($M=3.10$, $SD=.77$) was constructed by averaging these three items with a .752 Cronbach’s alpha value.

Burnout. 16 questions in MBI-GS scale that introduced by Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson (1996) was used to measure Chinese journalists’ levels of burnout because this scale has been employed widely across different occupations and cultures with high reliability and validity. This measurement scale includes three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (Ex), cynicism (Cy), and professional efficacy (PE) and all items were slightly reworded to fit the journalism context. Respondents were asked to measure their attitudes towards these 16 statements on a 7-point scale, with 0 representing “never” and 6 meaning “every day”. A high degree of burnout is reflected in high Ex and Cy scores and in low PE scores.

In terms of the detailed measurement items, specifically, five items were used to evaluation Chinese reporters’ levels of emotional exhaustion: (1) I feel emotionally drained from my work; (2) I feel used up at the end of the workday; (3) I feel burned out from my work; (4) I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job; and (5) working all day is really a strain for me. According to CFA results, Items (1) and (2) were deleted and other three items were computed to construct a composite index “emotional exhaustion” ($M=3.54$, $SD=1.51$) and the Cronbach’s alpha value of this variable was .906. Five items for assessing cynicism were (6) I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything; (7) I have become less interested in my work since I started this job; (8) I have become less enthusiastic about my work; (9) I doubt the significance of my work; and (10) I just want to do my job and not be bothered. The last item was delated based on CFA result. The average of other

four items was used to construct “cynicism” variable ($M=3.07$, $SD=1.46$) with .901 Cronbach’s alpha value.

Six items to evaluate reporters’ professional efficacy levels were (11) at my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done; (12) I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work; (13) In my opinion, I am good at my job; (14) I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does; (15) I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something worthwhile in my job; and (16) I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job. These six items were first recoded. Then, the last item was deleted based on CFA analysis and a composite index of “professional inefficacy” ($M=3.32$, $SD=1.29$) was constructed by averaging other five items with a .890 Cronbach’s alpha value.

Coping strategies. In the original emotion regulation model proposed by Grandey in 2000, employees’ personal and organizational coping strategies could moderate the relationship between their emotional labor experience and levels of burnout. In this present study, according to the qualitative interview data, almost all interviewees pointed out the lack of organizational support in helping them deal with emotional labor experience. Therefore, for the coping strategies variable, the measurement was only focused on personal level coping strategies. The coping strategies measurement scale was developed based on The Brief COPE, a 28-item self-report questionnaire to measure how people cope with stress in work (Carver, 1997). This scale has been examined in many different professions, including journalism field and demonstrated consistent reliability and validity (e.g., Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Smith, Drevo, & Newman, 2018). The measure has 14 subscales that include self-distraction, active coping, denial,

substance abuse, use of emotional support, use of instrumental support, behavioral disengagement, venting, positive reframing, planning, humor, acceptance, religion, and self-blame (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Based on the previous studies, the 28 items with 14 subscales were rationally grouped into three categories that reflect (1) problem-focused coping strategies, including active coping, planning, instrumental support, and religion scales; (2) active emotional coping strategies, including venting, positive reframing, humor, acceptance, and emotional support scales; (3) avoidant emotional coping strategies, including self-distraction, denial, behavioral disengagement, self-blame, and substance use scales (Schnider, Elhai, & Gray, 2007).

Reporters were then asked to evaluate these statements on a 4-point Likert scale with 1 = "I haven't been doing this at all," 2 = "I've been doing this a little bit," 3 = "I've been doing this a medium amount," and 4 = "I've been doing this a lot." Higher scores indicated greater intensity of using coping strategies to reduce stresses caused by emotional expressions in work. Specifically, items including (2) I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in; (7) I've been taking action to try to make the situation better; (14) I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do; (25) I've been thinking hard about what steps to take; (10) I've been getting help and advice from other people; (23) I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do; (22) I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs; and (27) I've been praying or meditating were used to examine "problem-focused coping strategies." According to CFA analysis, (10), (23), (22), and (27) were deleted and other four items were computed to create a composite measure of "problem-focused coping strategies" ($M=3.15$, $SD=.70$) with a Cronbach's alpha value of .861.

The composite measure of “active emotional coping strategies” ($M=2.89$, $SD=.68$) was constructed by using variables (12) I’ve been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive; (17) I’ve been looking for something good in what is happening; (24) I’ve been learning to live with it. The Cronbach’s alpha value of this composite index is .770. Other seven items were deleted based on CFA result. These items were (9) I’ve been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape; (21) I’ve been expressing my negative feelings; (18) I’ve been making jokes about it; (28) I’ve been making fun of the situation; (20) I’ve been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened; (5) I’ve been getting emotional support from others; and (15) I’ve been getting comfort and understanding from someone.

Finally, Items (1) I’ve been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things; (19) I’ve been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping; (3) I’ve been saying to myself “this isn’t real”; (8) I’ve been refusing to believe that it has happened; (6) I’ve been giving up trying to deal with it; (16) I’ve been giving up the attempt to cope; (13) I’ve been criticizing myself; (26) I’ve been blaming myself for things that happened; (4) I’ve been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better; and (11) I’ve been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it, were used to test the usage of avoidant emotional coping strategies. Items (8), (6), (16), (4), and (11) were computed to create “avoidant emotional coping strategies” ($M=1.75$, $SD=.64$) with Cronbach’s alpha of .814.

Control variables. Based on the findings in the previous research, journalists’ gender (1=male, 2=female), age, working years in journalism field, educational levels,

position, beat, media type, and monthly income were used as the control variables in the study (e.g., Lo, Liu, & Pan, 2017; Reinardy, 2011; Willnat, Weaver, & Choi, 2013). Moreover, journalist's post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) syndrome was also included as the control variable by using six items. These items were (1) repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of a stressful experience from the past, (2) feeling very upset when something reminded you of a stressful experience from the past, (3) avoiding thinking or talking about a stressful experience from the past or avoiding having feelings related to it, (4) feeling distant or cut off from other people, (5) feeling irritable or having angry outbursts, and (6) difficulty concentrating. The computed measure of "PTSD" ($M=2.78$, $SD=.77$) was constructed by averaging these six items with a Cronbach's alpha value of .78.

Validity

Due to the complexity of mixed-methods research, the validity of the research design and data is an important issue considered in this study (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). Mixed-methods research needs to provide "multiple validities legitimization," which requires a researcher to validate the whole mixed-methods study as well as the respective qualitative and quantitative strands (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 128).

In the current study, data collection triangulation helped to reduce the errors in the data. As Patton (2002) argues, "Studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method than studies that use multiple methods in which different types of data provide cross-data validity checks" (p. 248). Specifically, in this study, both in-depth interviews and a follow-up survey were used to investigate Chinese

reporters' emotional labor experience and its impacts on their work and life. These two sources of data were triangulated to mitigate the weaknesses of both methodologies. Moreover, the validity of mixed-method research was also improved by integrating qualitative and quantitative strands (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). Integration techniques can be utilized at different stages of the research, including at the research design, methodology, data analysis, and reporting levels (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). Specifically, in the current study, the integration process occurred through method and data analysis processes. First, the interview participants in the qualitative strand were also recruited for the quantitative survey. As argued by Fetter, Curry, and Creswell (2013), linking two sources of data through the sampling frame is an important approach to achieve data integration. Second, the findings from the qualitative strand in this study were directly transferred into the follow-up quantitative research. For example, the interview data found that Chinese reporters frequently experienced emotional labor while interacting with interviewees. Therefore, instead of examining all different circumstances, the quantitative survey only focused on reporters' emotional labor in connecting with interviewees and the effect of this on their levels of burnout. Consequently, the measured variables and proposed theoretical model were strengthened (Fetter, Curry, & Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, the theoretical terms used in different strands were also unified to increase the transformability of the data. For instance, in the quantitative phase, positive and negative were used to describe the affectivity of the events which could predict participants emotional labor experience. However, in the qualitative interview, the majority of interviewees also utilized "positive" and "negative" to explain their emotional experience with different stakeholders in their jobs. Thus, the terms positive and negative were used

coherently in both qualitative and quantitative data analyses to accurately reflect Chinese reporters' emotional experiences. In general, positive emotions included feelings like excited, inspired, and interested, while negative emotions included scared, guilty, and so on. Prolonged engagement with the research subjects also validated the data collection process and the quality of the data in the current study.

The period of data collection in this study was from January 2019 to March 2020. At the time of writing this dissertation, some interviewees and questionnaire respondents still continued to contact the researcher through social media and share their emotional experiences in their daily work. It can thus be assumed that good rapport and mutual trust between the researcher and studied subjects were established. As mentioned previously, the snowball sampling and questionnaire distribution were heavily dependent on these studied subjects. Through the continued interactions, the validity of data collection and analysis was ensured (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009).

Validity was also considered in both the qualitative and quantitative strands of this study. The primary techniques adopted to ensure the validity of the qualitative strand were the researcher's relevant background, reflective memos, and thick description. Patton (2002) mentions that, as the researcher is the instrument in a qualitative study, their background can have a definite effect on the data collection and analysis processes. In the current study, the researcher has 5 years' experience working as a frontline journalist in China and has had such emotional experiences at work. Therefore, during the interview, the researcher shared personal emotions experienced in the workplace to build rapport with interviewees and help them recall memories to ensure the quality of the data. Moreover, this personal background also improved the researcher's understanding and analysis of interview narratives. The

second technique used in the study was reflective memos. After each interview, a short personal memo was created to summarize the researcher's thoughts on the interviewee and the whole interview process and thereby facilitate the thematic analysis that followed. Finally, in the qualitative data analysis section, interviewees' verbal and non-verbal responses were included to yield a thick description. According to Merriam (1998), a detailed and thick description of cases can improve the transferability of findings to other situations, which improved the external validity of the findings.

Validity in quantitative studies has four dimensions – namely, internal, external, construct, and statistical conclusion validity (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). In the quantitative strand of the current study, the measurement of each variable was developed based on theory and then revised based on the first round of eight in-depth interviews and a pilot test with 50 Chinese frontline reporters to ensure the construct validity. In the questionnaire distribution process, reporters in different beats from various media platforms in Beijing were reached in order to improve the generalizability of the study. Finally, in addition to the adequate sampling method and reliable measurements, appropriate statistical tests were employed based on the features of the quantitative data to achieve statistical conclusion validity.

Summary

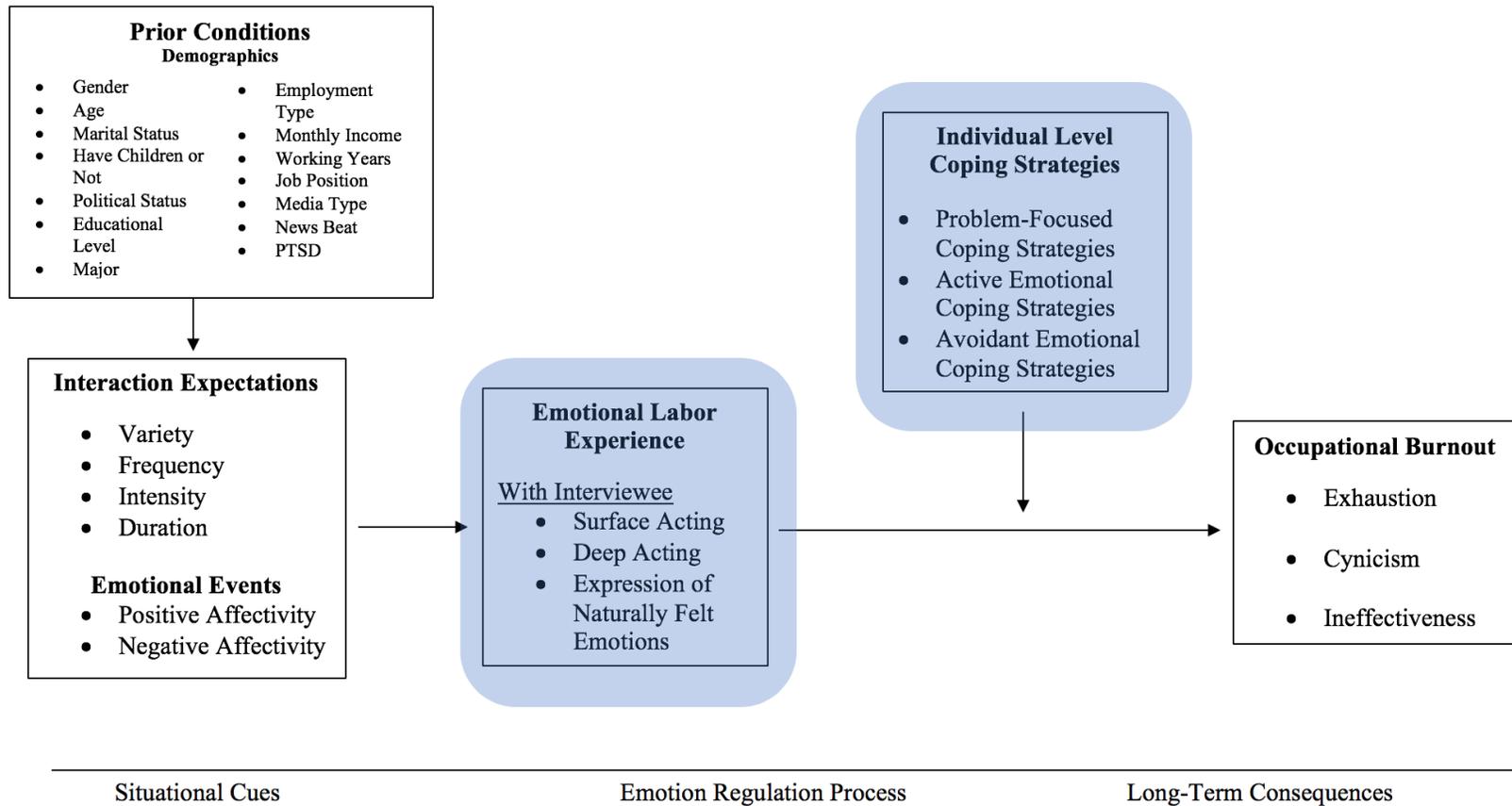
This study used China as a context to explore the role of emotions in the journalistic profession. Specifically, it first focused on how journalists make sense of their emotions and engage in emotional management when interacting with different types of stakeholders in their work. Second, this study outlined the process of emotional labor in Chinese reporters and the antecedents and outcomes of the process. The interplay

among the precarious work, the development of social media, and a fiercely competitive media market accelerates the “emotional turn” in journalistic practice (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020). However, although previous studies shed light on understanding the role of emotions in journalistic practice, the linkage between individual journalists’ emotion management and the impacts thereof on their work and life have been understudied (Thomson, 2018; Wahl-Jorgensen, 2018, 2019a).

Therefore, using Chinese frontline reporters as an example, the purpose of this study is to provide preliminary findings regarding the link between their emotional labor experience and levels of burnout. Moreover, the effects of coping strategies to relieve burnout levels are also examined in the research to indicate helpful practical implications for journalistic practitioners, media administrators, and journalism educators.

Considering the complexity of the emotional labor process in journalists, an exploratory mixed-methods approach enables a more comprehensive and nuanced investigation than single-method research (Creswell & Clark, 2011). As this research focuses only on the frontline reporters in China, the applicability of the findings to other contexts could be controversial. However, the combination of qualitative in-depth interviews and a quantitative survey not only increases the width but also the depth of the data (Hammarberg, Kirkman, & de Lacey, 2016). Accordingly, given its thick description of Chinese reporters’ emotional experiences as well as their work environment, the current study provides findings that can be applied to other situations. The very detailed results can increase the transferability of the research, allowing readers to match their situations to the cases described in the study (e.g. Merriam, 1998; Shenton, 2004).

Figure 4. *Proposed Model for Understanding Chinese Reporters' Emotional Experiences and the Effect of Intervention on Burnout.*



Notes: The two blocks with light blue are tested by using a qualitative in-depth interview method; then, the entire theoretical model is examined by the quantitative survey.

Chapter 4: Interview Study Results I: Chinese Reporters’ Emotional Experiences in Daily Practice

In the qualitative strand of this study, 31 frontline reporters were interviewed. All of the interviews were subsequently transcribed and analyzed thematically. In previous literature, it has been found that journalists frequently experience emotional reactions both during and after their interactions with interviewees; such experiences are considered to be an essential aspect of the journalistic culture (e.g., Backholm & Björkqvist, 2012; Pantti, 2010; Simpson & Boggs, 1999). In the current study, however, intense emotional experiences were even found to occur in the news preparation stage. Furthermore, such emotional experiences arise not only in communicating with interviewees but also in journalists’ relationship with other key players in their work, such as PR practitioners, government publicity officials, readers/audiences, and key opinion leaders.

This chapter addresses the first research questions of the study by revealing how Chinese reporters describe their emotional experiences at work. It provides a detailed analysis of Chinese frontline reporters’ emotional experiences before, during, and after interviews and while interacting with different key stakeholders in their daily work. In addition, key factors that impacted the reporters’ emotional experiences in their work are also discussed in this chapter.

RQ1 asks how Chinese reporters describe the emotional experiences that they encounter during their daily journalistic practices. To answer this question, a thematic analysis of 31 transcribed interviews was conducted. To begin, it is worth noting that, on

the whole, the majority of reporters interviewed agreed that a professional reporter should not be excessively influenced by personal emotion when reporting on a story because news coverage should be objective and free from bias. However, as shown in Table 3, the findings revealed that, in certain situations, reporters frequently experienced emotions before, during, and after their interviews with news sources. More importantly, among the various phases involved in the production of news, communicating with various key players after having conducted interviews tended to evoke more intense emotions on the part of reporters. One respondent, who works as a junior investigative reporter for a state-owned newspaper, noted that during the news production process, “there are complex combinations of emotions arise rather than just one particular emotional state” (Interviewee #20). The emotional experiences that occur in different stages of news production are discussed in the following sections.

Table 3. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Emotional Experiences with Key Players in News Production Process.*

News Production Stage	Main Activities and Contexts	Contact Person(s)	Emotional Tone	Why the Emotional Experience Was Generated
Before the interview	Searching for promising news ideas	N/A	Anxious, scared, worried	Searching for news stories is related to reporters' job performance and livelihood
Before the interview	Receiving a lead	News sources	Excited	A breakthrough in reporting has been achieved
Before the interview	Preparing for the interview	Interviewees	Anxious; other emotions depend on the news topic	Reporters may have social phobia or be personally impacted by the nature of the news topic
Before the interview	During the short-term interaction	PR professionals	Angry	PR professionals may make it difficult to access official sources
Before the interview	During long-term interactions	PR professionals	Embarrassed	Reporters may be afraid to damage personal relationship with PR professionals
During the interview	Covering traumatic events or unfamiliar news topics	Interviewees	Shocked, sad, guilty, touched, nervous, anxious	Reporters were impacted by the topics of interviews and interviewees' negative experiences
During the interview	Experiencing difficulties in reaching a breakthrough	Interviewees	Stressed, anxious, frustrated	News investigation process relates to reporters' job evaluation and livelihood
During the interview	Large gap in social status between reporters and interviewees	Interviewees	Nervous, worried	Interviews were interrupted, and reporters' ability was underestimated
During the interview	Unreasonable requests from interviewees	Interviewees	Struggling, anxious, upset, angry	Reporters' editorial freedom was violated and not respected
During the interview	Interviewing inspiring people	Interviewees	Inspired, touched	Rapport was achieved between the reporter and the interviewee
During the interview	Reaching a breakthrough while investigating a story	Interviewees	Excited	News investigation process relates to reporters' job evaluation and livelihood

During the interview	Having difficulties in accessing official sources	Government Publicity officials	Angry, fearful, aggrieved	Reporters were threatened
After the interview	Writing the article	N/A	Depends on the news topic	Reporters have to engage with audiences and may have delayed stress reactions
After the interview	Writing the article	N/A	Strained, anxious, fearful	Reporters are afraid of making mistakes or of getting interviewees or themselves into trouble
After the interview	Considering the positive consequences of the story	Interviewees	Proud, sense of accomplishment and achievement	Reporters feel that they are perceived positively and have caused changes in their subjects' lives
After the interview	Considering the negative consequences of the story	Interviewees	Disappointed, frustrated, sad, guilty, self-doubt, sense of powerlessness	Reporters feel that they have not had much of an impact or that they may have had a negative impact on their subjects
After the interview	Receiving positive feedback or reaching a wider readership	Readers/audiences	Sense of value and accomplishment	Reporters feel that their hard work and efforts are recognized and valued
After the interview	Receiving negative comments from readers	Readers/audiences	Nervous, discouraged, , ashamed	Reporters feel incompetent at their jobs
After the interview	Article was shared and/or reposted by key opinion leaders	Key opinion leader	Excited, encouraged	Reporters feel that their hard work and efforts are recognized and valued
After the interview	Facing post-publication censorship	Publicity officials	Discouraged, hopeless	Reporters feel that their hard work and efforts are not valued and that their jobs are meaningless
After the interview	Being asked to revise or delete news story	PR practitioners	Annoyed, frustrated, embarrassed	Reporters may be afraid to damage personal relationship with PR professionals

Emotional Experiences Before the Interview

The majority of emotional experiences in the news preparation stage stemmed from when frontline reporters were (1) searching for newsworthy topics, (2) following up on a lead, or (3) preparing for upcoming interviews. In contrast with general assignment reporters, Chinese investigative reporters are strongly encouraged to not only cover assigned stories but also to propose story pitches during their weekly editorial meetings. Chinese reporters' remuneration consists of a relatively low basic salary, which is complemented by merit pay and adjusted based on productivity and seniority (Zhao, 1997). Therefore, their monthly income is heavily dependent on their ability to propose story ideas, which gives rise to the intense emotions mentioned by all five of the interviewed investigative reporters. Interviewee #20 once worked for a month without publishing any news stories: "I was struggling, and, apart from worrying about news ideas, I also felt more pressure to pay my bills in Beijing because I didn't make enough money in that month." He described this experience as being characterized by intense and fluctuating emotions:

It is just like riding an emotional roller coaster. I started this first job after graduating five months ago, but, even now, I still feel nervous, anxious, and sometimes frustrated when trying to come up with story ideas. But, once my idea is approved, I get so excited about the upcoming interview. (Interviewee #20)

This quote shows that the preparation of proposals for news stories is an essential aspect of reporters' complex emotional experiences. In addition to the stress associated with job performance, the impact of proposing news ideas can also spill over into their personal lives. A senior reporter, who had worked as a business investigative reporter for over 15 years, also reported feeling anxious when searching for news ideas but for

reasons that differ from those mentioned for interviewee #20: “I felt like I haven’t published excellent work for almost four to five years. I think I really need to have something that exceeds my previous work” (Interviewee #15). He also admitted that he became extremely excited when he received confidential documents from whistleblowers because such documents provide him with more opportunities to produce exclusive news stories.

Frontline reporters also reported having emotional responses to the subjects of their stories while preparing for field interviews, as they have to extensively research and familiarize themselves with the context of a case and the relevant interviewees. For instance, one legal reporter with nine years’ experience in various traditional and new media organizations explained her reasoning: “Reporters are human beings first, so that we can’t completely detach emotions from a story. Even before the interview, I usually have personal opinions of and emotions towards my interviewees and the case” (Interviewee #23). Taking Nie Shubin’s wrongful conviction case as an example, the reporter further explained that, even before interviewing Nie’s mother, he was extremely touched by her story and sympathized with her because he had learned that she had spent almost 20 years attempting to prove her son’s innocence. Many other respondents also mentioned experiencing such emotions prior to commencing field interviews. However, they also indicated that these emotions might change completely during the course of an investigation.

Surprisingly, in addition to any preexisting emotions concerning the subject of a story, three print reporters also noted that they had experienced social anxiety when attempting to contact interviewees:

Based on my observations, many print reporters are good writers but not good communicators. Many of them, including myself, experience severe social phobia. Using myself as an example, I am introverted and not good at socializing. So, sometimes I need to build a psychological construct before establishing a new connection or even just calling a new interviewee. As far as I know, many reporters, particularly novice print reporters who are likely to confront this difficulty. (Interviewee #9)

Overall, almost half of the respondents indicated that they were affected by their emotions during the news preparation process. On the one hand, they struggled with finding and developing pitches for news stories, as doing so relates to their job performance and livelihood; on the other hand, emotions toward interviewees develop gradually as they invest time in researching cases prior to conducting field interviews. Negative emotions, including nervousness, anxiety, fear, and stress, dominated the interviewed reporters' descriptions of the emotions they experienced prior to field interviews.

The respondents indicated that emotional experiences occurred not only while they were interacting with the potential interviewees but also while they were negotiating with PR professionals in the news preparation stage. Paid journalism emerged in China in the late 1980s (Zhang, 2009). As an unspoken rule, PR companies, enterprises, and even government organs will give a transportation subsidy (also known as a "red envelope" or *che ma fei*) ranging from a few to several hundred dollars to reporters when inviting them to cover press conferences as an incentive for them to publish positive reports (Xu, 2016; Zhang, 2009). For years, Chinese frontline reporters have maintained closer mutually beneficial relationships with PR companies when compared with their Western counterparts. This is particularly true in the case of business reporters, who often have to contact PR agencies or the press offices of companies to make inquiries. Interviewee #31,

an enterprise reporter at a new media company, said that “They [PR professionals] usually piss me off because they never help with my interviews, especially when facing a crisis.” One example of this situation was her latest story, which concerned illegal concealed cameras in a well-known hotel in China. She reminisced about her experiences reporting this issue and indicated that she was still extremely irritated by the PR officer: “That was a timely story, and I called the press office asking for the CEO’s response. I was so speechless because the officer just used various flimsy excuses to avoid helping me contact their executive officer” (Interview #31). This account shows that reporters’ emotional reactions are often heavily dependent on PR professionals’ cooperation, as the information they provided is closely related to their reporting.

Many PR professionals attempt to develop long-term relationships with certain reporters in their clients’ field to ensure regular media coverage (Tsetsure, 2015). However, as several interviewees noted, these relationships are often emotionally intensive. The interviewed reporters noted that their relationships with PR practitioners could increase their social capital as journalists but could sometimes lead to emotional exhaustion. For example, Interviewee #9 shifted her beat from culture and entertainment to politics in 2018; however, she mentioned her relationships with some PR agencies in the entertainment field were extended in her new position. She felt conflicted about this situation: “They knew I’ve changed my job but still invite me to cover their news events, which are almost irrelevant to my job, but I’ve known them for a few years and always feel awkward saying no.” Similar accounts were also shared by some of the more experienced of the interviewed reporters. In recent years, many senior Chinese reporters have joined the PR departments of tech giants, such as Alibaba, Jingdong, and Meituan,

due to the attractive salaries offered. Some reporters, such as Interviewee #10, described their relationships with certain PR officers as involving “emotional blackmail” because, when the companies for which reporters’ former colleagues now worked as press officers faced PR crises, those individuals would approach reporters and attempt to influence reporting to reduce the negative impact on their employers. This respondent noted that she experienced intense emotional difficulties in such scenarios because she felt guilty at having to decline her friends’ requests.

Emotional Experiences During Interviews

Dealing with interviewees, working with editors, and attempting to meet demanding deadlines have been identified in previous literature as primary triggers of emotional reactions on the part of journalists during the news production phase (e.g., Thomson, 2018). In the current study, the reporters interviewed admitted that they may on occasion experience emotions while interviewing, but only under specific conditions. In response to a question concerning this topic, an experienced female TV reporter gestured dramatically and stated the following:

To be honest, I don’t have time to think about personal emotions. Due to time limitations, I need to rack my brains trying to get their [subjects’] answers to fill up my news story in a very short time. In addition to that, I also have to coordinate the work of my crew, including camera man, the lighting engineer, and, sometimes, a recording engineer, to finish the job on time. (Interviewee #5)

The experience described above is not restricted to TV reporters, as a newspaper investigative reporter also shared the similar experience. Due to the limited budgets for newsrooms and the fierce market competition, reporters are expected to complete their investigations quickly: “Mission impossible! Sometimes my boss only gives me two to three days [to complete a story]. So, the only thing I try to do is to spare no effort in

finding a breakthrough and contacting potential interviewees” (Interviewee #20). New media reporters’ descriptions of their daily interview experiences were quite similar. An extreme example was provided by Interviewee #20, who works as a cultural and academic reporter at a state-owned new media platform. She said that, on occasion, she was told to complete a news story in just two hours. Therefore, she finds it impossible to consider emotions, as she has to use all resources and all of her social circles to identify and contact subject as quickly as possible.

Strikingly, all of the frontline reporters interviewed stated that they indeed experienced negative emotions in certain circumstances during interviews, especially when they (1) covered traumatic events, such as natural disasters, criminal cases, or suicides; (2) had difficulties achieving breakthroughs in their news investigation; (3) encountered a significant disparity in terms of social status between subjects and themselves; and (4) were faced with unreasonable requests from subjects. However, interviewing inspiring subjects and/or completing a challenging news story could lead to reporters experiencing positive emotions during the interviews.

Interaction with interviewees. Traumatic reporting is described as emotionally intense in the existing literature (e.g., Kotišová, 2019a). Similarly, the respondents in this study felt that covering traumatic events could elicit intense emotional experience to a significant degree. Sadness, irritation, fear, empathy, shock, and guilt were feelings that frequently appeared in interviewees’ descriptions of such experiences. Interviewee #17, who had more than 20 years’ experience as a reporter, shared, in detail, his experience of reporting on the Great Wenchuan earthquake, which occurred on May 12, 2008. He

walked for more than 40 hours by himself and arrived at the epicenter on May 13. When he arrived at the epicenter, he had had only a few hours' sleep in an abandoned jeep:

Many schoolhouses fell because the buildings were “tofu-dreg projects” [poorly constructed building projects, also known as *doufuzha gongcheng*]. The first scene I saw was the army physicians performing surgery on a five-to-six-year-old girl's hands. She looked so weak, and, when she was about to be sent to the hospital by helicopter, I remember her asking the nurse “Can you still talk to me in the helicopter? I feel so lonely....” When I heard that, I was very sad because her parents were probably gone.

On the same day, I saw an elementary student who was being dug out from the debris by rescuers. A few days later, I brought gifts and went to the hospital to see her. She had just had a double below-knee amputation and was lying in bed. Her mom told me that she was still under anesthesia and didn't know that she had lost both legs. I suddenly broke down in tears and cried almost all afternoon. (Interviewee #17)

This respondent's description of the 23 days he spent in Wenchuan reporting on the earthquake highlighted his mixed emotions of sadness, shock, physical exhaustion, and the emergence of a sense of purpose. A radio reporter shared that he had experienced similar feelings while covering a mudflow disaster in China's Gansu Province. He recalled that he met a girl in the mudflow-stricken area who was holding nails in her hands: “I can't forget her answer until now. I asked her and she told me that she was going to nail her father's coffin. I just lost my head and didn't know how to continue with the rest of my interview” (Interviewee #8). Some respondents, including Interviewees #15 and #17, also expressed their feeling of anger with the local and central governments when reporting such news. For example, when covering the aftermath of the Great Wenchuan earthquake, they found that the concrete remains of destroyed buildings could easily be crumbled in their hands, indicating the poor quality of the material, and many children were buried under the collapsed schoolhouses due to the shoddy quality of “tofu” projects. However, the government concealed the death toll and insisted that the

collapses were only caused by the earthquake – actions that greatly upset some of the interviewees. Such emotional experiences were not only linked to reporting traumatic events, as the society reporters interviewed also expressed having experienced similar emotions when covering social issues: “The fake baby formula, forced evictions, and vaccine scandals keep happening. I’m very mad because, for example, the forced eviction issue emerged 20 years ago, but the government has yet to address it until now” (Interviewee #27).

In addition to sadness and anger, several respondents also frequently reported having felt touched as a result of their experiences. Reporters who had covered traumatic events all shared that moving moments that had occurred during their interviews. For example, Interviewee #4 shared a memory about an interview conducted in Wenchuan a year after the earthquake that struck the region. She stated that when she saw parents grieving for their children who had been killed in the earthquake, “I was touched and suddenly absorbed in their grief. At that time, I felt that I was just a normal person, not a reporter.” According to the reporters, sometimes the locals they met in the disaster-stricken areas were not only the subjects of their stories but also warmed their hearts. Using a news report on the 2013 Lushan earthquake as an example, Interviewee #18 shared that he had been touched by the assistance that many of the earthquake’s victims offered him. Another respondent shared his experience of reporting on the 2010 Gansu mudslide in Zhouqu County and provided a detailed example of being moved by reporting on a particular event: “When we were walking through the mud, my guide picked an apple to thank me for walking miles and reporting on the tragedy that had

occurred in this small town.” The respondent indicated that he was truly moved and said that “These trivial things make my work meaningful.”

From an ethical perspective, one third of respondents mentioned the “moral dilemma” (Kotišová, 2019a) they faced in reporting. On the one hand, reporters are responsible for covering the news; on the other hand, they realize that their interview subjects may be re-traumatized, as the interviews may prompt them to relive painful memories. Many of the reporters interviewed mentioned having experienced self-blame, guilt, and regret when confronted with this dilemma. While reporting on the 10th anniversary of the Wenchuan earthquake, Interviewee #14 interviewed some children who had been orphaned as a result of earthquake. She described this experience as follows: “I felt that I had interrupted their lives, and I also felt guilty for taking them relive that horrible memory.” This perspective was echoed by other respondents, including Interviewees #3, #10, and #21, who described experiencing self-loathing when doing the “death-knock” to victims or their families because they felt that this type of news serves as sensational entertainment. The analysis of the interviewees’ responses suggests that, along with strict deadlines, physical fatigue, and witnessing the scenes of disaster, reporting traumatic news can cause reporters to experience a range of mixed emotions.

In contrast to previous studies that highlighted reporters’ emotional experiences when reporting on traumatic events (e.g., Backholm & Björkqvist, 2012; McMahon, 2001), the interviews conducted for the present study indicate that reporters also had emotional experiences when covering other types of news, such as engaging in undercover reporting and conducting in-street interviews. One award-winning TV

investigative reporter said that, although on-air reporting was stressful, he was more nervous while conducting undercover news investigations to expose certain issues, especially when he was recognized or felt threatened by subjects. Another interviewee, who was working as a military reporter for a state-owned new media platform, offered an additional perspective: “I reported on mine clearance on the Sino-Vietnamese border last year. I was so nervous because that was my first time covering this topic, and I had to work with soldiers during a landmine clearance operation” (Interviewee #25). This example indicates that, beyond the emotional experiences that arise when reporting on traumatic incidents, reporters are more likely to be anxious while covering stories in novel circumstances or when dealing with unfamiliar news topics.

The respondents also noticed that, while working on complex news stories, every step in their field interviews and investigations has the potential to cause them to experience unavoidable emotions. Interviewee #16, who had more than five years’ experience of working as a legal reporter for an industry newspaper, summarized: “As your field interview continue, you’re eager to determine the truth and complete your work, so you will be extremely sensitive to the progress of the investigation and interviewees’ standpoints and reactions.” Related to this observation, many of the society, investigative, and legal reporters who were interviewed emphasized the quest for “breakthroughs,” which can precipitate emotional experiences on their part during interviews. In this regard, against the background of consistently strict deadlines, should reporters in the field face difficulties in achieving breakthroughs in the stories that they are covering, they can feel nervous, depressed, and even frustrated.

Surprisingly, social status gaps between reporters and their interviewees were also frequently mentioned as a source of emotional experiences by the participants in this study. Junior reporters, in particular, indicated that situations in which they had to interview high-ranking or well-known public figures (e.g., CEOs, famous experts, or top government officials) tend to generate strong emotions, such as fear of losing control of the interview. Interviewee #31 indicated that, in her current job, she has many opportunities to interview business owners. She noted that “Most of them have very strong personalities. They can be difficult and sometimes you can’t even continue your interview because they keep challenging your questions.” Reporters’ descriptions of their experiences indicated that, aside from being concerned that they would lose their dominant position required to lead the interview, they were also worried about being underestimated by subjects during the interview. Furthermore, due to the social status gap, it is more likely that high-status subjects will make unreasonable or unethical requests of reporters, which can also generate emotions. For example, the respondents indicated that this type of interviewee usually requests to be provided with the questions to be asked prior to the interview, refuses to answer any negative questions, and asks to review the story before publication. The reporters mentioned that the emotions that arose in such situations included anxiety, anger, and frustration. The sentiment that dominated reporters’ descriptions of these types of situations was summarized by Interviewee #31: “I felt that I am just their propaganda tool and that they respect neither me nor editorial freedom.”

It is interesting to note that the respondents frequently stated that they seldom experienced, or could at least control, emotions while conducting interviews or

investigations. Furthermore, they indicated that they only experienced emotional responses in certain circumstances. Sadly, the majority of Chinese frontline reporters interviewed indicated that they experienced negative emotions in their work. Only one fifth of the interviewed reporters mentioned positive emotional experiences while reporting.

Achieving a breakthrough while conducting a field interview was most frequently noted as trigger of positive emotions. Interviewee #4's most recent story, which concerned the victim of an unsolved 1995 thallium poisoning case, serves as a good example. The victim's family repeatedly refused to participate in an interview, but, after the interviewer cultivated rapport with them over several months, they finally consented to an interview: "That was an amazing experience! I was happy, touched, and excited. I felt that my efforts were finally recognized by the family" (Interviewee #4). Other reporters interviewed, including Interviewees #20 and #28, shared similar experiences and mentioned that they could experience positive emotions during an interview simply as a result of asking good question. In addition, one investigative reporter, Interviewee #15, added that he felt extremely satisfied when he could get a scoop or secure an exclusive interview.

One advantage of being a reporter is having many opportunities to meet, interview, and even develop personal connections with inspiring people. The interviewees identified such opportunities as a source of positive emotional experiences. For example, as a political reporter, Interviewee #18 had the experience of interviewing Zhou Duo, an intellectual who had supported the Tiananmen Square protests in 1989: "I am quite inspired by him! He was tortured by the power, but he was still very humble and

not driven by emotions when talking about politics in China.” For society reporters, positive emotions also occurred while interacting with subjects on a grassroots level. A new media society reporter explained that “They deserve our respect because no matter how hard their lives are, they are brave, resilient, and keep fighting for their lives. I was so impressed!” (Interviewee #27). Based on these quotes, in addition to being impacted by the progress and success of their reporting, reporters are also sensitive to and impacted by their interviewees’ attitudes and personalities.

In their pursuit of fast-paced, low-cost reporting, many reporters in China have to conduct interviews via the phone or online rather than in person. In line with previous literature (e.g., Thomson, 2018), reporters were found to not only experience emotional engagement during face-to-face interviews. One respondent recounted reporting on a case on acute childhood lymphoblastic leukemia: “I only had time to conduct a phone interview with a patient’s family because my editor told me that it was an urgent story. However, I still felt sad and emotionally affected by the details the patient shared regarding how his father had saved money and cared for his son at home” (Interviewee #13). However, the degree of such emotional engagement varies across different types of interviews. Interviewee #28 specifically mentioned that he experienced emotions more readily during face-to-face interviews; however, this also depends on his familiarity with an interviewee. Other respondents added to this observation by indicating that they were less likely to experience emotions if they knew the subject personally.

Interaction with publicity officials. A quarter of the interviewed reporters indicated that, while conducting interviews, in addition to their interactions with sources, their relationship with publicity officials was also a major source of emotional

experience. One reason was that local governments and/or government organs are usually involved in news stories, and representatives of these bodies thus need to be interviewed to ensure balanced reporting. However, the Chinese Communist Party's (CCP's) central propaganda system and its local branches actively regulate news reporting and media publications. Consequently, reporters usually need to contact local propaganda offices for official responses; however, respondents indicated that government publicity officials, who should be included in reporting, often cause reporters to feel intense emotions, especially when these officials refuse to cooperate. One reporter said that she once phoned over 20 different departments in one day but did not get any responses from them: "I was so furious because the only thing they did was to shift their responsibilities to each other" (Interviewee #12). Moreover, the respondents stated that, even if they worked for Party-owned media channels, they still had trouble obtaining official responses, which impacted their emotions. Two reporters working for a state-owned TV station indicated that local publicity officials were supposed to cooperate with reporting, which includes helping reporters to get into contact with interviewees, as the majority of news reports on party-owned media is about propagandizing the political achievements of local governments. However, both of these reporters described local publicity officials as unprofessional individuals who caused them much inconvenience while conducting interviews. Moreover, Interviewee #19 described another scenario that could result in him "flying into a rage": He said that, while reporting on social issues, interviewees were sometimes threatened by local publicity officials and betrayed reporters.

The respondents who worked at new media companies specifically noted more extreme emotional experiences while interacting with local publicity officials.

Interviewee #12 explained that the majority of new media reporters are not allowed to conduct interviews in China. Therefore, if they tried to conduct the field interview, they have to hide the identity and skillfully manage their relationships with these officials in field interviews, which can take a tremendous psychological toll on reporters, as they might be threatened or even physically attacked. Interviewee #12 recalled a memory that made her very emotional:

I covered the 10th anniversary of the Chinese milk scandal in 2018. But they [publicity officials and the police] arrested me at my hotel room using riot control equipment. They then said that the topic was sensitive and asked me to delete all of my writing and photographs from my laptop. I felt scared, falsely accused, and so humiliated. When I returned to my room at midnight, I broke down and cried for so long.

The above account shows the tension between new media reporters and local publicity officials. The interviewed news media reporters expressed their grievances concerning the differential treatment received by them during their reporting in comparison with their peers working at Party-owned media outlets. Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Tong, 2007), these reporters also indicated that they had to employ “guerrilla tactics” when interacting with officials, which also resulted in emotional exhaustion.

Emotional Experiences After the Interview

As mentioned previously, when describing emotional experiences that arose when they conducted interview, the majority of respondents repeatedly emphasized their detachment and their control of emotions during the interview. However, over two thirds of the respondents directly admitted to having had intense emotional experiences after interviews. An aeronautics and astronautics reporter who works for a state-owned media company said that “I think the intense emotional moment happens after the interview, not

during the interview” (Interviewee #13). To be more specific, the data shows that reporters’ emotional experiences chiefly occur during two main phases: the news writing or producing phase and the post-publication phase. In addition, beyond relationships or interactions with interviewees, reporters’ relationships with readers/audiences, publicity officials, PR practitioners, and key opinion leaders can also have an impact on their emotional experiences after an interview.

Some reporters stated that, in the news writing or producing stage, emotions should be involved in writing stories, as emotions serve to engage the audience, and “The story is only interesting if you use details and infuse true feelings into your storytelling” (Interviewee #17). Although many of the other respondents did not fully support this perspective, they did indicate that they feel emotions while writing and producing stories. The reason given for this is that, in contrast to the interview stage, reporters have more time to revisit emotional moments after interviews. Interviewee #6, who works as a reporter on the international news beat, humorously claimed that “They [media outlets] should pay us emotional damage compensation!” One example he shared concerned reporting on a toxic moonshine incident in India: “When I edited this story, I burst into tears because I couldn’t bear it. You could see their living conditions in the slum, you could hear someone crying and screaming, etcetera, which brought back emotional memories from the interview.” He added that the experience influenced him for several weeks after the interview. This finding echoes previous literature on the delayed stress reaction indicating that the impact of stressful events is not immediate but might gradually increase over the following weeks (e.g., Moitra et al., 2011).

It was surprising to learn that those respondents who work for China's official state media (also known as *guanmei*) often feel strained and anxious during news writing: "My beat is quite sensitive. So, I'm pretty nervous when writing. I have to go through my writing four to five times and cautiously check those specific terms over and over again before publication" (Interviewee #13). Although these respondents attributed this feeling to the fear of inaccuracy, the underlying reason may be the influence of the Chinese propaganda system. According to Sun (2001), "unified expression in propaganda" – the uniform reporting of prescribed news by the media – has governed news reporting and journalists' daily practices in China for decades (p. 69). Party-owned media platforms, such as the *Xinhua News Agency*, *The People's Daily*, and *China Central Television*, are not only CCP mouthpieces but also play an essential role in constructing political ideology and guiding public opinion (Chin, 2016). Thus, making an error might have a drastic impact on a reporter's careers, a danger that exerts invisible pressure on journalists when they are writing or producing news stories.

The other emotion that was frequently reported is fear, which the interviewed respondents (particularly those who worked for non-official media channels) viewed from two perspectives. The fear of possibly re-traumatizing subjects was mentioned most frequently, followed by the fear of getting oneself in trouble. News stories that are critical of the government are strictly censored by propaganda departments, as they are viewed as a challenge to the government's power and social stability. Therefore, as Interviewee #29 (a reporter working for a web-based news media outlet) described, when writing an article, she must use news sources skillfully, as, otherwise, the article might lead to adverse consequences for sources and may even jeopardize their safety. Moreover, a

business reporter indicated that he is always cautious when writing because he might be prosecuted by the companies mentioned in reports. Interview #16, a legal reporter, even shared that he was involved in a civil lawsuit with a coal-mining company, which had caused him substantial mental stress over the preceding two years.

Reporters' emotional experiences do not end with the publication, as most of them have to maintain relationships with their sources. As Pan (2000) reveals, Chinese journalists are experts in networking with key individuals due to the pressure to secure a scoop. Intense emotions during the post-publication stage mainly arise when reporters interact with sources and especially when (1) their work is held in high regard by interviewees and the public, (2) their reports can have an impact on subjects or society, and (3) they maintain close relationships with their subjects.

Interaction with interviewees. As revealed in several studies, in addition to being mouthpieces of the CCP, Chinese journalists also assume an advocacy role in terms of standing and speaking up for “vulnerable social groups” (Hassid, 2016, p. 60). Therefore, the impact of their news reports on interviewees and society in general can intensify reporters' emotions. Over one third of respondents working for official media outlets felt proud if their reports were positively evaluated by subjects and/or the public in the post-publication stage. Interviewee #8 said that he felt proud when he received a “thank-you message” from his interviewees “because [it] is an acknowledgment of my efforts.” Another reporter shared that he once worked continuously without sleep for more than 24 hours while covering a breaking news story, but he felt very proud since the story received positive responses from both his peers and the public after it was broadcast. Reporters working for official media channels also frequently mentioned

feeling proud as a result of feeling a sense of accomplishment. An example of a scenario in which a journalist felt proud was when a news report resulted in improvements in a subject's conditions. An example of this theme was provided by a legal news reporter with almost 10 years of experience, who described his feeling of accomplishment as follows: "I will have a sense of achievement if my story improved fair in judicial systems ... it can also give the subject a glimmer of hope" (Interviewee #23).

In contrast, reporters working for non-official media platforms indicated that their emotions were dominated by disappointment, frustration, powerlessness, sadness, guilt, and self-doubt in the post-publication stage: "This experience is characterized by an emotional cluster, including disappointment in the impact of reports, the sadness that results from witnessing subjects' suffering, and the guilt that occurs as a result of re-victimizing them" (Interviewee #19). Many reporters mentioned that they felt powerless when they failed to help interviewees, even should they have mentioned this potential outcome during the interview. Having worked for less than one year as an investigative reporter, Interviewee #20 reported that he had started to feel disappointed and powerless because what he wrote might not be able to change conditions in China. In a similar vein, Interviewee #18 noted that "Even if your story reaches a hit rate of more than 100,000 on social media platforms, you will still find that nothing can be changed." Some respondents shared that they usually felt the strongest emotions when they discovered that the subjects of previous news stories had been threatened or hurt by the local government because of the news reports: "They [subjects] would be in more trouble than they'd even been in before" (Interviewee #16). The respondents indicated that subjects of their interviews often experienced not only political pressure but also pressure from the

organizations that they worked for and public opinion. For example, after investigating a case of academic misconduct at a top university in China, one respondent experienced intense and ongoing feelings of guilt:

That story got over 10 million click online, but I didn't expect such an impact. She [the subject] was involved in a cyber manhunt and was bullied by a huge number of her fellow students, netizens, and social media users. Finally, she was dismissed by that university and diagnosed as having depression and cancer within a few months of the news published. During those months, her father sent me many text messages and accused me of disclosing the information. So, even now, although the hit rate gives me a sense of accomplishment, I still feel so sorry for her suffering because she is a victim of the academic system as well.
(Interviewee #14)

When critical news concerning censorship is released, it is usually framed by the media as a unique case and ascribed to individuals (e.g., Zhang, 2019). The example presented above shows that, for reporters working for non-official media outlets, their sense of achievement as a result of their work can easily be offset by an overwhelming feeling of guilt regarding unexpected negative consequences for subjects. For the less experienced respondents, mistakes they make in their work that resulted in unintended impacts on subjects could drastically intensify emotional experiences associated with their journalistic work. For example, if they failed to protect their sources, such as through disclosing subjects' personal information, misusing anonymous sources, or obtaining quotes via unethical interview techniques (e.g., concealing one's identity, hidden recorders, etc.), they stated that they would "sink into guilt" (Interviewees #12, #20, and #21).

Furthermore, in line with previous studies (e.g., Kotišová, 2019a; Thomson, 2018), the findings of the present study also revealed that emotional experiences also continue for journalists who are reluctant to keep in touch with sources. One scenario

shared by several respondents is that some subjects might constantly contact reporters because they assumed that the issues they faced could be solved by media exposure. However, as Interviewee #10 noted, “Sometimes, I think a journalist must be cold-blooded because you should pursue newsworthy stories, but their cases do not meet this requirement. So, my connections with them [subjects] places a burden on my heart.”

However, as mentioned by more than one fifth of the respondents (most of whom were female), emotional experiences can also occur when there are closer relationships between reporters and subjects. They agreed that the likelihood of experiencing such emotions depended on their closeness with their subjects and the time spent conducting interviews. Four respondents were living together with their subjects when they field interviews; they all expressed the difficulties of emotionally detaching themselves from the subjects and their sufferings, even after publication. A TV reporter who had covered medical news for more than three years shared the following: “I conducted an interviewee with a person of the same age and same professional and family background, , but she was diagnosed as terminal. We kept in touch after the interview, and I feel I can really empathize with what she’s going through.” These examples indicate that, compared with their male counterparts, female reporters tend to experience more residual emotions in the post-publication stage, especially when they have close connections with their subjects and have put more effort into interviews.

Interaction with readers/audiences and key opinion leaders. All of the respondents, regardless of the news media outlets for which they worked, confirmed that they had to publish the news through multiple media platforms, including websites, social media platforms, and news applications. Two thirds of the respondents mentioned the

impact of readers or audiences' comments on their news reports. However, of these 19 respondents, six stated that they could not be provoked into having emotional experiences, even if they were personally attacked in such comments. The reason they frequently mentioned was that they felt that readers or audiences do not pay much attention to the content of their news stories due to a wave of cyber-nationalism: "I've come to understand that they are just venting and spreading anger online. So, why do I care what they think?" (Interviewee #27). Interviewee #26 further explained that governments and companies hire "keyboard warriors" to attack news pieces that had the potential to have negative impacts: "If the estimated reading time required for an article is 15 minutes but their comments appear only three to five minutes after it is published, then you know they didn't even read your article."

Four respondents stated that comments made by readers or audiences could cause them to experience positive emotions, including a sense of self-worth and accomplishment, especially when they noticed that their news stories reached a wider readership or resonated with readers. The remaining respondents, however, noted that they could also experience emotions due to negative comments made by reader or members of the public. These respondents used terms such as nervous, deflated, and ashamed to describe their responses to such criticism. A respondent who has worked as a TV reporter for almost 10 years said she never watched her work when it was broadcast and was reluctant to read audiences' comments (Interviewee #3). In elaborating on his experience, one respondent noted: "I am super nervous, and my hands become sweaty if a reader finds a typo, grammatical mistake, or, in particular, a factual error in my reporting" (Interviewee #28). These quotes indicate that some reporters tend to take

negative feedback personally and ascribe this feedback to a lack of professional competence, which results in low self-esteem. Interviewee #9, who works for a traditional state-owned magazine, described another interesting scenario. She said that for many traditional media reporters, “the main pressure resulted not from negative comments but from receiving no comments whatsoever!” She explained that reporters expect their hard work to be recognized by others, even should it cover a controversial topic.

The other four respondents said that they place more value on the responses of key opinion leaders than on feedback from general readers or audiences. Interviewee #13 said that he is delighted when his news is shared and/or reposted by key opinion leaders and internet celebrities in his field, as they offer more professional and reliable evaluations than other readers – a view that was also expressed by other interviewees. Furthermore, they mentioned that positive reviews from peers or even competitors could also elicit positive emotions.

Interaction with publicity officials and PR practitioners. As in the field interview stage, interacting with local publicity officials is considered another area in which emotional experiences are likely to occur in the post-publication phase. Previous research has found that Chinese media propaganda restrictions limit the accessibility of official information; in addition, journalists are subject to both pre- and post-publication censorship (Repnikova, 2013). In the current study, post-publication censorship by publicity organs was highlighted by respondents as another means by which emotions could be elicited after the publication of a story. A business investigative reporter said that, in 2018 alone, 12 of his articles had been deleted after publication. Using his

coverage of the Anbang Issuance Company as an example, this reporter further elaborated that since this story concerned top-level governors, publicity officials came to the newsroom two days after the publication of the report and asked journalists to delete it – otherwise, their newsroom would be shut down (Interviewee #15). The respondents described such experiences as creating feelings of discouragement and hopelessness, as the censorship has become increasingly rigorous; “Such interruptions to my work are more stressful to me than conducting interviews, as I feel that my hard work is meaningless,” Interviewee #12 concluded. As demonstrated by the account of one reporter who works at a state-owned television station, the regulation of news is not restricted to non-official media reporters, as she indicated that she had felt fear due to post-publication regulation. She shared that she still has panic attacks due to an experience that occurred four years ago: “The local official contacted me just after the trailer premiered and angrily stated that the governor was very unhappy with that video because it touched on the negative side of their work. I freaked out!” (Interviewee #3). Apart from being concerned that she would be blamed for “being unprofessional,” she also worried that the incident would affect her career.

Finally, respondents from a range of different media platforms highlighted the pressure caused by interacting with PR officers in the post-publication stage. The term *guanxi* (relationship) has been repeatedly highlighted by previous research in the field of Chinese PR. Previous research suggests that, to ensure that such positive news about clients or their companies is frequently shared with the public, PR officers need to develop long-term, high-quality relationships with journalists by any means necessary (e.g., Zhang, Shen, & Jiang, 2009). The coverage of their companies in news reports thus

becomes one of the standards by which PR officers judge such relationships, but this dynamic adds to the invisible pressure exerted on reporters: “It’s really time-consuming and frustrating because they don’t understand news value but only want to add more quotes, more coverage of their bosses” (Interviewee #13). Again, the burden of maintaining close friendships with PR officers was identified by two respondents as an emotional trigger. They mentioned that PR officers might contact them to request that they revise or delete articles during their private time, even in the middle of the night, which disrupted their lives. This example again indicates that once reporters’ work stress spills over into their personal lives, their emotional engagement increases.

Factors that Impact Reporters’ Emotional Experiences

The thematic analysis revealed that Chinese reporters’ emotional experiences occurred before, during, and after interviews and while interacting with various individuals. Meanwhile, in line with previous studies, the analysis also identified the subjects of news stories, the circumstances under which interviews are conducted, the duration of interactions between journalists and their subjects, and the characteristics of the interviewed subject as the main factors influencing reporters’ emotional experiences (Kotišová, 2019a; McMahon & McLellan, 2008; Thomson, 2018). However, reporters’ level of seniority in the field of journalism and the type of employer or news beat were also repeatedly emphasized in the current study as factors that increase the likelihood of emotional expression.

Working experience. More than half of the respondents indicated that the likelihood of emotional expression is linked to a reporter’s level of seniority. This perspective is based on the belief that, as their experience increases, reporters become (1)

more resilient and (2) more competent in the use of tacit knowledge and (3) achieve a better work–life balance. Chinese reporters’ resilient attitudes have been recognized in the literature, and they have been likened to Don Quixote due to their perseverance in delivering news within the complex media environment of China (Bandurski, 2012, p. 38). In this study, the respondents specifically mentioned that they felt emotionally drained during the early years of their careers, but, as they gained experience, they gradually learned to normalize the stress, disappointment, and powerlessness encountered in their work: “When I had less experience, I found it easy to be influenced by my interview subjects’ emotions. However, as I gain more experience, I am becoming increasingly emotionally attached when reporting stories” (Interviewee #21). This quote shows that reporters’ resilience can be gradually built through their daily practices. Interestingly, Interviewee #26 described the accumulated experience as *Jin Zhong Zhao* (a “Golden Shield”) that can protect him from negative emotions. In addition, self-reconciliation was repeatedly mentioned as playing an important role in helping reporters build resilience. The interviewees indicated that they eventually accepted that compromise is required when working as a reporter in China.

As mentioned previously, unfamiliarity with news topics was identified as a source of emotional experiences on the part of reporters. Six respondents indicated that senior reporters gain tacit knowledge concerning their beats, so they are usually psychologically prepared prior to interviews. They can thus predict the circumstances under which interviews will be conducted, the reactions of subjects, and any possible restrictions, which in turn stabilizes their emotions while reporting. Of these six respondents, three added that they were more likely to exhibit a questioning attitude in

their reports if they were familiar with the topic being covered. Interviewee #2 explained that “It [the questioning attitude] makes me more rational; thus, I will not be carried away by subjects’ emotions.” Linked to working experience, tacit knowledge can help reporters to better control their workloads and reduce the intensity of emotional experiences. Furthermore, these examples also show that reporters are more resilient if they are mentally well-prepared.

Four respondents, all of whom had over 10 years of working experience, explained that senior reporters gradually learn the importance of maintaining a good work–life division. Interviewee #8, who was a father to a four-year-old girl at the time of the study, said: “Their [the subjects’] lives has nothing to do with my life. Even if you covered a catastrophe and came back to Beijing, you would see people’s lives in Beijing continue as usual. So, as I grow older, I have fewer emotional connections with my subjects.” In addition to the level of seniority, this example shows that a shift in focus from work to one’s family also contributes to emotional detachment in one’s work. As this reporter mentioned, family issues could bring up more emotions for him.

Media platforms and news beat. According to the respondents, the likelihood of emotional experiences was also varied by media platform. The respondents explained that, although reporters who work for state-owned official media might experience pressure from their organizations, they tend to experience less emotions while connecting with other entities due to the propaganda role of their work. One respondent who worked for a party-owned media platform admitted that he was more likely to be assigned to cover positive stories instead of critical news. Moreover, in contrast to journalists working for other types of media platforms, they enjoy the privilege of being able to

access official information. Therefore, as this respondent said, “Once I get used to this working environment and familiarize myself with routines, this job won’t be able to make me feel strong emotions again” (Interviewee #13). In addition, the degree of emotional engagement among print and broadcast reporters was also highlighted by a few respondents. For example, a TV reporter with over 15 years of experience repeatedly mentioned that, during field interviews, the goals of print journalists are to establish rapport and develop in-depth stories; for broadcasters, it is more important to make an overall arrangement in a short shooting time. Interviewee #5 explained that “You need to care about the visual effect, lighting, audio levels, and so on, so, it is hard for me to be really involved in an interview.” (Interviewee #5).

It is surprising to learn that social media reporters in China are more vulnerable to strong emotions when compared with their print and broadcast colleagues. The main reason mentioned by half of the interviewed new media reporters is the legitimacy of their work. In China, reporters need to obtain a “press card” (license) from the General Administration of the Press and Publications, which is directly controlled by the Publicity Department of the CCP, to legally work as journalists. To strengthen the government’s power to censor the media, the press card system was renewed in 2014 and 2019, and reporters were required to pass a nationwide exam to obtain the new card (Sparks et al., 2016; Zheng, 2019). However, the latest data show that, with the exception for traditional print and broadcast reporters, press cards were only issued to 594 reporters from 14 state-owned online news media outlets. In other words, reporters working for commercial web portals or social media platforms, such as Sina, Sohu, NetEase, Inc., and Tencent, can only repost news published by certified media platforms and have no news-gathering

rights (Sparks et al, 2016). However, according to one reporter who currently works for a well-known new media outlet in the business area, the press card situation is a “gray area” because some new media reporters, including him, did not hold press cards but were nonetheless entitled to work as reporters and still conducted interviews on a daily basis (Interviewee #28). This quote indicates that social media reporters can experience complex emotions because, on the one hand, their blurred professional identity causes them to constantly worry about the legitimacy of their work; on the other hand, they might be prevented from accessing official sources or even conducting field interviews, which also causes emotional experiences.

All reporters interviewed agreed that, in addition to media type, different news beats could have a significant impact on emotional engagement. Respondents in social, legal, and political news beats are believed to be more susceptible to emotional experience. However, reporters covering news topics, such as those related to business, culture, science, and technology, were less likely to experience strong emotions. The reasons for this can be classified into two clusters: First, the nature of the issues they report on involves trauma, social injustice, and the dark side of society; this leads to complex emotions, such as sadness, irritation, and feeling touched, on the part of reporters in social, legal, and related news beats. Furthermore, the respondents indicated that negotiating with publicity organs to report breaking news also triggers emotions because these topics are regarded as sensitive in China. Second, according to other beat reporters, even if their stories focus on important social issues, such as business, education, and technology, interview subjects are usually CEOs, professionals, or scholars, who are assumed to be more rational than the subjects interviewed in legal,

social, and investigative news stories. Therefore, as respondents mentioned, they need to be more professional and rational during interviews.

Summary

This chapter addressed the research question of how Chinese reporters interpret the emotions that they experience in their daily practices. In contrast to previous research (e.g., Kotišová, 2019a; Thomson, 2018), this study found that, in addition to occurring in the news interview and post-interview phases, emotional experiences on the part of reporters also occur in the news preparation stage, especially while searching for story ideas and preparing for interviews. Moreover, reporters' emotional experiences stem not only from interacting with interviewees, as discussed in previous studies, but are also prompted by their connections with publicity officials, PR practitioners, readers and audiences, and key opinion leaders before, during, and after interviews. Furthermore, daily communication with their editors and peers during and after the news production process can also prompt emotions. Overall, emotional experiences are more likely to occur when an interaction disrupts journalists' news production process or has a spillover impact on their personal lives.

More importantly, the emotions that reporters experienced while engaging in their work form complex emotional clusters that intertwine with the impact of a news story, the interview environment, and the interviewee's personality. However, the majority of Chinese reporters indicate experiencing predominantly negative emotions, such as nervousness, stress, frustration, fear, and anger, in their work. Reporters on legal, society, or investigative news beats and from non-official new media companies are more vulnerable to negative emotions due to their lack of professional identity in the Chinese

media system. However, it is also worth noting that reporters' resilience gradually improves as they gain more experience.

Chapter 5: Interview Study Results II: Chinese Reporters’ Emotional Labor Strategies and Their Impacts

As emotion is an inevitable dynamic in news production, previous research has found reporters routinely manage their emotions in planning the contents of news stories and communicating with others at work (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Soronen, 2018). Introduced by Hochschild (1983), emotional labor has been deemed an essential strategy for employees in service professions to manage emotions. By definition, when engaging in emotional labor, a customer service professional might adopt either deep or surface acting strategies by which to fulfill explicit or perceived requirements that serve their professional or organizational goals (Barry, Olekalns, Rees, 2019; Hochschild, 1983). This chapter demonstrates that, consistent with previous research on reporters from other countries (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Thomson, 2018), Chinese reporters have also internalized an approach to presenting news that involves displaying desirable emotions; this approach is developed based on journalism education and socialization in newsrooms. To be specific, the present study finds that reporters’ engagement in emotional labor mainly occurs during their interviews with subjects. In addition, under specific circumstances, reporters may also express their genuine feelings when interacting with others, including interviewees, publicity officials, and PR practitioners (see Table 4).

This chapter addresses the following research questions: First, under what circumstances do reporters engage in emotional labor? Second, which emotional labor strategies do they adopt in communicating with various key players? Finally, what are the

consequences of engaging in emotional labor strategies. In general, Chinese reporters' use of such emotional labor strategies is chiefly found to occur before, during, and after their interviews with subjects. In addition, it is determined that their deep and surface acting can affect their job performance and/or physical and psychological well-being.

RQ2 asks how Chinese reporters describe their experience of engaging in emotional labor in their work. To answer this question, a thematic analysis of 31 transcribed interviews was once again conducted. Unsurprisingly, all Chinese reporters interviewed failed to demonstrate full awareness of engaging in emotional labor. However, they all agreed that they would enhance or suppress feelings when acting as professional journalists. Strikingly, many respondents repeatedly emphasized that they could always control emotional expressions while connecting with interviewees rather than in their relationships with other key players. They might even engage in emotional outbursts during and after interviews when contacting publicity officials and readers or audience members. One common scenario occurred when their reporting was significantly delayed by local publicity officials. For example, an investigative reporter with 16 years of working experience described reporting on the 2008 Weng'an Riot: "I had to contact the local publicity official to schedule the interview with the director of the local public security bureau, but he [the local publicity official] had lots of excuses and delayed my schedule for two days. Then, I yelled at him while requesting an interview" (Interviewee #10). As she explained, the combination of her anger with the pressure of an approaching deadline lead her to engage in an emotional breakdown. This example indicates that reporters might have emotional outbursts should publicity officials hamper the progress of their reporting. Such outbursts are also regarded by some respondents as a

strategy by which to access official sources; however, it may also pose hazards to reporters' personal safety.

The respondents also indicated that feedback from readers or audiences and key opinion leaders after the publication of news stories could also prompt emotional outbursts on the part of reporters as well. For example, one culture and academia reporter who works for a state-owned new media platform wept when she recalled her cyberbullying experience after covering a rumor concerning a famous Chinese intellectual. This story triggered a heated debate online and became a trending hashtag on Weibo, a Chinese microblogging website: "It was also shared to WeChat groups with other scholars. I was accused of being unprofessional and was blacklisted by some scholars and his [the intellectual's] students. I struggled for many days and could hardly concentrate on my work" (Interviewee #30). As she further explained, the breakdown occurred not only because she was harassed but also because she began to question herself and the journalism profession as well. Two other respondents also shared that they had had similar experiences when interacting with readers and online key opinion leaders. These examples demonstrate that reporters tend to experience unexpected emotional outbursts when online comments go viral and their competency is overtly challenged in readers' comments on a story.

The Use of Emotional Labor Strategies Before Interviews

Half of the interviewed TV reporters described the importance of managing emotional expression when conducting pre-interviews with subjects in terms of ensuring a smooth final interview and better visuals. The emotional labor strategies employed by the respondents are closely aligned with their subjects' performances and personalities:

“If they [subjects] are shy or not good with words, then I have to show patience by using kind words and my friends or personal life to stimulate their emotions prior to the interview” (Interviewee #2). However, TV reporters tend to suppress their emotions when interviewing a subject who is extremely emotional or who exhibits a dismissive attitude toward the interview. For example, Interviewee #2 stated that, when interviewing apathetic interviewees, he would “feel unhappy, but I don’t want to be driven by emotions, so I will not let them [the subjects] become aware of my feelings.” According to Hochschild’s definition (1983), the surface acting strategy in emotional labor refers to faking naturally occurring feelings to present “desirable” emotions, while deep acting means that an employee naturally feels and performs the required emotions. According to the interviewed TV reporters, they were more likely to adopt surface acting strategies to create a safe and comfortable environment for subjects, which helps the latter to share their stories during the formal interview.

The Use of Emotional Labor Strategies During Interviews

The majority of the respondents agreed that their engagement in emotional labor chiefly occurred during their interviews with subjects. In response to different situations and subject personalities, reporters may adopt various emotional labor strategies, including surface and deep acting to suppress or enhance emotional expression. Furthermore, under certain circumstances, they also express naturally occurring emotions during their interviews.

Surface acting strategy. Emotion enhancement was mentioned by almost half of respondents as an emotional management strategy used to (1) improve rapport and encourage subjects to share more information, (2) to gather information at news sites, and

(3) evoke subjects' emotions. Moreover, a few respondents stated that they would consciously suppress strong emotions under certain circumstances during interviews. The first common scenario to be identified involved interviews involving controversial subjects or issues, during which reporters frequently have to emphasize feelings of empathy and be considerate. For instance, a female reporter with seven years of work experience covering different news beats shared a memory concerning an interview with World War II (WWII) Hump pilots, who flew military aircraft across the Himalayan Mountains to resupply Chinese troops in WWII. She teared up while interviewing the veterans' families about their sufferings after WWII: "I shed tears with her [a veteran's daughter] because she was very emotional and expressive. I think the tears were a kind of recognition, comfort, and encouragement for her to say more" (Interviewee #31). Another respondent, who had worked as an investigative reporter working for a state-owned newspaper, shared his experience of interviewing an HIV/AIDS patient:

She was diagnosed with HIV in 2004, but she has kept this a secret and cut off all contact with others, including her family, for more than 15 years. So, she was crying throughout the interview, and that was also the first time I cried in front of my interviewee. Because I was so sad about what had happened to her, and I thought she would trust me more if I acted in that way. (Interviewee #14)

For reporters, there are almost always barriers to covering controversial issues or accessing controversial groups. As the second respondent mentioned, prior to the interview with the HIV/AIDS patient, he spent several weeks building rapport with her because she was very cautious about connecting with the stranger. These examples show that enhanced emotional expression is used to build mutual trust between a reporter and an interview subject, which can also create a more comfortable atmosphere for the subject during the interview, which can in turn lead to subjects sharing more information.

Some legal and investigative respondents repeatedly emphasized that emotional enhancement represented an important strategy by which they could reach breakthroughs while investigating stories. Interviewee #20, who worked for a newspaper as an investigative reporter, felt that he was always wearing a mask while conducting interviews: “Should subjects not be cooperative during interview, then I need to show sympathy for and understanding of their situations; however, should the subject be an official who refuses to provide information, I may need to be aggressive to provoke him or her” (Interviewee #20). That is, reporters’ use of this strategy also depends on their subjects’ personalities and reactions.

The emotional enhancement strategy can also be used as what two respondents described as “a stepping stone to access a news scene.” The respondents stated that this strategy is essential while dealing with incidents or criminal cases, as Chinese reporters are usually driven away from such scenes by police. Referring to a case in which he had conducted an on-site interview as an example of use of this technique, one respondent explained, “Reporters were blocked from that incident scene. So, I cried out loud and disguised myself as a relative of the deceased to enter the scene” (Interviewee #19).

The next scenario to emerge from reporters’ descriptions of the use of emotional enhancement involved evoking subjects’ emotions. Half of the interviewed TV reporters mentioned the importance of emotion in TV reporting: “At the end of our editorial meeting, just before shooting, the producer always says ‘just get their (interviewees’) tears flowing!’” (Interviewee #5). For example, while interviewing subject concerning the memories of the Chinese Communist First Front Army in the Long March, a reporter recalled tearing up on purpose to elicit an emotional reaction on the part of the

interviewee. The TV reporter recalled her experience while being interviewed for this research:

Their story is indeed tragic, but I'd read a great deal of material, including historical materials, memoirs, and comments, about this story many times before the interview, and the interviewee also has worn out by the camera because he had been interviewed many times by different journalists. Because I had to ensure the visual impact of the interview, I started to wipe away tears; then, he [the subject] teared up and could not continue talking because of his tears. I mean I could hold back my tears, but I didn't, as I had to arouse his emotions at that moment to make sure better visuals. (Interviewee #3)

Similar to the findings of previous studies (e.g., Thomson, 2018), the above quote indicates that TV reporters may need to enhance their emotions when conducting interviews concerning topics with which they are familiar, as their emotional attachment may decrease as their knowledge of a topic increases.

Finally, a few respondents also mentioned suppressing feelings of excitement and impatience when conducting interviews concerning certain news topics. One radio reporter noted that his editor required him to control his emotions while reporting on disasters: "Although I was shocked and exhausted, I was excited about covering disasters when I was a complete novice as a reporter. So, my boss asked me to tone down my feelings slightly during the live reports to come across as more professional" (Interviewee #8). Furthermore, two reporters described their experience of reporting on assigned projects and indicated that they suppressed their emotions when they were not particularly interested in a topic or when a subject failed to directly reply to questions (Interviewee #9).

Deep acting strategy. Twenty-seven respondents agreed that they would regularly engage in deep acting to suppress their genuine feelings during interviews given that they must (1) act professionally, (2) maintain the ability to think critically, and (3)

not disturb the subject and/or the interview process. Unsurprisingly, over half of the interviewed reporters said they must suppress emotions to seem more professional when interacting with interviewees. This finding is in line with previous research on emotion management among reporters from other countries (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Soronen, 2018; Thomson, 2018). In other words, emotion management is also regarded as part of being a professional by Chinese frontline reporters. However, intriguingly, the current study also found that reporters have developed various interpretations of emotional repression and professional requirements. First, many male respondents indicated that repressing emotions was a basic criterion for being a professional journalist because, as Interviewee #19 indicated, emotional control is the only way to become a “rational, neutral, and objective journalist.” Three male respondents with more than 10 years of experience also linked emotional repression to gender. For example, one respondent shared his understanding of the relationship between emotional management and professionalism: “I am supposed to be more rational and responsible because I am a mature male reporter...I should not be controlled by emotion when conducting the interview. This is my principle!” (Interviewee #6). However, this interpretation was not limited to male respondents, as two female reporters specifically emphasized that they would control emotions in front of subjects even if they were sympathetic towards or touched by subjects since professionalism was their primary consideration (Interviewee #12 and #9).

Second, some respondents felt obligated to ensure that they were emotionally detached from their subjects during interviews. These respondents stated that reporters should restrain emotion even should they feel empathy with their subjects, as a journalist

is a recorder of history. As one respondent explained, “I’m not here to write something to move people; rather, I’m here to record their real stories” (Interviewee #21). Interviewee #23 provided a more explicit explanation to this point:

I am an emotional person, and I do have emotional responses towards subjects when I meet them. However, as a senior reporter, I feel I have the responsibility to keep calm and detach emotions from a subject as I can’t conclude a report in an emotional way; also, I am afraid that my judgment will be affected by emotions. (Interviewee #23)

Instead of internalizing emotional repression as a professional code and insisting on emotional detachment, at least four of the respondents mentioned the importance of attempting to “see from the subject’s perspective” in their responses, especially when dealing with officials. The respondents indicated that reporters frequently feel annoyed or even angry when interviewing government officials. However, given the professional requirements that they subject to, reporters will generally attempt to understand subjects’ situations and to suppress their naturally occurring feelings (Interviewee #10).

Three respondents also mentioned that emotional repression was necessary to maintain their critical thinking ability. These respondents stated that reporters could be deceived by interviewees regarding a particular topic, meaning that they should attempt to be free from emotions while conducting interview, as this should result in them being more rational. Interviewee #17 elaborated that “Some interviewees are very good at lying, so reporters may be moved or irritated by biased or even untrue stories. In such cases, reporters should keep calm and try to make their news reports as objective as possible.” These respondents noted that repressing emotion is one of the prerequisites for ensuring quality journalism, especially when addressing controversial and emotionally taxing topics.

A final reason for repressing emotions, which was mentioned by almost a quarter of respondents, was that reporters should take subjects' feelings and emotions into consideration during interviews, as "[the interview] is a mutual feedback relationship. Your interviewee might be influenced or scared if you're too dramatic" (Interviewee #13). Respondents identified examples of situations in which it would be necessary to repress emotion to ensure a smooth interview process. For instance, giving a "death knock" as an example, one respondent said that he had held back tears even though he sympathized with a family regarding the loss of their father: "The daughter recalled the details of her father and broke down several times during the interview. I felt really sad, but I knew I should stand back because, otherwise, she would have become more emotional and would not have been able to finish the interview" (Interviewee #14). The other example from Interviewee #18 concerns his interview experience with Stephen Bannon, a former White House chief strategist: "He is a populist, but to obtain more information about his China policy, I had to conceal my disagreement with his views in the interview because I don't want the interview to become a fierce debate" (Interviewee #18). A business reporter also added that she had also repressed her emotions to continue interviews when faced with "tough interviewees" (Interviewee #31). In line with the previous research (Hopper & Huxford, 2015), the examples identified in the current study indicate that, in addition to linking emotional control to the professional journalistic code of practice, practical considerations are the other main motivation for reporters to engage in emotional repression.

Natural expression. All of the respondents believed that they could control their emotions while interacting with subjects during interviews by using either surface or deep

acting. However, in contrast to the findings of previous literature, at least eight respondents admitted that they also naturally expressed their strong emotions in some situations instead of controlling them. The first scenario arose when subjects overly challenged reporters' professionalism, which can also adversely impact the process of reporting a story. One TV reporter said she once interviewed an irrigationist who irrationally accused reporters of willful distortion: "That was the first time we met. But he just started to blame me and journalistic work at the very beginning of the interview and didn't answer my questions. I felt that I couldn't control my emotion; suddenly, I shouted at him and bolted" (Interviewee #5). In other words, the respondents indicated that a lack of respect towards them on the part of experts or government officials during interviews could significantly impact reporters' ability to manage their emotions.

In addition to naturally expressing strong emotions when being disrespected by interviewees, the second scenario identified by the respondents arose when they were deeply moved by a subject's suffering. When reporting on an illegal pyramid scheme group, a respondent stated that he became furious when he heard that some female victims of sexual assault within the group had suffered psychological trauma: "It made me totally livid! I couldn't imagine that the police were also heavily involved in the case. I was crushed and couldn't continue the interview" (Interviewee #14). According to the respondents, it is possible that they failed to manage their emotions when news stories challenged their moral values. However, the respondents indicated that they had also developed strategies, such as taking a break or switching to another topic, to handle such situations.

The Use of Emotional Labor Strategies After Interviews

As mentioned previously, reporters also experience strong emotions when they maintain relationships with interviewees following interviews, especially in the post-publication phase. For example, many respondents mentioned that their interactions with subjects often continued after stories had been published, which caused them to feel such emotional clusters, including feelings of frustration, guilt, and powerless. Surprisingly, none of the respondents mentioned using strategies to manage their emotions in the post-publication stage. Some reporters in legal, political, and investigative journalism reported having experienced emotional breakdowns when they were blamed by subjects for being unprofessional or irresponsible or for having caused negative consequences for subjects: “Under pressure from the local governor, he [the subject] posted my report and said I fabricated the whole story. I tried to reach out, but I was blacklisted, and my editor also blamed me. I was overwhelmed and burst into tears” (Interviewee #29). Reporters covering other news beats also shared similar experiences; for example, Interviewee #3 was once rebuked for allegedly twisting her subject’s words: “I still remembered the scene. She [the subject] called me on National Day Holiday and accused me of changing the focus of a story. After sending her an apology message, I cried because I felt I was falsely accused” (Interviewee #3).

The analysis also indicated that reporters who had residual emotions and developed closer relationships with subject after interviews may be at risk of experiencing serious emotional breakdowns. A TV reporter covering health and medical news emotionally recalled her relationships with a group of cancer patients. She had

covered hospice care and nursing issues in China for several years and found it difficult to detach her emotions from her subjects:

I was invited to a subject's farewell ceremony. As soon as I entered the mourning hall, I broke down in tears. I saw her lying there with my TV program filming on the big screen. I felt so sad and cried many times that day. It was very hard for me to watch the story of a person's journey from the cradle to the grave. So, in these years, my New Year's wish was always that the patients I interviewed could be healthy and have long lives. (Interviewee #3)

According to these examples, reporters are more vulnerable to emotions after interviews than in other news production stages. Some respondents had even been diagnosed as having anxiety, depression, or Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) due to the overwhelming emotions experienced in their work. However, almost none of the reporters interviewed had had formal training in handling emotions at work, and some of them were unaware of the meaning of emotional management in their daily practices.

Table 4. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Emotional Labor Experiences with Different Key Players in the News Production Process.*

Emotional Labor Strategies	News Production Process	Main Setting and Scenes	Contact Person(s)	Why the Emotional Experience Was Generated
Surface acting – enhancement or suppression	Before the interview	Conducting pre-interview	Interviewees	Creating a comfortable atmosphere to encourage subjects share their stories during the formal interview
Surface acting – enhancement	During the interview	Interviewing controversial issues or subjects	Interviewees	Improving rapport and encouraging subjects to share more information
Surface acting – enhancement	During the interview	Covering incidents or criminal cases	Interviewees	Entering the scene to gather information
Surface acting – enhancement	During the interview	Interviewing apathetic subjects	Interviewees	Evoking the subject's emotion
Surface acting – suppression	During the interview	Covering disasters or assigned assignment	Interviewees	Finishing the report
Deep acting – suppression	During the interview	Covering emotionally taxing cases	Interviewees	Acting more professionally
Deep acting – suppression	During the interview	Covering controversial and emotionally demanding cases	Interviewees	Maintaining the ability to think critically
Deep acting – suppression	During the interview	Covering emotionally intense cases or having a “tough interviewee”	Interviewees	Not disturbing the subject and/or the interview process
Natural expression – emotional outburst	During the interview	Covering emotionally taxing cases or having a “tough interviewee”	Interviewees	Being deeply shocked or having professionalism overly challenged
Natural expression – emotional outburst	During the interview	Attempting to access official sources	Publicity officials	Significantly delaying news investigation and reporting

Natural expression – emotional outburst	After the interview	Maintaining continued contact with subject or experiencing residual emotions	Interviewees	Being falsely accused or not being detached from the subject
Natural expression – emotional outburst	After the interview	Being questioned or harassed by readers/opinion leaders	Readers/audiences/key opinion leaders	Professionalism was overly challenged

Impacts of Engagement in Emotional Labor

RQ3 investigated how Chinese reporters describe the impact of emotional labor on their work and daily lives. The finding indicated that rather than highlighting positive impacts, the majority of the respondents were more likely to emphasize the negative impacts of emotional suppression on their news reporting, occupational attitudes, mental and physical well-being, and family relationships.

Many respondents generally mentioned that emotional control helped them to “get the work done” in a more professional manner. More importantly, one third of respondents specifically claimed that their journalism skills and moral values had been further developed as a result of after managing emotions. Such reflection often occurred after an impressed emotion suppression in the news production process, respondents said. One example was provided by a reporter working for a state-owned television who reconsidered his relationship with an interviewee after suppressing emotion while being blamed by that interviewee: “I realized that I was too close to her [the subject], meaning that she harbored unrealistic expectation of me since she treated me as a close friend rather than as a professional reporter... after that, I learned that I need to draw a line between being a reporter when approaching sources and developing personal relationships with others” (Interviewee #2). In addition to mentioning the journalist–subject relationship, other respondents also shared that they had reflected on the use of information-gathering techniques and the protection of sources when covering controversial cases after having engaged in emotion suppression at work.

Interestingly, four respondents noted the impact of emotional labor on changing their moral values. This was described in detail by one respondent from a state-owned

television station. While interviewing a Chinese oceanographer, he was touched by her contributions to science and personality: “She’s one of the top scientists in her field but is extremely modest about her success. So, even though I didn’t directly express my respect, my spirit felt nourished after the interview” (Interviewee #6). Another reporter, who worked for a state-owned magazine, admitted that “I may wish to become more like an inspiring person should I interview him or her” (Interviewee #9).

However, most reporters interviewed described the negative impacts of engagement in emotional labor strategies. Based on the results of the analysis, four main aspects were identified, namely news presentation, reporters’ occupational attitudes, mental and physical well-being, and family relationship or personal life.

News presentation. Apart from self-reflection on how they could improve their journalistic practices, some respondents emphasized the impacts of emotional labor on biased reporting. A few reporters described their news writing stage, which seemed to be influenced by the strong emotions they had experienced and the emotional control they had exerted during interviews. In contrast to hard news writing, three respondents felt that they would be more likely to be driven by emotions when writing feature stories on individuals. For example, one respondent recalled the experience of writing a story on a famous Chinese dramatist; she felt that the accompanying emotional experience had impacted her professionalism while writing the story:

I conducted solid research before the interview and talked with him for the whole afternoon. He’s a gentle and modest intellectual and even gave me copies of his books. You’d be touched as well if you talked with him. So, I wrote over 7,000 words for this feature story, which would usually be 4,000 to 5,000 words, because I was eager to share all of the details of my interview with him with my readers. So, I felt I was too involved and might be influenced by the intense emotions I experienced while interacting with him. (Interviewee #9)

This example indicates that feature stories require more emotional management since reporters might experience more emotions during the interviews involved, which, in turn, could lead to biased stories.

Work-related attitudes and behaviors. Several individual, organizational, and social influences were identified as being responsible for changes in reporters' work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, career commitment, and turnover intention. In the current study, despite the fact that the respondents failed to identify a direct relationship between deep and surface acting strategies and changes in work-related attitudes and behaviors, many of them considered suppression to be one of the primary factors contributing to procrastination, job burnout, and intention to quit.

Many job-related influences have been identified in this study as contributors to the increasing job burnout noted among reporters. These factors included repetitive work, the blurred boundary between work and life, the loss of professional pride and dignity, their strained relationship with supervisors, and low salaries. Eleven respondents indicated that they may experience job burnout as a result of suppressing negative emotions at work over long periods of time. Although the majority of the respondents did not seem to be familiar with the concept of job burnout, the symptoms they reported were similar to those measured on subscales used to evaluate job burnout. According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), burnout is a chronic syndrome of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy. Each subscale of job burnout was presented in respondents' descriptions.

First, physical and mental exhaustion dominated in six reporters' descriptions of their feelings of job burnout caused by distress due to emotional suppression. In all six

cases, reporters said that they experienced constant fatigue before work (Interviewees #2, #7, #10, #12, #20, and #24). As Interviewee #2 stated, “I just tumbled into bed and felt so tired when I thought about how many jobs there were to do. I spent two to three days lying in bed, not doing anything.” However, it is worth noting that many respondents repeatedly mentioned that emotional suppression was not the sole reason for their burnout syndrome. The respondents noted that residual emotion and prolonged interaction with subjects in the post-publication phase had an even greater impact than emotional labor engagement in terms of increasing burnout. For example, one respondent mentioned that he has been struggled with negative emotions for over two weeks after realizing that his investigative report had had negative consequences for its subject:

He [the subject] phoned me almost every night during those two weeks to complain about the report and to beg me to make up for the negative impacts of my reporting. I spent a lot of time blaming myself for his suffering and contacted different departments in my efforts to minimize the impact. I felt exhausted and found it difficult to concentrate on new projects. But, when I lay down to rest, this case kept spinning in my head. (Interviewee #20)

In addition to physical and mental exhaustion, an increased feeling of cynicism regarding their work was specifically noted by four veteran reporters with between 10 to 15 years of experience each. Coupled with prolonged depression and the low intrinsic rewards associated with their jobs, these respondents said the cumulated physical and mental exhaustion had led to their cynical attitudes toward their jobs. All four of these respondents indicated that they had become less motivated and increasingly passive at work as their job tenure increases. Based on their descriptions, beyond the impact of engagement in emotional labor, reporters who considered their jobs to be less worthwhile also tend to hold more cynical attitudes towards their work. Moreover, based on their descriptions, a few of the respondents had also experienced the professional inefficacy

component of burnout. One reporter, who worked as a freelancer for various media platforms, had excessive self-doubt for a period after experienced emotional depression at work: “I felt that I wasn’t qualified to be a journalist because I was afraid of conducting interviews. Still worse is the fact that I wasn’t able to think rationally when evaluating my job performance” (Interviewee #24). However, it is important to note that since exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy are interrelated subscales, many reporters interviewed expressed more than one chronic syndrome of burnout in their descriptions of their symptoms. The existing literature on emotional labor experience within other professions suggests that employees who engage in surface acting experience emotional dissonance, which leads to high level of burnout (e.g., Jeung et al., 2017). However, according to the respondents in this study, the use of such strategies when engaging in emotional labor on three dimensions of burnout need to be further statistically clarified.

The respondents indicated that, when suppressed emotions accumulate, they are likely to have impact on turnover intention. Half of the respondents mentioned that they had, or had previously had, the intention to quit their current jobs. Two reporters directly linked their turnover intention to emotional suppression at work. Interviewee #18 stated that the discrepancy between his naturally felt emotions and the requirements of his job concerning emotional expression had ultimately result in his intention to resign from his current position.

In addition to the long-term cumulative impacts of engaging in emotional suppression, some respondents also indicated that they believed that they procrastinated in producing news as a result of such suppression during their work. As one respondent

noted, she was more likely to postpone script writing if she suppressed anger, scary, or other negative emotions at work: “I would ruminate over the interview and my reactions for a long time. So, I felt that the suppression is a barrier that prevents me from following my regular work pattern” (Interviewee #3). This phenomenon has been identified in the previous research on different groups. For example, Tice, Bratslavsky, and Baumeister’s (2001) experimental research found that poor emotional regulation led to anxiety, depression, and task avoidance, which in turn led participants to procrastinate. Interviewee #3’s example echoes this finding and reveals that reporters who experience negative emotions as a result of engaging in such labor may have a tendency to procrastinate.

Mental and physical well-being. In accordance with Hopper and Huxford’s (2015) research, the respondents in this study revealed that instead of long-term emotional suppression, emotional labor strategies were used to defer their naturally occurring feelings. Almost half of the respondents indicated that reporters may thus experience mental distress as a result of the need to manage such emotions after work. Flashbacks, as a symptom similar to PTSD, were frequently described by respondents, especially those who covered traumatic events. One reporter described the scene he encountered after covering the Fujian Quangan Carbon 9 Leakage Event in 2018:

I felt empathy for the locals, although I only stayed with them for three days. About one month later, I came back; the river, those fishermen’s faces, and even the strong chemical odor started to repeatedly recur in my dreams. Sometimes, I would wake up at midnight and feel that I was still at that beach. (Interviewee #14)

In addition to flashbacks, he also suffered from insomnia, nightmares, irritability, and poor appetite except for flashbacks in about three months. Unfortunately, some

respondents indicated that their memories of events and emotionally taxing situations returned even several years after they had completed their reports on them.

More seriously, seven respondents indicated that they had been diagnosed with or had had symptoms of anxiety or depression. At the time of writing, some of them are still in therapy and regularly take antidepressants. Interviewee #3 was diagnosed with moderate anxiety and mild depressive symptoms about one year ago. She experienced low self-esteem, self-disgust, and even suicidal thoughts: “It lasted a few months. I had a deep feeling of self-loathing because, when I started to write the script, I experienced sudden dizziness and sweating and couldn’t write a word. I felt hopeless and lost the ability to evaluate myself objectively” (Interviewee #3). Other respondents also reported various symptoms, such as reduced productivity, fatigue, insomnia, and self-isolation. However, many respondents emphasized that in addition to emotional suppression, they believed that other impacts, including sensitive personalities, loneliness, conflicts with supervisors, frequent travel, and demanding work requirements, had all contributed to their poor psychological health.

Due to irregular sleeping patterns and the more sedentary lifestyle caused by anxiety or depression, a few respondents also experienced physical health issues. In the words of one respondent, “Anxieties, my chronic back pain, and belly fat all due to this job [laughs]. I even have to book a massage for my back pain after finishing a report on an event” (Interviewee #5). According to some respondents, these symptoms were also partly induced by the “emotional pain” that they experienced during their work (Interviewee #3).

Family and personal life. Four respondents indicated that suppressing emotions at work had had negative impacts on their family lives. As two reporters emphasized, the memories of negative emotions they had experienced while regulating their emotions at work could recur when they encountered similar situations in their private lives. As one of them put it, “It’s been a long time, but the stressful feeling still comes back occasionally. I think it’s become a part of me already!” (Interviewee #14). Moreover, since reporters need to regulate their emotions during work, the stress and frustration caused by such emotion regulation can persist after they leave work, which may result in conflicts between reporters and their family members. One female reporter stated that “I came to realize that I couldn’t control my temper and started to vent my anger at my kid. My guilt was consuming me because I knew he didn’t deserve that, but I became angry with him often” (Interviewee #5). The other female reporter also noted the impact of emotional labor on her relationship with her husband. She felt that the frequent changes in her emotional state that she experienced at work led her to experiencing fluctuating emotions, which accounted for her difficulties in communication:

For a long time after being diagnosed with depression, I felt that I was breaking down and crying aloud, particularly at midnight, when I thought of my work. It felt like...I didn’t feel like I deserve to live. I really wanted someone close to talk to. My husband was scared, and he couldn’t understand what I had experienced. He thought I was a whiner and trying to attract his attention... but, you know, I was suffering! (Interviewee #3)

These two examples indicate that engaging in surface acting at work might drive reporters to become moody due to the emotional dissonance they experience; hence, they may feel disconnected and isolated from family members.

Summary

This chapter analyzed Chinese frontline reporters' experiences of emotional labor before, during, and after interviews and the impact of such experiences on their professional practices and personal lives. The findings indicated that Chinese reporters tend to link emotional management strategies to journalistic professionalism and regularly engage in emotional labor strategies during interviews to display appropriate attitudes towards interviewees. Specifically, they participate in surface acting, an emotional labor strategy, to improve rapport and encourage subjects to share more information, enter the scenes of news events to gather information, evoke subjects' emotions, and finish news stories. Furthermore, the respondents identified three reasons why reporters may choose to employ the emotional labor strategy of deep acting while interviewing subjects, namely behaving more professionally, maintaining the ability to think critically, and not disturbing the subject and/or the interview process. However, even though reporters experienced complex emotional clusters before and after interviews, they were less likely to engage in emotional labor when interacting with other key players. In contrast to previous research on the emotional labor experiences of journalists (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Thomson, 2018), the current study also found that reporters might naturally have emotional outbursts, particularly when they are deeply shocked by subjects' experience, their professionalism is overtly challenged, or the news production process is significantly delayed.

The adoption of emotional labor strategies was found to have both positive and negative consequences for Chinese reporters. On the one hand, such strategies can help reporters finish reports in a more professional manner or encourage them to reflect on

their journalistic practices. On the other hand, the psychological contradiction between reporters' genuine and required emotional displays might have negative impacts on the way in which news is presented and reporters' work-related attitudes and behaviors, mental and physical well-being, and personal and family relationships. However, this chapter did not identify a direct relationship between engaging in deep or surface acting and abovementioned consequences for reporters; the possible existence of such a relationship would need to be further investigated through the testing of statistical hypotheses.

Chapter 6: Survey Study Results I: The Profiles of Chinese Frontline Reporters and Their Emotional Status

Through the in-depth interviews with 31 Chinese frontline reporters, the qualitative strand of the current study analyzed Chinese reporters' emotional experience and emotional labor engagement, as well as the impact of emotional labor engagement on their journalistic practices, job-related attitudes, physical and mental well-being, and personal and family relationships. The results indicated that Chinese reporters were more likely to experience intensive emotions and adopt emotional labor strategies while interacting with interviewees. To further verify that Chinese reporters are more likely to experience emotional demands while engaging in journalistic work, engage more frequently in emotional labor, employ coping strategies, and suffer higher levels of job burnout when interviewing subjects, the quantitative analyses using statistical method are needed.

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the survey conducted for the quantitative strand was administered in Beijing between January and March 2020. Beijing is the capital city of China, and it has over 21 million residents. The reason behind the choice to collect data in Beijing is that reporters working in this city generally represent the characteristics of news people in China, as Beijing has not only a high density of media organizations and branches but also the most active media landscape in China (Huang, 2012). The 276 Chinese reporters finally sampled were from 22 different media organizations (five broadcast channels, 11 print media outlets, and six new media

platforms). Specifically, in this chapter, the descriptive statistics of participants' demographics and study variables were summarized.

Chinese Frontline Reporters' Profiles

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of the overall sample. Of the 276 individuals who submitted valid questionnaires, 57.6% were female ($n = 159$), and 42.4% present were male ($n = 117$). The data indicated that the percentage of female reporters in China has been consistently increasing. In the 2017 national survey, of 228,327 Chinese reporters, almost half were female (Zhang & Li, 2018); in contrast, this figure was 43% in the 2010 survey, which was conducted in Guangzhou (Lin, 2010), one of China's three largest cities, and 33% in the 1995 and 1997 national surveys (Chen, Zhu, & Wu, 1998; Yu, 1998). Participants' ages ranged from 18 to above 60, with approximately 86.9% being under 40 years old. The remainder of the participants consisted of 26 reporters between 41 and 50 years old (9.4%), nine reporters aged between 51 and 60 years old, and one reporter aged above 60 years. The proportion of single reporters in Beijing is much higher than in other cities in China. The sample comprised 33.7% married reporters ($n = 93$), 72.1% of whom had no children ($n = 199$). However, the proportion of married reporters in Guangzhou was 53% 10 years ago (Lin, 2010). Different from the party membership in many Western countries, the CCP members were selectively recruited among advanced employees in China (Bian, Shu, & Logan, 2001). Becoming a member of the Party is thus perceived as leading to not only power but also opportunities for career advancement and, on occasion, privilege. As for political affiliations in the current sample, members and probationary members of the Chinese Communist Party accounted for 35.8% ($n = 99$), less than the national percentage among frontline professionals in

2017 (49.9%). Of the rest, 40.6% were not affiliated with a party (n = 112), 21.4% were Communist League members (n = 59), and 2.2% were members of the Democratic Party (n = 6). These findings align with those of previous literature that found that reporters were well-educated and received professional training (e.g., Lin, 2010; Zhang & Li, 2018). To be specific, the majority of participants in this study held bachelor's or above degrees, with 47.8% holding a bachelor's degree (n = 132), 37.3% a master's degree, and 1.8% a doctorate (n = 5), while only 35 respondents (12.7%) had no university education. Professional training among reporters has also become more prevalent in China, as almost half of the participants had either a journalism or mass communication major background (n = 135, 48.9%). This percentage is much higher than the 27% found in the 1995 national survey in Chinese reporters (Chen, Zhu, & Wu, 1998). Beyond those reporters with background in journalism and mass communication, the analysis showed that reporters had various backgrounds in terms of major, as 15.9% had majored in arts and humanities (n = 44), 9.8% in economics and management (n = 27, 9.8%), 9.4% in social science (n = 26), 5.1% in engineering (n = 14), 3.3% in law (n = 9), and 3.3% in natural science (n = 9).

To better understand the professional contexts of the participants, reporters were also asked about the type of news organization they worked for, their job position, news beat, the nature of their work, employment status, working years in the field, and monthly income. Fifty point seven percent of the participants indicated they mainly worked for print media (n = 140); this was followed by online media platform (n = 103, 37.3%) and broadcast (n = 33, 11.9%). Over half of the participants were reporters, accounting for 50.7%, followed by editor/reporter (n = 43, 15.6%), senior reporter (n = 33, 12.0%),

intern reporter (n = 17, 6.2%), chief reporter (n = 15, 5.4%), and special correspondent (n = 4, 1.4%). In terms of the nature of their daily practices, the participants overwhelmingly worked as print reporters (n = 175, 63.4%). Fourteen point nine percent of them indicated that they worked as new media reporters (n = 41), 8.3% worked as video reporters (n = 23), 4.7% were photojournalists (n = 13), and 8.7% worked as other types of reporters (n = 24). Reporters surveyed also covered various news beats, including 21.4% participants covering social news (n = 59), 21.0% covering financial news (n = 58), and 10.1% covering investigative or feature stories (n = 28). Other news beats included technology news (n = 24, 8.7%), political news (n = 22, 8.0%), legal news (n = 14, 5.1%), arts/culture/fashion news (n = 11, 4.0%), education news (n = 9, 3.3%), entertainment news (n = 9, 3.3%), international news (n = 8, 2.9%), medical news (n = 7, 2.5%), and sports news (n = 3, 1.1%). In terms of employment status, 56.9% of participants worked as full-time reporters within the market system, in which reporters are employed based on permanent employment contracts with news organization. Of the rest of the sample, 27.9% were working full-time as government employees of state-affiliated media organizations, 9.1% were freelancers (n = 25), and 3.6% were interns. In terms of distribution of years of working as a reporter, the majority of participants' working years as reporters concentrated on one to five working years (n = 146, 52.9%), followed by 19.9% between six and 10 years (n = 55), 11.6% below one year (n = 32), 8.0% between 11 and 15 years (n = 22), 4.3% between 16 and 20 years (n = 12), and 3.3% above 20 years (n = 9). Overall, 84.4% of participants had worked as a reporter for 10 years or less, and only 3.3% had 20 or more years of work experience in the field. Reporters in Beijing were relatively well paid compared to their counterparts in other cities. Only 9.8% of the

survey participants earned a monthly income below CNY 5,000 (USD 706.17) (n = 27), while 37.3% reported a monthly income between CNY 5,001 and CNY 10,000 (USD 706.31 and USD 1,412.34) (n = 103), 35.5% had a monthly salary between CNY 10,001 and CNY 15,000 (USD 1,412.48 and USD 2,118.50) (n = 98), 10.9% had a salary between CNY 15,001 and CNY 20,000 (USD 2,118.64 and USD 2,824.67) (n = 30), 3.5% had a salary between CNY 20,001 and CNY 30,000 (USD 2,824.81 and USD 4,237.01) (n = 10), and only 2.9% had a salary above CNY30,000 (USD 4,237.01) (n = 8). This is to say, over 70% of participants earned a monthly salary after tax of between CNY 5,000 and CNY 15,000 (USD 706.17 and USD 2,118.50). The average salary was higher than that reported in the most recent national survey, which indicated that the average income after tax of Chinese reporters was CNY 5,439 per month (USD 769.63) and that 51% of surveyed journalists earned a salary of under CNY 5,000 (USD 706.17) (Wang, Han, & Hao, 2020). Employees in Beijing, the capital city, earned the highest salaries in China (CNY 7,855) (USD 1,111.51). Over 15% of reporters surveyed were earning twice as much as the average employees in Beijing.

Table 5. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Demographics.*

Variable & Attributes	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	159	57.6
	Male	117	42.4
Age	18–25	66	23.9
	26–30	113	40.9
	31–40	61	22.1
	41–50	26	9.4
	51–60	9	3.3
	Above 60	1	.4
	Marital Status	Single, not married	173
Married		93	33.7
Divorced		7	2.5
Widowed		3	1.1
Kid	Yes	77	27.9
	No	199	72.1
Political Affiliation	Communist Party of China members	87	31.5
	Probationary CPC members	12	4.3
	Communist league members	59	21.4
	Democratic parties' members	6	2.2
	No political affiliation and others	112	40.6
Educational Level	High School or below	9	3.3
	Junior College	26	9.4
	Bachelor's	132	47.8
	Master's	103	37.3
	PhD's	5	1.8
	Others	1	.4
Major	Journalism or Mass Communication	135	48.9
	Social Science	26	9.4
	Humanities and Arts	44	15.9
	Economics and Management	27	9.8
	Law	9	3.3
	Engineering	14	5.1
	Natural Science	9	3.3
	Others	12	4.3
Employment Status	Working full-time (Staffing of Government Affiliated Institutions)	77	27.9
	Working full-time (Company Permanent Employment)	157	56.9
	Freelance	25	9.1
	Internship	19	3.6
	Others	7	2.5
Monthly Income	Below 5000 RMB	27	9.8
	5000–10000 RMB	103	37.3
	10001–15000 RMB	98	35.5
	15001–20000 RMB	30	10.9
	20001–30000 RMB	10	3.5
	Above 30000 RMB	8	2.9
Career Year	Below 1 year	32	11.6
	1–5	146	52.9
	6–10	55	19.9
	11–15	22	8.0

	16–20	12	4.3
	Above 20	9	3.3
Job Position	Intern Reporter	17	6.2
	Reporter	140	50.7
	Senior Reporter	33	12.0
	Special Correspondent	4	1.4
	Chief Reporter	15	5.4
	Editor/Reporter	43	15.6
	Others	24	8.7
The Nature of Work	Print Reporter	175	63.4
	Photojournalist	13	4.7
	Video reporter	23	8.3
	New Media Reporter	41	14.9
	Others	24	8.7
Media Employer	Newspaper	101	36.6
	Magazine	39	14.1
	Radio	13	4.7
	Television	20	7.2
	Online Media	103	37.3
News Beat	Political News	22	8.0
	Social News	59	21.4
	Legal News	14	5.1
	International News	8	2.9
	Financial/Estate/Stock News	58	21.0
	Technology News	24	8.7
	Medical News	7	2.5
	Education News	9	3.3
	Arts/Culture/Fashion News	11	4.0
	Entertainment News	9	3.3
	Sports News	3	1.1
	Investigative/Feature News	28	10.1
	Others	24	8.7

Note. N=276.

Chinese Frontline Reporters' Emotional Status

In addition to questions concerning participants' demographic details and work environments, the survey also investigated their emotional competence. The majority of participants were likely to believe that they made decisions based on rational judgment ($n = 196$, 71.0%), yet 29.0% of participants thought they were emotional thinkers ($n = 80$). With regard to emotional intelligence, 65.9% of participants surveyed reported having the ability to manage their emotions during the conflict ($n = 182$), whereas 34.1% reported a low level of emotional self-control when facing emotionally taxing situations. Slightly over half the respondents ($n = 144$, 52.2%) often experienced trauma in their lives, yet only one reporter (.4%) indicated having never had a traumatic experience previously. Many participants experienced a range of reactions after trauma. As indicated in Table 6, participants often or always had PTSD symptoms, including flashbacks ($n = 91$, 32.9%), avoidance of memories associated with traumatic events they had experienced ($n = 82$, 29.7%), and difficulty concentrating ($n = 76$, 27.5%). In addition, they experienced feelings of irritability ($n = 84$, 30.5%), self-isolation ($n = 71$, 25.7%), and being upset ($n = 66$, 23.9%) as a result of their traumatic experiences.

Table 6. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Level of PTSD.*

Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of a stressful experience from the past	21(7.6%)	76(27.5%)	88(31.9%)	73(26.4%)	18(6.5%)
2. Feeling very upset when something reminded you of a stressful experience from the past	34(12.3%)	68(24.6%)	108(39.1%)	56(20.3%)	10(3.6%)
3. Avoiding thinking or talking about a stressful experience from the past or avoiding having feelings related to it	45(16.3%)	74(26.8%)	75(27.2%)	66(23.9%)	16(5.8%)
4. Feeling distant or cut off from other people	57(20.7%)	88(31.9%)	60(21.7%)	55(19.9%)	16(5.8%)
5. Feeling irritable or having angry outbursts	46(16.7%)	75(27.2%)	71(25.7%)	62(22.5%)	22(8.0%)
6. Difficulty concentrating	38(13.8%)	81(29.3%)	81(29.3%)	56(20.3%)	20(7.2%)

Note. N=276.

With regard to the main variables explored in the study, participants reported that, on average, they conducted 2.7 interviews a day at work and that the typical duration of an interview was approximately 30 minutes. Participants were asked how often they felt strong and varied emotions during interviews. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“never”) to 5 (“always”) was applied, with a higher score indicating a greater degree of emotional intensity and variety. The results indicated that the interviewed journalists felt that they experienced a moderate level of emotional demand in their work, as the majority of participants revealed that they occasionally experienced strong ($M = 2.80$) and varied emotions ($M = 3.14$) in their relationship with interviewees. The emotions reporters experienced tended to be more positive ($M = 3.19$). In terms of positive emotions, the participants indicated that they most frequently felt attentive, enthusiastic, and interested when interacting with their subjects. In contrast, the negative emotions that the reporters frequently experienced feeling distressed, afraid, upset, and nervous (see Table 7).

To deal with such emotions at work, the participants reported that they adopted certain emotional labor strategies and express appropriate emotions when communicated with their subjects. Of the three strategies of emotional labor, Chinese frontline reporters were more likely to employ the deep acting strategy ($M = 3.74$). For example, as shown in Table 8, over 70% of the participants agreed that they needed to work hard to feel emotions or make an effort to feel the emotions that they wished to convey to interviewees. In contrast to the use of the deep acting strategy, around 40% of participants indicated that they would fake a good mood or put on a “mask” to give the

impression of displaying appropriate emotions in dealing with their relationship with interviewees ($M = 2.81$). Given that engagement in emotional labor can be stressful, it is unsurprising that the participants indicated that they occasionally used problem-focused, active, and avoidant strategies to cope with the consequences of engaging in emotional labor (see Table 9). Specifically, the frequency of using these coping strategies was measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“never”) to 4 (“sometimes”). The data showed that Chinese reporters are likely to employ problem-focused coping strategies ($M = 2.74$); in particular, the participants indicated that they would plan ahead to identify ways of dealing with stressful situations caused by engaging in emotional labor. Furthermore, the reporters indicated that they often employed positive reframing and acceptance, as well as self-distraction and self-blame as active ($M = 2.71$) and avoidant ($M = 2.19$) emotional coping strategies. Finally, using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“never”) to 7 (“every day”), participants were also required to indicate their level of job burnout. As shown in Table 10, Chinese frontline reporters’ job burnout is moderate, with a mean of 3.38. Specifically, they were more likely to suffer from higher levels of emotional exhaustion ($M = 3.60$) when compared to feelings of professional inefficacy ($M = 3.34$) and cynicism ($M = 3.20$).

Table 7. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Emotions When Conducted Interview.*

Emotions	Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
<i>Negative Affectivity</i>					
1. Distressed	33 (12.0%)	80 (29.0%)	93 (33.7%)	53 (19.2%)	17 (6.2%)
2. Upset	58 (21.0%)	75 (27.2%)	88 (31.9%)	45 (16.3%)	10 (3.6%)
3. Guilty	69 (25.0%)	93 (33.7%)	89 (32.2%)	23 (8.3%)	2 (.7%)
4. Scared	97 (35.1%)	84 (30.4%)	70 (25.4%)	21 (7.6%)	4 (1.4%)
5. Hostile	67 (24.3%)	92 (33.3%)	82 (29.7%)	32 (11.6%)	3 (1.1%)
6. Irritable	61 (22.1%)	92 (33.3%)	89 (32.2%)	29 (10.5%)	5 (1.8%)
7. Ashamed	88 (31.9%)	86 (31.2%)	80 (29.0%)	18 (6.5%)	4 (1.4%)
8. Nervous	35 (12.7%)	80 (29.0%)	108 (39.1%)	43 (15.6%)	10 (3.6%)
9. Jittery	53 (19.2%)	85 (30.8%)	92 (33.3%)	38 (13.8%)	8 (2.9%)
10. Afraid	52 (18.8%)	80 (29.0%)	83 (30.1%)	56 (20.3%)	5 (1.8%)
<i>Positive Affectivity</i>					
1. Interested	17 (6.2%)	41 (14.9%)	81 (29.3%)	116 (42%)	21 (7.6%)
2. Excited	23 (8.3%)	42 (15.2%)	108 (39.1%)	90 (32.6%)	13 (4.7%)
3. Strong	29 (10.5%)	46 (16.7%)	104 (37.7%)	81 (29.3%)	16 (5.8%)
4. Enthusiastic	10 (3.6%)	27 (9.8%)	86 (31.2%)	121 (43.8%)	32 (11.6%)
5. Proud	23 (8.3%)	59 (21.4%)	91 (33.0%)	76 (27.5%)	27 (9.8%)
6. Alert	43 (15.6%)	65 (23.6%)	91 (33.0%)	63 (22.8%)	14 (5.1%)
7. Inspired	9 (3.3%)	35 (12.7%)	68 (24.6%)	130 (47.1%)	34 (12.3%)
8. Determined	40 (14.5%)	66 (23.9%)	109 (39.5%)	51 (18.5%)	10 (3.6%)
9. Attentive	7 (2.5%)	31 (11.2%)	73 (26.4%)	125 (45.3%)	40 (14.5%)
10. Active	18 (6.5%)	40 (14.5%)	107 (38.8%)	86 (31.2%)	25 (9.1%)

Note. N=276.

Table 8. Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Level of Engagement in Emotional Labor.

Emotional Labor Strategies	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Surface Acting					
1. I put on an act in order to deal with interviewees in an appropriate way	52 (18.8%)	83 (30.1%)	78 (28.3%)	55 (19.9%)	8 (2.9%)
2. I fake a good mood when interacting with interviewees	37 (13.4%)	55 (19.9%)	57 (20.7%)	112 (40.6%)	15 (5.4%)
3. I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with interviewees	50 (18.1%)	86 (31.2%)	82 (29.7%)	44 (15.9%)	14 (5.1%)
4. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job	38 (13.8%)	71 (25.7%)	65 (23.6%)	84 (30.4%)	18 (6.5%)
5. I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job	20 (7.2%)	74 (26.8%)	59 (21.4%)	110 (39.9%)	13 (4.7%)
6. I show feelings to interviewees that are different from what I feel inside	49 (17.8%)	93 (33.7%)	84 (30.4%)	45 (16.3%)	5 (1.8%)
7. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with interviewees	27 (9.8%)	67 (24.3%)	93 (33.7%)	75 (27.2%)	14 (5.1%)
Deep Acting					
8. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to interviewees	18 (6.5%)	32 (11.6%)	65 (23.6%)	129 (46.7%)	32 (11.6%)
9. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward	5 (1.8%)	23 (8.3%)	42 (15.2%)	149 (54.0%)	57 (20.7%)
10. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to interviewees	4 (1.4%)	24 (8.7%)	40 (14.5%)	148 (53.6%)	60 (21.7%)
11. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to interviewees	4 (1.4%)	22 (8.0%)	51 (18.5%)	140 (50.7%)	59 (21.4%)
Naturally Expression					
12. The emotions I express to interviewees are genuine	21 (7.6%)	73 (26.4%)	115 (41.7%)	55 (19.9%)	12 (4.3%)
13. The emotions I show interviewees come naturally	12 (4.3%)	37 (13.4%)	108 (39.1%)	102 (37.0%)	17 (6.2%)
14. The emotions I show interviewees match what I spontaneously feel	12 (4.3%)	45 (16.3%)	122 (44.2%)	80 (29.0%)	17 (6.2%)

Note. N=276.

Table 9. Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Use of Coping Strategies.

Job Burnout	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes
<i>Problem-Focused Coping Strategy</i>				
2. I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in	11 (4.0%)	49 (17.8%)	94 (34.1%)	122 (44.2%)
7. I've been taking action to try to make the situation better	12 (4.3%)	45 (16.3%)	107 (38.8%)	112 (40.6%)
10. I've been getting help and advice from other people	12 (4.3%)	77 (27.9%)	134 (48.6%)	53 (19.2%)
23. I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do	15 (5.4%)	74 (26.8%)	123 (44.6%)	64 (23.2%)
14. I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do	8 (2.9%)	46 (16.7%)	116 (42.0%)	106 (38.4%)
25. I've been thinking hard about what steps to take	8 (2.9%)	51 (18.5%)	120 (43.5%)	97 (35.1%)
22. I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs	134 (48.6%)	88 (31.9%)	45 (16.3%)	9 (3.3%)
27. I've been praying or meditating	115 (41.7%)	94 (34.1%)	55 (19.9%)	12 (4.3%)
<i>Active Emotional Coping Strategy</i>				
5. I've been getting emotional support from others	29 (10.5%)	92 (33.3%)	113 (40.9%)	42 (15.2%)
15. I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone	20 (7.2%)	78 (28.3%)	126 (45.7%)	52 (18.8%)
9. I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape	18 (6.5%)	91 (33.0%)	113 (40.9%)	54 (19.6%)
21. I've been expressing my negative feelings	36 (13.0%)	108 (39.1%)	100 (36.2%)	32 (11.6%)
12. I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive	15 (5.4%)	78 (28.3%)	109 (39.5%)	74 (26.8%)
17. I've been looking for something good in what is happening	13 (4.7%)	79 (28.6%)	121 (43.8%)	63 (22.8%)
18. I've been making jokes about it	40 (14.5%)	102 (37.0%)	107 (38.8%)	27 (9.8%)
28. I've been making fun of the situation	48 (17.4%)	106 (38.4%)	96 (34.8%)	26 (9.4%)
20. I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened	7 (2.5%)	50 (18.1%)	130 (47.1%)	89 (32.2%)
24. I've been learning to live with it	9 (3.3%)	62 (22.5%)	140 (50.7%)	65 (23.6%)
<i>Avoidant Emotional Coping Strategy</i>				
1. I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things	17 (6.2%)	78 (28.3%)	121 (43.8%)	60 (21.7%)
19. I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping	19 (6.9%)	59 (21.4%)	127 (46.0%)	71 (25.7%)
3. I've been saying to myself "this isn't real"	101 (36.6%)	108 (39.1%)	56 (20.3%)	11 (4.0%)
8. I've been refusing to believe that it has happened	148 (53.6%)	80 (29.0%)	43 (15.6%)	5 (1.8%)
4. I've been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better	135 (48.9%)	84 (30.4%)	46 (16.7%)	11 (4.0%)
11. I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it	147 (53.3%)	78 (28.3%)	38 (13.8%)	13 (4.7%)
6. I've been giving up trying to deal with it	110 (39.9%)	107 (38.8%)	54 (19.6%)	5 (1.8%)
16. I've been giving up the attempt to cope	117 (42.4%)	105 (38.0%)	43 (15.6%)	11 (4.0%)
13. I've been criticizing myself	12 (4.3%)	55 (19.9%)	125 (45.3%)	84 (30.4%)
26. I've been blaming myself for things that happened	27 (9.8%)	125 (45.3%)	97 (35.1%)	27 (9.8%)

Note. N=276.

Table 10. *Summary of Chinese Frontline Reporters' Level of Job Burnout.*

Job Burnout	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Everyday
<i>Emotional Exhaustion</i>							
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	19 (6.9%)	40 (14.5%)	85 (30.8%)	55 (19.9%)	35 (12.7%)	28 (10.1%)	14 (5.1%)
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday	17 (6.2%)	35 (12.7%)	90 (32.6%)	59 (21.4%)	29 (10.5%)	30 (10.9%)	16 (5.8%)
3. I feel burned out from my work	21 (7.6%)	46 (16.7%)	74 (26.8%)	58 (21.0%)	31 (11.2%)	29 (10.5%)	17 (6.2%)
4. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	25 (9.1%)	56 (20.3%)	72 (26.1%)	48 (17.4%)	30 (10.9%)	24 (8.7%)	21 (7.6%)
5. Working all day is really a strain for me	33 (12.0%)	59 (21.4%)	72 (26.1%)	50 (18.1%)	27 (9.8%)	20 (7.2%)	15 (5.4%)
<i>Cynicism</i>							
6. I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything	75 (27.2%)	66 (23.9%)	64 (23.2%)	31 (11.2%)	21 (7.6%)	13 (4.7%)	6 (2.2%)
7. I have become less interested in my work since I started this job	47 (17.0%)	67 (24.3%)	60 (21.7%)	49 (17.8%)	23 (8.3%)	17 (6.2%)	13 (4.7%)
8. I have become less enthusiastic about my work	59 (21.4%)	53 (19.2%)	59 (21.4%)	47 (17.0%)	30 (10.9%)	15 (5.4%)	13 (4.7%)
9. I doubt the significance of my work	43 (15.6%)	65 (23.6%)	54 (19.6%)	47 (17.0%)	29 (10.5%)	22 (8.0%)	16 (5.8%)
10. I just want to do my job and not be bothered	27 (9.8%)	45 (16.3%)	64 (23.2%)	54 (19.6%)	40 (14.5%)	21 (7.6%)	25 (9.1%)
<i>Professional Inefficacy</i>							
11. At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done (R)	10 (3.6%)	12 (4.3%)	40 (14.5%)	76 (27.5%)	54 (19.6%)	42 (15.2%)	42 (15.2%)
12. I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work (R)	7 (2.5%)	10 (3.6%)	39 (14.1%)	74 (26.8%)	62 (22.5%)	45 (16.3%)	39 (14.1%)
13. In my opinion, I am good at my job (R)	5 (1.8%)	18 (6.5%)	44 (15.9%)	60 (21.7%)	60 (21.7%)	40 (14.5%)	49 (17.8%)
14. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does (R)	5 (1.8%)	16 (5.8%)	53 (19.2%)	66 (23.9%)	48 (17.4%)	40 (14.5%)	48 (17.4%)
15. I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something worthwhile in my job (R)	4 (1.4%)	10 (3.6%)	46 (16.7%)	74 (26.8%)	50 (18.1%)	39 (14.1%)	53 (19.2%)
16. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job (R)	6 (2.2%)	17 (6.2%)	48 (17.4%)	68 (24.6%)	53 (19.2%)	47 (17.0%)	37 (13.4%)

Note. N=276.

Summary

This chapter aimed to summarize the descriptive statistics concerning Chinese reporters' basic professional characteristics and prepare data for the advanced statistical analysis presented in the next chapter. In summary, the Chinese reporter is likely to be a younger single female who is well-educated, has less than 10 years' experience in journalism, and is unlikely to be affiliated with the CCP. The study echoes the previous research finding that the proportion of single female reporters with professional training in journalism in China has been continuously increasing (Lin, 2010). The other professional characteristics of Chinese reporters identified in this study, including the average employee seniority and employment relationship, were all consistent with previous studies indicating that the majority of reporters had signed a permanent contract with a media organization and had worked for less than 10 years in the field (e.g., Lin, 2010; Wang, Han, & Hao, 2020; Zhang & Li, 2018). In contrast, reporters' monthly salaries in Beijing were above the national average, and a certain percentage of reporters were even received much higher salaries than did the average employees in Beijing.

Strikingly, many Chinese frontline reporters encountered a range of PTSD symptoms, such as flashbacks, avoidance of traumatic memories, and difficulty concentrating after covering traumatic events or experiencing trauma in their personal lives. Even though the majority of Chinese reporters indicated that they felt themselves to be rational thinkers, they nonetheless indicated that they experienced a variety of strong emotions when conducting interviews with subjects. The findings also indicated that, to manage their feelings and express emotions in accordance with the requirements of the journalistic field, the surveyed frontline reporters most frequently engaged in deep acting

in emotional labor, followed by surface acting and displaying naturally felt emotions. As engagement in emotional labor might lead to emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy, all of which are symptoms of job burnout, Chinese reporters have found ways of managing the effects of engaging in emotional labor through employing coping strategies to reduce its negative impacts. These strategies could be classified into three categories: problem-focused, active, and avoidant emotional coping strategies. Specifically, planning, positive reframing, acceptance, self-distraction, and self-blame are the techniques that reporters indicated that they frequently used to address the emotional dissonance caused by engaging in emotional labor.

Chapter 7: Survey Study Results II: The Relationship between Emotional Labor and Burnout

Structural equation modeling (SEM) has become an increasingly popular data analysis technique in the journalism and mass communication fields (Goodboy & Kline, 2017). Based on the two-step SEM process recommended by Kline (2016), before testing the proposed hypotheses, one should ensure that all latent variables are perfectly reliable and that there are no measurement errors. Therefore, in this chapter, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is performed on three multi-subscale variables: emotional labor, coping strategies, and burnout for validating the composite measurements and better understanding the effect of the proposed intervention on Chinese reporters' job burnout.

In this chapter, after the measurement model is fit via the CFA process, the causal relationships among latent variables in this study are estimated using maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard error (MLR) via the lavaan package in R (Rosseel, 2012). Specifically, in this step, a hybrid model that includes the duration, frequency, intensity, and variety of emotional engagement demands perceived by reporters, positive and negative affectivity of such emotional experiences, emotional labor (three latent variables), coping strategies (three latent variables), and job burnout (three latent variables) scales is fit. Finally, a summary and discussion are addressed as well.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, a CFA was conducted using SEM with the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) for R to further confirm the components of the measurement

after checking the assumptions, including normality, multicollinearity, and linearity. The CFA was conducted to verify the factor structure of three multi-category variables, namely emotional labor (three latent variables), coping strategies (three latent variables), and job burnout (three latent variables). The model was estimated using robust Maximum Likelihood.

The initial model fit the data as $\chi^2(1559) = 3451.035, p < .001$. However, other model fit indices, including CFI and TLI, yielded a fit below .90, indicating a poor fit with the measurement model: robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .072, 90% CI = [.068, .075], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .750, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .735, standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .121. The results showed several low loading values ($< .30$) in the measurement of coping strategies. Specifically, items Q9_Cope_22 (I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs) and Q9_Cope_27 (I've been praying or mediating) presented the lowest loadings ($-.249$ and $-.201$, respectively) in the measurement of "problem-focused coping strategies" with the residuals for these two items being .938 and .960, respectively. These two items were excluded from the measurement model since they also double-loaded on the variables of cynicism and avoidant emotional coping strategies. The other reason for removing these two items regarding reporters' religious coping strategies is that China has the lowest number of religious believers globally, and people in China tend to consider practices as more important than religious beliefs when dealing with difficulties they confronted in life (Palmer, 2017).

Moreover, in the measurement of “active coping strategies,” items including Q9_Cope_5 (I’ve been getting emotional support from others), Q9_Cope_21 (I’ve been expressing my negative feelings), and Q9_Cope_28 (I’ve been making fun of the situation) were found to have the lowest loadings as well (.218, .128, and .140, respectively). The residuals for these items were .953, .984, and .980, respectively. These items also found to be double-loaded on the subscales of cynicism and exhaustion, which means that when reporters adopt active coping strategies, they are more likely to be exhausted and cynical about their work. Considering the double-loading issue, these three items were deleted in the measurement model. Items Q9_Cope_1 (I’ve been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things), Q9_Cope_19 (I’ve been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping), Q9_Cope_13 (I’ve been criticizing myself), and Cope_26 (I’ve been blaming myself for things that happened) showed low loading values of .054, .147, .272, and $-.077$ in the measurement of “avoidant emotional coping strategies” with the residuals for these four items were .997, .979, .926, and .994, respectively. These items, which were used to measure avoidant emotional coping strategies and also significantly loaded on the active coping strategies, problem-focused coping strategies, and deep acting variables. This cross-loading was understood as indicating that reporters who tend to adopt avoidant strategies to cope with stress caused by engagement in emotional labor are more likely to use deep acting strategy of emotional labor and other types of coping strategies, including active and problem-focused types. Due to the undesirability of double-barreled items, these four items were removed from the measurement model.

After deleting these nine items, the model fit was improved, $\chi^2(1091) = 2080.286$, $p < .001$, robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .063, 90% CI = [.059, .067], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .846, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .834, standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .083. Further inspection of the loading and modification indices suggested deleting Q9_Cope_9 (I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape) because of the lowest loading (.283) and crossed-loading issue. The result also indicated the model fit could significantly be increased by correlating items No. 4 and No. 11, No. 4 and No. 6, No. 10 and No. 23, No. 10 and No. 15, No. 14 and No. 24 in the measurement of coping strategies; No. 1 and No. 2, No. 5 and No. 7, No. 11 and No. 12, No. 15 and No. 16 in burnout measurement; and No. 6 and No. 7 of emotional labor measurement scale. After double-checking these items, the additional eight CFA models were performed by adding one correlation into the model each time. These correlations included Q9_Cope_4 and Q9_Cope_11, Q9_Cope_10 and Q9_Cope_23, RC_BO_12 and RC_BO_11, Q8_BO_5 and Q8_BO_7, Q8_BO_1 and Q8_BO_2, Q7_EL_6 and Q7_EL_7, Q9_Cope_14 and Q9_Cope_24, and Q8_BO_8 and RC_BO_12.

Based on the inspection of the residual matrix and the modification indices, the 10th item (Q8_BO_10: I just want to do my job and not be bothered) was removed from burnout measurement due to the low loading, as well as the cross-loading issue. The loading of this item on burnout was .437 and it also cross-loaded on the variables of professional inefficacy, natural expression, and problem-focused coping strategies. The 16th item (RC_BO_16: I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job) of the measure of burnout was deleted because it was intended to load on the professional

inefficacy of burnout measurement; however, it also double-loaded on the other two subscales of burnout. Moreover, in the measurement of coping strategies, items 3 (Q9_Cope_3: I've been saying to myself "this isn't real"), 15 (Q9_Cope_15: I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone), and 18 (Q9_Cope_18: I've been making jokes about it) were deleted as well due to the low loading sizes (.551, .327, and .370, respectively) and the overestimation issue.

Even though the model fit was significantly increased after adding correlations and removing items ($\chi^2(775) = 1162.551, p < .001$, robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .047, 90% CI = [.041, .053], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .931, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .923, standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .066), the residual matrix further revealed additional areas of local model misfit. The overestimation issue occurred with Q8_BO_1 (I feel emotionally drained from my work), Q8_BO_2 (I feel used up at the end of the workday), Q7_EL_1 (I put on an act in order to deal with interviewees in an appropriate way), and Q7_EL_6 (I show feelings to interviewees that are different from what I feel inside). Therefore, these items were also removed from the measurement model to improve the model fit. Q9_Cope_23 (I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do) and Q9_Cope_10 (I've been getting help and advice from other people) were deleted as well since these two items had relatively low loading sizes (.437 and .564). But, more importantly, they had complex overestimation or underestimated issues with avoidant emotional coping strategy, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism variables. Theoretically, these two items were not necessary as well. Therefore, these two

items were removed from the measurement model. Finally, the correlation between Q9_Cope_24 and Q9_Cope_25 were added after inspecting the modification indices.

The measurements obtained for each variable was provided in Table 7, and the model fit was finally improved as follow: $\chi^2(552) = 778.986, p < .001$, robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .043, 90% CI = [.036, .050], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .950, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .943 standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .056. Further inspection of the residual matrix and modification indices revealed no additional areas of local model misfit. The reliability of each measurement scale all reached the acceptable level as well. Therefore, these composite measurements are considered to be valid measures of variables for further hypothesis testing.

Table 11. *Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Emotional Labor, Coping Strategies, and Burnout Variables.*

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
Emotional Labor			
Factor 1: Surface Acting			
Q7_EL_2: I fake a good mood when interacting with interviewees	.649		
Q7_EL_3: I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with interviewees	.643		
Q7_EL_4: I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job	.684		
Q7_EL_5: I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job	.760		
Q7_EL_7: I fake the emotions I show when dealing with interviewees	.685		
Cronbach’s Alpha			.814
Factor 2: Deep Acting			
Q7_EL_8: I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to interviewees		.591	
Q7_EL_9: I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward		.820	
Q7_EL_10: I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to interviewees		.814	
Q7_EL_11: I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to interviewees		.880	
Cronbach’s Alpha			.848
Factor 3: Natural Expression			
Q7_EL_12: The emotions I express to interviewees are genuine			.539
Q7_EL_13: The emotions I show interviewees come naturally			.776
Q7_EL_14: The emotions I show interviewees match what I spontaneously feel			.823
Cronbach’s Alpha			.752
Coping Strategy			
Factor 1: Problem-Focused Coping Strategies			
Q9_Cope_2: I’ve been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I’m in	.794		
Q9_Cope_7: I’ve been taking action to try to make the situation better	.793		
Q9_Cope_14: I’ve been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do	.808		
Q9_Cope_25: I’ve been thinking hard about what steps to take	.728		
Cronbach’s Alpha			.861
Factor 2: Active Emotional Coping Strategies			
Q9_Cope_12: I’ve been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive		.719	
Q9_Cope_17: I’ve been looking for something good in what is happening		.767	
Q9_Cope_24: I’ve been learning to live with it		.700	
Cronbach’s Alpha			.770
Factor 3: Avoidant Emotional Coping Strategies			
Q9_Cope_8: I’ve been refusing to believe that it has happened			.713
Q9_Cope_6: I’ve been giving up trying to deal with it			.716

Q9_Cope_16: I've been giving up the attempt to cope	.723
Q9_Cope_4: I've been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better	.602
Q9_Cope_11: I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it	.549
Cronbach's Alpha	.814
<i>Burnout</i>	
<i>Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion</i>	
Q8_BO_3: I feel burned out from my work	.864
Q8_BO_4: I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.883
Q8_BO_5: Working all day is really a strain for me	.868
Cronbach's Alpha	.906
<i>Factor 2: Cynicism</i>	
Q8_BO_6: I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything	.766
Q8_BO_7: I have become less interested in my work since I started this job	.879
Q8_BO_8: I have become less enthusiastic about my work	.874
Q8_BO_9: I doubt the significance of my work	.826
Cronbach's Alpha	.901
<i>Factor 3: Professional Inefficacy</i>	
Q8_BO_11: At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done (R)	.810
Q8_BO_12: I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work (R)	.760
Q8_BO_13: In my opinion, I am good at my job (R)	.833
Q8_BO_14: I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does (R)	.774
Q8_BO_15: I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something worthwhile in my job (R)	.715
Cronbach's Alpha	.890

Correlations among Study Variables

Before the hypotheses testing, the bivariate correlations among relevant study variables are presented in Table 8 below. All three emotional labor measures (surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression) were found to be positively correlated to the following emotional engagement demand variables: frequency, intensity, and variety. In terms of coping strategy variables, engagement in surface acting was positively associated with the adoption of an avoidant emotional coping strategy, while deep acting was positively correlated to problem-focused and active emotional coping strategies and negatively related to an avoidant emotional coping strategy. It is also worth noting that among the burnout predictors, surface acting was found to be positively related to the emotional exhaustion and cynicism symptoms of burnout, and deep acting was positively associated with emotional exhaustion but negatively with professional inefficacy. Significant positive correlations were also found between the use of an avoidant emotional coping strategy and all three measures of burnout, while negative correlations were identified between cynicism and professional inefficacy symptoms and the other two types of coping strategies (problem-focused and active emotional coping strategies). The subsequent structural analysis explored whether the effects still hold in the path model.

Table 12. *Bivariate Correlation Matrix of Study Variables.*

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1. Duration	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
2. Frequency	.01	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
3. Intensity	–.01	.65***	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
4. Variety	–.02	.55***	.57***	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
5. Negative Affectivity	.04	.22**	.33***	.34***	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
6. Positive Affectivity	.07	.29***	.33***	.44***	.29**	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
7. Surface Acting	.03	.24***	.21**	.45***	.36***	.30***	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
8. Deep Acting	–.04	.33***	.23***	.40***	.01	.38***	.29***	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
9. Natural Expression	.02	.13*	.12*	.12	.001	.16*	–.12*	.32***	–	–	–	–	–	–
10. Problem Focused Strategy	.01	.18**	.07	.24***	–.25***	.33***	.11	.59***	.24***	–	–	–	–	–
11. Active Strategy	–.02	.02	.03	.13*	–.19*	.29***	.04	.33***	.22**	.62***	–	–	–	–
12. Avoidant Strategy	.03	.07	.22**	.08	.45***	.04	.22**	–.28***	.04	–.46***	–.22**	–	–	–
13. Emotional Exhaustion	–.01	.35***	.29***	.28***	.34***	.05	.34***	.17*	.07	–.05	–.11	.35***	–	–
14. Cynicism	–.02	.22**	.20**	.19*	.33***	–.02	.33***	.06	.05	–.18*	–.15*	.50***	.78***	–
15. Professional Inefficacy	–.01	–.12*	–.08	–.18*	.21**	–.34***	–.08	–.46***	–.23***	–.68***	–.47***	.26***	.02	.07

Note. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; $N = 276$.

The Relationships Among Emotional Labor, Coping Strategies, and Job Burnout

To test the proposed hypotheses, a structure hybrid model was fit that included six observed variables, namely the duration, frequency, intensity, variety of emotional engagement demands, and negative and positive affectivity, and nine latent variables, including those for emotional labor (three latent variables), coping strategies (three latent variables), and job burnout (three latent variables). The initial model rather did not fit the data, $\chi^2(760) = 1,309.846, p < .001$, robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .055, 90% CI = [.050, .060], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .893, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .881, standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .120.

The LM test indicated that adding paths between positive affectivity, negative affectivity, deep acting and the three types of coping strategies would significantly improve the model fit; all of these relationships theoretically make sense. After adding these paths, the model fit was increased, $\chi^2(752) = 1114.615, p < .001$, robust root mean square error of approximation (rRMSEA) = .045, 90% CI = [.039, .051], robust comparative fit index (rCFI) = .929, robust non-normed fit index/Tucker Lewis index (rNNFI/TLI) = .921, standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .062. It is believed that there was a reasonable overall fit between the model and the data, as the model fit was found to moderately acceptable. According to the SEM results, 33.0% of the variance in surface acting engagement, 29.5% in deep acting engagement, 6.4% in natural expression, 58.9% in using problem-focused coping strategy, 29.7% in using active emotional coping strategy, 33.5% in using avoidant emotional coping strategy, 32.2% in exhaustion, 39.7% in cynicism, and 61.3% in professional inefficacy were explained by

the model. The detailed regression coefficients for each path regarding use of different emotional labor strategies and job burnout symptoms were demonstrated in Figure 5. The section presents the detailed results of the testing of the hypotheses.

H1 assumed that reporters perceived emotional demands at work, including the frequency, duration, intensity, and variety of emotional responses when interacting with their subjects, to be positively related to their use of emotional labor strategies. This hypothesis was partially supported. Participants who reported experiencing a wide range of emotional demands ($\beta = .44, p < .001$) for longer periods of time ($\beta = .02, p = .04$) were statistically more likely to engage in surface acting when interacting with their subjects. In contrast, participants were less likely to employ the surface acting strategy if they perceived emotional demands as being more intense ($\beta = -.18, p = .03$).

Additionally, the intensity of emotional demands has found no direct relationship with either deep acting or natural expression as well which indicated that Chinese front-line reporters might not be able to manage emotions especially when they faced high-intensity emotions at work. Such inability to manage emotions is not only caused by their lack of awareness but also the limited formal training in emotional management they received in their work.

In terms of engagement in deep acting, the results indicated that experiencing a wide range of emotional demands ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) on a frequent basis ($\beta = .23, p = .006$) could increase the possibility to use deep acting strategies in reporters' interaction with their subjects. While natural expression was not addressed in the hypotheses or the research questions, it was added to the SEM model as another emotional labor strategy based on the results of the qualitative study strand of the current study. However, the

model failed to identify a linear relationship between reporters' perception of the duration ($\beta = .02, p = .21$), frequency ($\beta = .11, p = .24$), intensity ($\beta = .06, p = .54$), and variety ($\beta = -.03, p = .78$) of their emotional demands and their natural expression in their relationship with subjects. In other words, whether reporters display genuine feelings to interviewees does not directly depend on their perception of the emotional demands of working in the field of journalism. Moreover, their engagement in surface and deep acting strategies highly depends on their perceived duration, frequency, and variety of emotional demands in their work while interacting with their subjects.

H2 proposed that negative events that occur during interactions with interviewees in daily work are positively associated with Chinese reporters' engagement in emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting. As shown in Figure 5, negative affectivity was found to be positively associated with surface acting ($\beta = .27, p < .001$) and negatively with deep acting ($\beta = -.21, p < .001$), which indicated that the more negative emotions Chinese reporters experience while interacting with interviewees, the more likely they are to engage in surface acting and vice-versa for deep acting. Therefore, since the relationship between negative affectivity and engaging in deep acting was opposed to that which was predicated, H2 was partially supported by the data. The predictive power of negative affectivity has been highlighted in several previous studies (e.g., Grandey, 2000). However, the role of positive affectivity in predicting emotional labor engagement was also revealed in the current research. The evidence suggested that participants tend to adopt a deep acting strategy ($\beta = .26, p < .001$) to fulfill their professional requirements and when they experience positive feelings while interacting with their subjects. In contrast, their likelihood of engaging in the emotional labor strategy of surface acting to

modify their display of emotions was not found to be directly related to positive affectivity ($\beta = .10, p = .20$). Experiencing positive emotions during communication with interviewees was not only found to be related to reporters' engagement in deep acting but also positively predicted their expression of natural emotions ($\beta = .19, p = .04$). The findings revealed that, should a Chinese reporter generally feel more negative emotions in the relationship with subjects, he or she will either display genuine emotions or invest greater effort into the acting process.

The present study also explores the relationship between engaging in emotional labor and reporters' level of job burnout. H3a hypothesized that Chinese reporters' engagement in surface acting as a form of emotional labor is positively associated with the three dimensions of burnout, namely exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy. This hypothesis, however, was not fully supported by the data. The analysis yielded evidence indicating that, while interacting with interviewees, surface actors tend to experience higher level of both exhaustion ($\beta = .26, p = .02$) and cynicism ($\beta = .21, p = .04$) at work compared with deep actors. One reason that may explain these associations is that when engaging in surface acting, employees might experience dissonance between their naturally occurring feeling and the emotions that they are required to express, which may cause them to feel emotionally and emotionally drained. However, in contrast to prior research (e.g., Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012), a direct link between inefficacy ($\beta = .01, p = .89$) in engaging in surface acting was not found in the analysis; this is to say, choosing to adopt the surface acting strategy when interacting with subjects will not impact Chinese reporters' sense of efficacy in the performance of their roles.

To further explore the link between emotional labor engagement and reporters' level of job burnout, H3b proposed that their engaging in deep acting as a form of emotional labor is negatively associated with job burnout symptoms. However, the findings revealed that Chinese reporters experience of deep acting was not a significant predictor of their levels of exhaustion ($\beta = .22, p = .11$), cynicism ($\beta = .22, p = .11$), or professional inefficacy ($\beta = .08, p = .60$). H3b was thus not supported by the data, and the results indicated that deep actors might have normalized and developed deep acting as habitual routine of their professional work so that the emotional mechanism will not lead to their job burnout. Additionally, the findings might also reveal that the relationship between deep acting and burnout among Chinese reporters might be mediated by other factors. For example, according to previous research in other professions, the relationship between deep acting engagement and job burnout could be mediated by employees' gender, seniority in the workplace, emotional intelligence, and work-family mediator (e.g., Guy & Lee, 2015; Noor & Zainuddin, 2011). Although no corresponding, the relationship between natural expression and job burnout was also tested in the SEM model. Similar to the role of deep acting in predicting job burnout, reporters' genuine engagement in acting as a form of emotional labor had no direct association with their levels of exhaustion ($\beta = .05, p = .64$), cynicism ($\beta = .03, p = .81$), or the feelings of professional inefficacy ($\beta = -.02, p = .85$) at work.

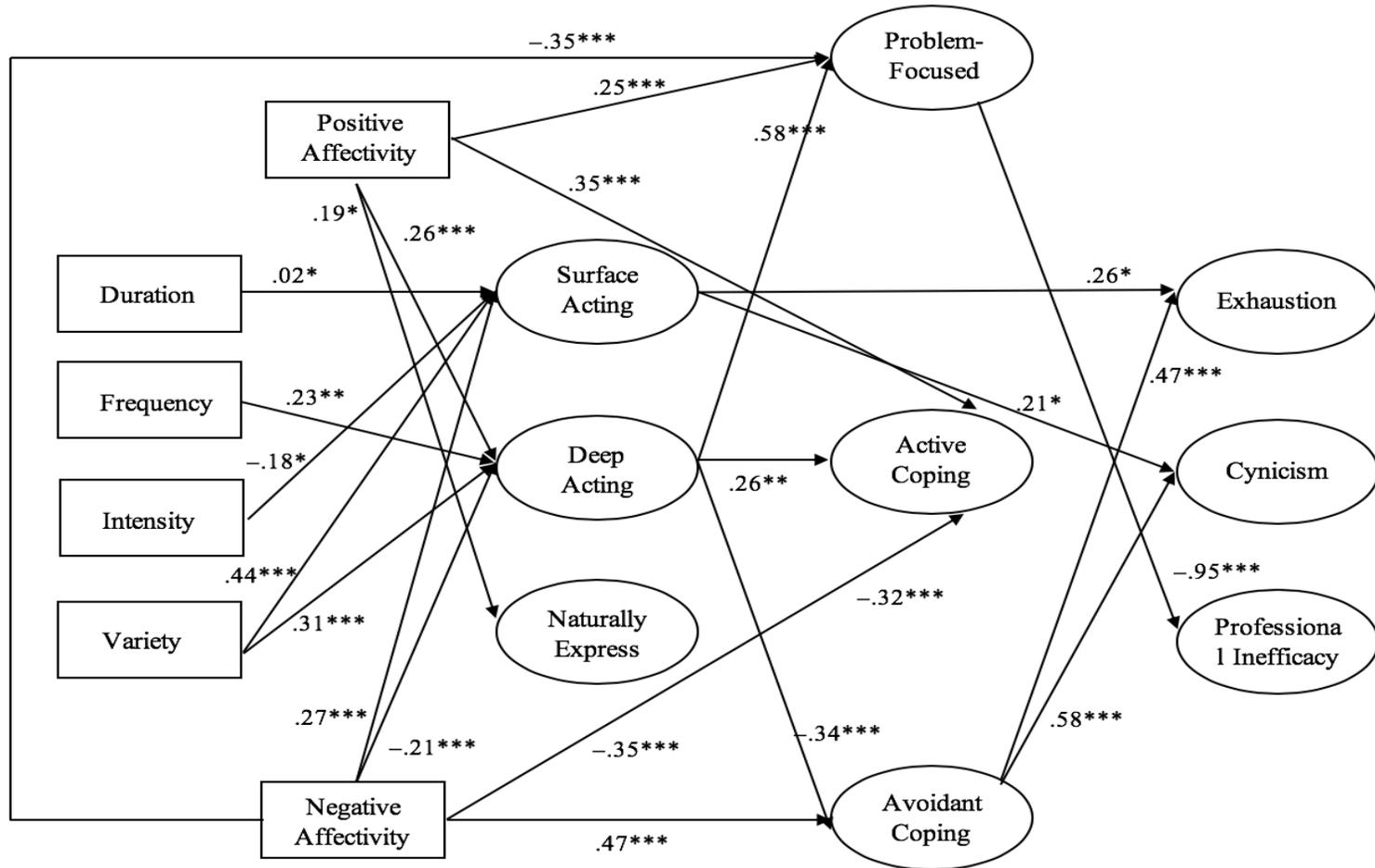
H4 stated that the use of coping strategies is negatively associated with Chinese reporters' level of job burnout. The empirical testing partially supported this hypothesis. The use of a problem-focused coping strategy was found to significantly reduce feelings of professional inefficacy ($\beta = -.95, p < .001$), while the use of an avoidant emotional

coping strategy was found to sufficiently increase the levels of exhaustion ($\beta = .47, p < .001$) and cynicism ($\beta = .58, p < .001$). A problem-focused coping strategy involves directly addressing the stressors that employees encounter at work (Taiwo, 2015). The results indicated that the greater the degree to which Chinese reporters relied on problem-focused strategies such as planning or taking active steps to address issues, the less likely they are to experience feelings of professional inefficacy. This may be the case because active engagement in problem-focused coping strategies may increase reporters' sense of control at work. In the in-depth interview strand of this research, the majority of Chinese reporters interviewed indicated that they usually used avoidance or escape strategies, such as self-blame, emotional disengagement, and alcohol consumption, to cope with the stress they experienced after engaging in emotional labor while interacting with interviewees. However, surprisingly, the statistical analysis indicated that the use of the avoidance strategy is likely to increase, rather than reduce, their feelings of exhaustion and cynicism. This is because the use of avoidant coping mechanism is to escape and avoid dealing with the stressor, which might in turn aggravate reporters' level of burnout. Furthermore, the regression coefficients between the use of an active emotional coping strategy and job burnout symptoms were relatively weak and not statistically significant, indicating that employing active emotional coping strategy, including positive reframing and acceptance, fails to reduce feelings of exhaustion ($\beta = -.30, p = .17$), cynicism ($\beta = -.21, p = .26$), and professional inefficacy ($\beta = .06, p = .75$) among Chinese reporters.

Beyond being used to test the hypotheses, the SEM model also revealed the links between reporters' engagement in deep acting and the use of coping strategies. The findings revealed that engaging in such acting was related positively to the use of

problem-focused ($\beta = .58, p < .001$) and active emotional coping strategy ($\beta = .26, p < .01$) but negatively to avoidant emotional coping strategy ($\beta = -.34, p < .001$). Despite the fact that deep acting is considered to be a superior emotional expression strategy compared to surface acting, this result suggests that reporters' efforts to adjust their feelings did lead to their use of coping strategies. That is, not only the process of surface acting but also the emotional engagement in deep acting may place strain upon frontline reporters, which in turn, requires the adoption of active emotional coping strategies. Strikingly, the negative emotions reporters experienced while interacting with interviewees were negatively associated with their adoption of problem-focused ($\beta = -.35, p < .001$) and active emotional coping strategies ($\beta = -.32, p < .001$) and positively related to the use of an avoidance coping strategy ($\beta = .47, p < .001$). The results suggested that the greater the extent to which Chinese reporters experience negative emotions while interviewing their subjects, the greater the likelihood that they will avoid dealing with the stress caused by such interactions. Moreover, the positive emotions generated as a result of reporter-interviewee relationships were also found to be related to the use of problem-focused ($\beta = .25, p < .001$) and active emotional coping strategies ($\beta = .35, p < .001$) by reporters; this finding indicates that when reporters experience positive emotions during their relationship with subjects, they are more likely to attempt to actively address stressors that originated from these emotions instead of attempting to shield themselves from the experience ($\beta = .01, p = .85$).

Figure 5. SEM of Variables Predicting Chinese Frontline Reporters' Emotional Labor Engagement and Job Burnout.



Notes. Parameters are standardized coefficients. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$; N = 276.

Summary

The purpose of chapter 7 is to provide statistical evidence concerning the relationship between the emotional demands perceived by Chinese reporters during interviews and their engagement in emotional labor on the one hand, and their emotional labor adoption and levels of job burnout on the other. Following Kline's (2016) two-step SEM test, the CFA model was first fit in this chapter to validate the reliability of the measurement of all latent variables after checking assumptions. Thereafter, to further test the proposed hypotheses, a structural model was performed with six observed variables, namely duration, frequency, intensity, variety of emotional demands, positive and negative affectivity, and three multiscale variables, namely emotional labor (three latent variables), coping strategies (three latent variables), and job burnout (three latent variables).

Chinese reporters experience a wide range of emotions in their interaction with subjects before, during, and after the interviews. For example, as revealed in the qualitative analysis strand, frontline reporters are more likely to experience complex emotional clusters when conducting pre-interview with subjects, covering traumatic events, and receiving feedback from audiences. As a result of their journalistic education and the socialization that occurs in newsrooms, reporters have normalized certain codes of behavior and have learned that there are certain emotions that are considered desiable when interacting with interviewees. The results of the hypotheses testing (as listed in Table 13) in the quantitative analysis revealed that whether or not Chinese frontline reporters adopt emotional labor strategies to modify their true feelings also depends on their perceived emotional demands at work. Specifically, the higher the levels of

emotional demands that Chinese reporters perceived in their work, the greater the likelihood that they will adopt emotional labor strategies while interacting with interviewees. In addition, experiencing both negative and positive emotions at work can influence reporters' engagement in emotional labor. More intriguingly, the findings indicated that Chinese reporters would be more likely to engage in both surface acting and genuine displays of emotion as a result of being exposed to emotionally taxing situations. However, reporters are less likely to utilize deep acting in emotional labor involving pretending emotions should they experience emotions when interacting with interviewees.

The relationship between experience of emotional labor and job burnout has been further verified in this chapter. As shown in Table 13, in line with certain previous studies (e.g., Jeung, Kim, & Chang, 2018), neither deep acting nor natural expression led to a significant increase in reporters' levels of job burnout. In contrast, the more reporters display appropriate emotions to their subjects by engaging in surface acting, the more emotional dissonance they experience, which in turn results in reporters feeling greater exhaustion at work and more cynicism regarding their careers.

One of the other important contributions of the current research is discussing the role of adopting a coping strategy in intervening in the relationship between emotional labor and job burnout. The findings indicated that the adoption of a problem-focused coping strategy can reduce reporters' feelings of professional inefficacy, whereas the use of the avoidance coping strategy, in contrast, can elicit feelings of exhaustion and cynicism toward their journalistic careers. More importantly, the negative emotions reporters experience while interacting with their subjects seem to be important for their

choice of coping strategies, as they were highly associated with the use of all three types of strategies. Finally, it is worth noting that rather than surface acting and natural expression, deep acting was found to be a significant predictor of reporters' engagement in all types of coping strategies. That is, Chinese frontline reporters might also encounter emotionally demanding experiences when attempting to display appropriate emotions by using a deep acting strategy. Such a relationship might further influence their tendency to adopt a coping strategy.

Table 13. *Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results.*

Hypotheses	Result
H1: Perceived emotional demands, including frequency, duration, variety, and intensity of interaction with others in the journalistic job, relate positively to Chinese reporters' experience in emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.	Partial Supported
(1). Reporters perceived the duration of emotional demands is positively related to their surface acting.	Supported
(2). Reporters perceived the frequency of emotional demands is positively related to their surface acting.	Rejected
(3). Reporters perceived the intensity of emotional demands is positively related to their surface acting.	Rejected
(4). Reporters perceived the variety of emotional demands is positively related to their surface acting.	Supported
(5). Reporters perceived the duration of emotional demands is positively related to their deep acting.	Rejected
(6). Reporters perceived the frequency of emotional demands is positively related to their deep acting.	Supported
(7). Reporters perceived the intensity of emotional demands is positively related to their deep acting.	Rejected
(8). Reporters perceived the variety of emotional demands is positively related to their deep acting.	Supported
H2: Negative affectivity originating from interactions with interviewees in daily work are positively associated with Chinese reporters' experience in emotional labor, including both deep and surface acting.	Partial Supported
(1). Negative affectivity originating from interactions with interviewees is positively associated with Chinese reporters' experience in surface acting.	Supported
(2). Negative affectivity originating from interactions with interviewees is positively associated with Chinese reporters' experience in deep acting.	Rejected
H3a: Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.	Partial Supported
(1). Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of exhaustion.	Supported
(2). Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of cynicism.	Supported

(3). Chinese reporters' surface acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of professional inefficacy.	Rejected
H3b: Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is negatively associated with the three dimensions of burnout.	Rejected
(1). Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of exhaustion.	Rejected
(2). Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of cynicism.	Rejected
(3). Chinese reporters' deep acting in emotional labor is positively associated with their level of professional inefficacy.	Rejected
H4: Coping strategies are negatively associated with Chinese reporters' level of job burnout.	Partial Supported
(1). Chinese reporters' use of problem-focused coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of exhaustion.	Rejected
(2). Chinese reporters' use of problem-focused coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of cynicism.	Rejected
(3). Chinese reporters' use of problem-focused coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of professional inefficacy.	Rejected
(4). Chinese reporters' use of active emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of exhaustion.	Rejected
(5). Chinese reporters' use of active emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of cynicism.	Rejected
(6). Chinese reporters' use of active emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of professional inefficacy.	Rejected
(7). Chinese reporters' use of avoidant emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of exhaustion.	Supported
(8). Chinese reporters' use of avoidant emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of cynicism.	Rejected
(9). Chinese reporters' use of avoidant emotional coping strategy is negatively associated with their level of professional inefficacy.	Rejected

Chapter 8: Discussion

This chapter summarizes the results of the research questions and hypotheses testing. Conclusions are then drawn from the three major concentrations: the condition of Chinese frontline reporters' emotional experiences and emotional labor engagement before, during, and after interviews; the impact of emotional labor engagement on reporters' professional practices and personal lives; and the specific relationships among emotional labor, coping strategies, and reporters' job burnout. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings are also elaborated. Finally, the chapter analyses the limitations of the study and provides suggestions for future research.

Summary of Major Findings

While scholars have noted the importance of understanding emotions in the journalism field (Wahl-Jorgensen, 2020), few studies have paid attention to journalists' experience with emotional labor and its impacts on their well-being (Hopper & Huxford, 2015). Therefore, the goal of this study is to provide preliminary findings on how Chinese frontline reporters make sense of the relationship between job burnout and their experience of emotional labor to manage their emotions at work. Chinese reporters are more likely to experience emotionally intense situations than reporters in many other countries when covering news events and establishing relationships with others because of the role conflict between being a propagandist and a professional journalist. The continued media censorship in China and the stricter code of practice also require them to frequently manage emotions. This context makes Chinese frontline reporters as an ideal group for exploring the role of emotions and emotional regulation in determining reporters' psychological well-being. This research explored several research questions,

including how Chinese reporters interpret their emotional experiences in daily journalistic practices, how they use emotional labor strategies to manage feelings in emotionally taxing situations at work, and how the mechanism of emotional labor is associated with their burnout symptoms. Moreover, in order to provide practical suggestions for improving journalistic practitioners' psychological well-being, the effect of using coping skills to address stressors caused by emotional labor engagement was also examined.

As emotional labor is the complex psychological process, this study employed an exploratory sequential mixed-methods approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative data to explore emotion and emotional labor in Chinese frontline reporters. Specifically, through semi-structured, in-depth interviews, the qualitative strand of this research explored the emotional experiences and taxonomy of emotional labor of Chinese reporters, as well as the potential relationship between engagement in emotional labor and the well-being of reporters. Based on the results of the qualitative strand, a subsequent quantitative survey with Chinese reporters was used to verify the relationships between emotional demands, engagement in emotional labor, coping strategies, and levels of burnout. Overall, the results from both the qualitative and quantitative approaches aim first to address the research gap by improving the understanding of the important role of emotion regulation in determining reporters' well-being in both academia and industry; and second, to provide suggestions to help frontline reporters cope with the stress generated by emotional labor engagement in their profession.

RQ1 explored the range of emotions Chinese frontline reporters experience at work when interacting with different key players. In contrast to previous research (e.g.,

Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Kotišová, 2019a; Thomson, 2018), the thematic analysis of 31 in-depth interviews found that intense emotional experiences occur not only during the news interview and post-interview phase but also when a reporter prepares for an interview. Reporters mentioned that they frequently experience complex emotions, such as anxiety, fear, and excitement, when searching for news ideas, receiving a lead, or preparing for a formal interview. Their intense emotions in these circumstances are due, in part, to the fact that their performance evaluation and wage standards depend on their success in such situations.

In addition, similar to studies conducted with journalistic practitioners in many other countries (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Kotišová, 2019a), Chinese reporters experience complex emotional clusters during news interviews, when they (1) are covering traumatic events; (2) are having difficulties achieving breakthroughs in news investigations; (3) encounter a large gap in social status between their subjects and themselves; and (4) are faced with unreasonable requests by their subjects. The specific emotions associated with this phase, as described by the reporters, include shock, sadness, anxiety, frustration, and anger. Reporters noted that they felt such negative emotions primarily when their news investigation are hampered, their journalistic professionalism is violated, or when the news they are covering involves an emotionally taxing event. The reporters also reported experiencing negative emotional experiences after conducting news interviews in which they felt that their reports negatively impacted their subjects.

Results from the in-depth interviews also revealed that Chinese reporters' relationships with other key players, such as government publicity officials, PR

practitioners, and readers and audiences, also produce intense negative emotional experiences before, during, and after news interviews. More specifically, before an interview, reporters might feel angry or embarrassed if PR professionals constructed additional barriers for reporters to access news sources or made unethical requirements. Reporters repeatedly emphasized that, during an interview, besides their interaction with interviewees, they find their interaction with government publicity officials to be their main source of negative emotions, such as anger, fear, and resentment due to unfair treatment. Unlike Western countries, China has strict post-publication censorship, which results in the majority of emotionally taxing situations for Chinese frontline reporters occurring in the post-interview phase. When the reporters are asked to delete or revise news stories by government publicity officials or PR practitioners, both novice and veteran reporters experience negative feelings, such as discouragement, hopelessness, frustration, and embarrassment. Moreover, criticism of their news reports by readers or key opinion leaders can magnify these negative feelings.

In summary, when communicating with different key players in the journalism field, Chinese reporters are more likely to have an emotional experience when an interaction disrupts the journalistic news production process, has a spillover effect on their personal lives, or challenges their journalistic professionalism and ethics. It is worth noting that the majority of Chinese reporters indicated experiencing predominantly negative emotions at work when interacting with interviewees, publicity officials, PR professionals, readers, and key opinion leaders. They felt they only experience positive emotions when they (1) interview inspiring subjects, (2) reach a breakthrough in a news investigation, or (3) receive a positive appraisal from their readers or audiences.

However, more importantly, instead of having one specific emotion, reporters highlighted that they often experience a complex emotional cluster, involving different types of emotional feelings, when dealing with emotionally intense situations.

Though not proposed as a research question, the qualitative analysis also revealed the impact of potential factors on Chinese reporters' emotional experiences. In line with previous studies, the topics of news stories, the circumstances in which interviews are conducted, the duration of interactions between reporters and their subjects, and the characteristics of the interviewed subject were all found to be factors that impact the intensity of emotional experiences among reporters (Kotišová, 2019a; McMahon & McLellan, 2008; Thomson, 2018). Moreover, seniority or maturity in the workplace, news media platforms, and news beat were repeatedly mentioned by reporters in this study as important factors that influence reporters' emotional resilience. Strikingly, compared to different types of reporters, novice reporters on legal, society, or investigative news beats who worked for non-official new media platforms were more likely to feel negative emotions due to their frequent exposure to the dark side of society and their lack of professional identity in the Chinese media system.

RQ2 and RQ3 investigated the taxonomy of Chinese reporters' emotional labor strategies and the possible impact of their experience in emotional labor on professional practices and personal life. Not surprisingly, a few Chinese frontline reporters are aware of their engaging in emotional labor and have received formal training in emotional management. Findings in the qualitative research strand of this study revealed that Chinese reporters consider emotional management to be an inevitable component of journalistic professionalism. They indicated that they regularly engage in emotional labor

strategies at work to display appropriate emotions. However, although the reporters expressed experiencing complex emotional clusters in different news production phases with various stakeholders, according to results, emotional labor engagement chiefly occurs during interviews with their subjects.

In response to different situations and subject personalities, reporters may adopt different emotional labor strategies, including surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression to express emotions. Specifically, they will leverage surface acting, either enhancing or suppressing their naturally occurring feelings, in order to (1) establish rapport and create a comfortable environment for subjects, (2) enter the scenes of news events for newsgathering, and (3) evoke subjects' emotions to share more information. Compared with the adoption of the surface acting strategy, the findings of this study suggest that the use of deep acting during an interview can help Chinese reporters behave more professionally, retain their ability to think critically, and ensure a smooth interview process.

Adding to previous research on the emotional labor experiences of journalistic practitioners (e.g., Hopper & Huxford, 2015; Thomson, 2018), the qualitative data in the current study also found that reporters might also experience emotional outbursts, especially after news interviews, when interacting with interviewees, publicity officials, and readers and audiences. The reporters shared that they experienced genuine emotional expression particularly (1) when they are deeply shocked by subjects' experience, (2) when their professionalism is overtly challenged by readers or interviewees, and (3) when the news production process is significantly delayed by publicity officials. In short,

according to Chinese reporters, they only regulate emotions during interviews with their subjects.

Consistent with previous research that revealed the consequences of the use of emotional labor strategies (Kotišová, 2019a), Chinese reporters are also impacted by involving in such a complex emotional mechanism. However, such impacts are not constrained to a negative perspective. For example, the interviews revealed that both surface and deep acting can help reporters complete their work in a professional manner. Moreover, reporters' journalistic skills and moral values can be further developed since they might experience intense self-reflection after the exercise of emotional labor, especially when covering emotionally intense cases. On the other hand, the findings also revealed that the emotional dissonance caused by the gap between reporters' genuine and required feelings can magnify the negative influences on their news presentation, mental and physical well-being, as well as personal life. For example, increasing procrastination, high level of job burnout, and PTSD are all attributed to Chinese reporters' engagement in emotional labor.

The interaction of reporters with their subjects was identified in the qualitative research strand as the main area in which Chinese reporters apply emotional labor strategies. The quantitative survey results further provided evidence of the direct relationship between the use of emotional labor while interacting with subjects and reporters' job burnout. The results revealed that the majority of Chinese reporters perceived themselves as rational thinkers and reported a moderate level of emotional demands in their work. Compared with surface acting and natural expression, reporters exhibit deep acting most frequently in terms of emotional labor. The results of the

hypothesis testing revealed that the more emotional demands reporters perceived, the more likely they were to leverage emotional labor strategies, including surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression. Additionally, both the negative and positive emotions experienced by reporters while covering the news could affect their engagement in emotional labor. Previous research on emotional labor within various professions found a positive association between the negative emotions experienced by reporters and their emotional labor engagement (e.g., Grandey, 2003). However, this study revealed that subjects in the journalistic profession are less likely to apply a deep acting strategy if they have negative feelings toward their interaction with subjects in their news reporting.

Not surprisingly, the findings of this study also showed that Chinese reporters sometimes experience job burnout. Only surface acting engagement was found to be a significant and positive predictor of reporters' levels of exhaustion and cynicism in the further hypothesis testing. This is probably because Chinese reporters have normalized the emotional process of deep acting in their professional practices over time, which thus might reduce the effect on their level of job burnout symptoms. A problem-focused approach was the most frequent strategy employed by reporters to cope with stresses caused by emotional labor engagement in order to reduce levels of job burnout. This was followed by active and avoidance strategies. The use of a problem-focused coping strategy could significantly increase a reporter's sense of accomplishment; however, in comparison, the avoidance coping strategy was found to have positive effects on reporters' exhaustion and cynicism symptoms of job burnout.

Overall, by combining both qualitative and quantitative analyses, the findings of this study revealed that Chinese frontline reporters tend to experience complex emotional

clusters, especially when they develop relationships with their interviewees. As identified in the semi-structured interviews, all three emotional labor strategies (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression) are frequently adopted by reporters to display desirable attitudes to interviewees under emotionally taxing situations. Such psychological mechanisms, especially the surface acting process, can make reporters more vulnerable to exhaustion and cynicism in their work. Finally, only the adoption of a problem-focused coping strategy appears effective in relieving the professional inefficacy reporters experience at work. Surprisingly, the avoidant emotional or escape coping strategies may, in fact, elevate their exhaustion and cynicism.

Theoretical Implications

In response to Wahl-Jorgensen's argument of *emotional turn* in the field of journalism in her series of studies (2016, 2019b), scholars have shown increased interest in the role of emotions in influencing journalistic work, which has become a popular research field in recent years. However, the relationship between engaging in emotional labor and reporters' psychological well-being has been relatively explored less, and the methodological approach in the existing literature is mainly focused on qualitative methods.

Combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study uses Grandey's (2000) model of emotion regulation to understand how frontline reporters in China make sense of emotional labor engagement and its relationship with job burnout, which is the most important contribution of this research. The study verifies that reporters' perceived emotional demands and affective experiences can lead them to engage in emotional labor, which, in turn, magnifies their levels of exhaustion and

cynicism. The findings support those of research in other professions, which indicate that engaging in emotional labor, especially surface acting strategies, elicits employees' job burnout because of the dissonance between their naturally occurring feelings and the emotions they are expected to display (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). The use of coping strategies at the individual level has also been added in this study to further develop Grandey's (2000) model and explore its intervening role in the relationship between reporters' experience of emotional labor and job burnout. However, only the problem-focused coping strategy was found to reduce reporters' feelings of professional inefficacy. By contrast, the adoption of avoidant emotional coping strategies to escape addressing the stressors they experienced while engaging in emotional labor can increase their levels of job burnout. Instead of using active coping strategies, almost all interviewed reporters mentioned that they would utilize escape strategies, such as doing exercises, watching movies, reading novels, and consuming alcohol, to cope with stressors generated after covering emotionally intense events. It seems that the adoption of avoidant emotional coping strategies fails to help with problem solving and might further result in cumulative stress to reporters and increase their job burnout.

More intriguingly, the role of deep acting in determining reporters' psychological ill-being needs to be re-evaluated. As revealed in many previous studies in different professions (e.g., Grandey, 2003), a deep acting strategy involving authentic emotional expression is expected to help relieve reporters' job burnout symptoms. However, the experience of emotional labor was found to have no relationship with any measures of job burnout. Instead, it was related to the use of all three types of coping strategies, namely the problem-focused, active, and avoidant emotional coping strategies. That is,

although Chinese reporters have linked emotion management to professionalism and normalized the use of deep acting in their daily practices, the emotional efforts they put into this psychological process did elicit pressure and magnify their likelihood to use coping strategies.

This study also clarified the taxonomy of emotional labor strategies in the journalistic profession. Many prior studies, such as Soronen's (2018) research on Finish fashion reporters and Thomson's (2018) study involving photojournalists, revealed reporters' use of surface and deep acting as forms of emotional labor strategies to address emotionally taxing circumstances in their work. Building on these previous studies, the present research also identified that natural expression is another strategy that reporters utilize when engaging in emotional labor. Not only the interview data but also the survey illustrated that reporters might experience emotional outbursts or display their naturally occurring emotions to interviewees in certain circumstances. Although a significant relationship between this form of emotional labor engagement and job burnout was not identified in this research, the importance of natural expression still deserves attention, as reporters felt emotionally drained while engaging in it. It is also important to note that instead of experiencing one single emotion, reporters repeatedly emphasized that they could feel complex emotional clusters in emotionally taxing situations at work. Taking trauma reporting as an example, as the reporters noted, they may experience mixed emotions of anxiety, frustration, guilt, sadness, shock, upset, and the emergence of a sense of purpose when interacting with victims and government publicity officials in their news reporting. This finding was also supported by the survey data, which indicated that the variety of emotional demands is the most significant predictor among the emotional

demand variables of reporters engaging in both surface and deep acting in emotional labor.

In contrast to previous research on reporters' emotional experience in different news production stages (Thomson, 2018), the current study demonstrated that in addition to the different interview phases and the post-interview, reporters also feel intense emotions before the interview, especially when they are searching for newsworthy story ideas, receiving a lead, preparing for the formal interview, or interacting with public relations (PR) professionals. The emotional labor strategies they adopt are also varied in different news production phases. However, this difference in the use of emotional labor strategies was not identified in previous studies. Aside from the relationship with interviewees, the experience of intense emotions and emotional labor can also occur to reporters when they interact with other key players in the journalism field, such as government publicity officials, PR professionals, and readers and audiences. Therefore, reporters' experiences of emotions and engagement in emotional labor can also be explored in reporters' relationships with other key stakeholders in the field of journalism.

This study also provides an additional reference for journalists' studies in China. Compared with frontline reporters in many Western countries, Chinese reporters have more diversified sources of emotional experiences, as shown in this study. They are expected not only to interview subjects and produce news for the public but also to best serve the CPC and the market under strict media censorship (Pan, 2000). Their emotional experiences therefore take place in their relationships with subjects and in their interactions with government publicity officials, PR professionals, readers/audiences, and key opinion leaders. As they mentioned, the increasingly strict media regulation and their

interactions with government publicity officials are the most emotionally taxing aspects of their work. However, this study revealed that Chinese reporters' engagement in emotional labor chiefly concentrated on their interactions with subjects during interviews. That is, they are more likely to experience emotions such as residual feelings toward subjects, a sense of meaninglessness of their job, and self-blaming in the post-interview phase.

Practical Implications

The inevitable role of emotions in the field of journalism careers has been gradually recognized in both the academia and the industry. In fact, the reporting of the current COVID-19 pandemic has put reporters' emotional well-being in the spotlight. For example, the Dart Center for Journalism and Trauma has produced a series of studies in the past few months to help frontline reporters cope with the additional stress they experience while covering news in the time of the coronavirus (e.g., Dissell, 2020). In China, emotions still seem to be taboo in the field of journalism careers, as the majority of the interviewed reporters in the current study indicated that they are less likely to be aware of personal emotions in their work. Yet, they also claim to have internalized and believe that appropriate emotion management is an essential component of journalistic professionalism.

Previous research has emphasized that reporters could experience intense emotions, especially when covering traumatic events (Hopper & Huxford, 2015; McMahon & McLellan, 2008). However, as mentioned previously, this study revealed that Chinese reporters' intense emotional experiences occur before, during, and after interviews while interacting with different key players. Some studies, including the

current research, have found that engaging in a deep-acting strategy in emotional labor inhibits employees from experiencing adverse psychological and other mental effects. The findings in the current study suggest that the use of emotional labor strategies to display desirable emotional expressions only happens to Chinese reporters when they interview their subjects. In other words, although they experience many emotionally taxing situations before and after interviews, they are less likely to manage such emotions. Especially in the post-interview phase, any prolonged relationship with the subjects, positive or negative feedback from readers, as well as post-publication censorship have all been identified in this study as the main catalysts that elicit intense emotions among Chinese reporters. According to the reporters, the emotions they experience in the post-interview phase can make them experience more pressure or even PTSD syndromes, which may have a spillover impact in their personal lives. Therefore, in addition to emphasizing emotion management during interviews, it is equally important for frontline reporters and media organizations to address emotional experience after interviews.

The findings also put a spotlight on the psychological well-being of reporters in the legal, society, or investigative news beats. Strikingly, the majority of the interviewed reporters in this group were diagnosed as having depression or anxiety due to the intense negative emotions they experience at work. As Interviewee #20, who works as an investigative reporter at a state-owned newspaper, mentioned, one-fifth of the reporters in his team had been diagnosed with or had had symptoms of anxiety or depression. Furthermore, novice reporters with less than five years of working experience on these news beats are more vulnerable to emotional distress because they have less experience

and knowledge in appropriately managing their emotions when covering emotionally taxing events. In understanding journalists' mental status in reporting traumatic events, McMahon and McLellan (2008) found that resilience and knowledge growth are the main strategies that can be used to minimize the impacts of negative emotions in journalists. A great degree of awareness has been identified as a vital factor in nurturing both resilience and knowledge growth among individuals in coping with trauma (Ursano, McCaughey, & Fullerton, 1994).

In compliance with this coping process, to reduce Chinese reporters' stressors originating from covering emotionally intense news and emotional labor engagement, their awareness of the emotional experience and its impacts should first be improved. During our in-depth interviews with Chinese reporters, the majority of the respondents noted that they never consider their natural feelings while interacting with others outside of the newsroom. Moreover, some of them simply equate displaying naturally occurring feelings at work with lack of professionalism. Their understanding of the emotional experience and engaging in emotional labor also impacts their use of coping strategies. The findings in the current study showed that instead of an active coping strategy, many Chinese reporters highlighted their adoption of avoidance coping strategies to address the stressors caused by emotional experience and emotional labor engagement. These escape strategies include alcohol consumption, crying, exercising, engaging in photography, playing online games, reading time-travel novels, and so on. However, as revealed by the survey data, the use of avoidant emotional strategies could aggravate reporters' feelings of exhaustion and cynicism. By contrast, problem-focused coping strategies, such as planning or taking active steps to address issues, have been found to reduce reporters'

levels of professional inefficacy. For that matter, it is believed that once their awareness of emotions is developed, Chinese reporters might employ more active strategies to cope with the intense emotions they experience at work, which in turn may enhance their mental well-being.

In addition to improving reporters' awareness of their emotional experience and engaging in emotional labor, another practical implication of the findings is building a boundary between work and personal life. Many of the interviewed reporters recalled that they experienced intense emotions or even emotional outbursts when their relationship with key players or experienced emotions at work encroached into their personal life. Some resilient senior reporters repeatedly explained the importance of maintaining work–life boundaries in the field of journalism. For example, interviewees #15 and #23 said that such boundaries help them detach themselves from their work and their interviewees physically and psychologically. More importantly, because of the work–life boundaries that they set, they were able to develop personal interests and hobbies after work. Interviewee #15 said he has been part of an environmental nonprofit organization since 2006. He enjoys being a volunteer and believes that his current journalistic job is only one of the many facets of his life.

According to McMahan and McLellan (2008), support from peers, news organizations, and family members can also help reporters strengthen their resilience. The important role of organizational support was also emphasized in Grandey's (2000) model of emotion regulation. Surprisingly, although the Chinese society has a collectivistic culture, almost all interviewed reporters noted that they seldom pursue organizational or family support because of various reasons. First, some reporters

mentioned that they do not trust their supervisors' ability to help them and, second, they are reluctant to become a burden to their family or friends with the negative emotions they experience at work. More interestingly, some reporters mentioned that there is a growing "sang (丧) culture", which refers to the spirit of dejection among Chinese young reporters. Therefore, as some of them mentioned, they are not likely to talk about the negative emotions they experience with peers; otherwise, they might all be stuck in negative emotions. At the organizational level, training and education are still the main sources for strengthening reporters' resilience and knowledge growth (McMahon & McLellan, 2015). However, it is worth noting that the majority of Chinese reporters mentioned that they did not receive formal training on addressing emotions and emotional labor engagement from the newsrooms and in journalism schools. In other words, Chinese reporters developed their own understanding and adoption of emotional labor to display appropriate emotions and the corresponding coping strategies through cumulative experiences and newsroom socialization. However, by using librarians as the research subject, Matteson, Chittock, and Mease (2015) argued that once they enter the industry, continuing education and organizational support is needed to improve their awareness and understanding of engaging in emotional labor. Therefore, both newsrooms and journalism schools should provide more mental support and training in terms of reporters' experience of emotional labor and its impacts.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Although this study offers several theoretical and practical contributions to improve the understanding of Chinese reporters' emotional experience, engagement in emotional labor, and the causal relationship between emotional labor and job burnout,

several limitations are worth noting. First, in this study, only reporters' emotional experiences while interacting with key players outside the newsrooms were examined. However, over one-third of respondents in the qualitative study mentioned that their daily communication with editors and peers during and after the news production process could also prompt intense negative emotions. Many reporters believed that their interaction with editors and peers could be more emotionally taxing than their relationship with other key players outside the newsrooms and impact their mental well-being and turnover intention. Therefore, future research could expand the scope of investigation of Chinese frontline reporters' emotional experiences and engagement in emotional labor to include the emotionally intense situations in their relationships with editors and peers.

Second, one of the important findings of the current study is that reporters' emotional experiences and emotional labor engagement occur before, during, and after the interviews. The qualitative data further revealed that reporters employ different emotional labor strategies (e.g., surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression) while interacting with various key players in the news production phases. Specifically, their emotional experience after the interview was identified as the most emotionally intense situation reporters experienced. However, in the quantitative research strand, the survey questionnaire failed to address such differences. Future research could further explore the experience of emotion and emotional labor among Chinese reporters in the different news production processes and their impacts on job burnout.

Third, there are some inconsistencies and even contradictory findings in the qualitative and quantitative results in this study. For example, in the qualitative research phase, the gender difference was only found when reporters established long-term

connections with subjects. Specifically, results indicated that female reporters experience more residual emotions after interviews than their male counterparts since they are more likely to maintain relationships with subjects; however, such differences failed to be identified in engaging in emotional labor among reporters in the interview data. In contrast, the survey data found that female reporters tend to experience more emotional labor than males. Another example is that alcohol consumption is mentioned by over one-third of interviewed reporters as an important escapism strategy to cope with stressors that originate from their intense emotions at work. However, in the survey, the items relating to alcohol consumption were removed from the data because of low loading sizes. Such a discrepancy may have been caused by the researcher's role in different approaches, as participants tend to share private information in the interview due to the close rapport with the researcher.

Scholars have also found that the timing of conducting the two (or more) components in a mixed-methods study is important (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). In the current study, the qualitative data was collected between January 2019 and January 2020, while the quantitative data was collected from January to March 2020, as the COVID-19 pandemic spread throughout China. The time span between data collection in these two research approaches might also have led to data inconsistency. The practice of journalism is still undergoing inevitable and dramatic changes, especially in China, where the journalistic paradigms often shift. More importantly, Chinese frontline reporters' emotional experience, engagement in emotional labor, and coping strategies may have been impacted by experiencing and reporting on the pandemic. For example, findings in the interview data indicate that emotional detachment is an essential strategy for Chinese

frontline reporters to regulate their naturally occurring emotions while covering traumatic events, such as earthquakes, mudflows, traffic accidents, and suicides. However, in covering the COVID-19 pandemic, especially for those reporters from highly affected areas, they might feel more emotional involvement and have difficulty mentally removing themselves from the crisis. One-fifth of interviewed reporters in this study covered the crisis in Wuhan, the center of the COVID-19 outbreak in China. Although they have demonstrated great resilience in their work, they did experience unprecedented emotional taxation while interacting with patients, doctors, and even ordinary citizens in Wuhan. Two of these frontline reporters shifted their positions to non-journalistic departments after reporting in Wuhan. This study's findings should thus be placed within a temporal context. For that matter, future research should include a longitudinal study to investigate reporters' emotional status and psychological well-being, as well as the possible directional relationship of the variables discussed with reporters' levels of emotion management after the global pandemic.

Finally, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected only from Beijing, China. Even though the characteristics of the data in this study were generally consistent with the findings in a national survey among Chinese reporters, it is important to note that the media development in China is not uniform; future research could be carried out in other geographic regions of China to verify the findings of reporters' emotional experience, engagement in emotional labor, use of coping strategies, and job burnout.

Conclusion

For the majority of frontline reporters in China, they seldom aware of their naturally occurring emotion and its impacts. Combing qualitative and quantitative data,

this study revealed that Chinese frontline reporters did frequently experience complex emotional cluster before, during, and after their interviews while interacting with different key stakeholder in the journalism field, namely interviewees, government publicity officials, PR professionals, key opinion leaders, and readers/audiences. Due to the lack of experiences, novice reporters work on legal, society, and investigative news beats in non-official new media platforms are more vulnerable to such emotionally intense circumstances.

In order to display appropriate emotions and fulfill the emotional demands of their job, reporters employ emotional labor strategies (surface acting, deep acting, and natural expression). However, despite the fact that they also experience emotional taxing situations before and after the interviews, reporters tend to adopt emotional labor strategies only when interacting with their subjects during the interview.

The study also showed that neither deep acting nor natural expression directly leads to an increase in reporters' job burnout. In other words, Chinese reporters have internalized deep acting as an essential component of professional practices. In contrast, Chinese reporters engaging in surface acting in emotional labor can magnify their feelings of exhaustion at work and cynicism regarding their careers. To relieve stresses, caused by their engaging in emotional labor, avoidance coping strategies are frequently used by Chinese reporters. However, such coping strategies can elicit reporters' levels of job burnout. Further research could also expand the investigation of Chinese frontline reporters' emotions and emotional labor engagement to their relationships with editors and peers. Moreover, a longitudinal approach can further improve the understanding of

relationships among Chinese reporters' emotion management, psychological well-being, as well as their coping strategies.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Interview Protocol in English

A. Introduction

1. Please briefly tell me about yourself and your work first.

B. Emotional Experience in Different Work Settings

2. Do you need to engage in relationship-building in your job? Please describe the circumstances.
3. In addition to interviewees, do you need to engage in relationship-building in your job? Please describe the circumstances.
4. When you interact with your interviewees, have you ever experienced emotions? Please describe the circumstances.
5. In addition to interviewees, have you ever experienced emotions in your work while interacting with others, please describe the circumstances?

C. Engagement in Emotional Labor

6. When you interact with others in your work, do you need to engage in emotion management in your job? How?
7. How do you engage in emotion management in different work settings with different people? Or what's your emotion management process?

D. The Effect of Emotional Experience

8. Do such emotional aspects affect your job and personal life? How?
9. Do you often feel exhausted at the end of the day because of such emotion management?

E. Coping Strategies

10. What's your coping strategies to reduce the effect of such emotional expressions on your job and personal life?
11. What's your coping strategies to reduce levels of burnout caused by daily emotional expressions or management?
12. How to adopt such strategies to your daily work, please describe the circumstances?

F. Ending Question

13. Do you have anything we haven't covered that you want to add?

Appendix B – Interview Protocol in Chinese

A. 自我介绍

1. 请您先简单的介绍一下你自己和您的工作经历。

B. 在不同工作场景中的情感表达

2. 就您的工作性质而言，是否经常需要和其他人建立人际关系？一般都是在什么情况下，需要和什么人建立人际关系？请您描述相关场景。
3. 除了与采访对象，在办公室以外的场域中，您还会和什么人建立工作上的联系？请您描述相关场景。
4. 当您和您的采访对象交流的时候，您是否经常有一些情绪上的波动？或者说是否有过比较强烈的情绪上的体验？一般的情景是怎样的，请您描述一下。
5. 除了与采访对象的交流以外，在工作中，在与其他人的交流互动过程中，您是否经常有一些情绪上的变化？或者说是否有过比较强烈的情绪上的体验？请您描述一下这样的情景。

C. 工作中的情绪管理以及情感劳工

6. 当您在工作中与他人互动时，您是否时常需要进行情绪管理？
7. 您是如何在不同的工作场景中，在与不同人（如：采访对象，政府宣传部门工作人员、公关人员，以及观众等）的交流过程中进行情绪管理的？您的情绪管理的过程是怎样的，请您举例描述当时的场景。

G. 情感表达及情绪管理对记者工作及生活的影响

8. 您之前所提到的这些工作中的情感表达以及情绪管理，是否会对您的工作和个人生活产生影响？是如何影响的？
9. 您是否会因为这样的情感表达及情绪管理而对工作产生倦怠？为什么？

H. 记者的应对策略

10. 您是否会采取一些应对策略来减少这些情绪表达及情绪管理对您个人及工作的影响？是怎样的应对策略，请您举例详细说明？
11. 如果日常工作中的情绪表达及情绪管理给您造成了工作倦怠，您会采取什么策略去应对这种工作倦怠？请您举例详细说明。
12. 如何在您的日常工作及生活中采取这样的策略，请描述一下相应的情况。

D. 结尾问题

13. 关于工作中的情感表达、情绪管理，以及工作中的职业倦怠您还有什么想补充的吗？

Appendix C – Interview Consent Form in English

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

Project Title: “The effect of emotional experience on burnout among Chinese reporters”
Principal Investigator: Lei Guo, Doctoral Candidate, Missouri School of Journalism

DESCRIPTION AND EXPLANATION OF PROCEDURES

You are invited to take part in a research interview about Chinese reporters’ emotional experience in work. The interview will primarily ask interviewees’ experience in emotional labor, the impact of such emotional management on their daily work and personal life, as well as the coping strategies. Findings from the interviews will be adopted to the follow-up survey and can have practical implications for journalism education and training. Please be assured that your participation in this research is totally voluntary. If you choose to be in the study, you will take part in around one hour face-to-face interview. The interview will be audio recorded but your names will not be linked to the audio interview to ensure privacy.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your responses will be kept completely confidential. Electronic files will be saved with numeric codes with no personal identifiers. Throughout the procedures, if you feel uncomfortable with any questions, you may stop participation at any time. Finally, only the researcher will have access to the data and the aggregated data will be analyzed and shared for publication to protect your confidentiality.

RISK AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no other physical, psychological or sociological risks involved in participating in this study.

CONSENT

By signing this consent form, you acknowledge that you understand the procedures and any risks and benefits involved in this study, and that you are aware that your participation in this study is voluntary and are free to withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time without penalty or prejudice. If you have any questions regarding the research, please contact the Principal Investigator, Lei Guo, at lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant, you may contact the Campus Institutional Review Board at (573) 882-9585 or umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu.

Thank you in advance for your assistance and time. By signing this form, you are agreeing to participate in the project described to you. Please keep this consent form with you for future references.

Participant’s Signature

Date

Appendix D – Interview Consent Form in Chinese

参与研究知情同意书

研究题目：情绪表达及情绪管理对中国记者职业倦怠的影响

主要研究人员：果蕾，博士候选人，美国密苏里大学新闻学院

研究程序说明

您被邀请参与一个有关中国记者在工作中的情感表达及情绪管理的调查访谈。访谈将主要关注记者在工作中的情感表达、情绪劳动，以及情绪管理的相关经历，以及这些经历对记者日常工作及个人生活的影响。访谈结果将被用于后续的问卷调查中，并会对新闻教育及培训提供实际意义。您的参与完全出于自愿，如您同意参与，访谈过程将大致用时1个小时并会全程录音。但为保护您的隐私，您的真实姓名将不会出现在研究中。

保密协议

您的回答将被完全保密。我们也会尽全力保护您的隐私，其中，电子文件将删除您的个人识别信息且以数字代码保存；且最终数据只有研究者可以访问，您的真实姓名将不会出现在任何后续的发表文章中。最后，在整个访谈过程中，如您对任何问题感到不适，都可以随时停止参与。

研究风险

本研究不会对身体、心理或者社会产生风险。

同意书

签署本同意书即表示受访者已了解访谈程序及参与这项研究的权利及义务。受访者已了解参与本次访谈是完全出于自愿，也可以随时退出访谈并不会对受访者造成任何影响及出发。如果您对本次研究有任何疑问，请通过 lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu 与研究负责人密苏里大学新闻学院博士候选人果蕾联系。如果您对您作为参与者的权利及义务有任何疑问，您可以联系密苏里大学研究审查委员会。联系电话：(573) 882-9585 或电邮：umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu。

再次感谢您的参与及宝贵的时间。签署此份文件，即表示您已同意参与本次访谈。请保留此同意书，以备日后参考。

受访者签署

日期

Appendix E – Survey Questionnaire in English

Part I: Please think about your interactions with **Interviewees**.

1. Are you work in Beijing?

Yes No

2. The following questions are about the duration, frequency, intensity, and variety of your interactions with interviewees in your work.

Duration: please write down how many interviews you have and the duration for each on an average day at work.

(1) On an average day at work, how many interviews I have? _____

(2) A typical interaction I have with an interviewee takes about _____ minutes.

3. Frequency:

Please read the following statements and indicate to what degree they apply to you.

	Never	Seldom	Sometime	Often	Always
1. On an average day at work how frequently display specific emotions while interviewing required by your job	1	2	3	4	5
2. On an average day at work how frequently adopt certain emotions (positive/negative) required as part of your job while interviewing	1	2	3	4	5
3. On an average day at work how frequently express particular emotions (positive/negative) needed for your job while interviewing	1	2	3	4	5

4. Intensity:

Please read the following statements and indicate to what degree they apply to you.

	Never	Seldom	Sometime	Often	Always
1. On an average day at work how intensity express intense emotions while interviewing required by your job	1	2	3	4	5
2. On an average day at work how frequently express certain strong emotions while conducting interview	1	2	3	4	5
3. On an average day at work how intensity show some strong emotions while interviewing required by your job	1	2	3	4	5

5. Variety: Please read the following statements and indicate to what degree they apply to you.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. On an average day at work how many kinds of emotions you need to display while interviewing	1	2	3	4	5
2. On an average day at work how many kinds of emotions you need to express during interview	1	2	3	4	5
3. On an average day at work how many kinds of emotions you need to display when interacting with interviewees	1	2	3	4	5

6. Positive and Negative Affectivity. The following 20 adjectives measure degree of positive or negative affect. Think about your interaction with interviewees at work and indicate how closely the adjective describes your emotional experiences with interviewees.

No.	Emotions	Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
1	Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3	Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5	Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10	Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12	Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19	Active	1	2	3	4	5
20	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

7. Emotional Labor. The following statements are about how you deal with your emotions while interacting with interviewees at work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. (1 = “Strongly Disagree”; 5 = “Strongly Agree”)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I put on an act in order to deal with interviewees in an appropriate way	1	2	3	4	5
2. I fake a good mood when interacting with interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
3. I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
4. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job	1	2	3	4	5
5. I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job	1	2	3	4	5
6. I show feelings to interviewees that are different from what I feel inside	1	2	3	4	5
7. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
8. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
9. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward	1	2	3	4	5
10. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
11. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to interviewees	1	2	3	4	5
12. The emotions I express to interviewees are genuine	1	2	3	4	5
13. The emotions I show interviewees come naturally	1	2	3	4	5
14. The emotions I show interviewees match what I spontaneously feel	1	2	3	4	5

Part II: The following questions are about your attitudes toward your job in general.

8. Burnout. The following statements help you look at the way you feel about your job and your experiences at work. Please read these statements and indicate to what degree they apply to you.

	Absolutely Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Everyday
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I feel burned out from my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Working all day is really a strain for me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I have become less interested in my work since I started this job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I have become less enthusiastic about my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I doubt the significance of my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I just want to do my job and not be bothered	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. At my work, I feel confident that I am	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

effective at getting things done							
12. I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. In my opinion, I am good at my job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something worthwhile in my job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part III: The following questions are about your coping strategies to reduce stress in

9. Coping Strategies. These items are about ways you've been coping with the stress in your work. Each item says something about a particular way of coping. We want to know to what extent you've been doing what the item says. How much or how frequently. Don't answer on the basis of whether it seems to be working or not—just whether or not you're doing it. Try to rate each item separately in your mind from the others. Make your answers as true FOR YOU as you can.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Always
1. I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things	1	2	3	4
2. I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in	1	2	3	4
3. I've been saying to myself "this isn't real"	1	2	3	4
4. I've been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better	1	2	3	4
5. I've been getting emotional support from others	1	2	3	4

6. I've been giving up trying to deal with it	1	2	3	4
7. I've been taking action to try to make the situation better	1	2	3	4
8. I've been refusing to believe that it has happened	1	2	3	4
9. I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape	1	2	3	4
10. I've been getting help and advice from other people	1	2	3	4
11. I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it	1	2	3	4
12. I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive	1	2	3	4
13. I've been criticizing myself	1	2	3	4
14. I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do	1	2	3	4
15. I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone	1	2	3	4
16. I've been giving up the attempt to cope	1	2	3	4
17. I've been looking for something good in what is happening	1	2	3	4
18. I've been making jokes about it	1	2	3	4
19. I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping	1	2	3	4
20. I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened	1	2	3	4
21. I've been expressing my negative feelings	1	2	3	4
22. I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs	1	2	3	4
23. I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do	1	2	3	4
24. I've been learning to live with it	1	2	3	4
25. I've been thinking hard about what steps to take	1	2	3	4
26. I've been blaming myself for things that happened	1	2	3	4
27. I've been praying or meditating	1	2	3	4
28. I've been making fun of the situation	1	2	3	4

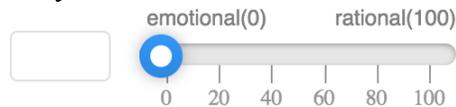
10. PTSD. These items are about your post-traumatic stress experience. Try to rate each item separately in your mind from the others. Make your answers as true FOR YOU as you can.

	Not At All	A Little Bit	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
1.Repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of a stressful experience from the past	1	2	3	4	5
2.Feeling very upset when something reminded you of a stressful experience from the past	1	2	3	4	5
3.Avoiding thinking or talking about a stressful experience from the past or avoiding having feelings related to it	1	2	3	4	5
4.Feeling distant or cut off from other people	1	2	3	4	5
5.Felling irritable or having angry outbursts	1	2	3	4	5
6.Difficulty concentrating	1	2	3	4	5

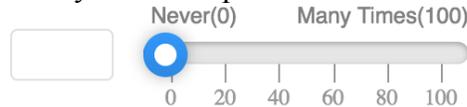
Part IV: The following questions will ask about general demographic information.

11. Control Variables

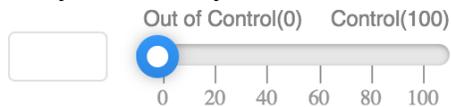
(1) Are you more of a rational or emotional thinker?



(2) Have you ever experienced a traumatic event in your life?



(3) Can you control your emotions during the conflict?



(4) Please indicate your gender:

Male Female

(5) Please select the category that includes your age:

- 18 or below
- 18–25
- 26–30
- 31–40
- 41–50
- 51–60

- 60 or more

(6) What best describes your marital status?

- Single, not married
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed

(7) Do you have any children?

- Yes
- No

(8) What best describes your political status?

- Communist Party of China (CPC) members
- Probationary CPC members
- Communist league members
- Democratic parties' members
- No political affiliation and others

(9) What is your educational level?

- High school or below
- College
- Bachelor
- Masters
- Doctorate / PhD
- Others _____

(10) What subject did you major in at university?

- Journalism or Mass Communication
- Social Science (e.g., Sociology, History, Psychology, etc.)
- Humanities and Arts (e.g., English, Literature, etc.)
- Economics and Management
- Law
- Engineering
- Natural Science (e.g., Biology, Chemistry, etc.)
- Others _____

(11) What best describes your employment status?

- Working full-time (Staffing of Government Affiliated Institutions)
- Working full-time (Company Permanent Employment)
- Freelance
- Internship
- Others _____

(12) Please select the category that includes your monthly income?

- Below 5000 RMB (Below 710 USD)
- 5000–10000 RMB (710–1420 USD)
- 10001–15000 RMB (1421–2130 USD)

- 15001–20000 RMB (2131-2840 USD)
- 20001–30000 RMB (2841-4260 USD)
- Above 30000 RMB (Above 4261 USD)

(13) How long have you worked in journalism field?

- Less than 1 years
- 1–5 years
- 6–10 years
- 11–15 years
- 16–20 years
- More than 20 years

(14) What is your current job position?

- Intern Reporter
- Reporter
- Feature Reporter
- Senior Reporter
- Special Correspondent
- Chief Reporter
- Editor/Reporter
- Others _____

(15) What best describes the nature of your work?

- Print Reporter
- Photojournalist
- Video journalist
- New Media Reporter
- Others _____

(16) What best describes your current employer?

- Newspaper
- Magazine
- Radio
- Television
- Online Media

(17) What is your current news beat?

- Political News
- Social News
- Legal News
- International News
- Financial/Estate/Stock News
- Technology News
- Medical News
- Education News
- Arts/Culture/Fashion News
- Entertainment News

- Sports News
- Investigative/Feature News
- Others

- End -
Thanks for Your Participation!

Appendix F – Survey Questionnaire in Chinese

关于记者工作中情感表达及情绪管理的问卷调查

第一部分、以下问题涉及您在工作中与访问对象的互动情况

Q1.您日常的工作地点或您所供职的媒体是否在北京？

是 不是

Q2.请写下您平均每天与访问对象互动的次数及持续时间。

1.在工作日，平均来讲，您每天需要完成_____次采访。

2.平均来讲，每次采访的持续时间是_____分钟。

Q3.您平时在与受访者接触的过程中（包括前期联络、采访中及报道发表后），是否会产生特定的积极（如：感动、受鼓舞的）或消极（如：愤怒、内疚、无能为力等）的情绪。请根据实际情况选择最符合的选项。

	从不	很少	偶尔	有时	总是
1.我会经常经历情绪的波动起伏	1	2	3	4	5
2.我会表现出特定情绪（积极/消极）以完成工作	1	2	3	4	5
3.我会采用特定情绪（积极/消极）以完成工作	1	2	3	4	5

Q4.您平时在与受访者接触的过程中（包括前期联络、采访中及报道发表后），是否会产生强烈的积极或消极的情绪。请根据实际情况选择最符合的选项。

	从不	很少	偶尔	有时	总是
1.我会经历强烈的情绪波动	1	2	3	4	5
2.我会表达出强烈的情绪（积极/消极）	1	2	3	4	5
3.我会采用强烈的情绪表达以顺利完成工作	1	2	3	4	5

Q5.您平时在与受访者接触的过程中，是否会产生多种不同的情绪。请根据实际情况选择最符合的选项。

	从不	很少	偶尔	有时	总是
1.我会感受到多种不同的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
2.我会表现出不同的情绪以顺利完成工作	1	2	3	4	5
3.我会采用不同的情绪以掩饰内心的真实感受	1	2	3	4	5

Q6.以下是一些有关情绪的形容词，请您指出这些形容词在多大程度上能形容您在与受访者的采访及受访前后的接触过程中所产生的情绪。请根据您的实际情况选择最符合的选项。

	并没有此感觉	有些许感觉	一般	有相当感觉	有强烈感觉
1.好奇的	1	2	3	4	5
2.倍感无力的	1	2	3	4	5
3.兴奋的	1	2	3	4	5
4.愤怒的	1	2	3	4	5
5.坚强的	1	2	3	4	5
6.内疚的	1	2	3	4	5
7.恐惧的	1	2	3	4	5
8.反感的	1	2	3	4	5
9.十分感兴趣的	1	2	3	4	5
10.充满自豪感的	1	2	3	4	5
11.急躁的	1	2	3	4	5
12.警觉的	1	2	3	4	5
13.羞愧的	1	2	3	4	5
14.备受启发的	1	2	3	4	5
15.紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
16.毫不犹豫的	1	2	3	4	5
17.专心致志的	1	2	3	4	5
18.战战兢兢的	1	2	3	4	5
19.倍受鼓舞的	1	2	3	4	5
20.忧心忡忡的	1	2	3	4	5

Q7.以下是一些有关您日常工作中与受访者接触时可能遇到的感受和情况，请根据实际情况选择最符合的选项。

	完全不 同意	基本不 同意	不确 定	基本同 意	完全同 意
1.与受访者打交道时，我会装模作样	1	2	3	4	5
2.与受访者打交道时，我会假装自己心情很好	1	2	3	4	5
3.与受访者打交道时，我觉得自己是在“表演”	1	2	3	4	5
4.与受访者打交道时，我需要假装感受到了对方的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
5.与受访者打交道时，我习惯伪装自己以表达恰当的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
6.与受访者打交道时，我表达的情绪往往与真实感受截然不同	1	2	3	4	5
7.与受访者打交道时，我经常会掩藏自己的真实情绪	1	2	3	4	5
8.与受访者打交道时，我会真实地去体会要向对方展现的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
9.与受访者打交道时，我会努力理解对方并给出恰当反应	1	2	3	4	5

10.与受访者打交道时,我会试着“感同身受”以展现最恰当的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
11.与受访者打交道时,我会用心感受应该向对方表达的恰当情绪	1	2	3	4	5
12.与受访者打交道时,我会毫不保留表达出真实的情绪	1	2	3	4	5
13.与受访者打交道时,我的情绪是真情实感的自然流露	1	2	3	4	5
14.与受访者打交道时,我表现出的情绪与真实感受一致	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分、以下问题涉及您对目前工作的整体态度及感受

Q8.请您根据自己的感受和体会,判断以下情况在您身上发生的频率,并在合适的数字上画圈○或者打勾√,0至5为“从不”至“每天”。

	从不	极少(一年几次或更少)	偶尔(一个月一次或更少)	经常(一个月几次)	频繁(每星期一次)	非常频繁(一星期几次)	每天
1.工作让我感到身心俱疲	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.下班时我感觉精疲力竭	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.目前的工作真的太累了	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.想到新一天的工作,我局的特别累	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.一天的工作对我来说是很大的负担	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.工作是否有贡献对我来说无所谓	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.我对目前的工作越来越不感兴趣	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.我对目前的工作已经没有那么在乎了	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.我怀疑自己目前工作的意义	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.工作中,我不在乎别人的表现,只想把自己的工作完成	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.我相信自己能有效地完成工作中的各项任务	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

12.我能有效地解决工作中出现的各种问题	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.我相信自己很擅长于目前的工作	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.我相信我的工作为公司作出了贡献	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.每次完成任务,我都感觉非常愉悦	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.工作中,我做了很多有价值的事	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

第三部分、以下问题涉及您如何应对工作中的压力

Q9.每个人处理工作压力的方式都不同。请阅读以下每一项,并想想您有多经常使用以下所描述的方法处理工作中的压力。请您根据自己的情况,在合适的数字上画圈○或者打勾√,0至4为“从未这样做过”至“常常这样做”。

	从未这样做过	偶尔这样做	有时这样做	常常这样做
1.我会转向工作或用参加其他活动来转移注意力避免去想工作中的压力	1	2	3	4
2.我会尽全力去解决在工作中所遇到压力或问题	1	2	3	4
3.工作中遇到问题或压力时,我会心理暗示自己:“这不是真的”	1	2	3	4
4.我会用喝酒或其他药物让自己感觉好一点	1	2	3	4
5.我会从他人身上获得情感支援	1	2	3	4
6.我会放弃尝试去解决工作中遇到的问题	1	2	3	4
7.我会采取实际行动改善目前工作中遇到的压力或问题	1	2	3	4
8.我会拒绝相信工作中所遇到的问题已经发生	1	2	3	4
9.我会找他人倾诉以释放工作中不愉快的感觉	1	2	3	4
10.我会积极地从他人处寻求帮助和意见	1	2	3	4
11.我会藉由饮酒或其他药物去帮助自己度过难关	1	2	3	4
12.我会尝试从不同角度看待问题,以让问题变得更正面	1	2	3	4
13.在工作中遇到问题时,我会自我检讨	1	2	3	4
14.我会积极尝试想出策略以解决工作中的压力及问题	1	2	3	4
15.在工作中遇到问题,我可以从他人处获得安慰和谅解	1	2	3	4
16.我会主动放弃去应付工作中的困境	1	2	3	4

17.我会从工作中产生的问题中找出它的正面意义	1	2	3	4
18.我常用开玩笑的方式来处理工作中遇到的压力及困难	1	2	3	4
19.我会透过某些活动（如：阅读、睡觉、看电影、逛街等）令自己不要想太多	1	2	3	4
20.我会尝试接受工作中遇到的困难是已经发生的事实	1	2	3	4
21.我会经常抒发在工作中感受到的负面情绪	1	2	3	4
22.我会试着在宗教或信仰中寻找安慰	1	2	3	4
23.我会主动寻求他人的帮助或建议去解决工作中的问题	1	2	3	4
24.我会学习与工作中遇到的压力及问题共处	1	2	3	4
25.我会很认真的去思考解决问题的详细步骤	1	2	3	4
26.我会因为已经发生的错误或问题而责怪自己	1	2	3	4
27.我会通过祈祷或冥想等方式去缓解自己	1	2	3	4
28.当在工作中遇到问题时，我会以自嘲的方式让自己好过一些	1	2	3	4

Q10.因工作需要，您或许曾目击或经历过一些特殊事故（如意外事故、突发事件、自然灾害、犯罪、暴力事件等），而这些经历曾经或者至今仍对您的生活造成影响。请阅读以下每个选项，并想想您有多经常被这些问题困扰。请根据实际情况选择最符合的选项。

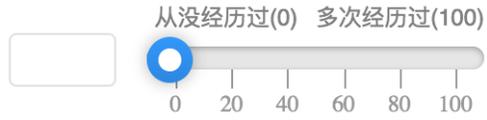
	从不	很少	偶尔	有时	总是
1.某些事故的采访情景及经历会在我脑海中不断闪现	1	2	3	4	5
2.当想到这些采访经历时，我会觉得很沮丧	1	2	3	4	5
3.我会尽量回避让我想起这些采访经历的活动或场合	1	2	3	4	5
4.我感觉自己很难融入人群	1	2	3	4	5
5.我感觉自己很容易生气	1	2	3	4	5
6.我感觉自己很难集中精力	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分、个人基本资料

1. 您认为自己是理性的人还是感性的人？



2. 在工作以外，您是否经历过情感、家庭、学业等方面的挫折？



3.在生活中，当遇到情感冲突时，您能控制好自己的情绪吗？



4. 您的性别是：

男

女

5. 您的年龄是：

- 18 岁以下 18-25 岁
 26-30 岁 31-40 岁
 41-50 岁 51-60 岁
 60 岁以上

6. 您的婚姻状况是:

- 未婚 丧偶
 已婚 其他
 离婚

7. 您是否有小孩:

- 有 没有

8. 您的政治面貌是:

- 中共党员 民主党派
 预备党员 普通群众及其他
 共青团员

9. 您的教育水平是:

- 高中及以下 硕士
 大专 博士
 本科 其他（请详细说明）_____

10. 您的主修科目是:

- 新闻与大众传播类
 社会科学类（如：社会学、历史、心理学等）
 语言与文学类
 经济与经管类
 法学类
 理科工程类
 自然科学类
 其他学科（请详细说明）_____

11. 您目前的聘用方式是:

- 全职(事业编制)
 全职（公司编制长期聘用）
 兼职、特约记者或自由撰稿人
 实习
 其他聘用方式（请详细说明）_____

12. 您的月收入水平是:

- 5000 元以下 15001-20000 元
 5000-10000 元 20001-30000 元
 10001-15000 元 30000 元以上

13. 您从事记者行业的时间有多久?

- 少于 1 年 11-15 年
 1-5 年 16-20 年
 6-10 年 20 年以上

14. 您的工作职位是：

- 实习记者 特约记者
 记者 首席记者
 高级记者 编辑记者
 其他职位（请详细说明）_____

15. 您的工作性质是：

- 文字记者
 摄影记者
 视频记者
 新媒体记者
 其他（请详细说明）_____

16. 您的供职单位属于：

- 报社
 杂志
 广播电台
 电视台
 网站或新媒体（如：新浪、澎湃等）

17. 您主要负责采写的新闻类别是：

- 时政新闻
 社会新闻
 法制新闻
 国际新闻
 财经/房产/证券类新闻
 科技新闻
 医药新闻
 教育新闻
 文化/艺术/时尚类新闻
 娱乐新闻
 体育新闻
 深度或专题新闻
 其他新闻（请详细说明）_____

本问卷到此全部填答完毕，请您注意第一～第六部分是否有遗漏，以免您辛苦填答的问卷成为废卷，再次感谢您的合作与配合！

Appendix G – Survey Recruitment Letter in English

Recruitment Language Put before the Questionnaire:

Hello! My name is Lei Guo, a doctoral candidate at the Missouri School of Journalism. I am inviting you to participate in a survey because of your position as a reporter in Beijing. Your participation in this survey will be incredibly valuable in developing an understanding of the role of emotions in reporters. The survey should take no more than 20 minutes to complete. Please be assured that your survey responses will be kept completely confidential throughout the research and reporting process. If you have any questions about this study, you can reach me at lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu.

Lei Guo, Doctoral Candidate
Missouri School of Journalism

Appendix H – Survey Recruitment Letter in Chinese

此说明将用于问卷调查开始前：

您好! 我是美国密苏里大学新闻学院的博士候选人果蕾。如您是在北京地区工作的一线记者，现邀请您参与一项有关记者情绪及工作倦怠的问卷。问卷时长将不超过20分钟，您的个人信息将在整个过程中严格保密。如有任何疑问，请联系：

lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu。

果蕾
博士候选人
密苏里大学新闻学院

Appendix I – Survey Consent Form in English

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

Project Title: “The effect of emotional experience on burnout among Chinese reporters”

Principal Investigator: Lei Guo, Doctoral Candidate, Missouri School of Journalism

DESCRIPTION AND EXPLANATION OF PROCEDURES

You are invited to take part in a survey about Chinese reporters’ emotional experience in work. Please be assured that your participation in this research is totally voluntary. If you choose to participate, your role will be to answer questions in the survey following this consent form. You will be asked some questions regarding your demographic information (e.g., gender, job positions, working years, etc.) as well as some questions regarding your experience in emotional expressions while interacting with others in your work. Next, your emotion management, levels of burnout, and coping strategies will be also asked in the questionnaire. Participation in this survey should take roughly 15-20 minutes.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Protecting your confidentiality is our most important goal. We will protect your confidentiality by ensuring that your participation in this survey is completely anonymous. We will not be able to match your responses with any piece of identifiable information. Only researcher will have access to the data and the aggregated data will be analyzed and shared for publication to protect your confidentiality.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS

After reading this consent form, you may choose not to participate in the study. You also may leave the study at any time without penalty.

RISK AND DISCOMFORTS

There are No other physical, psychological or sociological risks involved in participating in this study.

CONSENT

By signing this consent form, you acknowledge that you understand the procedures and any risks and benefits involved in this study, and that you are aware that your participation in this study is voluntary and are free to withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time without penalty or prejudice. If you have any questions regarding the research, please contact the Principal Investigator, Lei Guo, at lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant, you may contact the Campus Institutional Review Board at (573) 882-9585 or umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu.

_____ I consent to participate

_____ I do not consent to participate

Appendix J – Survey Consent Form in Chinese

参与问卷调查知情同意书

研究题目：情绪表达及情绪管理对中国记者职业倦怠的影响

主要研究人员：果蕾，博士候选人，美国密苏里大学新闻学院

研究程序说明

您被邀请参与一个有关中国记者在工作中的情感表达及情绪管理的问卷调查。您的参与完全出于自愿，如同意参与，则需要完成此份知情同意书之后的问卷。您将会被问到人口统计信息（如：性别、工作职位、工作年限等）以及一些关于您在工作中与人交往的情绪表达及情绪管理的问题。此外，您的工作倦怠程度及应对策略也将会在问卷中被提及。完成这份问卷大约需要15-20分钟。

保密协议

您的参与完全匿名且全部回答都会被完全保密以保护您的隐私。其中，您的回答将不会与个人识别信息进行信息匹配；最终数据只有研究者可以访问，您的任何个人识别信息不会出现在任何后续的发表文章中。

参与者的权利

在阅读完知情同意书后，参与者可选择是否继续参与完成问卷；在问卷作答过程中，参与者也可以随时选择退出调查。如果参与者最终选择不参与本次调查，将不会对其产生任何影响。

研究风险

本研究不会对身体、心理或者社会产生风险。

同意书

签署本同意书即表示受访者已了解访谈程序及参与这项研究的权利及义务。受访者已了解参与本次访谈是完全出于自愿，也可以随时退出访谈并不会对受访者造成任何影响及出发。如果您对本次研究有任何疑问，请通过 lgfgt@mail.missouri.edu 与研究负责人密苏里大学新闻学院博士候选人果蕾联系。如果您对您作为参与者的权利及义务有任何疑问，您可以联系密苏里大学研究审查委员会。联系电话：(573) 882-9585 或电邮：umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu。

_____ 我同意参加此次问卷调查

_____ 我不同意参加此次问卷调查

Appendix K – R Code of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

```

library(haven)
library(lavaan)
options(max.print=1000000000)
X276_reporter <- read_sav("Desktop/276_reporter.sav")

## Measurement Model ##

mod1 <- '
Frequency =~ Q3_Emotion_1 + Q3_Emotion_2 + Q3_Emotion_3
Intensity =~ Q4_Strong_1 + Q4_Strong_2 + Q4_Strong_3
Variety =~ Q5_Vary_1 + Q5_Vary_2 + Q5_Vary_3
Negative =~ Q6_Neg_1 + Q6_Neg_2 + Q6_Neg_3 + Q6_Neg_4 + Q6_Neg_5 +
Q6_Neg_6 + Q6_Neg_7 + Q6_Neg_8 + Q6_Neg_9 + Q6_Neg_10
Positive =~ Q6_Pos_1 + Q6_Pos_2 + Q6_Pos_3 + Q6_Pos_4 + Q6_Pos_5 + Q6_Pos_6 +
Q6_Pos_7 + Q6_Pos_8 + Q6_Pos_9 + Q6_Pos_10

SurfaceActing =~ Q7_EL_1 + Q7_EL_2 + Q7_EL_3 + Q7_EL_4 + Q7_EL_5 +
Q7_EL_6 + Q7_EL_7
DeepActing =~ Q7_EL_8 + Q7_EL_9 + Q7_EL_10 + Q7_EL_11
NaturalEx =~ Q7_EL_12 + Q7_EL_13 + Q7_EL_14

Cope_PF =~ Q9_Cope_2 + Q9_Cope_7 + Q9_Cope_14 + Q9_Cope_25 + Q9_Cope_10
+ Q9_Cope_23 + Q9_Cope_22 + Q9_Cope_27
Cope_Active =~ Q9_Cope_9 + Q9_Cope_21 + Q9_Cope_12 + Q9_Cope_17 +
Q9_Cope_18 + Q9_Cope_28 + Q9_Cope_20 + Q9_Cope_24 + Q9_Cope_5 +
Q9_Cope_15
Cope_Avoidant =~ Q9_Cope_1 + Q9_Cope_19 + Q9_Cope_3 + Q9_Cope_8 +
Q9_Cope_6 + Q9_Cope_13 + Q9_Cope_26 + Q9_Cope_16 + Q9_Cope_4 +
Q9_Cope_11

Exhaustion =~ Q8_BO_1 + Q8_BO_2 + Q8_BO_3 + Q8_BO_4 + Q8_BO_5
Cynicism =~ Q8_BO_6 + Q8_BO_7 + Q8_BO_8 + Q8_BO_9 + Q8_BO_10
Inefficacy =~ RC_BO_11 + RC_BO_12 + RO_BO_13 + RC_BO_14 + RC_BO_15 +
RC_BO_16
'

fit1 <- sem(mod1, data=X276_reporter, std.lv=T, missing="fiml", estimator="MLR")
summary(fit1, fit=T, standardized=T, rsquare=T)
insp0 <- inspect(fit1, "modindices")
resid(fit1, type="standardized")

mod1.3 <- '
SurfaceActing =~ Q7_EL_2 + Q7_EL_3 + Q7_EL_4 + Q7_EL_5 + Q7_EL_7
DeepActing =~ Q7_EL_8 + Q7_EL_9 + Q7_EL_10 + Q7_EL_11
NaturalEx =~ Q7_EL_12 + Q7_EL_13 + Q7_EL_14

```

```

Cope_PF =~ Q9_Cope_2 + Q9_Cope_7 + Q9_Cope_14 + Q9_Cope_25
Cope_Active =~ Q9_Cope_12 + Q9_Cope_17 + Q9_Cope_24
Cope_Avoidant =~ Q9_Cope_8 + Q9_Cope_6 + Q9_Cope_16 + Q9_Cope_4 +
Q9_Cope_11
Exhaustion =~ Q8_BO_3 + Q8_BO_4 + Q8_BO_5
Cynicism =~ Q8_BO_6 + Q8_BO_7 + Q8_BO_8 + Q8_BO_9
Inefficacy =~ RC_BO_11 + RC_BO_12 + RO_BO_13 + RC_BO_14 + RC_BO_15

```

```

Q9_Cope_4 ~~ Q9_Cope_11
RC_BO_12 ~~ RC_BO_11
Q8_BO_5 ~~ Q8_BO_7
Q9_Cope_14 ~~ Q9_Cope_24
Q8_BO_8 ~~ RC_BO_12
Q9_Cope_25 ~~ Q9_Cope_24

```

```

fit1.3 <- sem(mod1.3, data=X276_reporter, std.lv=T, missing="fiml", estimator="MLR")
summary(fit1.3, fit=T, standardized=T, rsquare=T)
insp0.3 <- inspect(fit1.3, "modindices")
resid(fit1.3, type="standardized")

```

```
## Alpha Mean SD ##
```

```
X276_reporter$duration1 <- X276_reporter$Q2_Fre * X276_reporter$Q2_Duration
describe(X276_reporter$duration1)
```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q3_Emotion_1")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q3_Emotion_3")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(4,5,6)])
X276_reporter$Frequency1 <-
(X276_reporter$Q3_Emotion_1+X276_reporter$Q3_Emotion_2+X276_reporter$Q3_E
motion_3)/3
describe(X276_reporter$Frequency1)

```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q4_Strong_1")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(7,8,9)])
X276_reporter$Intensity1 <-
(X276_reporter$Q4_Strong_1+X276_reporter$Q4_Strong_2+X276_reporter$Q4_Strong
_3)/3
describe(X276_reporter$Intensity1)

```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q5_Vary_1")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(10,11,12)])
X276_reporter$Variety1 <- (X276_reporter$Q5_Vary_1 + X276_reporter$Q5_Vary_2 +
X276_reporter$Q5_Vary_3)/3
describe(X276_reporter$Variety1)

```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_1")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_2")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_3")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_4")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_5")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_6")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_7")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_8")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_9")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Neg_10")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(10,14,16,18,19,20,23,25,27,30,32)])
X276_reporter$Neg1 <- (X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_1 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_2 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_3 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_4 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_5 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_6 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_7 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_8 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_9 + X276_reporter$Q6_Neg_10)/10
describe(X276_reporter$Neg1)
mean(X276_reporter$Neg1)
sd(X276_reporter$Neg1)

```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_1")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_2")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_3")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_4")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_5")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_6")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_7")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_8")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_9")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q6_Pos_10")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(13,15,17,21,22,24,26,28,29,31)])
X276_reporter$Pos1 <- (X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_1 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_2 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_3 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_4 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_5 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_6 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_7 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_8 +
X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_9 + X276_reporter$Q6_Pos_10)/10
describe(X276_reporter$Pos1)
mean(X276_reporter$Pos1)
sd(X276_reporter$Pos1)

```

```

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_2")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_3")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_4")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_5")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_7")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(34,35,36,37,39)])
X276_reporter$SA1 <- (X276_reporter$Q7_EL_2 + X276_reporter$Q7_EL_3 +
X276_reporter$Q7_EL_4 + X276_reporter$Q7_EL_5 + X276_reporter$Q7_EL_7)/5

```

```
mean(X276_reporter$SA1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_8")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_11")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(40,41,42,43)])
X276_reporter$DA1 <- (X276_reporter$Q7_EL_8 + X276_reporter$Q7_EL_9 +
X276_reporter$Q7_EL_10 +X276_reporter$Q7_EL_11)/4
mean(X276_reporter$DA1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_12")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q7_EL_14")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(44,45,46)])
X276_reporter$NE1 <- (X276_reporter$Q7_EL_12 + X276_reporter$Q7_EL_13
+X276_reporter$Q7_EL_14)/3
sd(X276_reporter$NE1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_2")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_7")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_14")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_25")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(64,69,76,87)])
X276_reporter$PF1 <- (X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_2 + X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_7 +
X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_14 + X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_25)/4
mean(X276_reporter$PF1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_12")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_17")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_24")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(74,79,86)])
X276_reporter$Active1 <- (X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_12 + X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_17
+ X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_24)/3
mean(X276_reporter$Active1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_8")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_6")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_16")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_4")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q9_Cope_11")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(70,68,78,66,73)])
X276_reporter$Avoidant1 <- (X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_8 + X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_6
+ X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_16 + X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_4 +
X276_reporter$Q9_Cope_11)/5
sd(X276_reporter$Avoidant1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_3")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_4")
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_5")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(49,50,51)])
X276_reporter$EE1 <- (X276_reporter$Q8_BO_3 + X276_reporter$Q8_BO_4 +
X276_reporter$Q8_BO_5)/3
mean(X276_reporter$EE1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_6")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_7")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_8")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "Q8_BO_9")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(52,53,54,55)])
X276_reporter$CY1 <- (X276_reporter$Q8_BO_6 + X276_reporter$Q8_BO_7 +
X276_reporter$Q8_BO_8 + X276_reporter$Q8_BO_9)/4
mean(X276_reporter$CY1)
sd(X276_reporter$CY1)
```

```
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "RC_BO_11")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "RC_BO_12")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "RO_BO_13")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "RC_BO_14")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "RC_BO_15")
cronbach(X276_reporter[,c(125,126,127,128,129)])
X276_reporter$PI1 <- (X276_reporter$RC_BO_11 + X276_reporter$RC_BO_12 +
X276_reporter$RO_BO_13 + X276_reporter$RC_BO_14 +
X276_reporter$RC_BO_15)/5
describe(X276_reporter$PI1)
mean(X276_reporter$PI1)
sd(X276_reporter$PI1)
```

Appendix L – R Code of Correlation

```
install.packages("Hmisc")
library("Hmisc")

which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "duration1")
which(colnames(X276_reporter)== "PI1")
my_data <- X276_reporter[, c(136:150)]
cor2 <- rcorr(as.matrix(X276_reporter[,136:150]))
cor2
```

Appendix M – R Code of Path Model

```

mod9 <- '
SurfaceActing =~ Q7_EL_2 + Q7_EL_3 + Q7_EL_4 + Q7_EL_5 + Q7_EL_7
DeepActing =~ Q7_EL_8 + Q7_EL_9 + Q7_EL_10 + Q7_EL_11
NaturalEx =~ Q7_EL_12 + Q7_EL_13 + Q7_EL_14
Cope_PF =~ Q9_Cope_2 + Q9_Cope_7 + Q9_Cope_14 + Q9_Cope_25
Cope_Active =~ Q9_Cope_12 + Q9_Cope_17 + Q9_Cope_24
Cope_Avoidant =~ Q9_Cope_8 + Q9_Cope_6 + Q9_Cope_16 + Q9_Cope_4 +
Q9_Cope_11
Exhaustion =~ Q8_BO_3 + Q8_BO_4 + Q8_BO_5
Cynicism =~ Q8_BO_6 + Q8_BO_7 + Q8_BO_8 + Q8_BO_9
Inefficacy =~ RC_BO_11 + RC_BO_12 + RO_BO_13 + RC_BO_14 + RC_BO_15

SurfaceActing ~ duration1 + Frequency1 + Intensity1 + Variety1 + Neg1 + Pos1
DeepActing ~ duration1 + Frequency1 + Intensity1 + Variety1 + Neg1 + Pos1
NaturalEx ~ duration1 + Frequency1 + Intensity1 + Variety1 + Neg1 + Pos1

Cope_PF ~ Neg1 + DeepActing + Pos1
Cope_Avoidant ~ Neg1 + DeepActing + Pos1
Cope_Active ~ Neg1 + DeepActing + Pos1

Exhaustion ~ SurfaceActing + DeepActing + NaturalEx + Cope_PF + Cope_Active +
Cope_Avoidant
Cynicism ~ SurfaceActing + DeepActing + NaturalEx + Cope_PF + Cope_Active +
Cope_Avoidant
Inefficacy ~ SurfaceActing + DeepActing + NaturalEx + Cope_PF + Cope_Active +
Cope_Avoidant

Q9_Cope_4 ~~ Q9_Cope_11
Q8_BO_5 ~~ Q8_BO_7
RC_BO_11 ~~ RC_BO_12
Q9_Cope_14 ~~ Q9_Cope_24
Q8_BO_8 ~~ RC_BO_12
Q9_Cope_25 ~~ Q9_Cope_24

Cope_Active ~~ Cope_PF
Cope_PF ~~ Cope_Avoidant
DeepActing ~~ NaturalEx
NaturalEx ~~ SurfaceActing
'

fit9 <- sem(mod9, data=X276_reporter, std.lv=T, missing="fiml", estimator="MLR")
summary(fit9, fit=T, standardized=T, rsquare=T)
insp9 <- inspect(fit9,"modindices")
resid(fit9, type="standardized")

```

VITA

Lei Guo will be an assistant professor of journalism studies at the School of Communication, College of Communication, Fine Arts and Media at the University of Nebraska-Omaha. In Fall 2020, she will teach online courses including Media Writing Lab, Electronic News Writing and Reporting, and co-teach Capstone 1. Her research program centers on explaining how journalism jobs have been challenged by social and digital changes and how journalists can maintain their well-being and stay up to date with changes in the digital transformation. As a former political journalist, she is also interested in the influences of political news on audiences' attitudes toward the government and their political participation.

Before starting her doctorate study at the University of Missouri, Lei had five years of experience as a professional journalist, working as a political reporter, writer, and editor in many television stations and newspapers in Hong Kong and Beijing. Previously, she received her bachelor's degree in rural communication from China Agriculture University in China in 2009. She received her master's degree in journalism in 2010 and M.Phil degree in communication in 2016 from the Chinese University of Hong Kong.