

**EMOTION WORK AND WELL-BEING OF HUMAN-RESOURCE EMPLOYEES
WITHIN THE CHROME INDUSTRY**

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FOR THE READER'S ATTENTION

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The editorial style (particularly regarding the construction of tables) and the method of citation as prescribed by the Publication Manual (5th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) will be followed in this dissertation. This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the North-West University, which is to use the APA-style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.
- The dissertation is submitted in the form of four (4) chapters, consisting of the following: the introductory chapter; the second and a third (each of which is in the form of a research article), as well as a concluding. Each chapter has its own reference list.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
	Acknowledgements	1
	For the Reader's Attention	2
	Table of Contents	3
	List of Tables	6
	List of Figures	7
	Abstract	8
	Opsomming	11
CHAPTER 1:	INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT	
1.1	Problem statement	14
1.1.1	Overview of the problem	14
1.1.2	Literature review	15
1.2	Research questions	24
1.3	Research objectives	24
1.3.1	General objective	24
1.3.2	Specific objectives	25
1.4	Paradigm of the research study	25
1.4.1	Intellectual climate	25
1.4.2	Discipline	26
1.4.3	Metatheoretical assumptions	27
1.4.3.1	Literature review	27
1.4.3.2	Empirical study	30
1.4.4	Market of intellectual resources	32
1.4.4.1	Theoretical beliefs	32
1.4.4.1 A	Conceptual definitions	32
1.4.4.1 B	Models and theories	34
1.5	Research design	35
1.6	Research method	35
1.6.1	Phase I: Literature review	35

1.6.2	Phase II: Empirical study	35
1.6.2.1	Step 1: Choice of research design	36
1.6.2.2	Step 2: Choice of study population	36
1.6.2.3	Step 3: Measuring battery	36
1.6.2.4	Step 4: Statistical analysis	39
1.7	Chapter outline	40
	References	41
CHAPTER 2:	RESEARCH ARTICLE 1	
	Abstract	48
	Opsomming	48
	Introduction	49
	Measurements of <i>Emotion Work</i>	52
	Research objectives	68
	Research method	68
	Research design	68
	Participants	69
	Measuring battery	71
	Statistical analysis	71
	Results	72
	Discussion	80
	Recommendations	85
	References	86
CHAPTER 3:	RESEARCH ARTICLE 2	
	Abstract	93
	Opsomming	93
	Introduction	94
	Research objectives	103
	Research method	104
	Research design	104
	Participants	104

	Measuring battery	106
	Statistical analysis	109
	Results	110
	Discussion	121
	Recommendations	126
	References	127
CHAPTER 4:	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
4.1	Conclusions	134
4.2	Limitations	138
4.3	Recommendations	139
4.3.1	Recommendations for the profession	139
4.3.2	Recommendations for future research	140
	References	141

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Description	Page
Article 1		
Table 1	Summary of <i>Emotion Work</i> measures	54
Table 2	Characteristics of the participants	70
Table 3	Descriptive statistics and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the measuring instruments	72
Table 4	Factor loadings, communalities (h^2), percentage variance, and covariance for principle factors extraction, and oblique rotation on FEWS items	74
Table 5	Correlation coefficients between <i>Emotional Dissonance</i> , <i>Display of Empathy</i> , <i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i> , and <i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	76
Table 6	Multiple regression analysis with <i>Emotional Dissonance</i> as dependent variable	77
Table 7	MANOVA—differences in <i>Emotion Work</i> levels of demographic groups	78
Table 8	ANOVA—differences in <i>Emotion Work</i> levels based on ethnicity	78
Table 9	ANOVA—differences in <i>Emotion Work</i> levels based on gender	79
Table 10	ANOVA—differences in <i>Emotion Work</i> levels based on age	79
Table 11	Career stages and tasks	84

Article 2		
Table 1	Characteristics of the participants	105
Table 2	Descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of <i>Emotion Work</i> , <i>Emotional Intelligence</i> , <i>Social Support</i> , and <i>Well-being</i> constructs	110

Table 3	Factor loadings, communalities (h^2), percentage variance for principle factors extraction and oblique rotation on GEIS items	112
Table 4	Correlation coefficients between <i>Well-being</i> , <i>Supervisory Support</i> , <i>Emotion Work</i> , and <i>Emotional Intelligence</i>	116
Table 5	Multiple regression analysis with <i>Engagement</i> as dependant variable	118
Table 6	Multiple regression analysis with <i>Exhaustion</i> as dependent variable	120

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Description	Page
Chapter 1		
Figure 1	The conceptual framework of <i>Emotion Work</i> and wellness performed in the work setting	22
Chapter 2		
Figure 1	Scree Plot	73
Chapter 3		
Figure 1	The conceptual framework of <i>emotion regulation</i> performed in the work setting	95
Figure 2	Scree Plot	111

ABSTRACT

Things develop quickly in today's internet-linked global economy and competition is intense. Speed, cost, and quality are no longer the trade-offs they once were. Today's consumers demand immediate access to high-quality products and services at a reasonable price. Thus, Managers are challenged to speed up the product creation and delivery cycle, while cutting costs and improving quality. Regardless of the size and purpose of the organisation and the technology involved, people are the common denominator when facing this immense challenge. Success or failure depends on the ability to attract, develop, retain, and motivate the employees. The human-resource employee is the drive behind all these voice-to-voice and face-to-face interactions, attempting to represent the emotions, attitudes, and behaviours required by the organisation.

The objective of this research study was to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

The research method consisted of a literature review and an empirical study. A cross-sectional survey design was used to collect the data. A non-probability convenience sample was taken from human-resource employees in the chrome industry. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, Oldenburg Burnout Inventory, the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales, Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale, Emotional Labour Scale, and Social Support Scale were used as measuring instruments. The data was analysed by making use of descriptive statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients, factor-analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients, and multiple regression analyses of variance (multivariate analysis of variance and ANOVA), calculated using SPSS.

Compared to the the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), all of the scales of the measuring instruments have normal distributions except for *Engagement* where the kurtosis was positively skewed. Compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the Cronbach alpha coefficient of all the constructs is considered to be acceptable.

A factor analysis confirmed four factors of *Emotion Work*, consisting of *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. *Emotional Intelligence* also consists of four factors namely the *Use of Emotion*, *Caring Empathy*, the *Control of Emotions*, and *Expression Recognition*. *Well-*

being consists of two factors namely *Exhaustion* and *Engagement*. Finally, *Social Support* consists of three factors *Co-worker Support*, *Supervisor Support*, and *Family Support*.

An analysis of the data indicated that all of the correlations between the different constructs mentioned below are statistically and practically significant. The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* is positively related to *Emotional Dissonance*. The *Display of Empathy* is positively related to *Emotional Dissonance* as well as to the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*. The *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* is negatively related to the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy*. *Exhaustion* is negatively related to *Engagement*, the *Use of Emotions*, and the *Control of Emotions*. *Engagement* is positively related to *Co-worker Support*, the *Use of Emotion* as well as to the *Control of Emotions*. *Family Support* is positively related to both *Supervisor Support* and *Co-worker Support*. *Supervisor Support* is positively related to *Co-worker Support*. The *Use of Emotion* is positively related to *Caring Empathy* and the *Control of Emotions*. *Caring Empathy* is positively related to the *Control of Emotions*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy*, while it in turn is negatively correlated to the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. The *Control of Emotions* is negatively related to the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. *Emotional Dissonance* is positively related to both the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy*. Finally, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* is positively related to the *Display of Empathy*.

In a multiple regression analysis with *Emotional Dissonance* as dependant variable and with demographic variables, as independent variable a statistically significant model was produced. More specifically, 11% of the variance predicted in *Emotional Dissonance* was explained by gender, age and ethnicity.

In a multiple regression analysis indicated that *Emotional Intelligence* (specifically the *Use of Emotion*), *Emotion Work* (specifically *Emotional Dissonance*), and *Social Support* (specifically *Co-worker Support*) predicted 31% of the total variance in *Engagement*. *Emotional Intelligence* (specifically the *Use of Emotion* and the *Control of Emotions*), *Emotion Work* (specifically *Emotional Dissonance* and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*), and *Social Support* (specifically *Co-worker Support*) predicted 43% of the total variance in *Exhaustion*.

A multivariate analysis of variance, which was used to determine differences between ethnic, age, and gender groups with regard to *Emotion Work*, indicated that participants in the African ethnic group experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in the White ethnic group. Female participants display higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy*, while male participants experienced higher levels of the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. The age group of 42 to 51 experienced lower levels of *Emotion Work* owing to the experience of *Emotional Dissonance*, than participants in the age groups of 21 to 31, 32 to 41, and 52 to 66.

Keywords: service workers, Emotion Work/Emotional Labour, Surface Acting, Deep Acting, Emotional Dissonance, emotional regulation, Well-being, Burnout, Engagement, Co-worker Support, Supervisor Support, Emotional Intelligence.

OPSOMMING

Dinge beweeg vinnig in die hedendaagse internet verbinde globale ekonomie. Die kompetisie is kragtig. Spoed, kostes en kwaliteit kan nie meer uitgeruil word soos in die verlede nie. Die hedendaagse klante/kliënte verlang onmiddellike toegang tot hoë gehalte produkte en diensste teen 'n redelike prys. Bestuurders word dus uitgedaag om terselfdertyd, die vervaardiging en afleweringsiklusse te bespoedig, kostes te sny en kwaliteit te verbeter. Ongeag die grote, die doel van die maatskappy en die tegnologie betrokke, is mense die algemene deler in die trotsering van hierdie enorme uitdaging. Sukses of mislukking hang af van die vermoë om werknemers aan te trek, te ontwikkel, te behou en te motiveer. Die mense hulpbron werknemers is, in hulle pogings om die emosies, houdings en gedrag te vertoon soos vereis deur die organisasie, die dryfveer agter al hierdie stem tot stem en aangesig tot aangesig interaksies.

Doelwitte van hierdie navorsing was om die verhouding tussen **Emosie-werk** en **Welstand** in mense hulpbron werknemers in die chroom industrie te bepaal.

Die navorsingsmetode het bestaan uit 'n literatuur oorsig en 'n empiriese studie. 'n Kruissnit-opname-ontwerp is gebruik in die studie. 'n Nie-waarskynlikheidsbeskikbaarheidssteekproeftrekking is gebruik in die chroom industrie. Die Utrecht Werkverbintenis skaal (UWES), Oldenburg Uitbrandingsvraelys (OLBI) (Engelse weergawe), Frankfurt Emosionelewerk-skaal (FEWS), Griekse Emosionele Intelligensie Skaal (GEIS), en Sosiale Ondersteuningskaal is gebruik as meetinstrumente in die studie. Die statistiese analise is uitgevoer deur die SPSS-program. Die statistiese metode wat uitgevoer is in die artikel het bestaan uit beskrywende statistiek, Cronbach alpha koëffisiënt, faktor analyses, Pearson produk-moment korrelasie-koëffisiënte, meervoudige regressie-ontledings, asook meervoudig-variasie analise (MANOVA) en (ANOVA).

Die skale van al die meetingsinstrumente het normale verspreidings; uitsluitende *Werksbegeesting* waar die kurtosis positief skeef was. In vergelyking met die riglyne van $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), was die Cronbach alpha koëffisiënt van al die konstrunkte as aanvaarbaar gesien.

'n Komponent-analise het vier faktore van *Emosie-werk* bevestig, naamlik *Emosionele Dissonansie*, die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies*, die *Vertoon van Empatie* en die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies*; *Emosionele Intelligensie* bestaan ook uit vier faktore naamlik die *Gebruik van Emosie*, *Omgee Empatie*, die *Beheer van Emosies* en *Uitdrukking Erkenning*, *Welstand* het twee faktore naamlik *Uitputting* en *Werksbegeestering* bevestig en ten laaste *Sosiale Ondersteuning* het drie faktore *Mede-werker*, *Toesighouer-* en *Familie-ondersteuning* bevestig.

'n Ontleding van die data het daarop gedui dat al die korrelasie-koëffisiënte tussen die verskillende konstrakte wat hieronder genoem word, statisties en prakties beduidend is. Die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies* en die *Vertoon van Empatie* het positief korreleer met *Emosionele Dissonansie*. Die *Vertoon van Empatie* het positief korreleer met *Emosionele Dissonansie* asook met die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies*. Die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies* het negatief korreleer met die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies* asook die *Vertoon van Empatie*. *Uitputting* het negatief korreleer met *Werksbegeestering*, die *Gebruik van Emosies* en die *Beheer van Emosies*. *Werksbegeestering* het positief korreleer met *Mede-werker Ondersteuning*, die *Gebruik van Emosies* asook die *Beheer van Emosies*. *Familie Ondersteuning* het positief korreleer met beide *Toesighouer-* en *Mede-werker Ondersteuning*. Die *Gebruik van Emosies* het positief korreleer met *Omgee Empatie* en die *Beheer van Emosies*. *Omgee Empatie* het positief korreleer met die *Beheer van Emosies*, die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies* en die *Vertoon van Empatie* terwyl dit weer negatief korreleer het met die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies*. Die *Beheer van Emosies* het negatief korreleer met die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies*. *Emosionele Dissonansie* het positief korreleer met beide die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosie* en die *Vertoon van Empatie*. Oplaas, die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosie* het positief korreleer met die *Vertoon van Empatie*.

'n Meervoudige regressie-analise het aangedui dat *Emosionele Intelligensie* meer spesifiek die *Gebruik van Emosie*; *Emosie-werk* meer spesifiek *Emosionele Dissonansie*; en *Sosiale Ondersteuning* meer spesifiek *Mede-werknemer Ondersteuning* 31% van die totale variansie van *Werksbegeestering* verklaar. *Emosionele Intelligensie* meer spesifiek die *Gebruik van Emosies* en die *Beheer van Emosie*; *Emosie-werk* meer spesifiek *Emosionele Dissonansie* en die *Vertoon van*

Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies; en *Sosiale Ondersteuning* meer spesifiek *Mede-werknemer Ondersteuning*, het 43% van die totale variansie van *Uitputting* verklaar.

'n Meervoudige regressie-analise met *Emosionele Dissonansie* as afhanklike veranderlike en demografiese veranderlikes as onafhanklike veranderlike, het 'n statistiese beduidende model geproduseer. Meer spesifiek, *geslag*, *ouderdom* en *etnisiteit* het 11% van die variansie van *Emosionele Dissonansie* verklaar.

'n Meervoudige analise van variansie (MANOVA) wat gebruik is om die verskille tussen groepe op grond van etnisiteit, ouderdom en geslag, met betrekking tot *Emosie-werk* te bepaal, het aangedui dat deelnemers in die Afrika etniese groepe hoër vlakke van *Emosionele Dissonansie* ervaar as deelnemers in die Wit etniese groep. Vroulike deelnemers het hoër vlakke van *Emosionele Dissonansie*, die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies* en *Empatie* ervaar, waar manlike deelnemers hoër vlakke van die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies* ervaar het. Die ouderdomsgroep 42-51 het as gevolg van die ervaring van *Emosionele Dissonansie*, laer vlakke van *Emosie-werk* as deelnemers die ouderdomsgroepe 21-31, 32-41 en 52-66, ervaar.

Sleutelwoorde: dienswerkers, Emosie-werk/Emosionele Arbeid, Oppervlakkige Voorgee, Innerlike Voorgee, Emosionele Dissonansie, emosionele regulasie, Welstand, Uitbranding, Werksbegeestering, Toesighouer- en Medewerkerondersteuning, Emosionele Intelligensie

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation deals with the *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* of human-resource employees within the chrome industry. In this chapter, the motivation for this research study is discussed in terms of the problem statement and the research aims. Thereafter, the context in which the research takes place is presented. Lastly, the research methodology and division of chapters are detailed.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1.1 Overview of the problem

In the past, emotions have not been given much attention in the study of organisational behaviour (Arvey, Renz, & Watson, 1998; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Putnam & Mumby, 1993 as cited in Grandey, 2000). The workplace has been viewed as a rational environment, where emotions would get in the way of sound judgment. More researchers are dismantling this view, by examining how workplace emotions help to explain important individual and organisational outcomes. Researchers are beginning to explore how emotion management by employees can improve work outcomes, for example, an employee changes how he or she feels, or what feelings he or she shows, in order to interact with customers/clients in an effective way (Grandey, 2000).

The late twentieth century- and post-industrial societies shifted away from manufacturing industries towards service industries. There has been a massive growth in employment in the service sector, with many employees now engaged in interactions with customer/clients (Hough, 2004). In addition to the physical and cognitive requirements of the job, these customer-service interactions may present some emotional demands for staff. Emotional demands can be seen as the performance of *Emotion Work*, or the regulation and management of emotions in accordance with organisational expectations (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, as cited in Rafferty, 2005).

An observation by the author is that in the chrome industry, where the focus is on physical safety and production, management tends to forget the emotional *Well-being* of their employees, which is an important part of the industry's operation.

The *Well-being* of the employees in an organisation depends on the *Well-being* of the human-resource employees. The human-resource employees address the emotional *Well-being* of the employees through employee assistance programmes, individual development plans, and the various benefits the organisation has to offer, such as salaries, medical aids, and pension and provident funds. Although these benefits appear minor, the dealing with financial problems of employees also place an enormous strain on emotional and physical *Well-being* according to a personal observation and experience of the author.

The human-resource employee serves as the reporting point for all the problems employees might have. Because of this, he or she requires the means to replenish the emotional resources being spent.

1.1.2 Literature review

Recent research has established that a large part of the stress of working in call centres is the strain of having to be constantly cheerful to callers. The so-called *have a nice day syndrome* refers to the “*Emotional Labour*” or *Emotion Work* that takes place on a daily basis, to keep appearing fairly reasonable to everyone, no matter how ragged employees are feeling (Faking it 2004).

The concept, *Emotion Work*, refers to the quality of interactions between employees and customers/clients. The definition of a customer/client is any person who interacts with an employee. Employees are required to express the appropriate emotions as part of their job during face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions (Zapf, 2002) with customers/clients.

According to Zapf (2002), *Emotion Work* also refers to the psychological processes necessary for regulating organisationally-desired emotions. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) state that the acts of emotion display are regulated by intra-psychological processes. Hochschild (1983) defines *Emotion Work* as “the induction or suppression of feeling, to sustain the outer appearance that results in others feeling safe and cared for. This kind of labour calls for the coordination of mind and feeling, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that individuals value as integral to their individuality. According to Grandey (2000), “*Emotional Labor* may involve enhancing, faking, and/or suppressing emotions to modify emotional expression” (p. 4). Three components of

Emotion Work or *Emotional Labour* are identified. These include the faking of emotions that are not felt, the hiding of emotions that one is feeling, and the performance of emotion management, in order to meet expectations within a work environment (Mann, 2004). Characteristics of *Emotion Work* or *Emotional Labour*, according to Zapf (2002), include face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers/clients, the display of emotions to influence other people's emotions, attitudes and behaviours, and certain rules, such as always being helpful and friendly to customers/clients, no matter how one is feeling.

Researchers have defined and conceptualised *Emotion Work* or *Emotional Labour* in different ways. A general underlying assumption is that *Emotion Work* or *Emotional Labour* is the regulating process of both feelings and expressions in accordance with occupational or organisational display rules for the purpose of achieving organisational goals (Schaubroeck & Jones as cited in Rafferty, 2005). Many organisations have display rules regarding the emotions that employees should display in service encounters with customers/clients or members of the public. These display rules specify the range of emotions to be displayed, along with the frequency, intensity, and duration of such emotions (Rafferty, 2005).

The term *Emotion Work* is used in this study, as it indicates the psychological perspective, instead of *Emotional Labour*, which indicates a sociological perspective (Zapf, 2002).

It is in the organisation's interest to understand and mitigate the impact of *Emotion Work* on staff. Mitigating the impact of *Emotion Work* on staff will optimise the effectiveness and *Well-being* of employees, and decrease costs related to stress, *Burnout*, turnover, and absenteeism, for example (Stradzins, 2000).

Since Hochschild (1983) developed the term *Emotional Labour* in her ground-breaking study, *The managed heart*, the concept has attracted increasing attention among researchers concerned with occupational stress and outcomes in the service industries. The modern workplace or workforce does not seem to be prepared for the unique stresses employees face through constantly having to interact with people rather than things. Psychologists are now increasingly recognising that this *Emotion Work* may be more mentally taxing than the physical labour done in the past (In faking, 2004). It can thus be deduced that *Emotion Work* involves three parties: service workers (employees), the organisation, and customers/clients.

It is in these interactions between service workers and customers/clients where *Emotion Work* takes place. The service worker needs to handle his/her own emotions as well as the emotions of the customer/client (Fischbach, 2003), and therefore needs to manage his/her feelings as well as behaviour in the context of paid work; the worker has to suppress his/her feelings to sustain an outward appearance of caring for others (Poynter, 2002). Employees in service organisations are required to manage their emotional expressions toward customers/clients whether they are positive emotions or negative emotions. The benefits of Emotional Labour are improved customer or client service, customer/client retention, and increased sales (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002).

Two unique stressors associated with human service work are *Emotional Dissonance*, particularly the need to hide negative emotions, and customer- or client-related social stressors. The latter may involve disproportionate or ambiguous customer or client expectations and/or verbally aggressive customers/clients. These stressors affect all human service workers, even though these may vary depending on the extent to which their work involves lasting relationships with customers/clients and the amount of training they have received for dealing with customer- or client-related social stressors (Dollard, Dormann, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2003). Hochschild (1983) found that the *Emotion Work* required by some types of occupations can result in self-estrangement or alienation and *Exhaustion*. There is also evidence that *Emotion Work* can undermine job satisfaction (Pugliesi, 1999).

Hochschild (1983) states that *Emotion Work* is performed through either *Surface Acting* or *Deep Acting*. *Surface Acting* refers to conforming to display rules, by simulating emotions not actually felt (Mann, 2004). During *Surface Acting*, the employee modifies and controls his/her emotional expressions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) for the sake of fulfilling job demands (Fischbach, 2003). According to emotion theorists, emotion consists of several sub-systems namely, subjective feeling, physiological reaction patterns, and expressive behaviour. Expressive behaviour includes facial expression, voice, and gesture. During *Surface Acting*, the employee tries to manage visible aspects of his/her emotions that appear on the surface. This emotion can be noticed by the interaction partner, and it is thus important for the employee to bring his/her emotion in-line with the display rule of the company (Zapf, 2002). “*Surface Acting*, or antecedent-focused Emotion Regulation, may be desirable to organisations so that

customers/clients always see the expression which is mandated even when the employee may feel differently” (Grandey, 2000, p. 17). The most important side of *Surface Acting* is that it focuses on outward behaviour. It involves conforming to the display rules of an organisation through careful presentation of verbal and non-verbal cues (Mann, 2004). “*Surface Acting* involves pretending to feel what we do not, an ‘inner dissonance’ or conflict between personal feelings and those publicly expressed at work therefore develops” (Smith, 1999, as cited in Poynter, 2002, p. 255). *Surface Acting* is not the managing of feelings but the managing of the expression of behaviour (Mann & Cowburn, 2005). During *Surface Acting* there is no attempt to feel or experience the displayed emotion, it is an inherent continued discrepancy between displayed and felt emotions, which may result in depression (Holman et al., 2002).

In contrast to *Surface Acting*, *Deep Acting* refers to an employee attempting to generate and express the desired emotions (Rafferty, 2005). The actor or employee tries to actually experience the emotions that he or she wishes to feel or display (Mann & Cowburn, 2005). *Deep Acting* is the attempt to change one’s inner feelings to feelings considered appropriate for the situation, so that these feelings are mirrored in facial expressions and outer behaviour (McQueen, 2003). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) define *Deep Acting* as a process of the controlling of internal thoughts and feelings for mandated rules to be met. Hochschild (1983, as cited in Zapf, 2002) further defines deep acting as an individual trying to melt into a role he or she is asked to display, which will require the regulation of expressive behaviour and inner feelings. The service worker therefore manipulates his/her feelings in order to fulfil his/her job demands (Fischbach, 2003).

Research has shown that people who engage in deep acting find jobs that demand high levels of *Emotion Work* more personally rewarding (Faking it, 2004).

Hochschild’s (1983) concepts of *Surface Acting*, active *Deep Acting*, and emotional effort make reference to the degree to which employees actively try to change their inner feelings, in order to match the feelings they are expected to express. She refers to the tension that occurs in matching these inner feelings with the feelings expressed as *Emotional Dissonance* (Hochschild, 1983, as cited in Fischbach, 2003). Grandey’s (2000) definition of *Emotional Dissonance* is the state of tension that occurs when one must display emotions that are discrepant from one’s true feelings. When an employee is required to express emotion or emotions that he or she does not genuinely

feel in a particular situation, it will result in *Emotional Dissonance*. Another way of describing *Emotional Dissonance* is as a form of person–role conflict: the person’s response in a specific situation is in conflict with role expectations. An employee may feel false and hypocritical if he or she is not able to feel what one is supposed to feel, and in the long run, this may lead to depression, alienation from one’s own emotions, as well as a poor self-esteem (Zapf, 2002). Portraying emotions that are not felt creates the stress or strain of *Emotional Dissonance*, where dissonance is a state of discomfort or tension (Mann, 2004). An important fact of *Emotional Dissonance* is that the employee’s true feelings do not concur with the desired emotion, which leads to *Emotion Work* (Mann & Cowburn, 2005), of which *Emotional Dissonance* forms one dimension (Grandey, 2000).

Emotional Dissonance has been associated with reduced *Well-being*, more specifically *Emotional Exhaustion*. For the employee to handle the dissonance, he or she may regulate their emotions through *Surface Acting* or *Deep acting* (Holman et al., 2002). According to Grandey (2002), there is thus a relationship between *Emotion Work* and *Well-being (Burnout and Engagement)*.

Burnout is typically evident in employees in the service industries. When an employee becomes overly emotionally involved in interactions with customers/clients and has few options for replenishing the emotional resources being spent, *Burnout* occurs. *Burnout* can be identified by *Emotional Exhaustion*, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment (Grandey, 2000). Mann (2004) defines *Burnout* as a syndrome of *Emotional Exhaustion* that occurs frequently among individuals who do service or people work. According to Grandey (2000), research supports the deduction that *Emotion Work* relates to *Burnout*. In several studies done to assess the relationship of *Emotion Work* and *Emotional Exhaustion* in employees, *Emotional Dissonance* has been related to *Emotional Exhaustion* (Grandey, 2000). According to Rafferty (2005), *Emotional Dissonance* is positively associated with *Emotional Exhaustion*, which may cause the employee to adopt a strategy of withdrawal behaviours. Research finds that *Emotional Exhaustion* and depersonalisation are significantly correlated with *Surface Acting*. Emotional strain stems largely from the effort required to hide one’s true feelings (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). In a recent study, it was found that *Surface Acting* was significantly associated with higher levels of *Emotional Exhaustion* (Mann, 2004).

Emotional Exhaustion is central to the concept of *Burnout*. It may be defined as individuals being emotionally drained and thus not being able to perform interpersonal interactions effectively as well as employees experiencing a loss of trust, a loss of interest, and a loss of spirit. The second component, depersonalisation, is when the employee becomes emotionally detached from customers/clients, intellectualising them as objects rather than people. The third component of *Burnout*, diminished personal accomplishment, is also described as depression, low morale, withdrawal, reduced productivity or capability, and an inability to cope (Mann, 2004).

According to Grandey (2000), *Emotional Exhaustion* or complete depletion and fatigue may be experienced by an employee when a situation provides repeated emotional events that the employee must regulate. Detaching from customers/clients, by objectifying or depersonalising them, helps the employee to cope with the feeling of depletion. Objectifying or depersonalising them may lead to feeling negatively about themselves and their work to the point where there is a diminished sense of personal accomplishment.

One of the first reactions to *Burnout* is withdrawal. Withdrawal can be physical, by not being present or by being physically present but mentally absent. Other withdrawal symptoms include spending as little time at work as possible, taking longer breaks, and distancing oneself as much as possible from work (Schwab, Jackson, & Schuler, 1986).

A further indication of *Burnout* in an employee is that the employee is no longer able to manage his/her emotions adequately when interacting with customers/clients, as well as evidence of psychosomatic complaints, such as irritation (Zapf, 2002). According to Zapf (2002), *Burnout* has negative implications for an organisation because it is related to decreased performance and there is evidence for *Burnout* contagion. *Burnout* is also related to negative consequences, such as job turnover, absenteeism, and low morale (Mann, 2004).

Burnout is described as a state of mind achieved as a result of stressful work. Employees feel Emotionally Exhausted and appear detached from others, which makes it difficult to care for people genuinely. The result of this is that they feel that they are not effective at work, thereby diminishing satisfaction derived from personal accomplishment, which will make it likely that employees will resign (Faking it, 2004).

Previous research assumed that the main cause of *Burnout* (and role overload) was the quantity of interactions with customers/clients in addition to *Surface Acting*. Predictors of *Burnout* have also been defined as expectations of long interactions with customers/clients and the level of intensity and variety of emotional expressions required (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Engagement is seen as the positive *Burnout*. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 294) describe *Engagement* as “energy, involvement and efficacy—these are the direct opposites of the three dimensions of *Burnout*”. *Burnout* in their view is an erosion of *Engagement* where energy turns into *Exhaustion*, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004, p. 295) further describe *Engagement* as “a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual or behaviour. *Engagement* is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption”.

They further define the characteristics of *Engagement* as:

- **vigor:** high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, willingness to invest effort in one’s work as well as persistence in the face of problems and difficult situations;
- **dedication:** a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration and cynicism; and
- **absorption:** fully concentrating and satisfied in one’s work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

According to Robinson, Perryman, and Hayday (2004) *Engagement* refers to the behaviours demonstrated by engaged employees, their belief in the organisation, the desire to work to make things better, an understanding of the business context, respect for colleagues, willingness to help colleagues, willingness to do more than required, and trying to keep up with the developments in the field.

Engagement is two-way: the organisation has to get the employee engaged and the employee has a choice of what level of *Engagement* he/she wants to offer the organisation (Robinson et al., 2004). The several key components that drive *Engagement* are employees being involved in decision making, employees being able to voice ideas and Managers listening to these views, opportunities to develop in their jobs, and the importance of the health and *Well-being* of employees to the company (Robinson et al., 2004).

It is now clear from the literature study that *Emotion Work* can have positive consequences (*Engagement*) and negative consequences (*Burnout*). However, according to Grandey (2000), certain individual and organisational factors must be taken into account, as possible influences on *Emotion Work* (see Figure 1). An individual difference that this research study focuses on is *Emotional Intelligence* and the organisational factor of *Social Support* (Grandey, 2000).

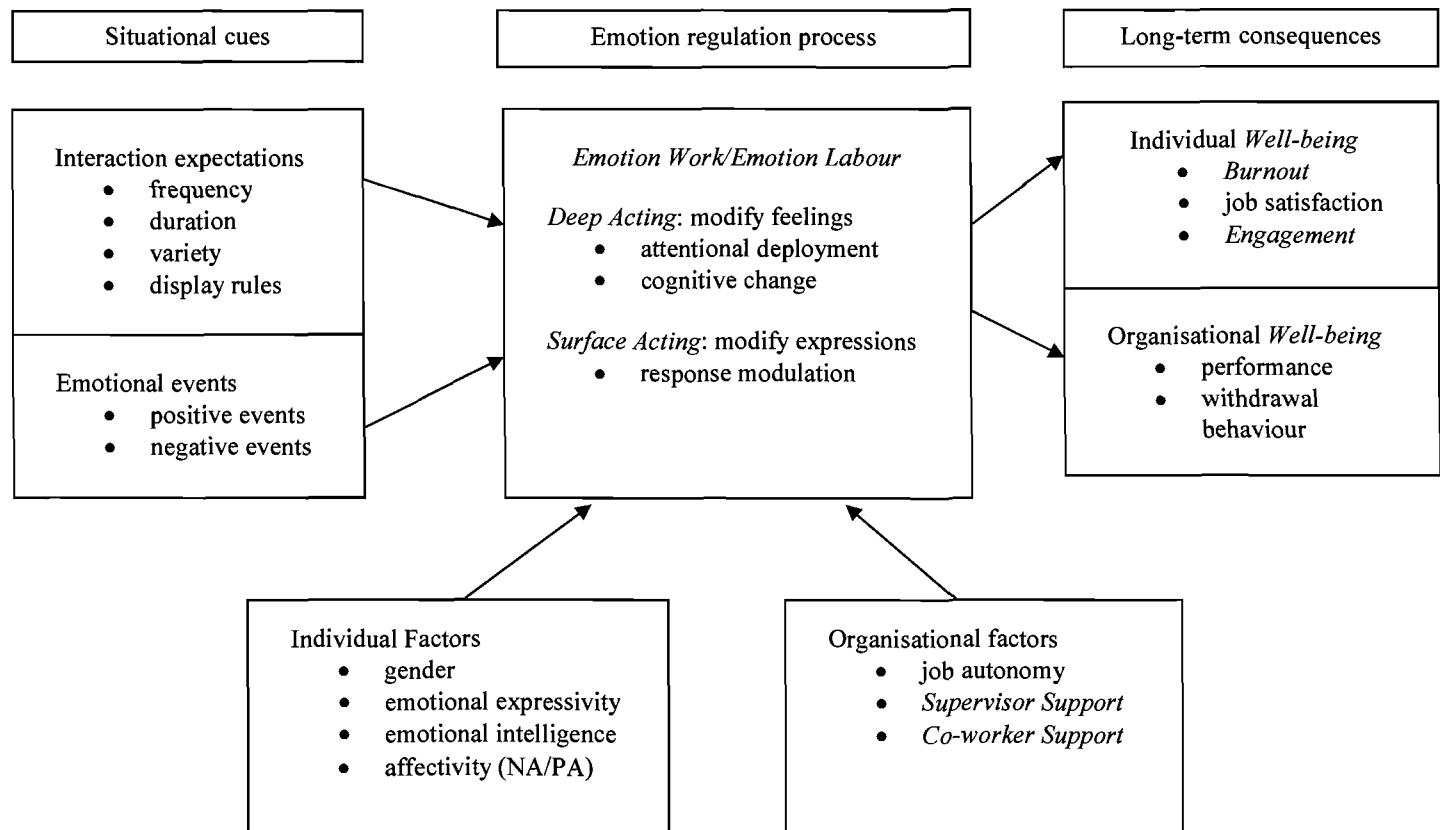


Figure 1: The conceptual framework of *Emotion Work* and *Wellness* performed in the work setting (Grandey, 2000).

Co-worker and *Supervisor Support* involve the interpersonal transfer of instrumental or emotional resources (House, 1981, as cited in Yoon and Shane, 2000). The term *Supervisor* is defined by Yoon and Shane (2000, p. 1) as a “person who oversees the employee’s daily work routine, whereas co-worker refers to a person who holds a position or rank similar to that of the employee in the organisation”. Research finds that the support of a co-worker and a Supervisor buffers the negative effects of job demands and feelings of *Emotional Exhaustion*. Co-workers are an effective source when an employee is emotional exhausted (Barrera, 2000, cited in Albar Martin,

& Garcia-Ramirez, 2005). Co-worker and supportive Supervisor relations are positively associated with psychological safety. Employees with rewarding interpersonal interactions with their co-workers should also experience greater satisfaction in their work. Interpersonal trust can be either affective or cognitive (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). Supportive rather than controlling Supervisor relations foster perceptions of safety as well as a supportive work environment. Concern for an employee's needs and feelings encourages the employee to voice their concerns and to solve work-related problems (May et al., 2004). Co-worker and Supervisor Support creates a positive environment in the organisation. The results of this support are job satisfaction, reduced stress, and lower turnover intention, as well as team performance (Grandey, 2000).

Emotional Intelligence is an indication of how an individual perceives, understands, and regulates emotions (Lam & Kirby, 2002). As Aristotle describes it “Anyone can become angry. But to be angry with the right person at the right time, for the right purpose, to the right degree and in the right way—that is not easy” (Goleman, 1996, p. 143). *Emotional Intelligence* consists of three distinct emotional reasoning abilities (Lam & Kirby, 2002):

- **perceiving emotions:** recognising and interpreting the meaning of various emotional states and the relations to other sensory experiences;
- **understanding:** comprehension of how basic emotions are blended to form complex emotions, and how they are affected by surrounding experiences; and
- **regulating emotions:** the control of emotions in the employee as well as in others.

Emotional Intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own emotions as well as others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions (Goleman, 1996).

People with high *Emotional Intelligence* tend to make other people feel good about themselves and are skilled at handling social encounters (Grandey, 2000).

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions can be formulated based on the above-mentioned discussion of the research problem:

- How are *Emotion Work* and the measurement of *Emotion Work* conceptualised in the literature?
- How valid and reliable are current measures of *Emotion Work*?
- Do demographical variables predict the experience of *Emotion Work* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry?
- What are the differences in the experience of *Emotion Work* constructs according to demographic variables for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry?
- How are *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being* conceptualised in the literature?
- How valid and reliable are current measures of *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being*?
- What is the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry?
- Do *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, and *Social Support* predict *Well-being*?

In order to answer the above research questions, the following research objectives are set.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives can be divided into general and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of this research is to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

Specific objectives are:

- to conceptualise *Emotion Work* and measurement through a literature study;
- to determine the validity and reliability of a measure of *Emotion Work* for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry;
- to determine if demographic variables predict the experience of *Emotion Work* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry;
- to determine if demographical groups differ in their experience of *Emotion Work*;
- to conceptualise *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being*, by conducting a literature review;
- to determine the validity and reliability of measures of *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry;
- to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry; and
- to determine if *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, and *Social Support* predict *Well-being* in the sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

1.4 PARADIGM OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

A specific paradigm that includes the intellectual climate and the market of intellectual resources directs the research study (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.4.1 Intellectual climate

The intellectual climate refers to the variety of metatheoretical values or beliefs held by those within a given stage (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Distinguishing characteristics of the intellectual climate of a certain discipline is that the beliefs tend to display the qualities of assumptions. The beliefs in the social science disciplines include the nature of social reality as well as the discipline beliefs relating to labour, society, and education, among others (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.4.2 Discipline

This research study falls within the boundaries of the behavioural sciences, and more specifically, **industrial psychology** and **organisational psychology**. “Industrial psychology became a legitimate, specialist field of psychology in 1910. Major contributions to its development reflected the pragmatism of functionalism with the focus on individual differences and measurement” (Bergh & Theron, 2005, p. 12).

Organisational psychology is the study of organisations, the elements and systems that organisations consists of, as well as the factors that have an influence on their functioning, especially the interaction between the individual and the organisation (Plug, Louw, Gouws, & Meyer, 1997).

A differentiation between the fields of organisational psychology and industrial psychology surfaced in the 1950’s and 1960’s. Organisational psychology focuses on units larger than individuals. The field of organisational psychology developed with the establishment of business and management schools (French, Bell, & Zawacki, 2005).

The research study examines factors, such as interaction expectations, emotional events, *Emotion Work*, individual *Well-being*, organisational *Well-being*, as well as organisational factors and individual factors. The research study therefore goes beyond the individual to a larger unit, the organisation. The sub-disciplines of industrial psychology that are focused on in this research study are personnel psychology and psychometrics. Applied fields of industrial psychology include (Bergh & Theron, 2005):

- **research methodology:** the application of scientific methods, including the testing and statistical evaluation of dates;
- **psychological assessment:** assessment of individual differences and similarities within or between people, as well as the studying of the principles and techniques for these assessments;
- **personnel psychology:** recruitment, selection, placement, training of employees, and the utilisation of personnel;

- **organisational psychology:** the field of the organisation as a system involving individuals and groups, the structure and the dynamics of the organisation;
- **career psychology:** career and organisational choice, career issues affecting individuals in their careers, as well as changes in the organisation affecting careers;
- **ergonomics:** understanding human performance in man–machine systems;
- **consumer psychology:** human behaviour regarding decision making and motivation in searching, purchasing, using, and evaluating products and services;
- **employee relations:** conflict management between employer and employee; and
- **employee and organisational *Well-being*:** concerned with psychological *Well-being* of employees.

The fields applicable to this research study are organisational *Well-being*, organisational psychology, personnel psychology, psychological assessment, and research methodology.

This research study examines *Emotion Work* and the *Well-being* of human-resource employees within the chrome industry.

1.4.3 Metatheoretical assumptions

Seven paradigms are relevant to this research study. Firstly, the literature review is conducted within the humanistic paradigm, ecosystemic approach, systems theory, and social ecological theory; and secondly the empirical study is conducted within the functionalistic, positivistic, and behaviouristic paradigms.

1.4.3.1 Literature review

According to Meyer, Moore, and Viljoen (2000), the humanist paradigm is a school of thought that emphasises psychic sanity. The following principles underlie humanism (Meyer et al., 2000, p. 373):

- **The individual is a worthy being**
The human being has specific qualities that distinguish him or her from lifeless objects as well as animals. Recognition should be given to the higher spiritual dimension whereby

these specific human qualities earn attention, for example, the will of the human being, creativity, values, humor, autonomy, growth, actualisation, and emotion.

- **Conscious processes of the individual** Humanism gives recognition to the role of conscious processes especially to the role of conscious decision-making processes.
- **The individual as an active being**
Humanism also gives recognition to the active participation of the individual in determining his/her behaviour, his/her inherent predispositions, as well as his/her creating abilities.
- **Emphasis on psychic sanity**
The psychic sane person should be the criteria against which one measures functioning and not the neurotic or psychotic person.
- **The individual as an integrated whole**
The individual functions as an integrated, unique, organised whole of gestalt (a whole which contains structure and equals more than the sum of its parts).

The ecosystemic approach is way to look at human functioning with the focus on systems (Meyer et al., 2000). According to the ecosystemic approach, people are seen as a sub-system within a hierarchy of bigger systems, for example, the family and community. Human beings, who also consist of certain systems, namely physiological, intra-personal, verbal, non-verbal, bodily, mental, and spiritual dimensions, retain the central position in this hierarchy (Meyer et al., 2000).

The system is synergetic, which means that the whole is more than the sum of its parts. The focus is on the interactions within and between the different systems, as well as on the patterns of the interactions. All the levels in the human ecosystem are in interaction with one another and the boundaries, which differentiate a system from other systems, are semi-permeable so that information can flow between the systems and the systems can influence each other (Meyer et al., 2000).

Bronfenbrenner (1979, p. 590) identifies four systems in the environment:

- **the micro-system:** a context in which the individual has immediate experience of and personal interaction in a direct way—people or objects with whom the individual interacts in a setting, as well as a complex set of interaction patterns within a setting, such as an employee's Supervisors or co-workers;

- **the meso-system:** setting that the individual will enter at a later stage, a linkage between the micro-systems, for example, young people moving out of their houses, to start their own lives, or an employee being promoted to another business unit;
- **the exo-system:** interconnections between the micro- and meso-systems, those systems with which the individual has no direct contact with, such as individuals on different job gradings in an organisation; and
- **the macro-system:** the wider system, such as economical trends.

The General Systems Theory (first order cybernetics) moved away from reductionism to a holistic view (Meyer et al., 2000). The researcher sees happenings in a situation in an objective way and is also seen as an outsider in his/her research. The eco-systemic approach (second order cybernetics) can be described as every individual having his/her own experiences of the world and reacting accordingly, the situation is therefore coloured by the individual's behaviour and perceptions. In this approach, the researcher cannot be objective (Meyer et al., 2000).

Hanson's (1995) definition of a system is any two or more systems or parts that are related, where a change in one part affects all parts. The system is also an organised whole that consists of sub-systems that are interdependent and form a whole (Duffy & Wong, 1996). The basic concepts of the systems theory are (Meyer et al., 2000, p. 583):

- reality is complex and systems underlie the processes, behaviour, and issues in the community;
- a system is a whole with patterns that do not exist when the parts are separate; and
- the context has to be taken into account, to understand the behaviour of an individual; the context adds meaning.

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), one can identify an open or a closed system. An open system can be described as a system in which the boundaries are permeable; the system interacts with the environment in exchanging information and energy. In a closed system, the boundaries are impermeable.

The ecosystemic theory, social ecological theory, and systems theory are applicable to this research study. An organisation (open system) has a significant impact on the emotional *Well-*

being of an individual (open system) through the organisation's display rules. The individual again has an impact on the organisation through his/her behaviour towards customers/clients, as well as towards colleagues in the form of deep acting and surface acting. A change in the organisation automatically has an influence on the individual and vice versa.

1.4.3.2 Empirical study

The functionalistic paradigm, the positivistic paradigm, and the behaviouristic paradigm frame the empirical study.

The functionalistic paradigm emphasises the function of the mind rather than the structure of it. Functionalism developed as a reaction to structuralism. The focus was on the brain because it is essential to the individual's adaptation to the environment, according particular significance to the role emotions play in social adaptation and not to the structure of emotions (Bergh & Theron, 2005). "Functionalism is based on an eclectic viewpoint focusing on the way humans adapt to their environment" (Benjafield, 1996, p. 121). This perspective is built on the emphasis of the application of scientific methodology to the objective social world. According to McClelland (2000, p. 1):

- "one can study the social world the same way as one studies the physical world"—this is the analogy between the individual and society"; and
- "the functionalist speculates about needs which must be met for a social system to exist and the ways in which social institutions satisfy those needs."

The social world is seen as 'objectively real', and is observable through techniques, such as social surveys and interviews. The functionalist will argue that every society will have, for example, a religion because of the fact that religious institutions have certain functions that contribute to the survival of the social system as a whole: "The analogy between society and an organism focuses attention on the homeostatic nature of social systems: social systems work to maintain equilibrium and to return to it after external shocks disturb the balance among social institutions. Such equilibrium is achieved, most importantly, through the socialisation of members of society into the basic values and norms of that society, so that consensus is reached (McClelland, 2000, p. 1).

The analyses of functionalism often focus on the individual, to show how individual behaviour is molded by broader social forces. According to critics, functionalist theorists treat individuals as puppets whose decisions are predictable because of their location in the social structure and the norms and expectations they have internalised (McClelland, 2000).

Positivism in turn is closely related to reductionism. “Reductionism and Positivism involve the view that “entities of one kind are reducible to entities of another such as society as numbers and mental events as chemical events and even that ‘social processes are reducible to relationships between individuals and actions of individuals’, or that ‘biological organisms are reducible to physical systems’” (Hjorland & Nicolaisen, 2005, p. 1). Positivism is also closely related to behaviourism. According to positivism and behaviourism, all psychological phenomena must be studied by observing the behaviour of organisms (Hjorland & Nicolaisen, 2005).

Behaviourism can be described in the following terms (Meyer et al., 2000):

- **The study object: observable behaviour**

According to the positivism and behaviourism, one can only study observable matters. Unobservable matters, such as thoughts, feelings, and values, are seen as unapproachable. Observable behaviour is therefore the only study of psychology. According to them, psychology is the science of behaviour.

- **The method: objective observation**

The only reliable method of collecting information is objective, sensory observation. This implies that behaviourists view results of rational thoughts only as theory, when one can verify the information through empirical observation, the results can be viewed as knowledge.

- **Theoretical interpretation: elementism and reductionism**

Behaviourists analyse a phenomenon until they discover the smallest, simplest building blocks, the basic elements. They convert behaviour to a biological level and in this way try to explain behaviour in a reductionist way.

- **The purpose: prediction and control**

According to behaviourism, behaviour cannot completely be predicted and controlled. The main assumptions underlying behaviouristic theories are that behaviourists focus on

observable behaviour. Human behaviour is controlled and formed by situational and environmental influences. Individuals are conditioned to react in certain ways to various types of environmental stimuli. Personality is learned by response, and habits and people help in shaping their personality by applying self-reinforcement, and regulating and controlling their environment. According to behaviourists, unconscious cognition indicates that thinking happens at a level of unawareness and stimuli does not have to be on an awareness level to learn but might be below the level of awareness (Bergh & Theron, 2005).

All three paradigms are applicable to this research study. The research study examines the limits imposed by society through display rules or self-created rules as well as the predictability of an individual's behaviour through *Surface* and *Deep Acting*. The research study also examines how human behaviour is controlled and formed by situational and environmental influences, how individuals are conditioned to react in certain ways to various types of environmental stimuli.

1.4.4 Market of intellectual resources

According to Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 21) the “market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs which has a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statements for example their status of knowledge.”

1.4.4.1 Theoretical beliefs

Theoretical beliefs can be described as testable statements about social phenomena (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

A. Conceptual definitions

The relevant conceptual definitions from the literature study are given below:

Emotion Work refers to the quality of interactions between customers/clients and co-workers. Employees are required to express the appropriate emotions as a job requirement during face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions (Zapf, 2002). *Emotion Work* is also defined by Zapf (2002) as the psychological processes necessary for regulating organisationally-desired emotions. The acts of emotion display are regulated by intra-psychological processes (Ashforth & Humphrey (1993,

as cited in Zapf, 2002). Hochschild (1983) defines *Emotion Work* as the induction or suppression of feeling, in order to give an outer appearance that results in others feeling safe and cared for.

Surface Acting refers to the manipulation of emotional expression only, to fulfil job demands (Fischbach, 2003). Smith (1999, as cited in Poynter, 2002) defines the 'inner dissonance' (conflict between personal feelings and those publicly expressed at work) that is created by employees pretending to feel what they do not as *Surface Acting*.

According to McQueen (2003, p. 104) "*Deep Acting* requires a change of inner feelings to those considered appropriate for the situation, so that these feelings are mirrored in facial expressions and outer behaviour." Hochschild's (1983) definition of *Deep Acting* is when an individual tries to melt into a role he or she is asked to display, which will require the regulation of expressive behaviour and inner feelings (Zapf, 2002).

Fischbach (2003, p. 30) makes the following statement: "*Emotional Dissonance* refers to Hochschild's (1983) concepts of *Surface Acting* and active *Deep Acting*; and emotional effort refers the degree to which employees actively try to change their inner feelings in order to match the feelings they are expected to express." Another way to describe *Emotional Dissonance* is as a form of person–role conflict, where the employee's response in a specific situation is in conflict with role expectations (Fischbach, 2003).

According to Grandey (2002), the *Well-being* associated with *Emotion Work* consists of three dimensions: *Burnout*, *Engagement*, and job satisfaction. *Burnout* can be described as a stress outcome typically evident in employees in the service industries. This stress outcome occurs when an employee becomes overly emotionally involved in interactions with customers/clients and has few options for replenishing the emotional resources being spent (Grandey, 2000). Mann's (2004, p. 205) defines it as as "a syndrome of *Emotional Exhaustion* that occurs frequently among individuals who do people-work."

Engagement is seen as the positive of *Burnout*. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) describe *Engagement* as compose of three aspects, energy, involvement, and efficacy, which are the direct opposites of the three dimensions of *Burnout*.

Grandey, Fisk, and Steiner (2004, p. 1) defines job autonomy as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out”.

The interpersonal transfer of instrumental or emotional resources is defined by House (1981, as cited in Yoon & Shane, 2000) as *Supervisor* and *Co-worker Support*. A Supervisor is a person who oversees an employee’s daily work routine, whereas a co-worker is a person who holds a position or grade similar to that of the employee in the organisation (Yoon & Shane, 2000).

Lam and Kirby (2002) define *Emotional Intelligence* as an indication of how an individual perceives, understands, and regulates emotions; this adds to Goleman’s (1996) definition of *Emotional Intelligence* as a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own emotions as well as others’ emotions, to discriminate among these emotions, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions.

B. Models and theories

A model is aimed at the content of the way in which a researcher studies or views his/her material (De Vos, 2000).

The model used in this research study is the model of Grandey (2000), the conceptual framework of *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* performed in the work setting. This model has not been researched on human-resource employees in the chrome industry, which makes up the research population in this study. The model includes individual differences (such as *Emotional Intelligence* and gender) as well as organisational factors (such as *Supervisory Support* and *Co-worker Support*) and is developed through the process of re-organising and integrating previous models of *Emotion Work* (Grandey, 2000).

The theories that form the basis to this research study are the Emotional Labour Theory and the Action Theory of Frese and Zapf (1994) and Hacker (1998). The Emotional Labour Theory is based on the perspective that the customer or client is the audience, the employee is the actor, and the work environment is the stage (Goffman, 1959). The Action Theory is based on a task-oriented view of human behaviours. The main purpose of the theory is to describe how a person

completes a task. The theory provides a framework for the concepts of *Emotion Work* (Zapf, 2002).

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

A cross-sectional survey design is used to reach the objectives of this research study. Cross-sectional designs are used for simultaneously examining groups of subjects at various stages, while the survey describes a data collection technique in which questionnaires are used to gather data about the identified population (Burns & Grove, 1993). This design is well suited for the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research, whereby relationships between variables are examined (Shaughnessy & Zachmeister, 1997).

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The methodology of this research study, pertaining to the specific objectives, consists of two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study. The results are presented in the form of two research articles.

1.6.1 Phase I: Literature review

In phase 1, a complete literature review regarding the following is done:

- definitions on service workers, *Emotion Work* or *Emotional Labour*, *Surface Acting*, *Deep Acting*, *Emotional Dissonance*, *Well-being*, *Burnout*, *Engagement*, job autonomy, emotion regulation, *Co-worker Support*, *Supervisor Support*, and *Emotional Intelligence*;
- previous research conducted on the above-mentioned constructs;
- research conducted on the relationships between the different constructs; and
- Grandey's (2000, p. 101) proposed conceptual framework of emotion regulation performed in the work setting.

1.6.2 Phase II: Empirical study

Phase II consists of the following steps in the form of descriptive and explorative research.

1.6.2.1 Step 1: Choice of research design

The research study is a quantitative study, the aim of which is to determine the relationship between different constructs in a population (Hopkins, 2000). A cross-sectional survey design is used, more specifically a non-experimental research design. The individuals were measured by the measuring instruments, which measure all the relevant constructs as well as the relationships between the different constructs. There was no planned intervention in this research study.

1.6.2.2 Step 2: Choice of study population

The study population is composed of 236 human-resource employees in the chrome industry, thus $n = 236$. An availability sample was used.

1.6.2.3 Step 3: Measuring battery

The measuring battery consists of questionnaires with which the emotional regulation process was tested and which includes measures of *Emotion Work*, *Well-being*, individual (*Emotional Intelligence*), and organisational factors (*Social Support*).

Emotional Intelligence

The Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale (GEIS; Tsaousis, 2007) measures the following four basic emotional skills:

- **expression and recognition of emotions:** relates to the ability of the individual to express and recognise their own emotional reactions accurately;
- **control of emotions:** relates to the ability of the individual to control and regulate emotions in themselves and others;
- **use of emotions to facilitate thinking:** relates to the ability of the individual to harness their own emotions, in order to solve problems through optimism and self-assurance, two emotional states that facilitate inductive reasoning and creativity; and
- **caring and empathy:** relates to the willingness of the individual to help other people, and his/her ability to comprehend another's feelings, and to re-experience them.

The questionnaire consists of fifty-three items and demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties, which justifies it as a reliable and valid measure of *Emotional Intelligence* (Tsaousis, 2007). A four-factor solution was suggested by the factor analytic data. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four factors range between 0,80 and 0,90. All the scales demonstrated a high internal consistency, indicating that they are homogenous in their measurements. According to Tsaousis (2007), data from five different studies provide support for good convergent and discriminant validity for the scales, suggesting that the measuring instrument covers a broad range of related emotional constructs, such as positive correlation with empathy, social skills, emotions expressiveness, and *Well-being*, as well as a negative correlations with locus of control, negative affect, low physical and psychological *Well-being*, and work stress. The mentioned findings therefore explain why this measuring instrument is used in this research study.

Well-being

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002) is used to measure the levels of work *Engagement* of the participants. The UWES has three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption, which are conceptually considered the opposite of *Burnout* and scored on a seven-point, frequency-rating scale, varying from 0 ('never') to 6 ('every day'). The questionnaire consists of seventeen questions. The alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales varied between 0,80 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient can be improved (α varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three sub-scales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scales internal consistency. Storm and Rothmann (2003) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2396 members of the South African Police Service: vigour, 0,78; dedication, 0,89; and absorption, 0,78. Coetzer (2004) obtained, from a sample of employees in an insurance company, the following alpha coefficients: vigour, 0,80; dedication, 0,87; and absorption, 0,69. The short version of the UWES—Afrikaans and English forms—is used in this research study.

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OBLI, the English version) is used to measure *Burnout*. Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2002) have developed and offer initial construct validity evidence for the OBLI. The OBLI is based on a model similar to that of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, however, it features two scales: *Exhaustion* and disengagement. The most

recent version of the OBLI features questions that have balanced positive and negative wording (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). The OBLI also features questions designed to assess cognitive and physical components of *Exhaustion* (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Internal consistency of the OBLI is acceptable, with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from 0,74 to 0,87, with scores all above 0,70. Test-re-test reliability showed significant correlations between time 1 to 2. Factorial validity indicated a two-factor model (disengagement and *Exhaustion*).

Emotion Work

The Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999) is based on the existing literature on *Emotion Work*, Action Theory, and emotional regulation requirements. The sub-scales include the requirement to express positive emotions, the requirements to express and handle negative emotions, the requirement to be sensitive to clients' emotions, and the requirement to show sympathy, emotional regulation possibilities (control), and emotional regulation problems (*Emotional Dissonance*) were differentiated in this questionnaire. Scales showed satisfactory reliabilities. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses revealed minor problems with the discriminant validity of the scales within samples of a handicapped children's home ($n = 83$), in the hotel business ($n = 175$), and employees working in call centres ($n = 250$). Construct validation showed that emotion work scales were both positively and negatively correlated with psychological health (Zapf et al.). The following subscales of the FEWS were used to measure *Emotion Work*: *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive Emotions*, the *Display of Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative Emotions*, and the *Display of Unpleasant Emotions*.

Organisational factors

The Social Support Scale is used to measure the construct, *Social Support*, with a ten-item questionnaire based on the work of Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975), which examined the relation between job demands and the *Well-being* of workers. Their findings suggest that *Social Support* appears to be of major importance to the psychological safety and *Well-being* of employees. The items in the questionnaire cover the extent to which people around the employee provide support by being good listeners and being reliable when the employee needs help. The scoring is based on a five-point scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly

agree). The questionnaire is divided into three categories namely, *Social Support Family*, *Social Support Supervisor*, and *Social Support Co-worker*. Validity and reliability were established in this research study.

1.6.2.4 Step 4: Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS (Muijs, 2004). The programme was used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability, validity, construct equivalence and predictive bias of the measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, t-tests, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients, canonical analysis and moderated multiple regression analysis.

Prior to principal factor extractions, principal component analysis was done, to estimate the number of factors, the presence of outliers and the factorability of the correlation matrices. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) are used to describe the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations are used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity, and uni-dimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995).

In terms of statistical significance, the value was set at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to decide on the practical significance of the findings. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship between the variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect) is set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988).

A multiple regression analysis was done to determine the percentage variance. A correlation can be better understood by determining R^2 (Cohen, 1988). The square of the correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of variance in any two variables that is predicted by the variance in the other.

1.7 Chapter Outline

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and objectives.

Chapter 2: Article 1: The psychometric properties of a measure of *Emotion Work*

Chapter 3: Article 2: The relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being* of human-resource employees within the chrome industry

Chapter 4: Conclusions and recommendations.

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CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE 1

THE PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF A MEASURE OF EMOTION WORK

ABSTRACT

The objective of the research study was to investigate the psychometric properties and soundness of the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS), as well as to find alternative measurements for *Emotion Work* and to investigate the reliability and validity of these measurements in a literature study. A cross-sectional survey design was used for this research study. A sample ($n = 236$) was taken from human-resource employees in the chrome industry. The results supported a four-factor structure of the FEWS, namely *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. The age group 42 to 51 experienced lower levels of *Emotion Work* due to the experiencing of *Emotional Dissonance*, than participants in age groups 21 to 31, 32 to 41, and 52 to 66. Participants in the African ethnic groups experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in the White ethnic group. Female participants experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy*. Male participants experienced higher levels of the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* than female participants.

OPSOMMING

Die doelstelling van die studie was om die psigometriese eienskappe en betroubaarheid van die Frankfurt-Emosionele-Werk-Skaal (FEWS) te ondersoek asook om alternatiewe meetinstrumente vir *Emosie-werk (Emosionele Arbeid)* te vind asook om die betroubaarheid en geldigheid van hierdie meetinstrumente te ondersoek in 'n literatuurstudie. 'n Dwarsnee-opname ontwerp met 'n beskikbaarheidsteekproef ($n = 236$) van mense hulpbron werknemers in die chroom industrie is gebruik. Die resultate ondersteun 'n vierfaktor-struktuur van *Emosie-werk* naamlik *Emosionele Dissonansie*, die *Vertoon van Positiewe/Aangename Emosies*, *Vertoon van Empatie* en die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies*. Die ouderdomsgroep 42–51 het laer vlakke van *Emosionele Dissonansie* ervaar as deelnemers in die ouderdomsgroepe 21-31, 32-41, 52-66. Deelnemers in die Afrika etniese groepe het laer vlakke van *Emosionele Dissonansie* ervaar as deelnemers in die Wit etniese groep. Vroulike deelnemers het hoër vlakke van *Emosionele Dissonansie*, *Positiewe/Aangename Emosies* en *Empatie* ervaar. Manlike deelnemers het hoër vlakke van die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies* ervaar as vroulike deelnemers.

INTRODUCTION

The recent growing interest in the role that emotions play in the workplace, led the focus of emotion research to *Emotion Work* and emotion management. These concepts were put forward by Hochschild (1983) where she indicates the crucial part of service work roles for which the quality of interactions between employees and clients is necessary. Studies in the field of *Emotion Work* focus on service working roles, such as the studies by Joubert (2008) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993).

Employees in these roles have to regulate inappropriate emotions in their daily face-to-face interaction with clients, in order to comply with emotional standards that are congruent with their job requirement (Zammuner & Galli, 2005). Although the focus is on occupations in the service sector of the economy, especially those involving contact with the public or customers/clients, research indicates that a diversity of occupations require *Emotion Work* (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugliesi & Shook, 1997, as cited in Pugliesi, 1999, p. 129). This is reflected in the variation in the nature of *Emotion Work* performed by employees (Pugliesi, 1999). The importance of research in *Emotion Work* is that there is an increasing number of employees that move into the service sector, such as call centres and catering (Briner, 1999; Porter, 2002; Davies, 1995). There has also been a sharp rise in jobs requiring *Emotion Work* (direct and final face-to-face interaction) with the final customer/client, this is because of growing recognition in the manufacturing sector of the importance of a service orientation (Bowen, Siehl & Schneider, 1989; Nusbaumer, 1987).

Despite the rise in jobs requiring *Emotion Work*, research on *Emotion Work* has been neglected. This is surprising, as *Emotion Work* is a very important aspect in many occupations (Heuven & Bakker, 2003). The increasing focus on *Emotion Work* started in the late 1980's with Hochschild's (1983) study on cabin attendants. The question thus arises as to why organisational psychologists have ignored emotions in the past. Possible reasons for this might be that the workplace is viewed as a rational, logical, and non-emotional environment where the main purpose is the efficient completion of work tasks. Emotions are therefore not seen as relevant in the workplace. Another reason might be the perception that organisational psychologists already study emotions and affective experiences at work. The third reason might be that organisational

psychologists ignore the studying of emotions because it is more difficult to study than phenomena such as attitude (Briner, 1999).

Most of the research done on *Emotion Work* focuses on understanding its effects on people and organisations. The findings suggest that *Emotion Work* is beneficial to organisations in that it is through *Emotion Work* that employees meet their job requirements. The findings also suggest that *Emotion Work* may be harmful to employees, because of increased monitoring requirements, *Burnout*, and dissatisfaction (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

It is important for the reader to note that even though a number of terms describe *Emotion Work*, for the purpose of this research study, the term *Emotion Work* is used. This is because the term *Emotional Labour* focuses more on societal and economic aspects, whereas *Emotion Work* focuses on psychological processes. Work instead of labour is used in work and organisational psychology to refer to cognitive or motivational aspects of work, which is therefore more compatible with this research study (Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holtz, 2001).

Emotion Work is a component of a dynamic relationship between two people: the worker and the customer or client, and the worker and the worker (Newman, Guy, & Mastracci, 2007). There are several views on what *Emotion Work* exactly is. Hochschild's (1983, as cited in Theodosius, 2006, p. 896) definition of *Emotion Work* is:

Emotional Labour requires one to induce or suppress feelings in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others.... This kind of labour calls for the coordination of mind and feeling, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that we honour as deep and integral to our individuality ... *Emotional Labour* ... is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value.

This definition of *Emotion Work* refers to various efforts to manage emotional states and displays, it also involves active strategies to modify, create, or alter the expression of emotions in the course of ongoing relationships and interactions (Pugliesi, 1999). That *Emotion Work* involves both the emotion of the employee doing work and the emotions of others to whom these emotions are addressed is emphasised by Hochschild (1983, as cited in Steinberg & Figart, 1999). An array of definitions can be found on what *Emotion Work* is, but the underlying assumption is

the regulation process of both feelings and expressions in accordance with occupational or organisational display rules, to achieve organisational goals (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, as cited in Rafferty (2005). As Morris and Feldman (1996, p. 987) define *Emotion Work* as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organisationally-desired emotion during interpersonal transactions”. Hochschild’s (1983) definition of *Emotion Work* refers to the projection of emotions that is needed to gain the cooperation of customers/clients or co-workers, as well as the ability to see another’s side of the issue, and integrate that perspective into what the organisation does (Meier, Mastracci, & Wilson, 2006). The emphasis of *Emotion Work* is the relational rather than the task-based aspect of work that is primarily found in the service economy. It is skilled, effort-intensive, and productive work as well as labour-intensive work. Value, productivity, and profit are created, affected, and generated by *Emotion Work* (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). It is a form of social engineering in which the organisation prescribes ‘feeling rules’. Organisations deploy and manage emotions for their own purposes, in this process feelings come to belong more to the organisation instead of the individual; service workers are therefore estranged from their own feelings in much the way production workers are estranged from their own labour (Lopez, 2006). *Emotion Work* is defined in a different way by Zapf et al. (2001). Their definition of *Emotion Work* is the quality of interactions between employees and clients or customers.

James (1989, as cited in Steinberg & Figart, 1999, p. 11) defines *Emotion Work* as “the labour involved in dealing with other people’s feelings, a core component of which is the regulation of emotions”. The purpose of *Emotion Work* is thus to make customers/clients feel good or feel bad (Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993, as cited in Zapf et al., 2001) *Emotion Work* refers to the displaying of appropriate emotion that focuses on the display of emotions and less on the inner feelings. Zapf (2002) defines *Emotion Work* as the psychological processes necessary for regulating organisationally-desired emotions.

Emotions are an integral part of *Emotion Work*. It is therefore important to know how this concept is defined. Determining a definition of emotion is extremely hard. In earlier years, emotions were defined in contrast to moods. This is because they are fickle, intense, and in response to a certain event. There are numerous definitions of emotions. Cognition (such as

appraisal or evaluation), internal reaction (such as heart rate), overt behaviour (such as approach or avoidance), facial expression (such as frown or smile), and goal structure (such as loss or anger) are components that many definitions contain in varying amounts. The relevant components in the work context are overt behaviours, facial expressions, and goal structures (Briner, 1999). “Goleman sums it up by saying that an emotion refers to a feeling and its distinctive thoughts, physiological and biological states and a range propensities to act” (Mann, 1999, p. 353).

Measurements of Emotion Work

Selling more products, dealing with customer or clients complaints adequately, and ensuring the smooth running of communicative interactions are all positive outcomes thought to be associated with performance of *Emotion Work*. According to Hochschild (1983, as cited in Mann, 1999), *Emotion Work* is potentially good; however, it might have negative outcomes for the employer and employee. Parkinson (1991) points out that keeping a customer or client happy does not necessarily imply that the employee himself or herself is happy. The difficulty in defining *Emotion Work* makes the measurement thereof especially problematic (Mann, 1999). A concept cannot be measured without knowing what the term comprises and what it entails.

The accurate means of measuring *Emotion Work* would offer a number of benefits. Firstly, it would enable direct exploration of relationships of *Emotion Work* performance with other variables, such as stress, *Burnout*, absenteeism, and performance (Wharton, 1993). Researchers, such as Wharton (1993), who maintains that more attention should be devoted to the measurement of *Emotion Work*, have called for such a measure. Morris and Feldman (1996) in turn suggest that researchers focus on validating and developing measures of the components of *Emotion Work*. Researchers would be able to use the measures to ascertain levels of associated costs or benefits of *Emotion Work* performance within organisations.

Secondly, Emotion Work in different professions, types of communication, organisations, industries, and media can be compared. This increased awareness of this possible source of stress will contribute to best practice or benchmarking.

Thirdly, if the measured *Emotion Work* is found to be related to consequences, such as *Burnout*, the scale would enable employees to monitor their own *Emotion Work* levels throughout a working day, helping them to reduce possible sources of stress. Employers can also introduce intervention strategies to reduce *Emotion Work* performance. Self-monitoring may alleviate the harmful effects of *Emotional Dissonance*. If the measured *Emotion Work* is shown to be related to various consequences, intervention strategies that may be introduced to reduce *Emotion Work* performance can be evaluated (Mann, 1999).

More specifically with the change in the diverse, demographic structure of the South African workforce, it is of utmost importance to develop a measurement that is not biased in any way and is in accordance with the South African Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1988 (www.labour.gov.za). Such an attempt was made by Steinberg and Figart (1999, as cited in De Wet, 2006), when they developed a measure instrument which aimed at gender neutrality (ruling out the pre-assumption that roles involving women generally involve higher levels of *Emotion Work* than those of men).

The South African workforce mirrors the diversity of the South African population as a whole. It is therefore of utmost importance to take the experiences of *Emotion Work* levels of the different demographic groups into account, in measuring of *Emotion Work*. The primary dimensions of diversity are human differences, namely age, ethnicity, gender, race, physical abilities or qualities, and sexual or affectional orientation, which are inborn and exert a major impact on people (Grobler, Wärich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2002).

Pertaining to gender, the majority of service jobs are performed by women (Hochschild, 1983). In a study by Kruml and Geddes (2000), a relationship between gender and *Emotional Dissonance* was found. Women were more likely to report feeling differently (discrepancy) to what they expressed (the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy*). Wharton and Erickson (1995), also discuss women being more likely to manage emotions at work as well as at home.

In a study by Freund (1990), the results indicated that social groups that are characterised or perceived to be less powerful in hierarchical systems affect the likelihood of being invalidated, of feeling instrumentally powerless (that is, being unable to reach one's goals), of feeling insecure,

		job <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The degree to which the respondent or respondents would actually display prescribed emotions
Emotional Labour Scale	Kruml and Geddes (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotive effort • Emotive dissonance
D-QEL —Dutch Questionnaire on Emotional Labor	Briët, Näring, Brouwers, and Van Doffelaar (2005)	Unclear
EWRS —Emotional Work Requirement Scale	Best, Downey, and Jones (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional suppression • Emotional support and control
FEWS —Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales	Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, and Isic (1999)	Emotional regulation requirements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive emotions • Negative emotions • Sensitivity requirements • Showing empathy; • <i>Emotional Dissonance</i>
Unclear	Schaubroeck and Jones (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demands for positive efference • Suppression of negative efference
Job Content Questionnaire	Steinberg and Figart (1999)	Job content factors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication skills • Human relations skills • Emotional demands
Unclear	Steinberg and Figart (1999)	Unclear

Note: Information in this table is necessarily succinct and readers are encouraged to consult the original sources for specific details. Entries designated 'unclear' do not necessarily indicate conflicting evidence, as they may also refer to lack of adequate data.

Emotional Labour Scale

The ELS is a fifteen-item, self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire measures six facets of emotional display in the workplace, including the frequency, intensity, and variety of emotional display the duration of interaction and *Surface* and *Deep Acting*. Estimates of internal consistency

for the sub-scales ranged from 0,74 to 0,91. Confirmatory factor analysis results provided support for the existence of six uni-dimensional sub-scales (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

Development of the Emotional Labour Scale

Two studies are reported in the development of the ELS. A pool of forty items for the ELS was generated. Existing theory and empirical research served as the basis for generating this pool (see for example Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996, 1997). The overall aim was to construct the ELS so that the items were simple (reflecting a single construct) and relatively neutral in wording, and it was fairly brief, reducing the potential respondent burden.

Study 1 examined the factor structure and internal consistency reliabilities of the ELS, using measurements procedures and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data obtained from working university students. The researchers used the EFA to determine how distinct the dimensions were from each other. The researchers wanted to show that the respondents distinguished among the six aspects of the ELS.

In Study 2, the researchers tried to validate the multidimensional factor structure found in Study 1 using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data obtained from a sample of full-time workers. They also sought to estimate the discriminant and convergent validities of the ELS. They have included the EWRS (Best, Downey, & Jones, 1998) to assess convergent validity, as it measures emotional suppression and emotional support and control.

A convenience sample of business students at a university located on the Canadian prairies ($n = 49$) was used to pre-test the ELS. The students had to refer to their current job or previous jobs when completing the questionnaire (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). A five-point Likert scale with the following anchors were employed: never (1), rarely (2), sometimes (3), often (4), and always (5), and the response stem: 'On average day at work, how frequently do you...'. "Based on an analysis of the results of this pre-test, several items were eliminated, given item complexity, low levels of variance, and high levels of skewedness and kurtosis" (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003, p. 369).

The studies provided evidence of the reliability and convergent and discriminant validity of the ELS. The sub-scales also demonstrated an adequate degree of internal consistency as indicated by Cronbach's α .

In Study 2, CFA indicated that items loaded only onto their respective latent variables, which demonstrates their uni-dimensionality. Respondents were able to distinguish between the various roles characteristics (that is, variety, intensity, duration, and frequency of emotional display).

Low to moderate correlations between the ELS sub-scales and other scales demonstrated its relationships with associated scales and its ability to be adequately distinguished from other scales (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

Emotional Labour Inventory

The ELI was developed by Mann (1999). In developing the measure, the first step was to involve a new conceptualisation of *Emotion Work*, in order to measure the appropriate dimensions. *Emotion Work* is defined in Mann (1999, p. 353) as: "the state that exists when there is a discrepancy between the emotional demeanour that an individual displays because it is considered appropriate, and the emotions that are genuinely felt but that would be inappropriate to display".

The definition encompasses a number of elements:

- for *Emotion Work* to exist, there has to be internal *Emotional Dissonance*;
- feeling dissonant must also be accompanied by a behavioural emotional display; and
- "“appropriate” displays may be so because of either explicit or subtle display rules or simply because of one informal protocol or internal expectation of the labourer" (Mann, 1999, p. 354).

The definition encompasses internal and external states. There is no mention of perceived effort in the definition, it is conceptualised that the *Emotion Work* is the effort.

The dimensions on which the measure is based are:

- expectations or rules about emotional display—the external component of *Emotion Work*;

- emotional suppression—the internal component; and
- emotional faking—the internal component.

A self-report questionnaire approach was used to establish a measure of *Emotion Work*. Unstructured interviews were carried out, to identify issues within each dimension that was worth exploring. The issues led directly to the creation of questions. The questions are in the form of Likert scales, there is a stem statement followed by a scale of 1 to 8 anchors, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ at one end to ‘do not agree at all’ at the other. Scores of 1 to 7 indicate some agreement with the stem statement, while scores 1 of 4 indicate high agreement (Mann, 1999).

The instrument consists of seventeen items, six contributing to the first dimension, the expectation or rules of *Emotion Work*, six to the second dimension, emotional suppression, and five to the third dimension, emotional faking (Mann, 1999).

There is also a question included concerning the expression of emotion *per se*. The extent and variety of emotions expressed would add value to this study in terms of being able to distinguish between how much of expressed emotions was genuine and what kind of emotions were expressed. A question asking whether emotion was expressed was followed by a list of possible emotions. The final list contained sixteen words: enthusiasm, interest, dismay, hurt, boredom, anger, sadness, anxiety, sympathy, shame, happiness, pride, admiration, intimidation, disappointment, and embarrassment (Mann, 1999).

Although the ELI is still in its early stages of development, it has been able to quantify for the first time, the degree to which emotions are expressed, hidden, and faked in the workplace.

Adelmann’s Emotional Labor Scale

In several studies by Abraham (1998, 1999, 2000), the ELS by Adelmann (1989) was used to measure *Emotional Dissonance*. The first category of the instrument measured the extent to which emotional expression was expected as part of the job. The second category consists of identical questions. The questions are rephrased to reflect the degree to which the respondent or respondents would actually display prescribed emotions. *Emotional Dissonance* was the degree to which the intensity of actual feelings was less than expressed feelings—this was computed by taking the differences between parallel items from the two categories (Abraham, 1998).

This was the only literature found on Adelman's ELS.

Kruml and Geddes' Emotional Labour Scale

This ELS was developed by Kruml and Geddes (2000). The development of the instrument was accomplished by conducting seventy-minute, semi-structured interviews with service employees, to generate the items. In order to evaluate the items for relevance, clarity, and understanding, fifteen experts, fourteen service workers, and one English Professor, volunteered to be participants and minor revisions were then made. Surveys were then constructed in the form of a five-point Likert scale and administered (De Wet, 2006).

Three dimensions were identified:

- emotive dissonance;
- emotive effort (the effort in displaying appropriate emotions, according to Kruml & Geddes, 2000) similar to deep acting; and
- emotional attachment.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient for emotional attachment was 0,28. It was therefore decided not to use this dimension in the further development of the scale.

This was the first study to identify emotive effort as a central dimension of *Emotion Work* empirically. It was found that emotional effort was associated with greater training in emotional management, less experience in working with the public, and customers showing negative emotions, while *Emotional Dissonance* was associated with emotional detachment from customers, customers showing negative emotions, and little latitude in emotions that can be displayed.

It was evident in the study that the two aspects of *Emotion Work* (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) have common correlates as well as correlates unique to each.

In **Schaubroeck and Jones (2000)**, the characters of the emotions that they perceived to be encouraged on the job were identified. The items were scaled using a five-point Likert scale. "They focused on norms that must be complied with for: (1) effective job performance; or (2) to

make a good impression on others (e.g., bosses, co-workers, customers, etc.) in my job” (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, p. 179).

A composite of demands for positive efference ($\alpha = 0,96$) was formed using the products of duration and frequency items. The degree of *Emotion Work* was reflected by the type of composite measure, by combining the frequency and the overall amount of attention devoted to these demands. They did so because it is unlikely, for example, that someone who believes it is a norm to smile at passers-by when walking across an office space experiences this as demanding, but an employee who has only one or two emotional display rule-laden interactions per day may find this demanding if these encounters are lengthy (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

“All items were subjected to a principal factor analysis with oblique rotation. All item-products loaded distinctly with coefficients exceeding 0,40 on one of two factors, both with eigen values exceeding 1,0 (6,87 and 3,35, respectively)” (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, p. 171). Positive efference items comprised the first factor (for example “To be effective in my job, I must try to share in the enthusiasm or liveliness of another person”) and explained 42,9 per cent of the overall item variance. The second factor measured suppression of negative efference (“To be effective in my job, I must try to suppress how upset or distressed I may feel”). The next 21,0 per cent of variance was explained by these item-products (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

Steinberg and Figart (1999) examined jobs with the most obvious *Emotion Work* content, more specifically those positions in the service sector that deal with the public. These positions include relatively low-paid service workers who must help customers (such as supermarket and convenience store cashiers, waiters, waitresses, and hair stylists; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988).

In general, exploratory research that has attempted to measure *Emotion Work* does so by treating it as a dichotomous or dummy variable. One study of convenience store clerks for example, coded *Emotion Work* as the presence or absence of displays of positive behaviors. Four actions were measured as evidence of *Emotion Work*, greeting, thanking, smiling, and eye contact (Sutton & Raefeli 1988). The variables were aggregated to create an index of positive emotion in a multiple regression analysis of the effect of *Emotion Work* on store sales. In contrast to what was expected, store sales were not directly related to displays of positive emotional connection. The analysis further suggested that because of the presence of long lines in busy stores, sales

clerks did not have time to engage in *Emotion Work* in each transaction (Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

In another study by Steinberg and Figart (1999), job content questionnaire was used to measure *Emotion Work*. This questionnaire was not designed explicitly to investigate *Emotion Work* as theorised by Hochschild (1983) and other sociologists, organisational psychologists and economists but can, however, be used for such analysis. The questionnaire is a broad-based questionnaire for the purpose of comparing the job content in male- and female-dominated jobs. The instrument contains numerous, very specific questions addressed to emotional skills, as well as a specific section capturing emotional demands. The questionnaire combines multiple-choice questions with open-ended questions, and requests respondent to provide examples drawn from actual events on their jobs to ground their choices on closed ended questions. This design makes it possible not only to glean the presence of *Emotion Work*, but to also measure its frequency and intensity.

The respondents' answers to questions from the job content questionnaire regarding three major job content factors: communications skills, human relations skills, and emotional demands were used for the analysis of *Emotion Work*. Respondents were asked to ascertain the degree of listening skills in their jobs that may involve emotion management, how often they were required to interact face-to-face with clients, how frequently they had to accurately understand their needs in sensitive or conflicting circumstances, how often it was necessary to understand people such as agitated clients, and to describe the extent of their work that involved courtesy and tact, nurturance and reassurance, compassion, empathy rapport, building trust, persuading, mediating, advising, and counseling.

The results were generated by using both qualitative and quantitative evidence from the job content questionnaire.

The set of questions regarding emotional demands focuses more on interactions with people outside the organisation and not the effort involved in dealing with direct co-workers, Supervisors or subordinates, it includes however the skills required in the performance of supervisory jobs.

D-QEL—Dutch Questionnaire on Emotional Labour

The D-QEL was developed by Briët et al. (2005) and has good psychometric properties. It consists of four scales and measures *Surface Acting*, *Deep Acting*, suppression, and emotional consonance. A high level of emotional consonance indicates that a person effortlessly expresses emotions that are felt. This is regarded as the absence of *Emotion Work*.

Examples of the different scale items:

- *Surface Acting*—“I pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job”;
- *Deep Acting*—“I make an effort to actually feel the emotions I need to display toward others”; and
- emotional consonance—“I react to students’ emotions naturally and easily”.

EWRS - Emotional Work Requirement Scale

The EWRS was developed to measure perceived display rules (Best et al., 1997, as cited in Näring, Briët, and Brouwers, 2006). The scale was included in a study of the development of the ELS to assess convergent validity, as it measures emotional suppression and emotional support and control (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). The EWRS is a five-point scale (1 = not at all, 5 = always required; Näring, Briët & Brouwers, 2006).

The extent to which workers are required to hide their emotions in performing their jobs is measured by the emotional suppression scale and the requirement to demonstrate sympathy, provide reassurance, and control one’s inappropriate emotional displays are measured by the emotional support scale.

An example of a suppression item is “I hide my anger about something someone has done.” People apparently suppress emotions at work just as often as they fake them (Mann, 1999).

FEWS - Frankfurt Emotion Work Scale

“The Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales are the only theoretically based empirical measure of Emotion Work developed up to date” (Lewig & Dollard, 2003, p. 369).

Zapf et al. (2001) developed this quantitative measure of *Emotion Work*, namely the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales in 1999 (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

The FEWS version 4.0 is an optimised equivalent version of FEWS 3.0 and FEWS 3.1. Some of version 4.0's items include improvements to the linguistic concerns of items in the FEWS version 3.0. In Version 3.0 and 4.0 of the FEWS, the questions on how often one has to display positive or negative emotions, or how often one is required to show sympathy, or how often there are sensitivity requirements or requirements of *Emotional Dissonance* in one's job, is asked. This shows that job requirements and *Emotional Dissonance* are related to the FEWS (Fischbach, 2003).

The FEWS distinguishes five factors of *Emotion Work* (Zapf et al., 2001):

- the requirement to display positive emotions (“In your job how often does it occur that you have to display pleasant emotions towards your clients?”);
- the requirement to display negative emotions (“How often does it occur in your job that you have to display unpleasant emotions towards your clients?”);
- the necessity to display sensitivity to the needs of the client (“Does your job require paying attention to the feelings of your clients?”);
- the ability of an employee to decide when to engage in an interaction with a client, as well as when the interaction will end (“Can you decide when to finish an interaction with a client?”); and
- *Emotional Dissonance* (“Person A can openly display his/her true feelings: Person B has to display feelings toward clients which do not match his/her true feelings. What is your job like?”).

Later on in the literature study the reader will see that Morris and Feldman also add neutrality. They also explain the reason for this.

According to Morris and Feldman (1996) the frequency and duration of *Emotion Work* need not directly impact on employee *Well-being* whereby Zapf et al. (2001), proposed that the requirements to the display of positive and negative emotions as well as sensitivity requirements are not necessarily stressful but may become stressful through *Emotional Dissonance* (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

The sub-scale, the display of positive emotions (EP) has five items measuring the requirement to display positive emotions. The sub-scale measuring the display of negative emotions (EV) consists of seven items. The demand for sensitivity sub-scale (ES) is made up of four items measuring the extent to which empathy or knowledge of the customers' or clients' current feelings are a requirement of the job. the interaction control sub-scale (EH) is made up of four items which measure the degree of influence employees have in their interactions with customers/clients. *Emotional Dissonance* sub-scale (ED) consists out of four items measuring the level of suppression of organisationally-undesirable emotions and/or display of unfeelt emotions (Lewig & Dollard, 2003). The scales are usually rated from 1 = 'very rarely or never', 2 = 'rarely (once a day)' 3 = 'sometimes (once a week)', 4 = 'often (several times a day)', and 5 = 'very often (several times an hour)' (Zapf & Holz, 2006).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in Lewig and Dollard (2003) were 0,34 for positive emotions, 0,79 for negative emotions, 0,26 sensitivity demands, 0,24 for interaction control, and 0,72 for *Emotional Dissonance*.

Some methodological issues were found in a study of *Emotion Work* by Fischbach (2003) that makes studies on the FEWS imperative. The findings in different studies makes it possible to draw parallels and investigate the validity and reliability of the FEWS:

- the FEWS uses self-ratings in the measuring of external tasks;
- external tasks applied in the methodology of assessing *Emotion Work*; and
- the level of aggregation for assessing external tasks among occupations.

With the self-ratings in measuring external tasks, it can be argued that questionnaires filled out by subjects are subjective measures because of the fact that the answers are dependent upon the individual's cognitive and emotional processing. Measures considered objective in job-analysis

are expert-ratings, document analysis, and physical methods because of the fact that they are independent of individuals cognitive and emotional processing of a job incumbents (Frese, 1982; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1974; Semmer, 1982, as cited in Fischbach, 2003). Frese and Zapf (1988) argue that any questionnaire report can be rated from low to high dependency on cognitive as well as emotional processing, depending on the quality of the job analysis, the construct, and the item verbalisations. An example of an item high in dependency on cognitive and emotional processing is verbalised as follows “I feel overwhelmed by the burden of the job” and an example of an item low in dependency is “How many pieces of work do you complete in a shift?” (Fischbach, 2003, p. 43). According to Frese and Zapf (1988), self-ratings might be adequate and even more practical measures of external tasks, a postulation for which they gave empirical support. This postulation however is only valid if the items are verbalised with low cognitive and emotional processing dependency (Fischbach, 2003).

In the FEWS, a behaviour requirement approach is used, operationalising *Emotion Work* tasks to quantify how often particular emotional behaviour is required, in order to achieve a task. An example of this approach (Fischbach, 2003, p. 43):

In order to meet the demands and expectations about how to deal with clients, it is often necessary to display very specific emotions towards the clients. For each of the emotions listed in the following table, please mark how often you are required to display them when working with clients (followed by scale-ratable item selection).

Hochschild’s (1983, as cited in Meier, Mastracci, & Wilson, 2006) definition of *Emotion Work* as the projection of emotions that is needed to gain the cooperation of customers/clients or co-workers as well as the ability to see another’s side of the issue and integrate that perspective into what the organisation does, shows this behaviour requirement approach used in the FEWS, as a valid approach from which to work.

According Morris and Feldman (1996), *Emotion Work* was conceptualised as a multidimensional construct. The FEWS builds on this concept. The frequency of expressing six organisationally-required emotion expressions is differentiated and measured namely (Fischbach, 2003):

- positive emotions;

- negative emotions;
- neutrality;
- sensitivity;
- sympathy; and
- *Emotional Dissonance*.

Two separate scales were developed for the first two constructs (positive emotions and negative emotions). This was done to accommodate the vast range of requirements as well as to display these divergent emotions Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, and Isic (1999).

The reason for the inclusion of neutrality is based on qualitative research regarding job requirements in police workers, who need to display neither positive nor negative emotion in interactions with citizens, suspects, or witnesses, and for judges who have to hear an accusation and to give a judgment about said statements (Fischbach, 2003).

It is expected for sensitivity requirements to correlate positively with both the frequency to *Display Positive* and the frequency to *Display Negative Emotions*. The reason for this is that the emotion of the interaction partner and the requirement to be aware of their emotions influences the expression of an emotion during an interaction. It is in rare, short, and less intense interactions that it is not that important to sense the emotions of the interaction partner (Fischbach, 2003).

An example of the requirement to show sympathy with the sorrows and problems of a client is a pediatric doctor calming down a hurt child (Fischbach, 2003).

The level of aggregation in the FEWS can be applied to specific tasks (such as advising customers as a human-resource employee task), positions (such as the sum of human-resource employee tasks), workplaces (such as the sum of tasks within the same human-resource department), or occupations (such as the sum of human-resource employees among several human-resource departments).

The study done by Fischbach (2003) indicates that “The clear, distinct, and interpretable FEWS profiles for police, teacher and travel agent work; support the assumption that the FEWS can be used as a job analysis instrument to assess service interactions, describing organisational job

requirements and stressors, *Emotional Dissonance*, independent of individual workers” (Fischbach, 2003, p. 65). In addition, “distinguishable FEWS profiles for police, teacher and travel agent work, support the assumption that the FEWS describes organisational job requirements and the stressor *Emotional Dissonance* independently of individual work descriptions” (Fischbach, 2003, p. 118).

Research in a test of the FEWS on employees in the hospitality industry, call centres and social service institutions, has shown that *Emotional Dissonance* highly correlates with *Emotional Exhaustion*, irritation, depersonalisation and psychosomatic complaints. In the study, *Emotional Dissonance* again was negatively associated with job satisfaction in all the industries except the hospitality sample. A further study has shown that the relationship between organisational stressors, *Emotion Work*, social stressors, *Burnout* and *Emotional Dissonance* was the most stressful aspect of *Emotion Work*. The research has also shown that the contribution of *Emotional Dissonance* to *Emotional Exhaustion* and depersonalisation is similar to that of task and organisational stressors (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

One of the key characteristics of jobs in the service sector is *Emotion Work*. This includes all jobs where one has contact with customers, patients, clients, students, or children, meaning a high variation in *Emotion Work* is assumed. The requirements of a human-resource employee may differ considerably from the requirements of a flight attendant or a bank clerk. In the above literature study, it is evident that the FEWS is the only instrument to measure this key characteristic, this instrument was thus used in this research study.

The reason for choosing the FEWS for this research study is the elevated levels of validity and reliability of the measurement in comparison with some other measures of *Emotion Work*. A reliable instrument is consistent in its measurement, usually across time and interpreters. The validity of an instrument is the extent to which scores on a test or interview correlates to actual job performance (Grobler et al., 2002).

The following subscales of the FEWS were selected to measure *Emotion Work*: *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive Emotions*, the *Display of Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative Emotions*, the *Display of Unpleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Neutral Emotions* within a sample of human-resource employees.

To conclude, reliable and valid results on the levels of *Emotion Work* as well as the experiences of *Emotion Work* in different demographic groups will contribute to the creation of effective interventions and programs to manage the effects of *Emotion Work*. The current research study focuses on the investigation of the psychometric properties of the FEWS for future service workers working in the human-resource profession.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this article are:

- to conceptualise *Emotion Work* and measurement from a literature study;
- to determine the validity and reliability of a measure of *Emotion Work*;
- to determine if demographic variables predict the experience of *Emotion Work* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry; and
- to determine if demographical groups differ in the experience of *Emotion Work* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

RESEARCH METHOD

Research design

The research objectives were achieved by employing a survey design. The specific design selected was the cross-sectional design. In this design, information is collected from a sample population at a given point in time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). The information garnered was used to describe the participants at that point in time.

Cross-sectional survey designs are used for simultaneously examining groups of subjects in various stages, while the survey describes a technique of data collection in which questionnaires are used to gather data about the identified population (Burns & Grove, 1993). This design is well suited for the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research, whereby relationships between variables are examined (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

Participants

A non-probability convenience sample ($n = 236$) of human-resource employees were taken from the chrome industry. As shown in Table 2, the participants were predominantly male (54,7%). The participants' ages ranged mostly between twenty-one to thirty-one (32,2%) and thirty-two to forty-one (32,6%). Participants in the age group of forty-two to fifty-one made out 24,6% of the sample and participants between the ages of fifty-two and sixty-six, 10,6% of the sample. The sample consists of White (72,5%), African (19,5%), Coloured (4,2%) and Indian (3,8%) participants of which 56,8% were Afrikaans, 22,9% English, and 10,2% Sepedi. Other African languages including Sesotho, Setswana, IsiSwati, and IsiXhosa make up a representation of 10,1% of the sample. The majority of the participants achieved a highest qualification of Grade 12 (21,6%), technikon diplomas (19,9%), and technical college diplomas (18,2%). Other qualifications obtained were university degrees (14,4%), postgraduate degrees (11,0%), and 5,1% other qualifications. The participants operate within the human-resource profession or service departments (administration) as Officers, full-time Shop stewards, Coordinators, Practitioners (47,9%), Specialists, Superintendents, Advisors, Managers (34,3%), Administrators, Secretaries, and Personal Assistants (17,8%). The majority of the participants occupied their positions for between one to ten years (71,2%), 20,8% for between eleven to twenty years, and 8% for between twenty-one to thirty years and more.

Table 2 presents the characteristics of the participants.

Table 2: Characteristics of the participants (n = 236)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	129	54,7
	Female	107	45,3
Age	21 yrs–31 yrs	76	32,2
	32 yrs–41 yrs	77	32,6
	42 yrs–51 yrs	58	24,6
	52 yrs–66 yrs	25	10,6
Ethnicity	White	171	72,5
	African	46	19,5
	Coloured	10	4,2
	Indian	9	3,8
Qualification	Below Grade 10	2	0,8
	Grade 10	10	4,2
	Grade 11	11	4,7
	Grade 12	51	21,6
	Technikon diploma	47	19,9
	Technical college diploma	43	18,2
	University degree	34	14,4
	Postgraduate degree	26	11,0
	Other	12	5,1
Language	Afrikaans	134	56,8
	English	54	22,9
	Sepedi	24	10,2
	Sesotho	15	6,4
	Setswana	6	2,5
	IsiSwati	2	0,8
	IsiXhosa	1	0,4
Job Title	Administrator, secretary, Personal Assistant	42	17,8
	Officer, full-time Shop steward, Coordinator, Practitioner, Specialist, Superintendent, Advisor, Manager	113	47,9
		81	34,3
Yrs in Position	1 yrs–10 yrs	168	71,2
	11 yrs–20 yrs	49	20,8
	21 yrs–30 yrs	14	5,9

Measuring battery

The measuring battery consisted of questionnaires with which to test the emotional regulation process and included measures of *Emotion Work*.

The FEWS (Zapf et al., 1999) is based on the existing literature on *Emotion Work*, Action Theory and emotional regulation requirements. The sub-scales include the requirement to express positive emotions, the requirements to express and handle negative emotions, the requirement to be sensitive to clients' emotions, and the requirement to show sympathy, emotional regulation possibilities (control), and emotional regulation problems (*Emotional Dissonance*). Scales showed satisfactory reliabilities. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis revealed minor problems with discriminant validity of the scales within samples of a handicapped children's home ($n = 83$), in the hotel business ($n = 175$) and employees working in call centres ($n = 250$). Construct validation showed that *Emotion Work* scales were both positively and negatively correlated with psychological health (Zapf et al., 1999). The following subscales of the FEWS were used to measure *Emotion Work*: *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive Emotions*, the *Display of Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative Emotions*, the *Display of Unpleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Neutral Emotions*.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS (Muijs, 2004). The dataset was studied to identify bivariate and multivariate outliers. To identify bivariate outliers, the data was standardised (to z-scores). Values higher than 2,58 were inspected to decide whether they should be deleted from the dataset. An inspection was also made of the anti-image scores of the different items. Items with scores lower than 0,60 are problematic, and were therefore excluded from the rest of the statistical analysis.

Furthermore, missing values were analysed and replaced where possible. Principal factor extraction with oblique rotation was performed on the measuring instrument, to determine the factor structure. Principal component extraction was used prior to principal factor extraction to

estimate the number of factors, presence of outliers, and factorability of the correlation matrices. The eigen values and scree plot were studied, to determine the number of factors underlying the specific measuring instrument.

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, range, skewness, and kurtosis) and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect size (Steyn, 1999) was used to decide on the practical significance of the findings. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship between the variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect) was set for the practical significance or correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988). MANOVA (multivariate analysis of variance) and ANOVA (analysis of variance) were used to determine the differences between groups.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity, and uni-dimensionality of the measuring instrument (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha contains important information regarding the proportion of variance of the items of a scale in terms of the total variance explained by the particular scale.

A multiple regression analysis was done to determine the percentage variance. A correlation can be better understood by determining R^2 (Cohen, 1988). The square of the correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of variance in any two variables, which is predicted by the variance in the other.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the FEWS are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: *Descriptive statistics and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the measuring instruments*

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	27,75	6,91	-0,13	-0,91	0,87
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	37,27	6,30	-0,66	0,10	0,87
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	16,58	4,13	-0,31	-0,55	0,88
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	16,90	5,20	0,49	-0,25	0,82

of feeling as if one is unable to speak one's mind, or is to be blamed for the distressful feelings one is experiencing. An extremely powerless social status therefore increases the likelihood of experiencing an 'unpleasant' emotionality or emotional mode of being.

Notwithstanding the difficulties with determining exactly what *Emotion Work* comprises and entails, there are a number of possible ways in which *Emotion Work* could be measured, namely assessing how much *Emotion Work* is required by a particular job, how much *Emotion Work* a person engages in his/her job, or how much *Emotion Work* a person engages in within a particular situation (Mann, 1999).

Inventory of the measurements of Emotion Work:

Table 1 presents a summary of *Emotion Work* measures. It has been adapted from De Wet (2006, p. 51).

Table 1: *Summary of Emotion Work measures*

Measure	Authors	Dimensions
ELS—Emotional Labour Scale	Brotheridge and Lee (2003)	Six facets of emotional display: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequency • Intensity • Variety • Duration • <i>Surface Acting</i> • <i>Deep Acting</i>
ELI—Emotional Labour Inventory	Mann (1999)	Different aspects of workplace emotions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectations or rules about emotional display • Emotional suppression • Emotional faking
Emotional Labor Scale	Adelmann (1989)	<i>Emotional Dissonance</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The extent to which emotional expression was expected as part of the

From the information supplied in Table 3, it is evident that four of the scales, *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy* and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* were normally distributed. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the measuring instruments are considered acceptable compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

A principal axis factor analysis was carried out on the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*, *Emotional Dissonance*, the display of certain emotions, demands for sensitivity, emotional sympathy, and *Emotional Dissonance* scales of the FEWS, which explained 63% of the total variance. Nine factors with eigen values larger than one were obtained. However, the scree plot (Figure 1), showed a sharp break after the fourth factor, and it was decided to extract four factors. The four factors explained 43% of the variance.

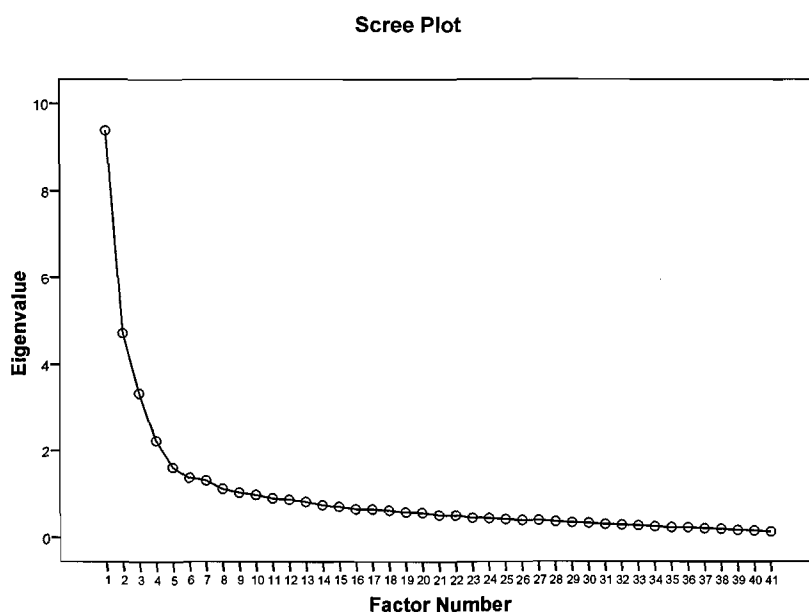


Figure 1: Scree Plot

The results of the factor analyses for the selected scales of the FEWS are presented in Table 4. Loadings of factors, communalities and per cent of variance explained are also in Table 4. Labels are suggested for each factor in the footnote.

Table 4: Factor loadings, communalities (h^2), percentage variance and covariance for principal factors extraction, and oblique rotation on FEWS items.

	1	2	3	4	h^2
How often in your job do you have to suppress emotions in order to appear 'neutral' on the outside?	0,78	0,04	0,14	0,02	0,60
How often in your job do you have to display pleasant emotions (such as friendliness) or unpleasant emotions (such as strictness) on the outside while actually feeling indifferent inside ?	0,69	-0,02	0,26	0,09	0,54
How often in your job do you have to put clients in a neutral or impartial mood ?	0,68	0,19	0,06	-0,04	0,51
How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your actual feeling towards the client ?	0,66	-0,08	0,25	0,17	0,53
How often in your job do you have to emotions that do not agree with your true feelings ?	0,65	-0,01	0,29	0,05	0,43
How often do you yourself have to come across as being neutral and impartial when dealing with clients?	0,62	0,15	-0,02	-0,15	0,41
How often are you required to display neither positive nor negative emotions towards clients (that is show impartiality)?	0,62	0,08	-0,11	0,09	0,49
How often is it necessary in your job to assimilate your own feelings to those of the client?	0,57	0,20	0,35	0,02	0,36
How often are you required to display neutrality or impartiality when working with clients?	0,55	0,16	-0,18	-0,09	0,50
How often are you required to display gratitude when working with clients?	-0,10	0,69	0,10	0,07	0,56
How often are you required to display joy or being happy for somebody when working with clients?	0,15	0,67	0,28	-0,12	0,42
How often are you required to display enthusiasm when working with clients?	0,11	0,64	0,04	-0,04	0,50
How often are you required to display friendliness when working with clients?	0,13	0,63	0,11	-0,27	0,43
How often are you required to display hope when working with clients?	-0,08	0,63	0,18	0,05	0,44
How often are you required to display fondness or liking when working with clients?	0,11	0,56	0,21	-0,27	0,50
How often are you required to display sympathy when working with clients?	0,18	0,54	0,41	-0,10	0,45
How often in your job do you have to display pleasant emotions towards clients (such as friendliness or kindness)?	0,16	0,52	0,30	-0,26	0,44
How often in your job do you have to put clients in a positive mood (that is please somebody)?	0,28	0,48	0,34	-0,12	0,42
How often do you yourself have to come across as being in a positive mood when dealing with clients (that is cheerful)?	0,23	0,47	0,24	-0,31	0,69
How often is it necessary in your job to empathise with clients' emotions ?	0,34	0,27	0,71	-0,04	0,61
How often do you have to express sympathy towards clients?	0,13	0,35	0,68	-0,08	0,60

How often is it of importance in your job to know how the clients are feeling at the moment?	0,19	0,32	0,67	-0,03	0,51
How often is it necessary in your job to put yourself into the clients' place?	0,20	0,29	0,61	-0,10	0,49
How often do you have to show understanding towards clients?	0,06	0,37	0,55	-0,21	0,57
How often are you required to display anger when working with clients?	-0,15	-0,18	0,09	0,72	0,47
How often are you required to display disappointment when working with clients?	-0,03	-0,05	0,08	0,68	0,47
How often are you required to display aggression when working with clients?	-0,05	-0,16	0,07	0,66	0,45
How often in your job do you have to display, according to the situation, differing negative emotions towards the client?	0,12	0,01	-0,17	0,64	0,40
How often in your job do you have to display unpleasant emotions towards clients (such as strictness or anger when rules are not followed)?	0,16	-0,03	-0,19	0,58	0,34
How often in your job do you have to act very stern or strict towards clients (such as when certain rules are not followed)?	0,02	-0,02	-0,12	0,57	0,34
How often in your job do you have to put clients in a negative mood (that is unsettled or alarmed)?	0,09	-0,21	-0,14	0,52	0,30
How often do you yourself have to come across as being in a negative mood when dealing with clients (such as anger)?	0,08	-0,20	-0,12	0,49	0,30
Variance explained	22,90	11,54	8,1	5,47	
Total Variance explained					42,87

Factor labels: F1 *Emotional Dissonance*, F2 *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, F3 *Display of Empathy*, and F4 *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*

Each factor is described below (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003):

Factor 1 was named *Emotional Dissonance*, which relates to the display of emotions that do not agree with true feelings. Items included in this sub-scale are: “How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your actual feeling towards the client?” and “How often in your job do you have to display emotions that do not agree with your true feelings?”.

Factor 2 was termed the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and relates to pleasing clients and to put them into a positive mood. Items included in this sub-scale are: “How often in your job do you have to display pleasant emotions towards clients (such as friendliness or kindness)?” and “How often are you required to display fondness or liking when working with clients?”.

Factor 3 was termed the *Display of Empathy* and relates to showing understanding for another individual's feelings. Items included in this sub-scale are: “How often is it necessary in your job

to empathise with clients' emotions?" and "How often do you have to show understanding towards clients?".

Factor 4 was termed the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* and relates to display and handle negative emotions. Items included in this sub-scale are: "How often in your job do you have to display, according to the situation, differing negative emotions towards the client?" and "How often in your job do you have to display unpleasant emotions towards clients (such as strictness or anger when rules are not followed)?".

The product-moment correlation coefficients *between Emotional Dissonance, Display of Empathy, Display of Positive/Pleasant, and Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* are reported in Table 5.

Table 5: *Correlation coefficients between Emotional Dissonance, Display of Empathy, Display of Positive/Pleasant, and Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions (n=236)*

	<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	<i>Display of Empathy</i>	<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>				
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	0,32* ⁺			
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	0,39* ⁺	0,60* ⁺⁺		
<i>Display of Negative Unpleasant Emotions</i>	-0,01	-0,30* ⁺	-0,20*	

* Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level

⁺ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,30$ (medium effect)

⁺⁺ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,50$ (large effect)

Table 5 shows a practically significant positive correlation coefficient of a (medium effect) between the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and *Emotional Dissonance* as well as a practically significant positive correlation coefficient of a (medium effect) between the *Display of Empathy* and *Emotional Dissonance*. Table 5 also indicates the following significant correlation coefficients: a significant positive correlation coefficient of a (large effect) between the *Display of Empathy* and the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, a practically negative correlation coefficient of a (medium effect) between the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* and the

Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions, as well as a negative correlation coefficient between the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy*.

Next a multiple regression analysis was done with Emotional Dissonance as the dependant variable and the demographical variable as independent variables. Emotional Dissonance was selected from the emotion work constructs as a core indicator of the performance of emotion work. The result of a multiple regression analysis with *Emotional Dissonance* as dependent variable and demographical variables (gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, job title, and years in position) as independent variable is displayed in Table 6.

Table 6: Multiple regression analyses with *Emotional Dissonance* as dependent variable

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
		B	SE	Beta						
1	(Constant)	20,11	2,80		7,19	0,00	5,11	0,34	0,11	0,11
	Gender	2,37	0,93	0,17	2,57	0,01				
	Age	-1,14	0,48	-0,16	-2,36	0,02				
	Ethnicity	2,15	0,59	0,23	3,67	0,00				
	Qualification	0,04	0,24	0,01	0,15	0,88				
	Job Title	1,12	0,62	0,13	1,83	0,07				
	Yrs in pos	0,68	0,50	0,09	1,35	0,18				

^a dependent variable: *Emotional Dissonance*

*F*_(6,229)

When demographical variables were entered in the multiple regression analysis a statistically significant model was produced ($F_{(6,229)} = 5,11; p = 0,00$). Table 6 shows that the demographical variables explained 11% of the variance predicted in *Emotional Dissonance* ($R^2 = 0,11$). More specifically it seemed that gender ($\beta = 0,17; t = 2,57; p \leq 0,05$), age ($\beta = -0,16; t = -2,36; p \leq 0,05$), and ethnicity ($\beta = 0,23; t = 3,67; p \leq 0,05$) were the most significant predictors *Emotional Dissonance*.

Next, MANOVA was used to determine differences between demographic variables. Results were first analysed for statistical significance using Wilk's Lambda statistics. ANOVA was used to determine specific differences where a statistical difference was found. The results of the MANOVA analyses are given below in Table 7.

Table 7: MANOVA—differences in Emotion Work levels of different demographic groups

	Value	F	Df	P	Partial Eta ²
Age	0,90	1,93	12,00	*0,03	0,03
Ethnicity	0,86	2,82	12,00	*0,00	0,07
Gender	0,90	5,95	4,00	*0,00	0,09
Qualifications	0,83	1,18	36,00	0,21	0,04
Job title	0,93	1,35	12,00	0,18	0,02
Years in position	0,95	0,69	16,00	0,79	0,01

$p \leq 0,05$ = statistically significant

In an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values, statistically significant differences ($p \leq 0,05$) regarding *Emotion Work* levels was found in age, ethnicity, and gender groups and further analysed using ANOVA. Because samples sizes were different, the Games–Howell procedure was used to determine whether there were any statistical differences between groups.

The results of the ANOVA based on ethnicity are given below in Table 8.

Table 8: ANOVA—differences in Emotion Work levels based on ethnicity

	White	African	p	Partial Eta ²
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	26,75	30,37	0,00*	0,05
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	36, 83	38,40	0,08	0,01
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	16,49	16,84	0,56	0,00
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	17,22	16,00	0,11	0,01

*Statistically significant differences: $p \leq 0,05$

Table 8 shows statistically significant differences between the levels of *Emotional Dissonance*. Participants in the African ethnic group experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in the White ethnic group.

The result of the ANOVA based on gender is given in Table 9.

Table 9: ANOVA—differences in Emotion Work levels based on gender

	Male	Female	P	Partial Eta ²
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	26,78	28,92	*0,01	0,2
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	35,59	39,28	*0,00	0,9
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	15,75	17,58	*0,00	0,5
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	17,50	16,15	*0,04	0,2

*Statistically significant differences: $p \leq 0,05$

Table 9 indicated statistically significant differences between levels of *Emotion Work* with gender as dependent variable. Female participants experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy*. Male Participants experienced higher levels of *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*.

The results of the ANOVA based on age are given below in Table 10.

Table 10: ANOVA—differences in Emotion Work levels based on age

Item	Age 21–31	Age 32–41	Age 42–51	Age 52–66	P	Partial Eta ²
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	29,20 ^b	28,42 ^b	25,24 ^a	27,16 ^b	*0,00	0,05
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	38,32	36,30	37,60	36,40	0,21	0,01
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	17,30	15,81	16,60	16,80	0,18	0,02
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	16,34	17,30	16,50	18,20	0,34	0,01

*Statistically significant difference: $p \leq 0,05$

^a Group differs statistically significantly from type (in row) where *b* is indicated.

Table 10 shows statistically significant differences between levels of the *display of neutral emotions* and *Emotional Dissonance*. Age group 42 to 51 experienced lower levels of *Emotion Work* due to *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in age groups 21 to 31, 32 to 41, and 52 to 66.

DISCUSSION

The objective of the study was to investigate the psychometric properties of the FEWS and to find alternative measurements for *Emotion Work*, as well as to investigate the reliability and validity of those measurements according to a literature study. The following subscales of the FEWS were used to measure *Emotion Work*: *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive Emotions*, the *Display of Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative Emotions*, and the *Display of Unpleasant Emotions and the Display of Neutral Emotions*.

In comparison to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the FEWS were considered acceptable. The scores on the FEWS were distributed normally.

Pertaining to the factors and Cronbach alpha coefficients in other studies, the following results were found. In a study done by De Wet (2006), on the relationship between *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* in a care-giving environment, three sub-scales namely, client care, *Emotional Dissonance* and the *Display of Positive Emotions* of the FEWS were used. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for two of the scales: *Emotional Dissonance* and the *Display of Positive Emotions*. These factors explained 62,56% of the total variance. These two scales were higher than the guideline of determined by Nunally and Bernstein (1994). The Client Care scale however did not fully conform to the required guideline, as the Cronbach alpha coefficient scale was just below 0,07 ($\alpha = 0,64$). In a study done by Joubert (2008) on *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* of client service workers within small and medium enterprises, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the FEWS were considered to be acceptable. The following sub-scales were used, *Emotional Dissonance*, the the display of client care, and the extent of client interaction. The three factors explained 50% of the total variance.

To revert to this research study, four factors were extracted on the seven scales of the FEWS namely *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*.

The results identified the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* to be positive correlated with *Emotional Dissonance* (medium effect). The underlying assumption of

Emotion Work is the regulation process of both feelings and expressions in accordance with occupational or organisational “display rules” to achieve organisational goals (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, as cited in Rafferty, 2005). The display rules of an organisation specify the range of emotions to be displayed, for example to be helpful, friendly, caring, and empathetic, even though the individual does not feel like it. The conclusion can be drawn that to adhere to the organisation’s display rules, in a case where one does not feel like it, an individual will use *Surface Acting* to display the emotions required for the situation. During *Surface Acting* there will be no attempt to feel or experience the displayed emotion which will create a discrepancy between the displayed and felt emotion (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002). The discrepancy caused as well as the need to hide the negative emotions one experience in customer or client relations creates *Emotional Dissonance*. *Emotional Dissonance* is defined by Grandey (2000) as the state of tension that occurs when one must display emotions that are discrepant from true feelings.

The results also identified the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* to be positive correlated with the *Display of Empathy* (large effect) and negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (medium effect). The display rule range in most of the service industries especially in the human-resource industry includes the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* (friendliness, helpful, enthusiasm, hope, cheerfulness), the *Display of Empathy* (empathy, sympathy, understanding, caring), the display of neutrality, and the suppression of negative emotions (anger, being rude). Certain employees often interact with the public—job recruits, clients, customers, or patients—and must manage the impressions of the company as a whole by appearing friendly and hiding negative emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grove & Fisk, 1989). The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy* and the suppression of negative emotions can be grouped together in the display rule range whereas the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* not part form of range, therefore the positive correlation between the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy*. The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* are opposites on the continuum, a positive correlation between the two concepts will therefore be impossible. One can draw the conclusion that *Emotion Work* is a multidimensional construct. Some of the dimensions may be more central to the construct of *Emotion Work* though.

A multiple regression analysis with *Emotional Dissonance* as dependent variable was done. The results indicated that gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, job title, and years in position produced a statistically significant model accounting for approximately 11% of the variance. More specifically, it seems that gender and ethnicity predicted the variance explained in the experience of *Emotional Dissonance*.

A multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine differences in *Emotion Work* levels of different demographic variables: age, ethnicity, gender, qualifications, job title, and years in position. Statistically significant differences were found in age, ethnicity, and gender groups.

Participants in the African ethnic groups experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in the White ethnic group. The conclusion one can draw here is that social groups that are characterised or perceived to be less powerful in hierarchical systems affect the likelihood of being invalidated, of feeling instrumentally powerless (for example of being unable to reach one's goals), of feeling insecure, of feeling as if one is unable to speak one's mind, or is to be blamed for the distressful feelings one is experiencing. In short, an extremely powerless social status increases the likelihood of experiencing an 'unpleasant' emotionality or emotional mode of being (Freund, 1990, p. 644). Although one experiences negative/unpleasant emotions, an individual still has to adhere to the organisation's display rules that again result in *Emotional Dissonance*. The perception of being less powerful in hierarchical systems might be a result of the Apartheid Era, many Black people still perceive the separateness between them and White people, racism as well as the favoritism of White people.

Female participants experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy*. Male participants experienced higher levels of the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. The majority of service jobs are performed by women (Hochschild, 1983). Kruml and Geddes (2000) found a relationship between gender and *Emotional Dissonance*. Women were more likely to report feeling differently (discrepancy) than they expressed (the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*). Wharton and Erickson (1995) also discussed how women are more likely to manage emotions at work as well as at home. *Emotional Intelligence* is an indication of how an individual perceives, understands, and regulates emotions; one can therefore assume that the *Emotional*

Intelligence of women is higher than the *Emotional Intelligence* in men, which makes it easier for women to conform to the display rules of an organisation. One study suggests that men and women have different motives for regulating emotion, in that women are more concerned with getting along with people or customers/clients, while men are more motivated to remain in charge and express powerful emotions, such as anger or pride (Timmers, Fischer, & Manstead, 1998).

To determine specific differences, where a statistical difference was found, an ANOVA was used. Statistically significant differences between levels of the *Display of Neutral Emotions* and *Emotional Dissonance* were found. Age group 42 to 51 experienced lower levels of *Emotion Work*, owing to the experiencing of *Emotional Dissonance*, than participants in age groups 21 to 31, 32 to 41, and 52 to 66.

The higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* in the age groups of 21 to 31 might be that people in the age group 21 to 31 have very little experience on how things work in the industry, being young one tends to feel that one knows everything and that is not necessary to adhere to the display rules of the organisation but one is expected to do so. This creates *Emotional Dissonance*. The hypotheses can be made that individuals in the age group 21 to 31 are mostly immature; it is difficult for them to regulate their emotions which may result in them finding it difficult not to *Display Negative Emotions*. People in the age group 32 to 41 tend to be self-centred and career driven. The most important thing to them is to build on their careers; for example being promoted to a Manager. The age group 42 to 51, individuals most of the time established a stable career and achieved what they wanted to (is a Manager). It is easier for them to concentrate on what is going on around them, that is to *Display Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and *Display Empathy*. They are familiar with the organisation's display rules and how things work in the service sector. People in the age group 52 to 66 are getting closer to retirement, which may result in them having negative attitudes; individuals do not feel like working anymore. They focus on their retirement and whether he or she is going to have enough money to survive. They feel like they are not wanted or productive anymore, they cannot make a difference, and that it is too late for them to get promoted. Particularly people in the age group 63 to 66 may feel like they were not successful in their careers because they could not retire by the age of sixty-three to sixty-five and perhaps younger.

According to Bergh and Theron (2005) are career-development, adjustment, and maturity related to the expression of the self-concept. For the purpose of this research study, age, and phase are explained from the age of eighteen to twenty-one.

Table 11 explains the stages and development tasks as described by Bergh and Theron (2005).

Table 11: *Career stages and tasks*

Age and phases	Tasks and transitions
15–24 Exploration Phase	Broad exploration of work
18–21 Transition	More specific and realistic about career choices, study and job entry
22–24 Trial	Study and first job entry, identity as a worker
25–44 Establishment Phase	More permanent job or career, creative years
25–30 Trial	Possible changes of jobs and career
31–44 Stabilisation	Productive stable work in a give job and career; Moving ahead, maintain income and life style and societal roles
45–65 Maintenance Phase	Progress an continuation in a given career line
45–65	Holding job, updating and innovating; Maintaining societal roles and possibly planning for retirement
65+ Decline Phase	Preparation to retire
65–70	If work, deceleration and decline in capabilities, plan to retire
71+	Cease work, contemplate life

The research study had several limitations. Firstly, self-report questionnaires were used; descriptions given by participants are therefore subjective, the answers are dependent on the individual's cognitive and emotional processing. Self-ratings were used in the FEWS in the measuring of external tasks (Fischbach, 2003). Secondly, the questionnaires were only given out in English, while the majority of the group was Afrikaans speaking (56.8%), which may lead to misunderstanding with regard to the interpretation of the questionnaires. Thirdly, due to the fact that the research study was only conducted in the human-resource departments in the chrome industry, findings cannot be generalised to other industries and professions. Finally, the length of questionnaire was another limitation. Participants did not want to take the time to fill out the questionnaires, they lost interest and grew tired.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The research study suggested that the FEWS is a valid and reliable measurement of *Emotion Work*.

It is recommended that future research focuses on the reliability and validity of the FEWS in other professions as for the fact that the FEWS was found to be reliable and valid for human-resource employees in the chrome industry. Future research on human-resource employees in other professions or industries will enable one to generalise the findings obtained in this research study and would enable one to put interventions in place, addressing the effects of *Emotion Work*.

Another recommendation is to look at the objectivity of the questionnaire by finding different methods of ratings excluding self-ratings. A qualitative study can be added by means of interviews, in order to obtain more objective and specified detail.

Finally, it is suggested that the FEWS be translated into other official languages used in South Africa to prevent any misinterpretations as well as to put the questions into a more acceptable South African format, making it more applicable to the diverse South African workforce.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH ARTICLE 2

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTION WORK, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, SOCIAL SUPPORT AND WELL-BEING OF HUMAN-RESOURCE EMPLOYEES WITHIN THE CHROME INDUSTRY

ABSTRACT

The objective of the study was to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being* (*Burnout* and *Engagement*) of human-resource employees within the chrome industry. A cross-sectional survey design was used. A non-probability convenience sample ($n = 236$) was taken from human-resource employees in the chrome industry. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OBLI), Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale (GEIS), Social Support Scale and the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS) were used as measurements. Cronbach alpha coefficients, factor analysis, inter-item correlation coefficients, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients, and stepwise multiple regression analysis were used to analyse the data. The results indicated a correlation between *Emotion Work*, *Social Support* and *Well-being*. *Emotional Intelligence* factors, *Emotional Intelligence* more specifically, *Use of Emotion*; *Emotion Work* more specifically *Emotional Dissonance*; and *Social Support* of co-workers were significant predictors of *Engagement*. *Emotional Intelligence* more specifically *Use of Emotion* and *Control of Emotion*; *Emotion Work* more specifically *Emotional Dissonance* and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*; and the *Social Support* of co-workers were significant predictors of *Exhaustion*.

OPSOMMING

Die doelwit van die studie was om die verhouding tussen *Emosie-werk*, *Emosionele Intelligensie* en *Sosiale Ondersteuning* in mense hulpbron werknemers in die chroom industrie te bepaal. 'n Dwarsdeursnee-opnameontwerp is gebruik. Die deelnemers ($n = 236$) was mense hulpbron werknemers in die chroom industrie. Die Utrecht-Werksbegeestering-Vraelys (UWES), Oldenburg Uitbrandingsvraelys (OBLI), Griekse Emosionele Intelligensieskaal (GEIS), Sosiale Ondersteuningskaal en die Frankfurt-Emosie-Werk-Skaal (FEWS) is as meetinstrumente gebruik. Cronbach alfa-koeffisiënte, faktor-analise, interitem-korrelasiekoeffisiënte, Pearson-produk-momentkorrelasiekoeffisiënte asook 'n stapsgewyse meervoudige regressie-analise, is gebruik om die data te ontleed. Die resultate het 'n korrelasie getoon tussen *Emosie-werk*, *Sosiale Ondersteuning* en *Welstand*. *Emosionele Intelligensie* meer spesifiek die *Gebruik van Emosies*, *Emosie-werk* meer spesifiek *Emosionele Dissonansie* en *Sosiale Ondersteuning* van *Mede-werknemers*, was beduidende voorspellers van *Werksverbintenis*. *Emosionele Intelligensie* meer spesifiek die *Gebruik van Emosie* en die *Beheer van Emosies*, *Emosie-werk* meer spesifiek *Emosionele Dissonansie* en die *Vertoon van Negatiewe/Onaangename Emosies* en *Sosiale Ondersteuning* van *Mede-werknemers* was beduidende voorspellers van *Uitputting*.

INTRODUCTION

Interest in emotions in the workplace has accelerated rapidly over the past decade. Manufacturing industries are increasingly involved in the provision of services, which implies that more service or people work arises in the manufacturing industry (Wharton, 1993). Emotional demands are placed on employees to regulate their emotions in accordance with the organisation's expectations. (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, as cited in Rafferty, 2005). The South African workplace has thus totally changed with regard to the demands and pressures that are currently being placed on employees. The whole employment relationship has changed, altering the nature of work that people do, how they go about doing their work and how much they do (Rothmann, 2003; Barling, 1999, as cited in De Wet, 2006).

The role that emotions play in the workplace, led the focus of emotion research to *Emotion Work* and emotion management. Service roles are the focus of studies in the field of *Emotion Work*. Employees in these roles have to regulate inappropriate emotions in their daily face-to-face interaction with clients, in order to comply with emotional standards that are congruent with their job requirement (Zammuner & Galli, 2005).

Most of the research that has been done on *Emotion Work* focuses on understanding its effects on people and organisations. The findings suggest that *Emotion Work* is beneficial for organisations in that it is through *Emotion Work* that employees meet their job requirements. The findings also suggest that *Emotion Work* may be harmful to employees, because of increased monitoring requirements, *Burnout*, and dissatisfaction (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

Research on specifically *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* has received the attention of researchers. Examples of such research are Holman, Chissick, and Totterdell (2002), Zapf (2002), Pugliesi (1999), De Wet (2006), and Zapf and Holz (2006).

For the purpose of this study the term *Emotion Work* is used throughout, this is because the term *Emotional Labour* focuses more on societal and economic aspects whereas *Emotion Work* focuses on psychological processes. Work instead of labour is used in work and organisational psychology to refer to cognitive or motivational aspects of work, which is therefore more compatible with this study (Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001).

Grandey (2000) presents a model of *Emotion Work* which includes personal and organisational variables and the relationship between these concepts.

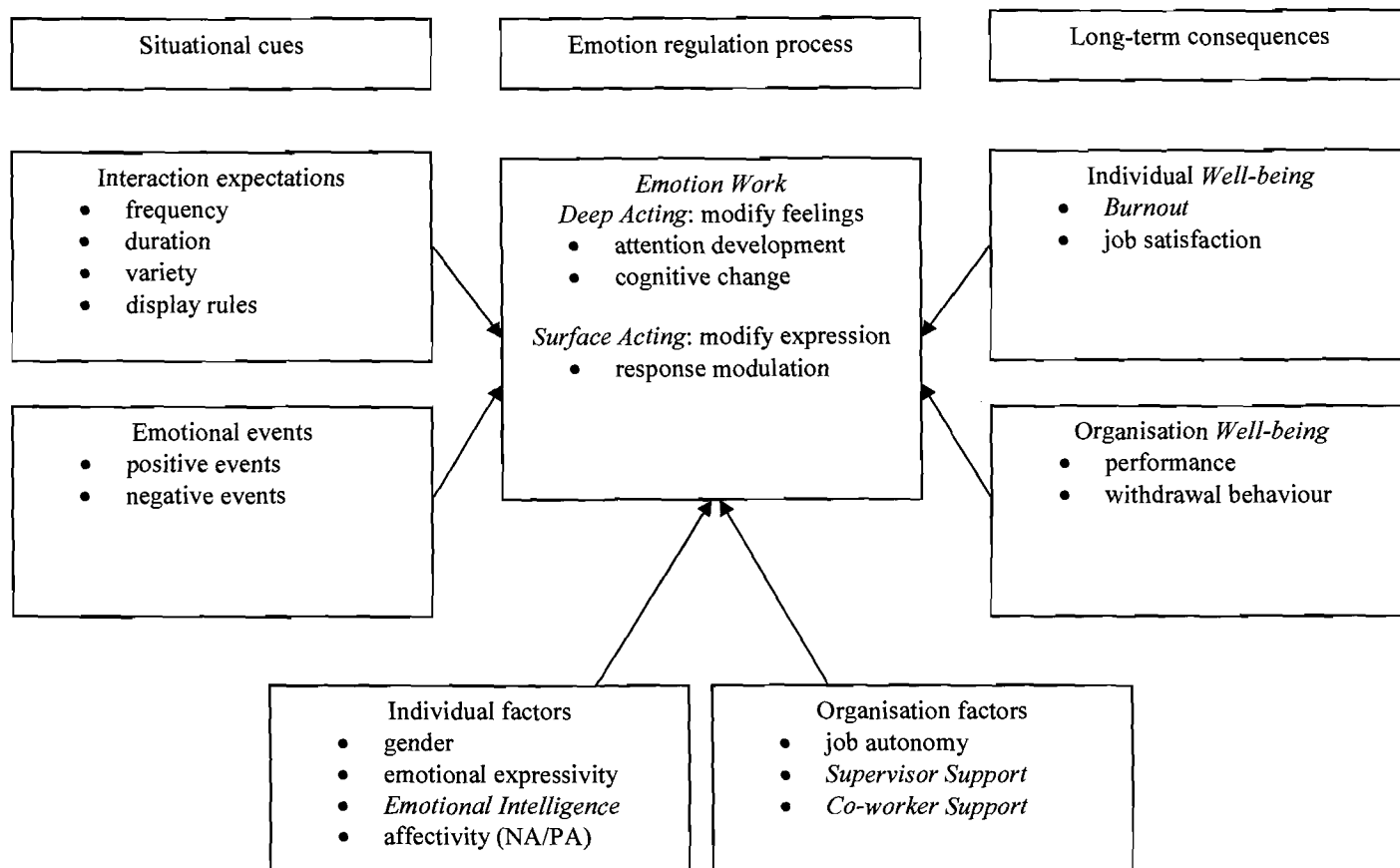


Figure 1: Proposed conceptual framework of emotion regulation performed in the work setting. NA = negative affect, PA = positive affect

Emotion Work is defined by James (1989, p. 15) as “the work involved in dealing with other peoples’ feelings, a core component of which is the regulations of emotions”. Enhancing, faking, and/or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression might also be involved by *Emotion Work*. Hochschild (1983) defines *Emotion Work* as the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display which adds to Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1993) definition that *Emotion Work* is the displaying of the appropriate emotions with the goal of engaging in a form of impression management for the organisation. Ashforth and Humphrey

(1993) are more concerned with *Emotion Work* as an observable behaviour than as the management of feelings.

Morris and Feldman's (1996) definition comes from an interactionist approach where they define *Emotion Work* as the effort, planning and control needed for the employee to express organisationally-desired emotion during interpersonal transactions. According to the interactionist approach, emotions are expressed as well as determined by the social environment (situational factors).

The underlying theme in all these definitions is that individuals can and have to regulate their emotional expressions at work. The regulating of both feelings and expressions for organisational goals is therefore an excellent definition of *Emotion Work*. The sociological concept of *Emotion Work* is similar to the concept of emotion regulation used by social psychologists (Walden & Smith, 1997). Both refer to the efforts to create a normative emotional state, mask feelings in order to present a certain emotional state, and minimise, exaggerate or otherwise control the expression of emotional states. Both *Emotion Work* and emotion regulation encompass interpersonal emotion management—actions intended to influence the emotional states or experiences of others (Pugliesi, 1999).

Gross' (1998a, p. 275) emotion regulation theory is defined as “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions”. Gross (1998a) introduces a model for emotional regulation. In this input-output model, the individual receives stimulation from the situation and responds with emotion. The situation acts as a cue to the individual and the individual's emotional response tendency (physiological, behavioural, and cognitive) provides information to themselves and the others in the social environment (Freud, 1936/1961; Fridja, 1986).

Emotion regulation occurs at two points in the process. The first point, antecedent-focused, the individual can regulate the emotion, such as the situation. The modification of the physiological or observable signs of emotions is the second point. These two processes correspond to the concepts of *Deep Acting* and *Surface Acting* (Grandey, 2000).

Surface Acting and *Deep Acting* are discussed in each perspective as a way of managing emotions. The processes of *Surface Acting* (managing observable expressions) and *Deep Acting* (managing feelings) match therefore the working definition of *Emotion Work* as a process of emotional regulation. The processes of *Surface Acting* and *Deep Acting* may have positive (customer service) and negative results (individual stress and health problems). Hochschild (1983, as cited in Grandey, 2000) suggests that *Surface Acting* and *Deep Acting* map onto the well established emotion regulation theory.

During antecedent-focused emotion regulation, the individual or employee modifies the situation or the perception of the situation in order to adjust his/her emotions. Situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, and cognitive change are different types of antecedent-focused emotion regulation. Situation selection and situation modification (individual chooses to leave the work floor if a certain customer approaches) involve adjustment in the emotion-inducing situation (Bailey, 1996).

Attentional deployment (thinking about events that call up the emotions that one needs in that situation) and cognitive change (one perceives the situation so that the emotional impact is lessened) involves the employee managing emotions by changing the attentional focus and appraisal of the situation. Response modulation will be when the employee, for instance, takes deep breaths in trying to stay calm in a difficult situation. The concept of *Deep Acting* is very similar to attentional deployments (Grandey, 2000).

The second point to Goss' (1998b, p.185) model that an employee could engage in is response-focused emotion regulation. In this process, the employee shows an emotional response by "directly influencing physiological, experiential or behavioural responding". The individual manipulates the emotional expression of their reaction to the situation rather than adjusting the situation or the perception of the situation. The process corresponds with the process of surface acting (Grandey, 2000).

Managing emotions is an important facet of maintaining loyal customers and repeat business in the service industry. As there are different ways to perform emotion, regulation it is possible that some methods are more effective than others and this may impact performance on the job. Emotional expressions that are perceived as insincere by customers may negatively affect

customer service (Grove & Fisk, 1989; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). The more regulation necessary the less 'genuine' the expression.

Research found that when employees 'fake' emotions (surface acting) there seems to be a 'leakage' so that customers can detect the deception (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). *Surface Acting* should therefore be negatively related to service performance. *Deep Acting* or antecedent-focused emotion regulation on the other hand convinces the employee that he or she really feels the way they are trying to express. This leads to an expression that is perceived as more genuine (Gross, 1998b).

Four requirements of emotional regulation are identified by Zapf and Holz (2006), namely positive emotions, negative emotions, sensitivity towards customers' or clients' emotions and overall *Emotional Dissonance* (the expression of emotions that are in contrast to one's own felt emotions). Another requirement is identified by Fischbach and Zapf (2003), namely neutrality (the suppression of positive or negative emotions when the required display emotion is one of neutrality) which may also lead to *Emotional Dissonance*. *Emotional Dissonance* is therefore not only a state that occurs when one is forced to express positive emotions which are not felt, but that also occurs when expressing no emotions if sadness, joy or pain is felt (Tschan, Rochat, & Zapf, 2005, as cited in De Wet 2006).

Deep Acting as mentioned earlier is the regulation that acts on the felt emotion; it involves "pumping emotions up" for an individual to feel the required emotions (Zammuner & Galli, 2005). *Deep Acting* therefore refers to the effort of changing inner feelings in order to comply with the display rules of the organisation. Active *Deep Acting* is a term used by Hochschild (1983) by which the feelings of the service worker are actively manipulated in order to fulfil the job demands. In contrast to active *Deep Acting* is a process termed by Hochschild (1983) as passive *Deep Acting*, which is the phenomenon of authenticity in service where a required emotion is spontaneously felt and displayed by the service worker (Zammuner & Galli, 2005).

Surface Acting is emotion regulation that acts on emotion expression that occurs vocally and/or face-to-face. The employee acts as though he or she feels the context-required emotion (Zammuner & Galli, 2005). *Surface Acting* therefore involves the changing of observable expression, while the inner feelings remain unchanged.

The processes of *Surface Acting* and *Deep Acting* may be related to employee stress and health as well as organisational *Well-being* because both processes require a level of effort by an individual or employee (Grandey, 2000). The two concepts are contrasted as “faking in good faith” (DA) vs. “faking in bad faith” (SA; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Both should result in positive customer service performance, as they are ways of regulating emotions in order to interact with customers/clients with positive emotions, but the processes should also be related to *Burnout*, withdrawal, and negative work attitudes due to the level of effort they require.

Emotional Dissonance, one of the requirements of emotional regulation, is described by Hochschild (1983, as cited in Grandey, 2000) as the state where a discrepancy exists between expressed emotions and felt emotions. Middleton (1989) defines *Emotional Dissonance* as the conflict between genuinely felt emotions and emotions required to be displayed in organisations.

In previous examinations of *Emotional Dissonance*, researchers typically considered *Emotional Dissonance* a consequence of *Emotion Work* (Adelmann, 1989). Rather than being a consequence of *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Dissonance* can and should be seen as one of the dimensions of the *Emotion Work* construct (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

In situations in which there are conflicts between genuinely felt emotions and organisationally-desired emotions, the regulation and expression of emotions are much more difficult and more labour intensive. In cases where the emotion the employee has to display matches the emotion actually felt, considerable control is necessary to regulate the employee’s emotions. The bigger the discrepancy between the felt emotions and the emotions to be displayed, the greater the control, skill, and attentive action needed (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Zapf (2002) argues that the one aspect of *Emotion Work*, the requirement to express positive and sometimes negative emotions toward customers/clients, is not stressful *per se*, but *Emotional Dissonance* should be conceived as stressful. According to Abraham (1998) and Morris and Feldman (1997) *Emotional Dissonance* is related to *Emotional Exhaustion*. The demand to hide negative emotions was found to be positively related to *Burnout* and the *Display of Positive Emotions* was found to be positively related to personal accomplishment (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Burnout is a unique type of stress reaction, and is most commonly conceptualised as a tripartite stress syndrome (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Signs of *Burnout* are *Emotional Exhaustion*, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach, 1982). Two of the components, *Emotional Exhaustion* and depersonalisation are usually seen as the core of *Burnout* (Heuven & Bakker, 2003).

Emotional Exhaustion, the central component of *Burnout*, can be explained as a loss of feeling and concern, a loss of trust, a loss of interest, and a loss of spirit (Maslach, 1982). Emotionally exhausted employees are emotionally drained and can no longer perform effectively in interpersonal interactions. The employee may experience complete depletion and fatigue when a situation provides repeated emotional events that he or she must regulate. To cope with this feeling of depletion, the employee may detach from the customers/clients by objectifying or depersonalising them, which leads to feeling negatively about themselves and their work up to the point where there is a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Grandey, 2000).

Diminished personal accomplishment can be described as depression, low morale, withdrawal, reduced productivity or capability, and an inability to cope. Employees experiencing diminished personal accomplishment tend to experience a decline in job competency and the perception of a lack of successful task accomplishment (Mann, 1999).

In study by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), *Surface Acting* was related to *Emotional Exhaustion*, beyond *Deep Acting* and *Emotional Dissonance*. There is thus empirical support for the relationship of managing emotions at work to *Emotional Exhaustion*. There seems to be less empirical support for *Emotion Work's* relationship to the other dimensions of *Burnout* (Grandey, 2000).

It is, however, expected that *Emotion Work* will have a similarly detrimental effect on depersonalisation and personal accomplishment. The more one needs to effortfully express and suppress emotional responses at work, the more one may choose to depersonalise customers/clients. This may be a way of distancing oneself from the stress of the emotional expenditure. If one is detached when interacting with customers, their potentially emotion-production reactions will matter less (Hochschild, 1983).

“*Burnout* as an erosion of *Engagement* whereby Energy turns into *Exhaustion*, involvement turns into cynicism and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness” (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 34). *Engagement* is the positive of *Burnout* and can be defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2002). “Vigor refers to the high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence also in the face of difficulties” (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004, p. 664). Dedication is a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Vigor and dedication respectively are the direct opposites of *Exhaustion* and cynicism. The third dimension of *Engagement* is termed absorption, which is characterised as by “being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in ones’ work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004, p. 664).

It is evident from the literature that *Emotion Work* can have positive (*Engagement*) and negative (*Burnout*) consequences. According to Grandey (2000), certain individual and organisational factors might have influences on *Emotion Work*. This study focuses on the individual factor, *Emotional Intelligence*, and the organisational factor, *Social Support*.

Emotional Intelligence is the management of emotions that requires intelligence to perceive, learn, and adjust behaviour as necessary. It is thus evident that the concepts of *Emotion Work* and *Emotional Intelligence* overlap (Opengart, 2005). Salovey, Hsee, and Mayer (1993) refer to *Emotional Intelligence* as the ability to recognise and use emotional information in social interactions. Lam and Kirby (2002) define *Emotional Intelligence* as an indication of how an individual perceives, understands, and regulates emotions.

The construct, *Emotional Intelligence* is interpreted as a complex construct consisting of three types of abilities, namely the identification and expression of emotions, the regulation of emotions, and the application of emotional information to thinking and action. One of the signs of high *Emotional Intelligence* is effectiveness in affecting regulation (Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer, 1993). *Emotional Intelligence* is therefore having the ability, whereas *Emotion Work* is acting upon the ability (Fabian, 1999). *Emotional Intelligence* is described by Guy and Newman (2004) as the ability to manage one’s own feelings and emotions and to sense the emotions of others,

using the knowledge to govern one's actions. Self-awareness, self-control, empathy, active listening, conflict resolution, and cooperation with others are related competencies. There is thus a clear theoretical link between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Emotion Work*. Individuals with high *Emotional Intelligence* levels should be able to make use of their superior ability, which is to regulate their emotions in the workplace to produce and experience the appropriate emotions (Austin, Dore & O'Donovan, 2007).

Johnson (2004) finds that *Emotional Intelligence* serves as a moderator in the relationship between *Emotion Work* and all three outcome variables, affective *Well-being*, *Emotional Exhaustion* and job satisfaction. It is therefore evident that individuals with high levels of *Emotional Intelligence* are better able to regulate their emotions to meet organisational display rules, which results in lower *Emotional Exhaustion* and higher levels of effective *Well-being* and job satisfaction. The individuals also fared better as the level of *Emotion Work* increased. Individuals with low levels of *Emotional Intelligence* experienced more negative outcomes with the increase in *Emotion Work*. It is therefore evident that a positive correlation exists between *Emotion Work* and *Emotional Intelligence* (De Wet, 2006). People with high *Emotional Intelligence* tend to make other people feel good about themselves and are therefore skilled at handling social encounters (Grandey, 2000).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) and Morris and Feldman (1996) suggested that organisational factors, especially the environment, is very important in understanding emotion management, which is also supported by the emotion regulation literature. It is very possible that the social situation in which employees work may affect the level and type of *Emotion Work* that they engage in.

Support from Supervisors and co-workers create a positive working environment and help employees to cope with the stress of service jobs (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). *Co-worker* and *Supervisor Support* involve the interpersonal transfer of instrumental or emotional resources (House, 1981, p. 26, as cited in Yoon & Shane, 2000). Research finds that the support of a co-worker and a Supervisor buffers the negative effects of job demands and feelings of *Emotional Exhaustion*. It is therefore evident that people who perceive high levels of *Supervisor Support*

may report high levels of *Emotion Work* but not *Burnout* because support decreases the intensity of the experienced stress.

Social Support is of major importance to the psychological *Well-being* of employees. *Social Support* covers the extent to which people around the employee, such as his/her Supervisor, colleagues as well as his/her wife or husband, family, and friends provide support by being good listeners or by being people that he or she can rely on when help is needed (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison & Pinneau, 1975, as cited in Joubert 2008).

Very limited research has been done on *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* within human-resource employees. It is therefore essential to investigate the effects of *Emotion Work* levels, *Emotional Intelligence*, and *Social Support* on the *Well-being* of employees in the human-resource profession. In this way, interventions can be put in place to address the effects of the mentioned factors.

The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, factors of *Well-being* (*Burnout* and *Engagement*), the individual factor (*Emotional Intelligence*), and the organisational factor (*Social Support*) within human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of this article are:

- to conceptualise *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being*, by conducting a literature review;
- to determine the validity and reliability of the measures of *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being*;
- to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Well-being*, *Emotional Intelligence*, and *Social Support* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry; and
- to determine if *Emotion Work*, *Social Support*, and *Emotional Intelligence* predict *Well-being* in the sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

RESEARCH METHOD

Research design

A cross-sectional survey design was used to reach the objectives of this study. Cross-sectional designs are used for simultaneously examining groups of subjects in various stages, while the survey describes a technique of data collection in which questionnaires are used to gather data about the identified population (Burns & Grove, 1993). This design is well suited for the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research, whereby relationships between variables are examined (Shaugnessey & Zachmeister, 1997).

Participants

A non-probability sample ($n = 236$) of human-resource employees was taken from the chrome industry.

A description of the characteristics of the participants can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 presents some of the characteristics of the participants.

Table 1: Characteristics of the participants (n = 236)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	129	54,7
	Female	107	45,3
Age	21 yrs–31 yrs	76	32,2
	32 yrs–41 yrs	77	32,6
	42 yrs–51 yrs	58	24,6
	52 yrs–66 yrs	25	10,6
Ethnicity	White	171	72,5
	African	46	19,5
	Coloured	10	4,2
	Indian	9	3,8
Qualification	Below Grade 10	2	0,8
	Grade 10	10	4,2
	Grade 11	11	4,7
	Grade 12	51	21,6
	Technikon diploma	47	19,9
	Technical college diploma	43	18,2
	University degree	34	14,4
	Postgraduate degree	26	11,0
	Other	12	5,1
Language	Afrikaans	134	56,8
	English	54	22,9
	Sepedi	24	10,2
	Sesotho	15	6,4
	Setswana	6	2,5
	IsiSwati	2	0,8
	IsiXhosa	1	0,4
Job Title	Administrator, secretary, Personal Assistant	42	17,8
	Officer, full-time Shop steward, Coordinator, Practitioner, Specialist, Superintendent, Advisor, Manager	113	47,9
		81	34,3
Years in Position	1–10 yrs	168	71,2
	11–20 yrs	49	20,8
	21–30 yrs	14	5,9
	More	5	2,1

As shown in Table 2, the participants were predominantly male (54,7%). The participants' ages ranged mostly between twenty-one to thirty-one (32,2%) and thirty-two to forty-one (32,6%). Participants between the ages of forty-two and fifty-one make up 24,6% of the sample and participants between the ages of fifty-two and sixty-six, 10,6% of the sample. The sample consists of White (72,5%), African (19,5%), Coloured (4,2), and Indian (3,8%) participants of which 56,8% were Afrikaans, 22,9% English, and 10,2% Sepedi. Other African languages including Sesotho, Setswana, IsiSwati, and IsiXhosa make up a representation of 10,1% of the sample. The majority of the participants achieved a highest qualification of Grade 12 (21,6%), technikon diplomas (19,9%), and technical college diplomas (18,2%). Other qualifications obtained were university degrees (14,4%), postgraduate degrees (11,0%), and 5,1% other qualifications. The participants operate within the human-resource profession or service departments (administration) as Officers, full-time Shop stewards, Coordinators, Practitioners (47,9%), Specialists, Superintendents, Advisors, Managers (34,3%), Administrators, Secretaries, and Personal Assistants (17,8%). The majority of the participants occupied their positions for between one to ten years (71,2%), 20,8% for between eleven to twenty years, and 8% for between twenty-one to thirty years and more.

Measuring battery

The measuring battery consisted of questionnaires, which were used to test the emotional regulation process and which included measures of *Emotion Work*, *Well-being (Burnout and Engagement)*, individual (*Emotional Intelligence*), and organisational (*Social Support*) factors.

Emotional Intelligence

The Greek Emotional Intelligence Scale (GEIS; Tsaoasis, 2007) measures four basic emotional skills, namely:

- **expression and recognition of emotion:** relates to the ability of the individual to express and recognise accurately their own emotional reactions;
- **control of emotions:** relates to the ability of the individual to control and regulate emotions in themselves and others;
- **use of emotions to facilitate thinking:** relates to the ability of the individual to harness

their own emotions in order to solve problems through optimism and self-assurance, two emotional states that facilitate inductive reasoning and creativity; and

- **caring and empathy:** relates to the willingness of the individual to help other people and his/her ability to comprehend another's feelings, and to re-experience them.

The fifty-three-item instrument demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties, which justifies its use as a reliable and valid measure of *Emotional Intelligence* (Tsaousis, 2007). More specifically, the factor analytic data suggest a four-factor solution, which bears a close resemblance to Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theoretical framework. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four factors range between 0,80 and 0,92. All scales demonstrated high internal consistency, indicating that they are homogeneous in their measurements. Furthermore, test-re-test data covering a four-week period indicates the temporal reliability of the GEIS in that correlation coefficients ranged between 0,79 and 0,91 (Tsaousis, 2007). Also according to Tsaousis (2007), data from five different studies provide support for good convergent and discriminant validity of the GEIS scales, suggesting that the test taps a fairly broad range of related emotional constructs, such as positive correlation with empathy, social skills, emotional expressiveness, and *Well-being*, as well as negative correlation with locus of control, negative affect, low physical and psychological *Well-being*, and work stress. These findings justify the concurrent validation of the newly developed instrument and are, therefore, used in this study.

Well-being

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002) is used to measure the levels of work *Engagement* of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption, which are conceptually seen as the opposite of *Burnout* and scored on a seven-point, frequency-rating scale, varying from 0 ('never') to 6 ('every day'). The questionnaire consists of seventeen questions. The alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales varied between 0,80 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient could be improved (α varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three sub-scales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scale's internal consistency. Storm and Rothmann (2003) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the shortened version of the UWES in a sample of 2396 members of the South African Police Service: vigour, 0,78; dedication, 0,89; and absorption,

0,78. Coetzer (2004) obtained, among a sample of employees in an insurance company, the following alpha coefficients: vigour, 0,80; dedication, 0,87; and absorption, 0,69. The short version of the UWES—Afrikaans and English forms were used in this study.

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OBLI, the English version) is used to measure *Burnout*. Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2002) developed and offer initial construct validity and evidence for the OLBI. The OLBI is based on a model similar to that of the Maslach Burnout Inventory; however, it features two scales, namely *Exhaustion* and disengagement. The most current version of the OLBI features questions that have balanced positive and negative wording (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). The OLBI also features questions designed to assess cognitive and physical components of *Exhaustion* (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Internal consistency of the OLBI is acceptable, with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from 0,74 to 0,87; scores are all above 0,70. Test-re-test reliability showed significant correlations from time 1 to 2. Factorial validity indicated a two-factor model (disengagement and *Exhaustion*). For the purposes of the study, the *Exhaustion* items of the OLBI were selected to measure *Burnout*.

Emotion Work

The Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS) (Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999) is based on the existing literature on *Emotion Work*, action theory and emotional regulation requirements. The subscales include the requirement to express positive emotions, the requirement to express and handle negative emotions, the requirement to be sensitive to clients'/customers' emotions and the requirement to show sympathy emotional regulation possibilities (control) and emotional regulation problems (*Emotional Dissonance*) and client contact. Scales showed satisfactory reliabilities. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis revealed minor problems with discriminant validity of the scales within samples of a handicapped children's home ($n = 82$), in the hotel business ($n = 175$) and employees working in call centres ($n = 250$). Construct validation showed that Emotion Work scales were both positively and negatively related with psychological health (Zapf et al., 1999). The Emotion Work Scales that will be used in this study are the requirement to express positive emotions, the requirement to be sensitive to clients' or customers' emotions, client contact and *Emotional Dissonance*.

The following subscales of the FEWS were used to measure *Emotion Work*: *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive Emotions*, the *Display of Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative Emotions*, and the *Display of Unpleasant Emotions*.

Social Support

The Social Support Scale is used to measure the construct, *Social Support*, with a ten-item questionnaire based on the work of Caplan et al. (1975), which examined the relation between job demands and worker health. In their findings, they state that *Social Support* appears to be of major importance to the psychological *Well-being* of the workers. Low support from Supervisors and from others at work is associated not only with job dissatisfaction, but also with depression (with a correlation of or above 0.30). The items in the questionnaire cover the extent to which people around the employee provide support by being good listeners or by being persons he or she can rely on when help is needed. Validity and reliability within a South African context are established in this study.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS (Muijs, 2004). The programme was used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability, validity, construct equivalence and predictive bias of the measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, t-tests, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients, canonical analysis, and moderated multiple regression analysis.

Prior to principal factor extraction, principal component extraction was done, to estimate the number of factors, the presence of outliers and the factorability of the correlation matrices. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) are used to describe the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations were used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity, and uni-dimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995).

In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to decide on the practical significance of the findings. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship

between the variables. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect) and 0,5 (large effect) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988).

A multiple regression analysis was done to determine the percentage variance. A correlation can be better understood by determining R^2 (Cohen, 1988). The square of the correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of variance in any two variables, which is predicted by the variance in the other.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics and the Alpha coefficients of the *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support*, and *Well-being* constructs are demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 2: *The descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of the Emotion Work, Emotional Intelligence, Social Support, and Well-being constructs*

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
<i>Emotional Dissonance</i>	27,75	6,91	-0,14	-0,91	0,87
<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	37,27	6,30	-0,66	0,10	0,87
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	16,58	4,13	-0,31	-0,55	0,88
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	16,90	5,20	0,49	-0,25	0,82
<i>Use of Emotion</i>	59,01	10,41	-1,03	0,84	0,90
<i>Caring Empathy</i>	53,93	8,58	-0,74	0,81	0,91
<i>Control of Emotions</i>	27,63	5,85	-0,40	-0,50	0,80
<i>Expression Recognition</i>	22,86	5,93	-0,21	-0,48	0,80
<i>Exhaustion</i>	20,51	2,94	0,37	0,43	0,77
<i>Engagement</i>	38,92	9,59	0,71	8,46	0,92
<i>SSfamily</i>	11,61	3,07	-0,69	-0,46	0,87
<i>SSSupervisor</i>	11,86	3,00	-0,95	0,32	0,94
<i>SSCo-worker</i>	11,11	2,84	-0,63	0,22	0,89

It is evident from Table 2, that all of the scales of the measuring instruments have normal distributions except for *Engagement* where the kurtosis was positively skewed. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the constructs are considered acceptable, compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

A principal axis factor analysis was carried out on the fifty-two items of the GEIS, which explained 62% of the variance. Five factors with eigen values larger than one were obtained. However, the scree plot (Figure 2) showed a sharp break after the fourth factor, and it was decided (based on the theory of the GEIS instrument) to extract four factors (with an oblimen rotation) which explained 53,3% of the variance explained. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 3. Loadings of factors, communalities, and percent of variance explained are also in Table 3. Labels are suggested for each factor in the footnote.

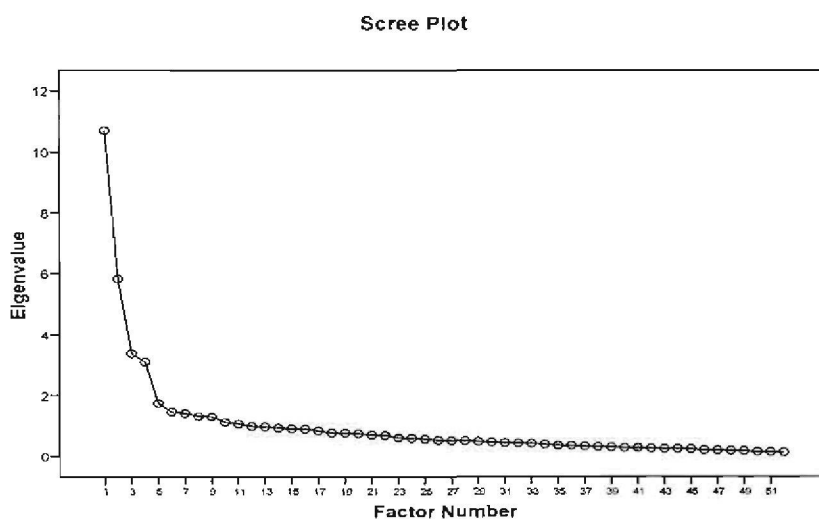


Figure 2: Scree plot

The results of the factor analysis on the GEIS are shown in Table 3. Loading of variable on factors, communalities and percent variance are shown. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loadings to facilitate interpretation. Labels for each factor are suggested in a footnote.

Table 3: Factor loadings, communalities (h^2), percentage variance for principal factors extraction and direct oblimin rotation on GEIS items

	Factor				h^2
	1	2	3	4	
I trust my abilities and I undertake the resolution of difficult situations.	0,76	0,03	-0,10	0,04	0,59
I feel confident before important events in my life.	0,72	-0,12	0,07	-0,06	0,54
Most of the time, I believe that things will go well for me.	0,72	0,12	0,14	0,04	0,55
I adapt easily by reacting creatively to any obstacles.	0,71	0,15	0,10	-0,09	0,55
I always try to see the good side of things.	0,70	0,17	0,10	0,08	0,53
I find various alternative solutions to a problem.	0,68	0,12	0,03	0,00	0,47
When faced with failure, I tend to behave energetically by designing a new plan of action.	0,67	0,10	0,03	0,12	0,48
I think of the positive side of things.	0,66	0,11	0,16	0,05	0,47
I function more based on the hope for success and less with the fear of failure.	0,65	0,10	0,26	-0,09	0,50
I deal with my problems in a positive way by trusting myself.	0,63	0,10	0,20	-0,02	0,44
I have the tendency to focus on the negative side of things.	0,54	0,06	0,28	0,07	0,38
It's difficult for me to be optimistic.	0,53	0,14	0,30	0,15	0,41
Usually, my personal problems do not affect my performance at work.	0,50	0,09	0,00	-0,08	0,27
I am usually pessimistic about future accomplishments	0,48	0,18	0,15	0,06	0,29
My worries and stress do not decrease my ability to complete any task.	0,43	0,07	-0,02	0,10	0,20
Prior to important events, I feel tense.	0,38	-0,29	0,24	0,05	0,29
I am always willing to help someone who is confronted with personal problems.	0,22	0,80	0,03	-0,01	0,69
I show my concern to others.	0,06	0,72	0,06	0,07	0,53
I believe that I am a person who helps and is considerate of others.	0,15	0,70	0,07	0,01	0,52
I sympathise with others' personal problems.	0,06	0,70	0,11	0,02	0,51
I am not interested in the problems of others.	0,13	0,68	0,08	0,08	0,50
I can easily understand what	0,16	0,68	0,04	0,18	0,53

someone else feels by putting myself in his or her position.					
I am 'open' to listen to others.	0,20	0,68	0,15	0,12	0,54
When someone is talking to me about his or her problems, I almost feel like I have experienced these problems myself.	0,02	0,65	0,04	0,13	0,44
I respond to the emotions of others.	0,02	0,58	0,01	0,16	0,37
I like to talk with others about their problems.	0,03	0,57	-0,03	0,19	0,37
I respect others' emotions.	0,12	0,52	0,12	0,10	0,31
When I am conversing with someone, I concentrate on what he or she is telling me.	0,26	0,48	0,18	-0,09	0,34
I make others feel comfortable with me.	0,16	0,47	0,15	0,27	0,34
When I try to help someone, I unintentional-ly give directions by strongly criticising them.	-0,02	0,42	0,38	0,04	0,33
I cannot stand injustice.	0,09	-0,36	0,34	-0,13	0,27
I am interested in other's psychological motives.	0,04	0,26	0,02	0,09	0,08
I often get angry and afterwards I find my anger inexcusable.	0,15	0,05	0,63	0,15	0,44
I usually control my anger.	0,18	0,32	0,63	-0,10	0,54
I get carried away by emotions of anger.	0,16	0,21	0,60	0,11	0,44
When I am upset everything bothers me.	0,32	0,08	0,55	0,14	0,43
When I am under pressure I snap.	0,32	0,18	0,52	0,06	0,40
I often regret things that I did or said when I was angry.	0,15	-0,07	0,50	0,06	0,28
I get angry easily, but my anger does not last for too long.	0,09	-0,04	-0,48	0,07	0,24
I have the tendency to show my impatience to others.	-0,08	0,32	0,46	-0,03	0,32
When I am experiencing a sad event I react intensely.	0,12	-0,30	0,41	-0,26	0,34
I often have conflicting emotions for the same persons.	0,26	0,12	0,41	0,05	0,25
I find it difficult to express my emotions to others.	0,12	0,15	-0,03	0,78	0,65
I am unable to explain my emotional state to others.	0,25	0,12	0,07	0,65	0,51
I am careful not to reveal my emotions to others.	-0,14	0,01	-0,10	0,62	0,41
I am reserved in expressing my emotions.	-0,10	0,16	-0,17	0,53	0,35
I usually keep to myself when I am sad.	-0,12	-0,03	0,11	0,52	0,30
I overlook my emotions.	-0,05	0,23	-0,07	0,48	0,29

I find it difficult to describe exactly what I feel with words.	0,19	0,18	0,06	0,48	0,30
I rarely analyse my emotions.	-0,02	0,22	0,07	0,42	0,23
I believe that few people understand my emotions.	0,19	0,06	0,22	0,37	0,22
Most people cannot understand exactly what I feel.	0,19	0,01	0,23	0,35	0,21
Variance Explained	29,60%	11,20%	6,50%	6,0%	
Total variance explained					53,3%

F₁ Use of Emotion, F₂ Caring & Empathy, F₃ Control of Emotions, F₄ Emotion Expression/Recognition

Table 3 shows that the principal axis analysis with an oblimin rotation resulted in four factors. Items loading on the first dimension related to the *Use of Emotion* (for example, “I get angry easily, but my anger does not last for too long”: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = I am not certain, 4 = agree, or 5 = strongly agree). The second factor is concerned with *Caring and Empathy* (for example, “I am always willing to help someone who is confronted with personal problems”: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = I am not certain, 4 = agree, or 5 = strongly agree). The third factor addresses the *Control of Emotions* (for example, “I usually control my anger”: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = I am not certain, 4 = Agree, or 5 = strongly agree). The last factor is the *Expression and Recognition of Emotions* (for example, “I am reserved in expressing emotions”: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = I am not certain, 4 = agree, or 5 = strongly agree).

Each factor is described below (Tsaousis, 2007):

Factor 1 was termed *Use of Emotion* which relates to the ability of the individual to harness their own emotions in order to solve problems via optimism and self-assurance, which in turn facilitate inductive reasoning and creativity. Examples of items included in the sub-scale are: “*I think of the positive side of things*” and “*Usually, my personal problems do not affect my performance at work*”.

Factor 2 was named *Caring and Empathy* and relates to the willingness of the individual to help other people and his/her ability to understand someone else’s feelings, as well as re-experience them. Examples of items included in this sub-scale are: “*I respond to the emotions of others*” and “*I sympathise with others’ personal problems*”.

Factor 3 was named *Control of Emotions* and relates to the ability of the individual to control and regulate emotions in themselves and others. Examples of items included in the sub-scale are: “*I get carried away by emotions of anger*” and “*When I am under pressure I snap*”.

Factor 4 was termed *Expression and Recognition of Emotions* and relates to the ability of the individual to express and recognise his/her own emotional reactions accurately. Examples of items include in this sub-scale are: “*I find it difficult to describe exactly what I feel with words*” and “*I am unable to explain my emotional state to other*”.

The product-moment correlation coefficients between the *Well-being*, *Supervisory Support*, *Emotion Work*, and *Emotional Intelligence* constructs are given below in Table 4.

Table 4: Correlation coefficients between Well-being, Supervisory Support, Emotion Work, and Emotional Intelligence.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 - Exhaustion	.												
2- Engagement	-0,58* ⁺⁺	.											
3- SSFamily	-0,19*	0,25*	.										
4 - SSSupervisor	-0,24*	0,22*	0,32* ⁺	.									
5 - SS Co-worker	-0,25*	0,33* ⁺	0,45* ⁺	0,57* ⁺⁺	.								
6 - Use of Emotion	-0,47* ⁺⁺	0,44* ⁺⁺	0,12	0,18*	0,22*	.							
7 - Caring Empathy	-0,14*	0,28*	0,25*	0,13*	0,26*	0,30* ⁺	.						
8 - Control of Emotions	-0,43* ⁺	0,30* ⁺⁺	0,15*	0,13*	0,15*	0,46* ⁺⁺	0,33* ⁺	.					
9 - Expression Recognition	-0,06	0,17*	0,18*	0,11	0,17*	0,08	0,28*	0,13*	.				
10 - Display of Neutral Dissonance	0,25*	-0,21*	-0,03	-0,05	0,06	-0,03	0,08	-0,03	-0,07	.			
11 - Display of Positive/ Pleasant Emotions	-0,13	0,20*	0,15*	0,13*	0,26*	0,13*	0,48* ⁺⁺	0,20*	0,22*	0,33* ⁺⁺	.		
12 - Display of Empathy	0,00	0,19*	0,02	0,03	0,22*	0,01	0,45* ⁺⁺	0,06	0,12	0,40* ⁺⁺	0,60* ⁺⁺	.	
13 - Display of Negative Unpleasant Emotions	0,28*	-0,22*	-0,16*	-0,23*	-0,25*	-0,13*	-0,39* ⁺⁺	-0,36* ⁺⁺	-0,09	-0,01	-0,30*	-0,20*	.

* Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level

+ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,30$ (medium effect)

++Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,50$ (large effect)

It is evident from Table 4 that all of the following constructs mentioned in the discussion below, are statistically and practically significant. *Exhaustion* is negatively correlated with *Engagement* (large effect) and negatively correlated with the *Use of Emotions* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Engagement* is positively correlated with *Co-worker Support* (SSCo-worker), the *Use of Emotion* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Family Support* (SSFFamily) is positively correlated with *Supervisor Support* and *Co-worker Support* (medium effect). *Supervisor Support* (SSSupervisor) is positively correlated with *Co-worker Support* (large effect). The *Use of Emotion* is positively correlated with *Caring Empathy* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Caring Empathy* is positively correlated with the *Control of Emotions*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, and the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect) and negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (medium effect). The *Control of Emotions* is negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (medium effect). *Emotional Dissonance* is positively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect). The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* is positively correlated with the *Display of Empathy* (large effect).

The result of a multiple regression analysis with *Engagement* as dependant variable and *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work*, and *Supervisory Support* as independat variable is displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: Multiple regression analyses with Engagement as dependent variable

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
		B	SE	Beta						
1	(Constant)	6,63	4,42		1,50	0,14	16,65	0,47	0,23	0,23
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	0,37	0,06	0,41	6,11	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	0,12	0,08	0,11	1,57	0,12				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	0,04	0,11	0,03	0,37	0,71				
	<i>Expression</i>	0,14	0,10	0,09	1,42	0,16				
	<i>Recognition</i>									
2	(Constant)	16,19	6,17		2,62	0,01	10,87	0,53	0,28	0,05
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	0,38	0,06	0,42	6,36	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	-0,03	0,09	-0,02	-0,30	0,76				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	-0,01	0,11	-0,01	-0,10	0,92				
	<i>Expression</i>	0,11	0,10	0,07	1,16	0,25				
	<i>Recognition</i>									
	<i>Display of Neutral</i>	-0,27	0,09	-0,20	-3,09	0,00				
	<i>Dissonance</i>									
	<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	0,12	0,13	0,08	0,96	0,34				
	<i>Display of Empathy</i>	0,34	0,18	0,15	1,90	0,06				
	<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	-0,20	0,12	-0,11	-1,63	0,10				
3	(Constant)	11,71	6,46		1,81	0,07	9,13	0,56	0,31	0,03
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	0,35	0,06	0,39	5,86	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	-0,05	0,09	-0,04	-0,52	0,60				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	-0,01	0,11	-0,01	-0,08	0,94				
	<i>Expression</i>	0,08	0,10	0,05	0,83	0,41				
	<i>Recognition</i>									
	<i>Display of Neutral</i>	-0,27	0,09	-0,20	-3,14	0,00				
<i>Dissonance</i>										

<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	0,11	0,13	0,07	0,84	0,40
<i>Display of Empathy</i>	0,30	0,18	0,13	1,69	0,09
<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	-0,13	0,12	-0,07	-1,03	0,30
<i>SSfamily</i>	0,10	0,19	0,03	0,49	0,62
<i>SSSupervisor</i>	0,02	0,22	0,01	0,07	0,94
<i>SSCo-worker</i>	0,60	0,25	0,18	2,42	0,02

$F_{(4, 22)}$

Table 5 summarises the regression analyses with *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work*, and *Supervisory Support* as predictors of *Engagement*. Entry of *Emotional Intelligence* in the first step of the regression analysis produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(4, 22)} = 16,65$; $p = 0,00$), accounting for approximately 23% of the variance ($R^2 = 0,23$). More specifically, it seemed that the *Use of Emotion* ($\beta = 0,41$; $t = 6,11$; $p \leq 0,05$) predicts *Engagement*. When *Emotion Work* was entered into the second step of the regression analysis, the variance explained increased by 5% ($\Delta R^2 = 0,05$). It seemed that *Emotional Dissonance* ($\beta = -0,20$; $t = -3,09$; $p \leq 0,05$) was a significant predictor of the variance explained in *Engagement*. When *Social Support* constructs were entered into the third step, a statistically significant model was also produced ($F_{(11, 22)} = 9,13$; $p = 0,00$; $\Delta R^2 = 0,03$), which explained 31% of the total variance. *Social Support* of co-workers ($\beta = 0,18$; $t = 2,42$; $p \leq 0,05$) was a significant predictor of *Engagement*.

The result of a multiple regression analysis with *Exhaustion* as dependant variable and *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work*, and *Supervisory Support* as independant variable are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6: Multiple regression analyses with *Exhaustion* as dependent variable

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
		B	SE	Beta						
1	(Constant)	29,38	1,31		22,46	0,00	22,64	0,53	0,29	0,29
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	-0,10	0,02	-0,37	-5,78	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	0,02	0,02	0,07	1,02	0,31				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	-0,14	0,03	-0,28	-4,23	0,00				
	<i>Expression Recognition</i>	-0,01	0,03	-0,02	-0,34	0,74				
2	(Constant)	23,20	1,75		13,27	0,00	17,82	0,62	0,39	0,10
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	-0,11	0,02	-0,38	-6,15	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	0,06	0,03	0,17	2,42	0,02				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	-0,10	0,03	-0,20	-3,09	0,00				
	<i>Expression Recognition</i>	0,01	0,03	0,01	0,20	0,85				
	<i>Display of Neutral Dissonance</i>	0,11	0,03	0,26	4,41	0,00				
	<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	-0,06	0,04	-0,12	-1,59	0,11				
	<i>Display of Empathy</i>	-0,00	0,05	-0,00	-0,06	0,95				
3	(Constant)	24,69	1,82		13,59	0,00	14,85	0,65	0,43	0,04
	<i>Use of Emotion</i>	-0,10	0,01	-0,35	-5,68	0,00				
	<i>Caring Empathy</i>	0,07	0,02	0,20	2,75	0,01				
	<i>Control of Emotions</i>	-0,10	0,03	-0,20	-3,18	0,00				
	<i>Expression Recognition</i>	0,02	0,03	0,03	0,60	0,55				
	<i>Display of Neutral Dissonance</i>	0,11	0,02	0,26	4,50	0,00				
	<i>Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions</i>	-0,05	0,04	-0,11	-1,43	0,15				
	<i>Display of Empathy</i>	0,01	0,05	0,01	0,10	0,92				
	<i>Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions</i>	0,10	0,04	0,18	2,94	0,00				
	<i>SSfamily</i>	-0,05	0,05	-0,06	-0,95	0,35				
	<i>SSSupervisor</i>	-0,00	0,06	-0,00	-0,04	0,97				
<i>SSCo-worker</i>	-0,18	0,07	-0,18	-2,60	0,01					

Table 6 summarises the regression analyses with *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work*, and *Supervisory Support* as predictors of *Exhaustion*. Entry of *Emotional Intelligence* at the first step of the regression analyses produced a statistically significant model ($F_{(4,22)} = 22,64$; $p = 0,00$), accounting for approximately 29% of the variance ($R^2 = 0,29$) More specifically, it seemed that

the *Use of Emotion* ($\beta = -0,37$; $t = -5,78$; $p \leq 0,05$) and the *Control of Emotion* ($\beta = -0,28$; $t = -4,23$; $p \leq 0,05$) predicted the level of *Exhaustion* experienced. When *Emotion Work* was entered into the second step, a statistically significant model was also produced ($F_{(8,22)} = 17,82$; $p = 0,00$), which explained 39% of the total variance ($R^2 = 0,39$). It seemed that *Emotional Dissonance* ($\beta = 0,26$; $t = 4,41$; $p \leq 0,05$) and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* ($\beta = 0,22$; $t = 3,60$; $p \leq 0,05$) predicted the level of *Exhaustion*. When *Social Support* constructs were entered into the final step the variance explained increased by a further 4% ($\Delta R^2 = 0,04$), explaining 43% of the total variance ($R^2 = 0,43$). *Co-worker Support* is ($\beta = -0,18$; $t = -2,60$; $p \leq 0,05$) a significant predictor for the variance explained in the experience of *Exhaustion*.

DISCUSSION

The objective of the study was to determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, organisational factors (*Supervisor* and *Co-worker Support*), and *Well-being* (*Burnout* and *Engagement*) of human-resource employees within the chrome industry.

In comparison to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being* constructs are viewed as acceptable. All the scales of the measuring instruments, namely *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*, the *Use of Emotions*, *Caring Empathy*, the *Control of Emotions*, *Expression Recognition*, *Exhaustion*, *Engagement*, *SSFamily*, *SSSupervisor*, and *SSCo-worker*, have normal distributions except for *Engagement* where the kurtosis was positively skewed.

Four factors were extracted on the fifty-two items of the GEIS, namely the *Use of Emotion*, *Caring Empathy*, the *Control of Emotions*, *Expression Recognition*, and *Regulation of Emotion*, which corresponds to Joubert's (2008) study.

The results identified *Exhaustion* to be negatively correlated with *Engagement* (large effect) and negatively correlated with the *Use of Emotion* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Engagement* is seen as the positive of *Burnout*. Central to the concept of *Burnout* is *Emotional Exhaustion*. Zapf (2002) supports the negative correlation between *Exhaustion* and the *Control of*

Emotions by finding that one indication of *Burnout* in an employee or individual is that the employee is no longer able to manage or control his/her emotions adequately when interacting with customers/clients. An employee is therefore not in fully control of his/her emotions. The negative correlation between *Exhaustion* and the *Use of Emotion* can be explained by the display of intense emotions (the *Display of Empathy* or sympathy or the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*) in customer or client encounters with few opportunities or resources to replenish the emotions being spent. This results in *Emotional Exhaustion*.

The results also identified *Engagement* to be positively correlated with *Co-worker Support*, the *Use of Emotion*, and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Co-worker Support* and *Supervisor Support* create a positive environment in an organisation, which buffers the negative effects of job demands and feelings of *Emotional Exhaustion*. Support results in job satisfaction, lowered stress, and a positive environment, which again results in an employee who believes in the organisation and desires to work to make things better and to put in extra effort. The individual experiences greater meaning in his/her work and will have respect for and be helpful towards co-workers. The positive environment as well as the aforementioned factors will make it easier for an individual to regulate his/her emotions and to *Display Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and *Empathy*.

Family Support was found to be positively correlated with *Supervisor Support* and *Co-worker Support* (medium effect); and *Supervisor Support* again is positively correlated with *Co-worker Support* (large effect). This correlation with each other may indicate that when employees or individuals experience support from each other or from their Supervisors, they also tend to experience support from their families. The same applies for *Co-worker Support* and *Supervisor Support*. When an individual experiences his/her family as supporting him or her (a happy and positive family life), he or she tends to experience support from his/her co-workers and Supervisors.

Also identified in the results was the positive correlation between the *Use of Emotion*, *Caring Empathy*, and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Caring Empathy* was also found to be positively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect) and negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*

(medium effect). It can thus be deduced that the emotions mostly displayed in customer/client encounters are the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Neutrality*. Those who work in customer service may encourage repeat business by showing smiles and good humour; for therapists or judges, a lack of emotional responding may be needed when listening to clients (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989 as cited in Grandey, 2000). The display rules of an organisation specify the range of emotions to be displayed, for example to be helpful, friendly, caring, show empathy, and suppress negative emotions. One can group the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, together with *Caring Empathy* and the *Display of Empathy* as part of the display rule range. The *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* does not form part of the range and can be seen as the opposite of the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*. An individual does not always feel like adhering to the display rules set by the organisation, which results in the regulation of one's emotions by means of *Surface Acting* or *Deep Acting* (Control of Emotions). Hochschild's (1983, as cited in Grandey, 2000) concepts of *Surface Acting*, active *Deep Acting*, and emotional effort refer to the degree to which employees actively try to change their inner feelings in order to match the feelings they are expected to express.

Emotional Dissonance was found to be positively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect). As discussed in Chapter 2, the underlying assumption of *Emotion Work* is the regulation process of both feelings and expressions in accordance with occupational or organisational "display rules" to achieve organisational goals (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, as cited in Rafferty, 2005). The display rules specified by an organisation usually fall in the range of positive/pleasant emotions, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Neutrality*. An individual will therefore try to display the relevant emotion in customer/client encounters whether it is the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* or the *Display of Empathy*. In some instances when the individual does not feel like displaying the appropriate emotions the individual will use *Surface Acting* to do so. During *Surface Acting* there will be no attempt to feel or experience the displayed emotion, which will create a discrepancy between displayed and felt emotion (Holman et al., 2002, p. 63). The discrepancy caused as well as the need to hide negative emotions experienced in client/customer relations creates *Emotional Dissonance*.

The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* was found to be positively correlated with the *Display of Empathy* (large effect). The display rule range in most of the service industries especially in the human-resource industry includes the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* (friendliness, helpful, enthusiasm, hope, cheerful) and the *Display of Empathy* (empathy, sympathy, understanding, caring), the *Display of Neutrality*, and the suppression of negative emotions (anger, being rude). The *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* can be grouped together in the display rule range, which explains their positive correlation.

A multiple regression analysis with *Engagement* as dependent variable was done. The results indicate that *Emotional Intelligence* explains 23%, *Emotion Work* explains 5%, and *Co-worker Support* explains 31% of the total variance. The results indicate that the entry of *Emotional Intelligence* produces a statistically significant model accounting for approximately 23% of the variance; when *Emotion Work* was included, the variance increased by 5%. When *Social Support* constructs were entered, a statistically significant model was produced which explains 31% of the variance. The *Use of Emotion* and *Co-worker Support* were predictors of *Engagement*. As explained above, *Co-worker and Supervisor Support* create a positive environment in an organisation, which results in job satisfaction, lowered stress, and a positive environment. These factors make it easier for an individual to regulate his/her emotions and to *Display Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and *Empathy*. *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work* and *Supervisory Support* are predictors of *Engagement*. This is in line with the research of Vermeulen (2004) where *Emotional Intelligence* is seen as the single biggest predictor of *Engagement*. This finding is supported by several authors, theorising that high *Emotional Intelligence* would lead to greater feelings of emotional *Well-being* (Goleman, 1996; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The above-mentioned authors' theory thus also explains the relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Exhaustion* as discussed in the following paragraph.

A multiple regression analysis with *Exhaustion* as dependent variable was done. The results indicate that the entry of *Emotional Intelligence* produced a statistically significant model accounting for approximately 29% of the variance, when *Emotion Work* was entered a significant model was also produced, which explained 39% of the variance. When *Social Support* was entered the variance increased by 4%, explaining 43% of the total variance. The *Use of Emotion*, the *Control of Emotion*, *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*,

and *Co-worker Support* were predictors of *Exhaustion*. One indication of *Burnout* in an employee or individual is that the employee is no longer able to manage or control his/her emotions adequately when interacting with customers/clients (Zapf, 2002). *Emotional Dissonance* has been associated with reduced *Well-being*, more specifically *Emotional Exhaustion*. For the employee to cope with the dissonance, he or she may regulate their emotions through *Surface Acting* or *Deep Acting* (Holman et al., 2002). According to Abraham (1998) and Morris and Feldman (1997) *Emotional Dissonance* is related to *Emotional Exhaustion*. The demand to hide negative emotions was related to *Burnout* and the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* was positively related to personal accomplishment (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Emotional strain stems largely from the effort required to hide one's true feeling (negative/unpleasant emotions), which again results in *Emotional Exhaustion*. Research finds that the support of co-workers buffers the negative effects of job demands and feelings of *Emotional Exhaustion*. *Co-worker Support* is a predictor of *Engagement*, the positive of *Burnout*. As explained above, *Co-worker* and *Supervisor Support* create a positive environment in an organisation, which results in job satisfaction, lowered stress, and a positive environment. The positive environment, lowered stress levels, and job satisfaction are all factors that make it easier to *Display Positive/Pleasant Emotions*. *Emotional Intelligence*, *Emotion Work*, and *Supervisory Support* are predictors of *Exhaustion*.

The study had several limitations. One of which, was that a cross-sectional design was used, which makes it impossible to prove the casualty of the obtained relationship. It is therefore necessary to apply further study to the relationship between each of the following factors: *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, organisational factors (*Social Support*) and *Well-being* (*Burnout* and *Engagement*). Only self-report questionnaires were used, the results are therefore not objective and may be inaccurate. The questionnaires were only available in English while the majority of the study population was Afrikaans speaking. The length of the questionnaire could also have influenced the results. Participants may have taken less time to complete the questionnaire so as not to waste their own time or to get it done quickly. Finally, the study was only conducted in the chrome industry, the results can therefore not be generalised or expanded to include all elements of the human-resource profession.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study suggested a relationship between *Emotion Work*, individual factors (*Emotional Intelligence*) and organisational factors (*Supervisor* and *Co-worker Support*) and *Well-being* (*Burnout* and *Engagement*).

Firstly, interventions should be put in place to ensure that the levels of *Emotion Work* are monitored throughout an employee's career path. This monitoring can be done by means of performance contracts, where one can measure the level of an employee's *Engagement* and performance as a whole. The lower the level of *Engagement* the more likely is it that the employee will incline to the other antipode, *Burnout*.

Secondly, Supervisors need to be educated on what *Emotion Work* is, what it entails, and the different concepts of *Emotion Work*. It is important for Supervisors to understand the meaning and relationships between the concepts, which will help them to monitor the *Well-being* of an employee and to recognise the signs of *Burnout*. When Supervisors and employees understand the relationship between *Supervisor* and *Co-worker Support*, they can give their subordinates and co-workers the necessary support.

Thirdly, an employee wellness program can be put in place, to help employees with all kinds of problems they may face such as financial management, family problems, and emotional or psychological problems, which may be a result of high levels of *Emotion Work* as well as not enough *Family*, *Supervisor*, or *Co-worker Support*.

It is recommended that a qualitative study be conducted on larger populations, such as human-resource departments outside the chrome industry, to generalise the results in order to create effective programs to address the effects of *Emotion Work*.

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CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter encompasses conclusions regarding the literature review and the empirical study according to the specific objectives. The limitations for the research study are highlighted and recommendations are made for the industry as well as for future studies.

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, conclusions are drawn in terms of specific objectives and empirical findings obtained in the present research study.

- **To conceptualise *Emotion Work* and measurement from a literature study**

Researchers have conceptualised *Emotion Work* in different ways, but an underlying assumption is that *Emotion Work* is the regulation process of both feelings and expressions in accordance with occupational or organisational “display rules” to achieve organisational goals. *Emotion Work* measures include the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS), which measures, frequency, intensity, variety, duration, *Surface Acting*, and *Deep Acting*; the Emotional Labour Inventory (ELI), which measures different aspects of workplace emotion, expectations, or rules about emotional display, emotional suppression and emotional faking; and the Emotional Labor Scale, which measures the extent to which emotional expression is expected as part of the job and the degree to which the respondents would actually display prescribed emotions. Kruml and Geddes (2000) identified another measure of *Emotion Work* named the Emotional Labour Scale. The Emotional Labour Scale measures emotive effort and emotive dissonance. More measures of *Emotion Work* are the Emotion Work Requirement Scale (EWRS), which measures emotional suppression and emotional support and control; the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales (FEWS), which measure positive emotions, negative emotions sensitivity requirements, showing empathy, and *Emotional Dissonance*; and the Job Content Questionnaire, which measures communications skills, human relations skills, and emotional demands. Another measure of *Emotion Work* is the Dutch Questionnaire (D-QEL). Very little information is available on the D-QEL and it is therefore unclear what the dimensions of the measuring instrument are. Schaubroeck and Jones (2000)

identified a measure that measures demands for positive efference, suppression, and negative efference, the name of the test is however unknown. It is evident from the literature that the FEWS cover most of the dimensions of *Emotion Work*. The accurate means of measuring *Emotion Work* would offer a number of benefits, such as enabling direct exploration of relationships of *Emotion Work* performance with other variables such as stress, *Burnout*, absenteeism, and performance. Researchers would be able to use the measure to ascertain levels of associated costs or benefits of *Emotion Work* performance within organisations, to make comparisons of *Emotion Work* in different professions as well as if the measured *Emotion Work* is found to be related to consequences such as *Burnout*, the scale would enable employees to monitor their own *Emotion Work* levels throughout a working day, helping them to reduce sources of stress. Employees can also introduce intervention strategies to reduce *Emotion Work* performance.

- **To determine the validity and reliability of a measure of *Emotion Work* for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry**

According to the descriptive statistics, four factors were extracted as a measure of Emotion Work of the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales and was labelled *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions*, the *Display of Empathy*, and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. These factors showed normal distributions with low skewness and kurtosis, except for the skewness of the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the measuring instrument is considered to be acceptable compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). It therefore appears that the measuring instrument has acceptable levels of consistency. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the different scales are as follows: *Emotional Dissonance* (0,87), the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* (0,87), the *Display of Empathy* (0,88), and the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (0,82).

- **To determine if demographic variables predict the experience of *Emotion Work* in a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry**

A MANOVA was used to determine differences between different demographic groups for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry. With regard to *Emotion Work*,

the results indicated that the African ethnic group experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than participants in the White ethnic group.

- **To determine if demographical groups differ in the experience of *Emotion Work*.**

A MANOVA was used to determine differences between age and gender for a sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry. With regard to *Emotion Work*, the results indicated that female participants experienced higher levels of *Emotional Dissonance* than male participants. The age group 42 to 51 experienced lower levels of *Emotion Work*, due to the experiencing of *Emotional Dissonance*, than participants in the age groups 21 to 31, 32 to 41, and 52 to 66.

- **To conceptualise *Emotion Work*, *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being*, by conducting a literature review**

Employees in service organisations are required to manage their emotional expressions toward customers/clients whether they are positive emotions or negative emotions. The benefits of *Emotion Work* are improved customer service, customer retention, and increased sales. How a person perceives, understands, and regulates emotions is an indication of an individual's *Emotional Intelligence*. There is thus a clear theoretical link between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Emotion Work*. Individuals with high *Emotional Intelligence* should be able to make use of their superior ability, which is to regulate their emotions in the workplace to produce and experience the appropriate emotions. Research has indicated that the repeated requirement of regulating emotions influences *Well-being* of employees through having both negative consequences, such as *Emotional Exhaustion*, energy depletion, fatigue, *Burnout* and psychological ill health (Grandey, 2000). The *Well-being* associated with *Emotion Work* consists of three dimensions: *Burnout*, *Engagement* and job satisfaction. Hochschild (1983) finds that *Emotion Work* required by some types of work can result in self-estrangement, alienation and *Exhaustion*. There is also evidence that *Emotion Work* can undermine job satisfaction. *Co-worker* and *Supervisor Support* create a positive environment in the organisation. The result of this support is job satisfaction, lowered stress, and lower turnover intention as well as team performance.

- **To determine the validity and reliability of the measures of *Emotional Intelligence*, *Social Support* and *Well-being* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry**

According to the descriptive statistics, the scores on the GEIS, OLBI, UWES, and Social Support Scale have normal distributions except for *Engagement* where the kurtosis was positively skewed. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the constructs are considered to be acceptable, compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,07$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). It therefore appears as if the measuring instruments have acceptable levels of internal consistency. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the different scales are as follows: *Use of Emotion* (0,90), *Caring Empathy* (0,91), *Control of Emotions* (0,80), *Expression Recognition* (0,80), *Exhaustion* (0,77), *Engagement* (0,92), *Social Support Family* (0,87), *Social Support Supervisor* (0,94), and *Social Support Co-worker* (0,89).

- **To determine the relationship between *Emotion Work*, *Well-being*, *Emotional Intelligence* and *Social Support* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry**

Correlations indicate that the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* are positively correlated with *Emotional Dissonance* (medium effect). The *Display of Empathy* is also positively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* (large effect). The *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* is negatively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* (medium effect). The *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* is negatively correlated with the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect).

Exhaustion is negatively correlated with *Engagement* (large effect) and negatively correlated with the *Use of Emotion* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Engagement* is positively correlated with *Co-worker Support*, the *Use of Emotion*, and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Family Support* is positively correlated with *Supervisor Support* and *Co-worker Support* (medium effect). *Supervisor Support* is positively correlated with *Co-worker Support* (large effect). The *Use of Emotion* is positively correlated with *Caring Empathy* and the *Control of Emotions* (medium effect). *Caring Empathy* is positively correlated with the *Control of Emotions*, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the

Display of Empathy (medium effect) and negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (medium effect). The *Control of Emotions* is negatively correlated with the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions* (medium effect). *Emotional Dissonance* is positively correlated with the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and the *Display of Empathy* (medium effect). Finally, the *Display of Positive/Pleasant Emotions* is positively correlated with the *Display of Empathy* (large effect).

It is evident from the research that human-resource employees in the chrome industry engage in high levels of *Emotion Work* by *Displaying Positive/Pleasant Emotions* and *Empathy* in adhering to the organisation's display rules. The employees engage in *Emotional Dissonance* through the displaying of emotions that are not genuinely felt which results in *Emotional Exhaustion*. The support employees receive from their co-workers and Supervisors buffers the negative effects of the high levels of *Emotion Work*.

- **To determine if *Emotion Work*, *Social Support* and *Emotional Intelligence* predict *Well-being* in the sample of human-resource employees in the chrome industry**

Regarding the regression analysis with *Engagement* as dependent variable, the conclusion can be drawn that the presence of the *Use of Emotion* and *Co-worker Support* predict the level of *Engagement* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry. In the regression analysis with *Exhaustion* as dependent variable, the prediction can be made that the *Use of Emotion*, *Control of Emotion*, *Emotional Dissonance*, the *Display of Negative/Unpleasant Emotions*, and *Co-worker Support* were predictors of *Exhaustion*. Finally, in the regression analysis with *Emotional Dissonance* as dependent variable, the prediction can be made that gender and ethnicity predict the level of *Emotional Dissonance* among human-resource employees in the chrome industry.

4.2 LIMITATIONS

A cross-sectional survey design was used, which makes it impossible to prove the causality of the obtained relationships. Limited studies were done on *Emotion Work* in the human-resource profession in the chrome industry, more studies should therefore be done to support the results found in this research study.

The research study explored only the chrome industry and can therefore not be generalised to the human-resource profession as a whole. The participants consisted mainly of White, Afrikaans-speaking people, which is not representative of the multi-cultural society of South Africa.

Language seemed to be a major problem seeing that the questionnaires were only available in English. The study population consisted of mostly Afrikaans-speaking people for whom English was their second language.

Finally, the length of the questionnaire could have influenced the results. Participants did not feel like completing the questionnaires. Participants may have become confused, grown tired, and lost interest because of too many items.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made to the profession as well as for future research in South Africa.

4.3.1. Recommendations for the profession

Limited studies on *Emotion Work* of human-resource employees were done in the past, further research is therefore recommended.

The results obtained in this research study could be beneficial to the human-resource profession once the level of *Emotion Work* and *Well-being* are determined. Interventions can be put in place to address the levels of *Emotion Work* as well as to promote *Well-being*. In this way, work performance can also be increased.

Interventions may be in the forms of information and training sessions on *Emotion Work* as well as on the dimensions of *Emotion Work* and the consequences of high *Emotion Work* levels. Workshops could be presented for Supervisors, to train and educate them on how to support their employees and how to promote *Well-being*. Workshops could be presented on stress management, anger management and so on. Performance contracts can be put in place where the levels of *Emotion Work* are measured, by means of giving the employee a rating on a scale of five for *Engagement*: Is the employee prepared to walk the extra mile, is he or she helpful? The lower the employee's score on *Engagement* the greater the chances of *Burnout*. In this way, problem

areas can be identified and addressed. These interventions will contribute to lower absenteeism, less substance abuse, higher job satisfaction, and higher morale of the employees.

4.3.2 Recommendations for future research

The human-resource department is the heart of every organisation. It is the human-resource employees that keep an organisation going by putting best practices in place, recruiting people, driving retention programs, delivering a service to the employees, and trying to keep employees happy and satisfied. Without such employees, the survival of an organisation will not be possible. To ensure the *Well-being* of employees in human-resource departments, it is recommended that qualitative research be done in the human-resource profession outside the chrome industry preferably nationwide. This will result in larger samples, enabling the generalisation of findings to other industries and demographical groups.

English was most of the participants' second or even third language, the need therefore exists to translate the questionnaires into other official languages in South Africa, in order to ensure clarity on the content and meaning of the questions.

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