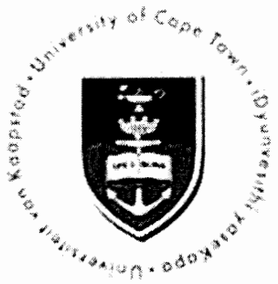

EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this research report from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the nature of emotional labour and its relationship with employee well-being using a sample of South African hospitality employees (N = 136). Exploratory factor analysis differentiated between three distinct emotional labour dimensions: surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt expression. Controlling for the influence of positive affectivity and general self-efficacy, hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that surface acting predicted emotional exhaustion, and deep acting predicted job satisfaction. Work-to-life conflict partially mediated the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, and fully mediated the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. Managerial implications and suggestions for research are discussed.

Key words: emotional labour, surface acting, deep acting, natural felt expression, well-being, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, work-to-life conflict

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

"People working in customer service roles find their employers specifying how they act and dress, what they say and even what they should think and feel. Service staffs are paid as much for their emotional labour as for their technical skills."
(Guerrier, 1999, p 212 and 234, as cited Eide, 2005)

Emotional labour is a form of labour that has attracted a substantial amount of attention and sparked various lines of research over the last three decades, with over 10 000 articles referring to this concept (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, 2013). In the broader context of organisational behaviour, the interest in emotional labour is due to the growth of the service sector worldwide (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). In 2012, the service sector in South Africa accounted for 68% of South Africa's gross domestic profit. In addition, in 2007 it was estimated that 65% of the South African labour force was employed in service sector (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). This warrants a better understanding of the relationship between the employee, specifically front-line employees, and the customer.

Interactions between customers and front-line employees form a central part of customer experience. This customer experience, in turn, affects customer satisfaction, purchase decision, and loyalty (Liao & Searcy, 2012). Front-line employees are ultimately responsible for the service interaction with customers and as a result directly affect the outcome of a customer's interaction with an organisation. Similarly, interactions between customers and front-line employees form a central part of an employee's job experience. Thus a customer's actions and attitudes can affect employee well-being (Liao & Searcy, 2012). These customer-employee service interactions can be highly rewarding for both individuals. However, they can also have an undesirable effect and be very harmful to both individuals (Liao & Searcy, 2012). Therefore, it is important to understand what creates these positive and

negative service interactions as they have the potential to impact the well-being of a large segment of South Africa's workforce.

An important aspect of these service interactions is emotional labour. Employees engage in emotional labour when they publically display certain emotion while suppressing other emotions (Hochschild, 1983). As a result, the management of emotions has become an inherent part of service jobs as they form part of occupational norms and organisational rules; and influence customers to meet performance goals (Holman, Martinez-Inigo, & Totterdell, 2008; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Consequently, emotional labour is an imperative part of many South African employees' daily work tasks despite the potential detrimental effects on their well-being.

Despite the rapid growth of scholarly work on emotional labour, particularly the link between emotional labour and employee well-being, there is still a need for further research in this area. Findings have been inconsistent regarding the direction and size of the effects (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Only one study regarding the direct link between emotional labour and employee well-being, specifically burnout, has been conducted (Visser & Rothmann, 2001). Therefore, there is a need for reliable research into the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being, specifically within the South African context.

Aim of the Research

Based on the above analysis, this study aims to clarify inconsistencies regarding the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being. Furthermore, this study aims to contribute to the limited literature on emotional labour within the South African context. The findings of this study should provide a better understanding of emotional labour in service role jobs and will provide further insight into the effects of emotional labour on employee well-being within a South African context. These

findings could aid the development of new management practices benefiting both employers and employees.

Structure of the Dissertation

This chapter provides an introduction to the research topic, the aims of the study and the outline of the dissertation. Chapter two presents a comprehensive literature review concerning emotional labour and its different conceptualisations, as well as its proposed individual well-being outcomes, namely emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and work-to-life conflict. The research propositions will also be presented at the end of this chapter. Chapter three details the research method used to examine the research propositions. It describes the research design, research context, participants, research procedure, measuring instruments and statistical analysis techniques used in the study. Chapter four presents the results of the statistical analysis techniques that were used to empirically test the research propositions. In chapter five, the key findings of the study are discussed with reference to previous literature. This final chapter also discusses managerial implications for organisations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a literature search procedure and an in-depth literature review to aid in fully understanding emotional labour and its relationship with employee well-being. The review focuses first on the conceptualisation of emotional labour and the central concepts within each perspective of emotional labour. Subsequently, empirical evidence is provided to gain insight into the association between emotional labour and employee well-being, namely job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Against this backdrop the mediating role of work-to-life conflict in the relationship between emotional labour and well-being is explored.

Literature Search Procedure

The literature search was conducted through electronic research databases. These databases included Google Scholar, PsychInfo, Emerald, JSTOR, Science Direct, psycARTICLES and Academic Source Premier. This search was undertaken through Boolean keyword searches with multiple combinations of the following key terms: emotional labour, surface acting, deep acting, emotional dissonance, well-being, burnout, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, work family conflict, work life conflict, positive affectivity and self-efficacy. The literature search was conducted over a period of 10 months, from February 2013 to November 2013 on a monthly basis.

Conceptual Background of Emotional Labour

Since Hochschild's (1983) ground breaking publication: "The managed heart: commercialisation of human feeling", the concept of emotional labour has been investigated by experts of various disciplines and theoretical orientations. This has contributed to the concept's current state of theoretical disorientation. A close examination of the emotional labour literature revealed that there are three focal

perspectives that scholars have used to investigate emotional labour, with each perspective residing in a different discipline (see Table 1 for summary) (Grandey et al., 2013). Although each perspective has its roots in different disciplines, all the perspectives have used part of Hochschild' (1983) original conceptualisation in their understanding of emotional labour (Grandey et al., 2013).

Perspective One: Emotional Labour as an Occupational Requirement

The perspective that emotional labour is an occupational requirement has its roots in sociology. Hochschild (1983) argued that the rise of the service sector created jobs that required employees to manage their feelings and expressions to increase revenue, therefore driving value creation for shareholders. Hochschild (1983) distinguished emotional labour from emotion management, which is performed in private for personal motives. The theory proposes that emotional labour occurs when employees' feelings are commoditised by organisations when they strategically use employees' emotional displays for financial gain. Therefore, emotional labour is viewed as a type of occupation as it is performed in exchange for a wage.

This perspective specifically contributed to the understanding of emotional labour jobs. Occupations that require high levels of emotional labour are characterised by: 1) frequent interaction with customers; 2) the expectation to create emotions in others; and 3) the management of these emotional interactions (Hochschild, 1983).

Accordingly, Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labour as "the management of feeling to create a publically observable facial and bodily display (p.7). The theoretical approach to emotional labour drew on Goffman's (1959) dramaturgical perspective of social interactions. Hence, the employee is the actor, the customer is the audience and the work context is the stage (Grove and Fisk, 1989). The performance involves employees demonstrating emotional labour to achieve organisationally-based expectations specific to their roles (Grove & Fisk, 1989;

Hochschild, 1983). Therefore, employees must consciously manage their outer demeanour, according to organisational norms, for the customer.

Hochschild (1983) suggested that emotional labour jobs encompass *feeling rules* which refer to how employees should 'feel' when interacting with customers. Hence, they are the rights and obligations that control employees' experience of emotional displays. Ekman (1984) (as cited in Wharton & Erickson, 1993) referred to these feeling rules as *display rules* and defined them as "over-learned habits about who can show emotion to whom and when they can show it" (p.320). Therefore, display rules refer to organisational norms that create the expectation that employees are required to express specific emotional displays during certain customer interactions. These display rules have been incorporated into the requirements of certain jobs, therefore requiring employees to display specific emotions in their work role (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). For example, flight attendants are required to display a friendly demeanour (Hochschild, 1983) while bill collectors are required to display hostility towards debtors to create a sense of anxiety within them (Sutton, 1991). However, only focusing on occupational requirements does not sufficiently contribute to the understanding of outcomes of emotional labour (Meanwell, Wolfe, & Hallett, 2008) . Consequently, employee behaviour is the central focus of the second perspective.

Perspective Two: Emotional Labour as Emotional Displays at Work

The perspective regarding emotional displays at work has its roots in organisational behaviour and emphasises observable emotional expressions towards the target (usually a customer). The early work by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) explored work settings that required employees to display emotions to fulfil role expectations. Their research focused on observable expressions rather than internal feelings as discussed by Hochschild (1983), thereby specifying the importance of the term 'display rules' in place of 'feeling rules'. As discussed in perspective one, display rules refer to what emotions should be expressed (in terms of behaviour) whereas feeling rules refer to

what emotions should be experienced (specifically, internal states) (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) also acknowledged that display rules are informed by organisational, occupational and social norms. Following Rafaeli and Sutton's (1987) lead, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labour as displaying appropriate emotions to conform to the organisation's display norms. Therefore, their understanding of emotional labour focused on observable behaviour rather than the management of presumed emotions underlying behaviour.

This perspective suggests that emotional labour can be performed actively or effortlessly (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) indicated that emotional displays at work involve three key features: emotional display requirements, feelings and expressions. Congruence and/or incongruence between these three features can lead to *emotional deviance, emotional dissonance* or *emotional harmony*. When expressions and feelings are congruent, but discrepant from emotional display requirements, this results in emotional deviance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). However, individuals may avoid emotional deviance by displaying expressions that are congruent with the emotional display requirements but clash with their feelings, also known as emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) suggested that emotional dissonance occurs by *faking in good faith* (feigning emotional expressions and believing it should be inherent in the job) or *faking in bad faith* (feigning emotional expressions and believing it should not be inherent in the job). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) linked Rafaeli and Sutton's (1987) idea of faking in good faith and faking in bad faith to Hochschild's (1983) original emotional labour strategies of *deep acting* and *surface acting*, respectively. Additionally, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) also proposed the idea of emotional harmony which occurs when feelings and expressions match emotional display requirements. Against this backdrop, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) proposed that there is a third form of emotional labour, termed *genuine acting* (see *naturally felt expression* in Perspective three).

In summary, this perspective acknowledges that emotional labour involves observable expressions of work-role specified emotions to fulfil work-role expectations, and that these expressions may, or may not require effort. The three emotional labour strategies discussed above, namely surface, deep and genuine acting, will be more comprehensively discussed in perspective three as they are the strategies that individuals use to manage their emotions when interacting with others at work.

Perspective Three: Emotional Labour as an Intrapsychic Experience

This perspective is grounded in psychology and focuses on the internal experience of managing emotions at work (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, 2013). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) proposed that emotional labour consists of two foci: employee-focused and job-focused emotional labour. Employee-focused emotional labour examines employees' emotion management process and their acting methods (surface and deep acting) (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Conversely, job-focused emotional labour emphasizes the level of emotional demand required by the occupation (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). In particular, this perspective follows the employee-focused approach to emotional labour.

Accordingly, a central tenant of emotional labour in this perspective is the effort employees exert to manage their emotions at work. Consistent with Hochschild (1983), it is theorised that emotional labour can be managed in two ways: *surface acting* and *deep acting*. Surface acting involves simulating emotional displays, other than what the individual actually feels (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). As a result, employees suppress their genuine feelings and modify their emotional displays (faking in bad faith). For example, a waiter who feels irritated with a rude customer will hide their feelings of irritation, and express a positive, happy emotional display. However, the waiter still continues to experience feelings of irritation. In contrast, deep acting involves individuals modifying their

internal feelings to express emotions that match the required display rules (Grandey, 2000; Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). Therefore, the employee internalises the required emotions to express organisationally desired emotions (faking in good faith). For example, a waiter who is irritated with a rude customer consciously changes his feelings to positive, happy feelings. The waiter then expresses a positive and happy emotional display. Therefore the waiter no longer experiences feelings of irritation, and experiences positive, happy feelings.

There is discussion in recent literature of a third form of emotional labour, *naturally felt expression.* As mentioned in perspective two, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) posited that there will be occurrences when an individual genuinely and spontaneously experiences and displays the required emotions. For example, a waiter that is feeling friendly expresses a friendly emotional display. Hence, an employee's felt emotions are consistent with the emotions that the organisation expects them to display. However, it must be noted that some amount of effort is still required to display the emotion. Consistent with Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) argument, studies from Diefendorff et al. (2005) and Glomb and Tews (2004) provided empirical evidence to support naturally felt expression as the third emotional labour strategy. Glomb and Tews' (2004) study of five samples from various industries found that employees genuinely express positive and negative emotions at work. Furthermore, they found that employees' naturally felt expressions are empirically distinct from other emotional labour strategies, namely surface acting and deep acting. In agreement, Diefendorff 's et al. (2005) performed a confirmatory factor analysis of two samples. This indicated that there are three forms of emotional labour: surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expression. Supplementary analysis also noted that displaying naturally felt emotions was used more often by individuals than other emotional labour strategies and should be further explored.

Morris and Feldman (1996) were the first scholars to conceptualise emotional labour in this perspective. They proposed that employees make sense of their emotions by

taking into account the social environment in which they experience their emotions. As a result they defined emotional labour as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organisationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions" (p. 987). It was suggested that there are four dimensions that affect the experience of emotional labour: (1) frequency of emotional display; (2) variety of emotions to be displayed; (3) required attentiveness to display rules (duration and intensity of emotional display); and (4) emotional dissonance.

Grandey (2000) subsequently theorised that individuals are able to regulate their emotional expressions at work and defined emotional labour as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals" (Grandey, 2000, p.97). A theoretical model to understand the mechanisms of emotional labour was also introduced. Since Hochschild's (1983) study, emotional labour scholars have largely neglected the use of emotion theory. Moreover, these scholars do not explain how emotional labour relates to its proposed outcomes (Grandey, 2000). Accordingly, Grandey (2000) argued that the emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998a) explains emotional labour and its processes of emotion management by linking forms of acting (surface, and deep acting) to emotion regulation. This theory refers to "the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b, p. 275). Therefore, when individuals are at work, they can regulate their emotions to meet the required display rules.

According to Gross' (1998b) process model of emotion regulation the situation acts as an emotional cue for the individual and the individual's emotional response tendencies (behavioural, experiential, physiological) provides information (emotional response) to the individual and others in the social environment (see Figure 1).

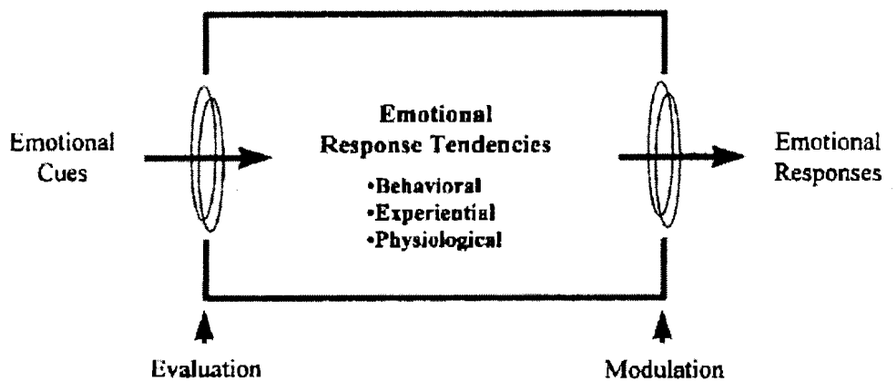

Figure 1: Consensual process model of emotion regulation, by J. J. Gross, 1998, *Review of General Psychology, 2,* p. 226.

Gross (1998a) posits that an individual can regulate emotions at two points in this process: *antecedent-focused* and *response-focused.* At the first intervening point in the process, the individual can make us of antecedent-focused regulation. This form of regulation occurs before the emotion is generated and the individual adjusts his/her emotions by modifying the situation or the perception of the situation. In addition, Gross (1998b) posits that there are four types of antecedent-focused emotion regulation: *situation selection*, *situation modification*, *attentional deployment*, and *cognitive change*. Grandey (2000) noted in particular that the deep acting emotional labour strategy could be applied to attentional deployment and cognitive change. Attentional deployment involves shifting the focus of personal thoughts. Therefore, the individual will think about events that give rise to the necessary emotions that the individual needs in a particular situation. In contrast, cognitive change involves changing appraisals of the individual's external situation. Therefore, the individual perceives the situation in a way that minimises the emotional impact (Gross, 1998b). Accordingly, deep acting can be applied to these two techniques of antecedent-focused emotion regulation as the individual modifies their internal feelings in order to make their emotional display more genuine.

Likewise, Grandey (2000) added that the surface acting emotional labour strategy could be applied to response-focused emotion regulation (response modulation). This is the second point in the emotion regulation process and occurs after the emotion is generated. At this point, the individual manipulates their response tendencies once they have been elicited. Therefore, surface acting corresponds to response-focused emotion regulation as the individual modifies their expression to meet the expected emotional display

Table 1

Summary of The Three Perspectives of Emotional Labour

	Occupational requirements perspective	**Emotional displays perspective**	**Intrapsychic processes perspective**
Definition of emotional labour	Jobs that require managing feelings to create an emotional display for a wage	Expressions of work role-specified emotions that may or may not require conscious effort	Effortfully managing one's emotions when interacting with others at work
Key publications	Hochschild, 1983 Wharton & Erickson, 1993	Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987 Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993	Morris & Feldman, 1996 Grandey, 2000 Zerbe, 2000
Central concepts	*Emotional labour jobs* = frequent interactions with public, induces emotions in others, and self-management to control own emotions *Feeling/display rules* = organisational norms that specify an individual's emotional display	*Emotional harmony* = feelings, expressions and role expectations are congruent *Emotional deviance* = expressions are incongruent with role expectations *Emotional dissonance* = expressions are congruent with role expectations but incongruent with feelings	*Surface acting* = modifying expressions to meet job requirements (i.e supress, fake) *Deep acting* = altering feelings to meet job requirements (i.e. refocus, reappraise)

Integrating the Three Perspectives

To a certain extent, elements from all three perspectives are represented throughout most theoretical positions and empirical studies of emotional labour. However, the stance that each perspective takes will vary the operationalisations and concepts used in particular studies (Grandey et al., 2013). Accordingly, Grandey et al., (2013) suggests that emotional labour does not reside in any particular perspective, but rather emotional labour is the dynamic interaction between all three perspectives. Scholars such as Grandey (2000) and Holman, Martinez-Inigo and Totterdell (2008) have attempted to integrate these different perspectives. In particular, Diefendorff and Gosserand's (2003) model effectively integrates these three perspectives.

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) proposed a model of emotional labour that explains the underlying causal mechanisms involved in the regulation of emotional displays. They applied the concepts of the control theory model of behavioural self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 1998) to the emotional labour process. Control theory uses feedback loops to explain how individuals self-regulate in pursuit of their goals (Dahling & Johnson, 2013). The feedback loop consists of four components: an input function, a standard/goal, a comparator, and an output function. The feedback loop begins with the input function. This input function draws information into the feedback loop from outside the system. The information consists of the individual's perceived state or behaviour. This information is then compared to the standard/goal. The standard/goal represents a goal that the individual has internalised and is trying to achieve. The comparator then matches the input and standard/goal to identify whether a discrepancy exists. If the comparator detects no discrepancy, no behavioural adjustment is needed. Therefore, the individual continues his/her goal pursuit without the use of any conscious resources. However, if a discrepancy is detected, behavioural adjustments are required. As a result, the output function is activated to alter subsequent input information; thereby ensuring the input is congruent with the standard/goal. The output function involves new behaviours that are intended to affect and change the external environment. This impact on the environment then alters

subsequent input information, thereby eliminating any discrepancy between the input and the standard/goal. Furthermore, control theory includes an environmental disturbance function which accounts for any external influences to the system that may impact the input function (Carver & Scheier, 1998).

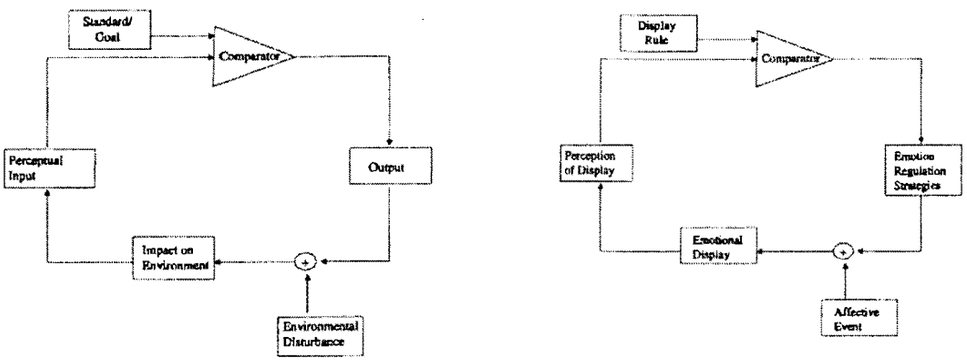

Figure 2: Control theory model of emotional labour, by J. Diefendorff and R. Gosserand, 2003, Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24, p.947-948.

Accordingly, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) proposed that the input function is the self-perception of an individual's emotional display, the standard/goal is the display rule, and the output function is the emotional labour strategy used to align the individual's emotional display to the display rule. The comparator compares the individual's perception of his/her emotional display (input) against the display rule (standard/goal). If no discrepancy is identified, there is no need for individuals to adjust their behaviours and regulate their emotional displays. Therefore, individuals use genuine acting to meet the display rules (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). However, if a discrepancy is identified, individuals are motivated to engage in emotion regulation (emotional labour) strategies to alter subsequent emotional displays that satisfy the display rule (standard/goal). Furthermore, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) noted that affective events, such as a hostile interaction with a customer, acts as an environmental disturbance that can influence an individual's emotional display.

Accordingly, it is evident that Diefendorff and Gosserand's (2003) model effectively integrates the three perspectives. Firstly, conceptualising display rules as standards/goals that employees pursue according to their job, aligns with perspective one (emotional labour as occupational requirements). Secondly, the mechanism that employees compare their emotions and emotional displays to display rules to identify and eliminate discrepancies aligns with perspective two (emotional labour as emotional displays at work). Should no discrepancy be detected, employees continue to meet display rules, without activating any form of emotion regulation, using naturally felt expressions. Lastly, should an employee identify a discrepancy, he/she uses emotion regulation, in the form of surface or deep acting, to alter his/her emotional display. Therefore, this model accounts for the interaction between occupational requirements, expressed emotions, and emotion regulation strategies (Grandey et al., 2013)

Due to the importance of integrating all three perspectives of emotional labour to better understand the construct, this study will define emotional labour according to Grandey et al., (2013) definition: "when emotion regulation is performed in response to job-based emotional requirements in order to produce emotion toward – and to evoke emotion from – another person to achieve organisational goals" (p.18).

Measuring Emotional Labour

Subsequent to defining emotional labour, a measure needs to be investigated to assess the construct. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) developed the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) which uses three items to measure surface and deep acting. Kruml and Geddes (2000) developed an instrument that measures three emotional labour strategies, namely surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expressions. From this measure, Kruml and Geddes (2000) identified two dimensions of emotional labour which they named *emotive dissonance* and *emotive effort*. Emotive dissonance represents the extent to which employees' expressed emotions align with their true feelings. This

dimension consists of a continuum that places surface acting and naturally felt expression at opposite ends. Emotive effort, the second dimension, represents deep acting.

Accordingly, Chu and Murrmann (2006) developed the Hospitality Emotional Labour Scale (HELS) to assess employees' perception of emotional labour, with specific focus on the hospitality industry. They derived the HELS from a combination of instruments that were developed by Brotheridge and Lee (2003) and Kruml and Geddes (2000). They modified these instruments to fit the context of the hospitality industry. As a result the HELS follows the employee focused approach of emotional labour (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) and measures the three forms of emotional labour, namely deep acting, surface acting and naturally felt expression, according to Kruml and Geddes' (2000) emotive dissonance and emotive effort dimensions.

The HELS was used in the study as it measures all three forms of emotional labour as discussed in the literature review. In addition to this, this measure was developed specifically for the context of the hospitality industry, which is the focus of this study.

It must be noted that there is some discrepancy in the literature regarding naturally felt expression. Kruml and Geddes (2000) provide evidence that surface acting and naturally felt expression are at opposite ends of a continuum. In contrast, Diefendorff et al., (2005) provides evidence that naturally felt expression is a distinct concept from surface acting and deep acting. Chu and Murrmann (2006) concluded in their study that surface acting and naturally felt expression can be measured on one dimension. However, on further investigation it was found that in Chu and Murrmann's (2006) confirmatory analysis the three factor model (surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expression) had a slightly better fit than the two factor model (emotive effort and emotive dissonance). It can therefore not be concluded whether emotional labour constitutes two or three dimensions. However, other evidence does suggest that emotional labour consists of surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt

expressions (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Based on the above review, the following proposition was developed regarding the dimensions of emotional labour:

Proposition 1: Emotional labour consists of three dimensions (surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expressions)

Emotional Labour and Employee Well-Being

Hochschild (1983) proposed that performing emotional labour has detrimental consequences for an individual's well-being as it leads to estrangement from their genuine feelings. Furthermore, there is substantial empirical evidence that emotional labour can be stressful and can undermine an employee's well-being (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002). While there is some general agreement that relationships between emotional labour and employee well-being do exist, there is still some disagreement about the specific nature and causal direction of the relationship (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Therefore, this study will explore the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being.

Employee well-being refers to the mental, psychological or emotional facets of an employee (Danna & Griffin, 1999). The general conceptualisation of employee well-being is vague (Danna & Griffin, 1999) and it has been found to be a multi-dimensional construct (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). Therefore this study will use common indicators of well-being, namely emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, to measure well-being.

Emotional Exhaustion

Job burnout is defined as a chronic affective response syndrome that results in a form of stress in response to stressful working conditions (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). An individual experiencing burnout will experience a gradual sense of loss that progresses over an extended length of time. Furthermore, an individual's energetic,

positive and engaged relationship with their work becomes a negative relationship, characterised by a loss of energy, disengagement and a sense of ineffectiveness (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Initially burnout was thought to result from stressful working conditions that involved high levels of interpersonal contact (Maslasch & Jackson, 1986). Empirical research demonstrated that burnout is not limited to the service profession (Maslach et al., 2001). Nonetheless it should be noted that it has been found that burnout complaints are more prevalent among individuals in service professions than individuals in non-service professions (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998, as cited in Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001).

The most widely accepted definition of burnout states that it is a response syndrome consisting of three separate but interrelated constructs: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and diminished personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001). Emotional exhaustion is the first indication of burnout, and its also considered to be the most important element of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Therefore, this study will only investigate emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is marked by a lack of energy, extreme tiredness and a feeling that one's emotional resources are depleted (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001).

The Relationship between Emotional Exhaustion and Emotional Labour

Previous research has clearly demonstrated that surface acting predicts emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). However, there seems to be inconsistencies concerning the relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion. A meta-analysis of 38 studies conducted by Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) revealed that deep acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion. However, in their meta-analysis of 47 studies that investigated the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, it was found that surface acting had a positive and stronger relationship with emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, in their hierarchical regression analysis, it

was found that only surface acting predicted emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Mikolajczak, Menil, and Luminet (2007) conducted a study that assessed whether nurses with varying levels of emotional intelligence used different emotional labour strategies, and how burnout outcomes differed accordingly. It was found that both surface acting and deep acting were positively associated with emotional exhaustion. Interestingly, this study assessed participants on two occasions, three months apart. It was found that although both acting methods were positively associated with emotional exhaustion, the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion increased over time. Therefore, surface acting may have a more detrimental effect on an individual's experience of emotional exhaustion than deep acting. Other studies have found that deep acting does not predict emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). In contrast, Johnson and Spector's (2007) study of 176 participants from eight different samples of customer service employees found that deep acting negatively predicts emotional exhaustion. Whereas, Brotheridge and Lee's (2002) study demonstrated that deep acting affects emotional exhaustion indirectly through authenticity. There are also a number of studies that specifically investigate the relationship between surface acting and deep acting, within the context of emotional exhaustion in the hospitality industry (Table 2). According to this table, it is evident that some discrepancies still exist regarding emotional exhaustion as an outcome of different emotional labour strategies. However, an overview of the literature mentioned above suggests that an individual's level of emotional exhaustion is influenced by which emotional labour strategy they use. Surface acting requires more effort than deep acting as an individual needs to supress their own feelings and fake the display of the appropriate emotion. This requires more effort than deep acting in which the individual modifies their feelings to display the appropriate emotion. Therefore, an individual who engages in surface acting is likely to experience a higher level of emotional exhaustion than an individual who engages in deep acting. Based on the above review, the following propositions were developed regarding emotional exhaustion, surface acting and deep acting:

Proposition 2a: Surface acting leads to increased levels of emotional exhaustion

Table 2

Hospitality Empirical Evidence of Emotional Labour and Emotional Exhaustion

Study	**Relevant variables**	**Findings**
Chu et al., 2012	Emotive dissonance	- Emotive dissonance path to emotional exhaustion not supported
	Emotive effort	- Negative path of emotive effort to emotional exhaustion supported
Kim, 2008	Surface acting	- Surface acting positively predicts emotional exhaustion
	Deep acting	- Deep acting does not predict emotional exhaustion
Kim, Yoo, Lee, and Kim, 2012	Surface acting	- Positive path of surface acting to emotional exhaustion supported
	Deep acting	- Negative path of deep acting to emotional exhaustion supported
Lee and Ok, 2012	Emotive dissonance	- Positive path of emotive dissonance to emotional exhaustion supported
Lv, Xu, and Ji, 2012	Surface acting	- Surface acting positively predicts emotional exhaustion
	Deep acting	- Deep acting negatively predicts emotional exhaustion
	Surface acting	- Surface acting positively predicts emotional exhaustion
	Deep acting	- Deep acting negatively predicts emotional exhaustion

Limited studies have investigated the relationship between naturally felt expressions and emotional exhaustion. Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) proposed that expressing genuine emotions might result in emotional exhaustion as an individual's level of psychological and physiological arousal increases when they experience emotions. In line with this argument, Glomb and Tews (2004) found that naturally expressing negative emotions was significantly correlated with emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Martínez-Iñigo et al., (2007) study of 345 general practitioners in Spain found that automatic regulation (a similar concept to naturally felt expression) increased the general practitioners' level of emotional exhaustion. In addition, Chu et al. (2012) found that emotive dissonance was negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion. Therefore, an individual may experience an increase in emotional exhaustion when they experience less emotive dissonance (an outcome of naturally felt expression). Based on the above review, the following proposition was developed regarding emotional exhaustion and naturally felt expression:

Proposition 2b: Naturally felt expression leads to increased levels of emotional exhaustion.

Job satisfaction

The most widely accepted definition of job satisfaction was presented by Locke (1976, p. 1300) as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Furthermore, there are two types of job satisfaction based on employees' appraisal of their jobs. The most studied type of job satisfaction is global job satisfaction, which refers to employees overall appraisal of their jobs. The second type of job satisfaction is job facet satisfaction, which refers to employees' appraisal of specific job aspects such as salary and benefits. Researchers of employee well-being have used global job satisfaction an indicator of employee well-being (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

The Relationship between Job Satisfaction And Emotional Labour

Scholars have suggested that emotional labour restrains personal expressions, and as a result is unpleasant to the individual (Hochschild, 1983). Contradictory empirical evidence exists regarding the relationship between emotional labour and job satisfaction. Bono and Vey (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of two studies and found that both deep acting and surface acting are negatively correlated with job satisfaction. However, they did not establish the direction of the relationship. Grandey (2003) demonstrated that job satisfaction is an antecedent of both surface acting and deep acting among a sample of 131 university administrative assistants. In contrast, most studies investigated job satisfaction as an outcome of emotional labour (Chen, Sun, Lam, & Hu, 2012; Gursoy, Boylu, & Avci, 2011; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Lam & Chen, 2012; Lee & Ok, 2012). Further, Cote and Morgan (2002) conducted a longitudinal study that explored the association between emotion regulation and job satisfaction using a sample of 111 workers. Longitudinal regression analyses found that suppression of unpleasant emotions (similar to surface acting) decreased job satisfaction, and the amplification of pleasant emotions (similar to deep acting) increased job satisfaction. Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) provided a quantitative review of the link of emotional labour with job satisfaction. Results of 30 studies revealed that surface acting is negatively related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, meta-analysis results of 21 studies revealed that deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, in their hierarchical regression analysis, it was found that surface acting negatively predicted job satisfaction while deep acting positively predicted job satisfaction. Table 3 presents empirical evidence investigating the relationship between emotional labour and job satisfaction, particularly within the hospitality industry. Based on the above review, the following propositions were developed regarding job satisfaction, surface acting and deep acting:

Proposition 3a: Surface acting leads to decreased levels of job satisfaction.

Proposition 3b: Deep acting leads to increased levels of job satisfaction

Table 3

Hospitality Empirical Evidence of Emotional Labour and Job Satisfaction

Study	Relevant variables	Findings
Chen, Sun, Lam and Hu, 2012	Surface acting Deep acting Job satisfaction	- Surface acting negatively predicted job satisfaction - Deep acting positively predicted job satisfaction
Chu et al., 2012	Emotive dissonance Emotive effort Job satisfaction	- Path model did not support relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction - Positive path of emotive effort to job satisfaction
Gursoy, Boylu and Avci, 2011	Emotive dissonance Emotive effort (included scales of intensity and variety of emotional display) Job satisfaction	- Path model did not support relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction - Negative path of emotive effort to job satisfaction
Lam and Chen, 2012	Surface acting Deep acting Job satisfaction	- Negative path of surface acting to job satisfaction - Positive path of deep acting to job satisfaction
Lee and Ok, 2012	Emotive dissonance Job satisfaction	- Path model did not support relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction

No studies have explored the relationship between emotional labour and job satisfaction. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) proposed that when employees are required to be friendly to customers, it allows self-expression that is enjoyable to employees. Further, Adelmann (1995, as cited in Pugliesi, 1999) reported that table servers who expressed genuine smiles at work had more job satisfaction than table servers who reported faking emotional displays. Based on the above review, the following proposition was developed regarding job satisfaction and naturally felt expression:

Proposition 3c: Naturally felt expression leads to increased levels of job satisfaction.

Mechanisms That Explain the Relationship between Emotional Labour and Well-Being

While it is evident that emotional labour affects an employee's well-being, it is also important to understand the mechanisms underlying this relationship. Accordingly, Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) put forth the following mechanisms to explain how surface acting and deep acting affect well-being: ego depletion, felt inauthenticity, social interactions, and positive and negative emotions.

Ego depletion. The first mechanism, ego depletion, describes how an individual's self-regulatory processes require effort and depletes mental resources (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). According to Hülsheger and Schewe's (2011) review of studies that contrasted the diminishing effects of response -focused and antecedent -focused emotion regulation, response-focused emotion regulation requires more effort by the individual and resulted in impaired mental performance. Surface acting, a form of response-focused emotion regulation, requires an individual to continuously monitor his/her actual and desired emotions. Consequently, surface acting requires individuals to constantly devote effort to change their emotional expression. Hence, individuals continuous effort drains their mental resources; which in turn increases their strain

and diminishes the individual's well-being (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). In contrast, Totterdell and Holman (2003) proposed that deep acting requires less mental resources than surface acting. This proposition is based on the assumption that deep acting is comparable to antecedent-focused emotion regulation and its reappraisal processes. As deep acting only depletes mental resources at the onset of emotion, individuals do not need to continuously use mental effort to monitor their emotions. Consequently, scholars (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Totterdell & Holman, 2003) have argued that deep acting requires less cognitive resources than surface acting. Further, it is suggested that naturally felt expression requires very little mental effort. This contention is supported by Zapf's (2002) definition of automatic regulation which is conceptually similar to naturally felt expression, and states that automatic regulation involves only the sensorimotor level of action regulation.

Felt inauthenticity. The second mechanism, felt inauthenticity, refers to the incongruence between an individual's emotional display and genuine feelings (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Individuals strive toward authenticity by genuinely experiencing and expressing emotions, however, display rules hinder an individual's authenticity (Hochschild, 1983). In particular, surface acting may result in felt inauthenticity. Empirical evidence demonstrates that the suppression of negative feelings and the stimulation of positive emotions results in decreased felt inauthenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). In turn, inauthenticity is related with stress and depressed mood. In contrast, Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) suggest that deep acting does not lead to felt inauthenticity as there is no discrepancy between emotional display and genuine feelings when an individual engages in deep acting.

Enhancement versus impairment of social interactions. The third mechanism, social interactions at work, refers to the enhancement or impairment of interpersonal processes at work (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Cote's (2005) social interaction model of emotional labour, which accounts for the employee and the customer, may explain how emotional labour is related to well-being. This model proposes that the employee's emotional display is evaluated by the customer who in

turn responds accordingly and influences the employee's emotional and psychological state of health (as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Furthermore, other scholars have suggested that customers are able to distinguish between authentic and inauthentic emotional expressions, and respectively react favourably or unfavourably (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Surface acting leads to inauthentic emotional displays, therefore hindering positive interactions with customers. This, in turn, arouses negative reactions between the customer and the employee. These negative reactions such as anger, disrespect, and disappointment are the stressors that affect employees, as well as impair their well-being. In contrast, deep acting results in positive emotional displays, therefore evoking positive interactions with customers. As a result, the customer and the employee have positive and favourable interactions with one another. These interactions are perceived as rewarding by the employee, which in turn enhances the employee's well-being (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Similarly, naturally felt expression may also enhance employee well-being (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). Therefore, it is suggested that social interactions explain the association between emotional labour and well-being. This also indicates that surface acting is negatively related to well-being, while deep acting and naturally felt expression is positively related to well-being.

Positive and negative emotions. The fourth mechanism refers to the power of the prolonged experience of positive or negative emotions. Hülsheger & Schewe (2011) suggest that deep acting, actively stimulating positive emotions in oneself, buffers employees against emotional job demand stressors. This contention is based on assumptions regarding positive emotions. According to Fredrickson (1998), positive emotions are pleasurable in the present experience, as well as after the present experience. Therefore, positive emotions will lead to higher future levels of well-being (as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Furthermore, Fredrickson and Joiner (2002) suggested that positive emotions increase an individual's level of personal resources and coping mechanisms as such emotions create a positive outlook (as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). A positive appraisal on unpleasant events has also demonstrated a decrease of distress after such events (Davis, Nolen-

Hoeksema, & Larson, 1998, as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Therefore deep acting, which alters an employee's inner emotional state, allows the employee to actually experience positive emotions. In contrast, surface acting only alters the employee's emotional display. Therefore, the employee still experiences negative emotions. Consequently, an employee who engages in deep acting will experience positive emotions, which in turn will positively affect the employee's well-being. Whereas, an employee who engaged in surface acting will continue to experience negative emotions, and thus it will negatively affect the employee's well-being.

Work-life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Emotional Labour and Employee Well-Being

Defining Work-Life Conflict

According to Goode's (1960) role strain theory, each role has its own demands and when an individual has to fulfil expectations from multiple roles, it is likely that they will experience strain. Following this theory, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal's (1964) posited that simultaneous participation in two or more roles will cause opposing pressures, as the pressure from one role is incompatible with another role. This will result in what they termed inter-role conflict. Building on the conceptualisation of inter-role conflict developed by Wolfe et al. (1964), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict (WFC) as a form of inter-role conflict in which the demands from the work and the family domains are incompatible to some extent. Therefore, the requirements of one domain are made more difficult to fulfil by the participation in the other domain. Most previous research has specifically examined conflict between the work and family roles. However, this restricts research to employees with partners or children (Wallace, 1999). Therefore, this study will broaden the family domain to encompass employees other than only those with traditional family responsibilities. Consequently, this study will investigate work-life conflict (WLC).

The dominance of the WFC perspective is centred on the scarcity hypothesis. This scarcity hypothesis assumes that individuals have limited physical and psychological resources, namely, time, energy and attention; and that commitment of more resources to one role necessitates the commitment of lesser resources to the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Marks, 1977). Therefore, individuals who participate in both work and personal life roles are likely to resource drain, and hence experience conflict between these two roles.

Furthermore, numerous scholars (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985b; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996) have demonstrated that work-family conflict is bi-directional in nature: work-to-family conflict (W2FC), and family-to-work conflict (F2WC). Hence W2FC occurs when pressures arising in the work domain interfere with the family domain and vice versa. That is, the commitment of an individual's resources to one domain, affects the individual's available participation and commitment of resources to the other domain (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). It must be noted that recognizing the different direction of WLC is essential, as each direction is associated with different antecedents and consequences, to differing degrees (Frone et al., 1992).

The Mediating Role of Work-Life Conflict

A daily diary study by Schulz, Cowan, Cowan and Brennan (2004) demonstrated emotional spillover from work into the family domain. They found that negative emotional arousal at work predicted more withdrawn behaviour from men and angrier marital behaviour for women. Building on this, Montgomery, Panagopolou and Benos (2005) established a link between emotional labour and work-to-family interference (W2FI). They specifically investigated how surface acting affected W2FI among Greek doctors; and found that surface acting increased the doctors' levels of W2FI. Following this, Montgomery, Panagopolou, Wildt and Meenks (2006) investigated the

mediational role of W2FI between different emotional labour strategies and burnout. They found that W2FI partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and cynicism, and the relationship between surface acting psychosomatic complaints. Interestingly, they found that W2FI did not mediate the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, their study revealed that W2FI did not mediate the relationship between deep acting and all the measures of burnout. Similarly, other studies (Cheung & Tang, 2009; Seery, Corrigall, & Harpel, 2008) found that deep acting is not related to W2FI/ W2FC, whereas surface acting predicts W2FI/W2FC. Additionally, Cheung and Tang (2009) explored the relationship between expressions of naturally felt emotions and W2FI, but found no significant results.

Based on the previous literature, it is assumed that surface acting is the only emotional labour strategy that affects W2LC. Surface acting requires an individual to commit a lot of their emotional resources to their work role in order to supress their genuine feelings and fake an appropriate emotional display. This limits an individual's available emotional resources for their personal life role.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that W2FC plays a mediational role (Frone et al., 1992; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Montgomery, Panagopolou, Wildt, & Meenks, 2006; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). As previously established in the above two sections of the literature review, direct relationships exist between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, as well as surface acting and job satisfaction. Therefore a partially mediating path of W2LC is proposed. Accordingly, the following propositions were developed:

Proposition 4a. Work-to-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion.

Proposition 4b. Work-to-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction.

Table 4

Empirical evidence of Emotional labour and Work-to-family conflict

Study	Sample	Relevant Variables	Findings
Montgomery, 2005	184 Greek doctors	W2FI Surface acting	- Surface acting at work predicts WFI
Montgomery et al., 2006	174 employees from the Dutch Governmental Organisation.	W2FI Surface acting Deep acting	- W2FI partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and cynicism - W2FI partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and psychosomatic complaints - Surface acting does not predict emotional exhaustion - WFI predicts emotional exhaustion - Deep acting is not related to W2FI
Seery et al., 2008	347 nurses' aides and child care workers in North eastern Pennsylvania	W2FC Surface acting Deep acting	- Surface acting predicts all three dimensions of W2FC (time, strain and behaviour) - Deep acting does not predict any dimension of W2FC
Cheung and Tang, 2009	442 Hong Kong Chinese service employees	W2FI Surface acting Deep acting Expression of naturally felt emotion	- Surface acting predicts W2FI - Deep acting is not related to W2FI - Expression of naturally felt emotions is not related to W2FI

Control Variables

The relationship between emotional labour and its well-being outcomes can be influenced by a number of individual differences (Dahling & Johnson, 2013). Of particular interest to emotional labour scholars are personal dispositions as they underlie much of the way people think and behave (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002). Therefore, to gain a greater understanding of the relationship between emotional labour and its well-being outcomes, positive affectivity and general self-efficacy are proposed as control variables when the testing the above propositions. Each control variable will be discussed in turn.

Positive Affectivity

Affectivity is a self-reported mood state that be distinguished according to two dimensions: Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA). PA refers to a dispositional tendency for an individual to evaluate themselves and their social environment positively. Individuals, who have high PA, can be characterised as being frequently energetic, active, alert and enthusiastic (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). In contrast, NA refers to an individual's dispositional tendency to evaluate themselves and their social environment negatively. Individuals, who have high NA, are likely to experience negative emotions such as fear, nervousness, guilt and anxiety (Watson et al., 1988). According to Watson et al. (1988), these two states of affectivity should be considered independently, and do not lie on opposite ends of a continuum. Compared to PA, there is less published literature regarding emotional labour and NA. Furthermore, the experience of PA is a central component of well-being (Dahling & Perez, 2010). Therefore, it was considered sufficient to only include PA as the affectivity control variable. It must be noted that some scholars (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kim, 2008) have operationalised PA with the extraversion dimension in the Big-Five personality model as it is conceptually comparable (Digman, 1990).

Several studies have found that positive affectivity is an antecedent of emotional labour (see Table 5) (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kim, 2008). The grounding of this relationship is rooted in early theory of emotional labour. Hochschild (1983) proposed that emotional labour is required when employees' feelings are incongruent with organisational display rules. However, when employees' feelings are consistent with organisational display rules, less or no regulation of emotions (emotional labour) is required. In line with this idea, research indicates that PA predicts a decrease in surface acting (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Diefendorff et al., 2005), with one exception: Kim (2008) found no relationship with regard to PA and surface acting. Furthermore, Diefendorff et al. (2005) and Dahling and Perez (2010) also found that PA predicts the expression of naturally felt emotions. In contrast, research has found no evidence of PA as an antecedent of deep acting (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kim, 2008). Therefore, individuals who are have high PA and experience more positive emotions have a less need to surface act and hide undesirable emotions. Furthermore, these individuals are more likely to express naturally felt emotions.

Table 5

Empirical evidence of Emotional Labour and Positive Affectivity

Study	Relevant variable	Sample	Finding
Kim, 2008	Extraversion	197 hotel service employees, Washington, USA	- No relationship between extraversion and surface acting - No relationship between extraversion and deep acting.
Diefendorff et al., 2005	Extraversion	287 undergraduate students who worked in service role jobs	- Extraversion negatively predicts surface acting. - Extraversion positively predicts naturally felt expression - No relationship between neuroticism and deep acting.
Dahling and Perez, 2010	PA	186 service employees in North eastern US.	- PA negatively predicts surface acting. - PA positively predicts naturally felt expression. - No relationship between PA and deep acting.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to the belief of one's capability to effectively complete a specific task (Bandura, 1991). According to Bandura (1991) individuals possess various self-efficacies for different types of tasks and behaviours. It is advantageous for an individual to possess a high self-efficacy for specific domain behaviour due to the following reasons: (1) individuals pursue tasks in a specific domain which allows them to practice and develop their skills; (2) individuals persist with the necessary effort when faced with challenges; and (3) individuals attribute failure to lack of effort rather than feeling as though they have inadequate abilities to ever succeed at the task at hand (Bandura, 1991). Therefore, self-efficacy contributes towards an individual's performance of a task. Within the context of emotional labour, it is suggested that employees with high levels of self-efficacy for emotional-labour related performance will implement emotional labour strategies in which they feel confident to use, utilize high levels of effort and persistence when encountering emotion regulation demands, and allow them to respond constructively to challenges and failures (Dahling & Johnson, 2013). Although the importance of self-efficacy in emotional labour research has received limited attention, there is some empirical evidence to support this proposition (see Table 6). Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli and Huisman (2006) found that emotional work-related self-efficacy moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and work engagement; however it does not moderate the relationship between emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion. On the contrary, Pugh, Groth, and Hennig-Thurau (2011) found that surface acting self-efficacy moderates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, but not the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Wilk and Moynihan's (2005) study found that general job self-efficacy does not moderate the relationships between interpersonal job demands and emotional exhaustion. It is therefore evident that there are inconsistent findings regarding the effect of self-efficacy on emotional labour and its well-being outcomes. It should be noted that a variety of self-efficacies were studied which limits the ability to compare these studies. Therefore, this study will control for general self-efficacy. General self-

efficacy refers to an individual's belief in his or her overall competence to successfully perform a behaviour or task across a diversity of situations (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Accordingly, an individual's tendency to perceive their capability of successfully achieving tasks and demonstrating necessary behaviours in a wide range of contexts will be controlled for in this study.

Table 6

Empirical Evidence of Emotional Labour and Self-Efficacy

Study	Relevant variable	Sample	Finding
Wilk and Moynihan, 2005	General job self-efficacy	Call centre employees	- Self-efficacy does not moderate the relationships between interpersonal job demands and emotional exhaustion.
Heuven et al., 2006	Emotion work-related self-efficacy	Cabin attendants	- Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and work engagement. - Self-efficacy does not moderate the relationship between emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion.
Pugh et al., 2011	Surface acting self-efficacy	Customer-contact employees	- Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. - Self-efficacy does not moderate the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction.

Final Note

This chapter provides an overview of the existing literature focused on emotional labour, its association with well-being and the mediational role of work-to-life conflict (W2LC) on the relationship between emotional labour and well-being. This study aims to assess the model depicted in Figure 3.

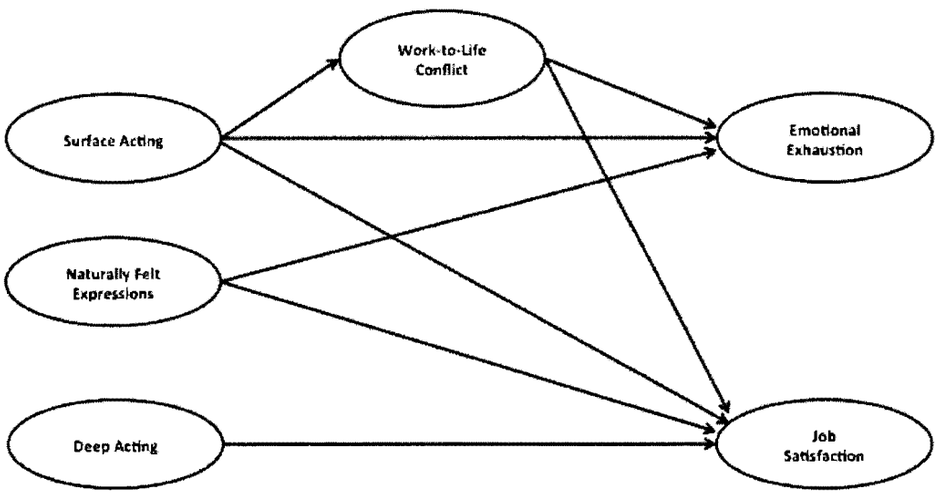

Figure 3: Diagrammatic representation of the emotional labour strategies which impact employee well-being, and the mediational effect of work-to-life conflict on this relationship.

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

The focus of this research is to investigate the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being. It also investigates how this relationship is mediated by work-life conflict. This chapter describes the research methods that were used to explore this relationship and is divided into four sections: research design, participants, measuring instruments and data analysis techniques.

Research Design

A descriptive, cross-sectional research design guided the study. This approach was selected as it allowed for data to be gathered at a single point in time (Burns & Burns, 2008). A quantitative survey was conducted using online, self-report questionnaires. This enabled the study to test multiple propositions by gathering data which could be statistically analysed from a large sample (Neuman, 2007).

Participants

One hundred and seventy-eight participants responded to the online questionnaire. One participant answered negatively to the eligibility question and 30 other participants did not complete any of the subscales. Therefore these participants were excluded from the sample. In addition, 10 participants resided outside of South Africa, and thus were also omitted from the sample. Furthermore, one participant only responded to the self-efficacy scale and thus it was decided to exclude this participant. Consequently, the final sample consisted of 136 participants. Of the 136 participants, 38.2% (n = 52) were female, 49.3% (n = 67) were male and 12.5% (n = 17) did not indicate their gender. The participants' ages ranged from 20 to 52 years with a mean age of 29.27 (SD = 7.12, n = 113). The sample consisted of a majority white (33.1%, n = 45) and black (29.4%, n = 40) participants, with Asian (.7%, n = 1), coloured (15.4%, n = 21) and Indian (2.9%, n = 4) comprising the rest of the sample. 2.9% (n =

4) of participants preferred not to specify their race, whilst 15.4% (n = 21) did not specify their race. The distribution of the sample is provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages of Participants' Demographics

Demographic	Category	Frequency	%
Work status	Part-time	21	15.4
	Full-time	93	68.4
	Unspecified	22	16.2
Job level	Managerial	38	27.9
	Non-managerial	79	58.1
	Unspecified	19	14.0
Level of education	Grade 10/ Standard 8	5	3.7
	Matric certificate	39	28.7
	Diploma	27	19.9
	Hotel school diploma	18	13.1
	Undergraduate degree	14	10.3
	Postgraduate degree	10	7.4
	Other	2	1.5
	Unspecified	22	16.2
Marital status	Married/living with partner	39	28.7
	Unmarried (single, divorced, separated/widowed)	74	54.4
	Unspecified	23	16.9

Furthermore, the majority of the sample resided in the Western Cape (74.3%, n = 101). The participants worked mostly in food and beverage (50.7%, n = 69) and front-desk/reservations (22.1%, n = 30).

Research Procedure

Ethical clearance was obtained from the Commerce Research in Ethics Committee at the University of Cape Town. Approval to survey employees was obtained from General Managers at various hotels, restaurants and bars around South Africa. Due to time and financial constraints, convenience sampling was used to select participants from various hotels, restaurants and bars around South Africa. As a result, participants were selected according to their availability and willingness to participate. Although this non-probability sampling approach has its limitations, it was deemed appropriate for this study as the study's main aim was to investigate the relationship between variables (Burns & Burns, 2008).

An online survey was created using Qualtrics and was distributed to the General Managers via email. The General Managers were then requested to forward the email with the online survey link to their employees via email. Some General Managers also sent reminder emails to participants to encourage participation. The beginning of the survey included one eligibility question: Do you work as a front-line hotel employee/ waiter/ bartender/ hostess in the hospitality industry? The participants had to answer 'yes' to continue with participation in the study. Following the eligibility question, the purpose of the study, and the voluntary and anonymous nature of the study was explained. The researcher's contact details were also included should any queries have arisen.

In order to maximise response rates, an incentive was provided for the participants. Participation was incentivised by donating one Rand to charity for every completed questionnaire. Participants were given an option to choose from three charities.

Although an incentive was provided, it was found that the response rates were very low. In addition, many hotels refused to participate in the study as a London based business school had recently conducted a survey at many hotels in the Western Cape.

In response to the low response rates, Facebook statuses on the researcher's and researcher's friends' Facebook pages were used to invite participants to complete the online survey. Furthermore, the online survey was adapted into a paper and pencil format and the researcher approached various restaurants and hotels to attract participants. To ensure participants' anonymity, they were given envelopes to return their completed questionnaires in. Data collection took place over a six-week period. It was approximated that the questionnaire would take 10 to 15 minutes to complete based on its length.

Measures

Emotional Labour

Chu and Murrmann's (2006) 19-item Hospitality Emotional Labour scale (HELS) was used to measure emotional labour. The scale consisted of two subscales: emotive dissonance and emotive effort. The emotive dissonance subscale consisted of 11 items and a sample item was "I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers". The emotive dissonance subscale measured both surface acting and genuine acting as according to Kruml and Geddes (2000) emotive dissonance presents these two constructs at opposite ends of a continuum. In addition, the emotive effort subscale consisted of eights items and a sample item was "I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers".

Participants were asked to indicate how often they engage in emotional labour activities using an adapted 5-point Likert scale (1 = *never* and 5 = *always*). The original scale consisted of seven points (1 = *rarely* and 7= *always*), with no verbal labels for the scale points in between. The scale was adapted to provide verbal labels for each scale point as prior studies have demonstrated that respondents have difficulty in using response scales (Tourangeau, Couper, & Conrad, 2007).

Furthermore, Krosnick and Fabrigar (1997, as cited in Tourangeau et al., 2007) added that specifying verbal labels for each scale point helps respondents assign meaning to the scale points. Both subscales have been reported to have good internal consistency: emotive dissonance (α = .88) and emotive effort (α = .71) (Chu & Murrmann, 2006). This emotional labour scale was selected as it assesses hospitality employees' perceptions of emotional labour.

Well-being

Two measures of well-being were used, namely emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

Emotional exhaustion. The nine-item emotional exhaustion subscale from the Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to measure job burnout (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, Jackson, 1996). A sample item was "I feel emotionally drained from my work". Participants indicated their frequency of emotional exhaustion on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 7 =*every day*). Cronbach alpha reliability for this subscale as reported by Maslach and Jackson (1986) was high (α = .91). Further, a South African study also reported a high Cronbach alpha for this subscale (α = .78) (Levert, Lucas, & Ortlepp, 2000).

Job satisfaction. A general level of job satisfaction was measured using the three item overall job satisfaction subscale from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh, 1983). A sample item was "I am satisfied with my current job". Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). This scale has been reported to demonstrate high internal consistency (α = .88) (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983).

Work-to-life Conflict

Frone and Yardley's (1996) 12-item work-family conflict scale was used to measure work-life conflict as the items refer to "personal life" and "family/friends". The scale included two subscales: work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Six items measured each dimension. One item was adapted: "My job or career keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family/friends." Participants indicated their responses on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). Both subscales have been reported to have high internal consistency: work-to-family conflict (α = .87) and family-to-work conflict (α = .79) (Frone & Yardley, 1996).

Positive Affectivity

The 10-item positive affectivity scale from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) was used to measure positive affectivity (PA) (Watson et al., 1988). This scale was used to control for the effect that disposition may have over the independent variables. The positive affectivity subscale consisted of 10 mood descriptor words. Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*; 5 = *very much*) indicating whether they had experienced each mood over the past three weeks. The positive affectivity subscale demonstrated a high internal consistency (α = .85) (Watson et al., 1988)

General Self-efficacy

The eight-item New General Self-efficacy scale (NGSE) was used to measure participant's belief in their overall competencies (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). This scale was included to control for the influence that general self-efficacy may have over the independent variables. A sample item was "I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges". Participants indicated their level of agreement for each

item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). This scale has been reported to have a high internal consistency (α = .86) (Chen et al., 2001).

Statistical Analysis

The data was cleaned and coded using appropriate statistical procedures. IBM SPSS (Statistical Programme for Social Sciences) Statistics, version 20 was used to analyse the data. The factor validity and reliability of each scale was assessed using factor analysis and reliability analysis. Descriptive statistics were also used to assess the data. Correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis were performed to statistically test the hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter is divided into six sections according to the relevant statistical analysis conducted. Section one explores the dimensionality of the measurement scales using exploratory factor analysis. Section two presents the reliability of the newly determined variables. Section three presents a descriptive analysis of the study's variables and section four presents the correlation analysis of the study's variables. Following these results, section five presents hierarchical regression analysis that explores the outcomes of emotional labour. Lastly, the mediation analyses in section six explore how work-to-life conflict mediates the relationship between emotional labour and its outcomes.

Dimensionality

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was conducted to identify the underlying factor structure (Burns & Burns, 2008). PAF was selected as it is recommended as a data structuring method and it identifies the latent dimensions represented in the original variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Principal Component Factor Analysis (PCA) was not used as it is recommended as a data reduction method (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, an orthogonal rotation method using varimax normalised rotation was used. This rotation method was selected as it identifies composite factors while still accounting for maximum variance in the original variables (Hair et al., 2010). Using an iterative process, the variables were reduced to determine adequate factorial validity. Factor loading of .50 or greater was used as the minimum loading, as according to Hair et al. (2010). The minimum significant factor loading for a sample between 120 and 150 is .50.

The scales were first assessed for their suitability for exploratory factor analysis using Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity was used to assess whether variables were unrelated, thus not suitable for exploratory factor analysis (Burns & Burns, 2008). In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy assessed the amount of variance, which may be the result of underlying factors (Hair et al., 2010). Variables were considered to be suitable for exploratory factor analysis if Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significance value of less than 0.05, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy value was 0.5 or greater. Furthermore, the Kaiser criterion was used to determine the dimensionality of variables. The Kaiser criterion reports factors with an eigenvalue of greater than 1 (Hair et al., 2010).

Emotional labour scale. The 19 item emotional labour scale was analysed using principal axis factoring with varimax rotation. The scale did not yield the expected two factors as reported in Chu & Murrmann's (2006) study. Multiple items had cross-loadings, which were removed from analysis through an iterative process, namely surface acting items 6 and 8, and deep acting items 1 and 8. Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity produced criteria that supported the factor analysis (KMO = .764; Bartlett's test of sphericity - $\chi^2(105) = 677.083, p < .001$). The final structure indicated three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, accounting for 47.123% of the cumulative variance. Table 8 reports the variance of the three factors, and each factor's subsequent factor loadings.

Table 8

Factor Loadings of Emotional Labour Dimensions

Items	Factor 1 (surface acting)	Factor 2 (deep acting)	Factor 3 (Naturally felt expression - NFE)
Surface acting 1	**0.672**	-0.113	-0.119
Surface acting 2	**0.772**	-0.094	-0.158
Surface acting 3	**0.707**	-0.229	0.049
Surface acting 4	**0.579**	0.095	-0.008
Surface acting 5	**0.737**	0.158	-0.010
Surface acting 7	**0.690**	-0.040	-0.201
NFE 1	-0.218	0.116	**0.622**
NFE 2	0.085	0.054	**0.553**
NFE 3	-0.167	-0.009	**0.555**
Deep acting 2	0.053	**0.682**	0.029
Deep acting 3	-0.117	**0.654**	0.165
Deep acting 4	-0.060	**0.663**	-0.196
Deep acting 5	-0.240	**0.627**	0.168
Deep acting 6	0.013	**0.627**	0.250
Deep acting 7	0.126	**0.708**	-0.071
Eigenvalues	3.457	2.552	1.059
Individual total variance explained (%)	23.049	17.016	7.057
Cumulative total variance explained (%)			47.123

Note. $N = 123$ after casewise deletion. Remaining items based on an iterative process. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Rotation is varimax normalisation. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >. 50.

Six surface acting items loaded on factor one with factor loadings ranging from .579 to .737, accounting for 23.049% of the variance. In addition to this, the three naturally felt expression items loaded onto factor three, accounting for 7.057% of the variance (factor loadings ranging from .555 to .622). In Chu and Murrmann's (2006) study, factor one and three loaded onto one factor, termed emotive dissonance. Six items for deep acting loaded on factor two, with loadings varying from .627 to .708. The three factors represent three dimensions of emotional labour: surface acting, naturally felt expression and deep acting.

Emotional exhaustion scale. Extraction using principal axis factoring was performed on the 9 item emotional exhaustion scale. Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity produced criteria that supported the factor analysis (KMO = .847; Bartlett's test of sphericity - $\chi^2(28) = 588.131, p < .001$). However item 7 had a cross-loading and thus was removed from the analysis. The remaining items loaded onto one factor with an eigenvalue of 4.303, explaining 53.786% of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from .594 to .8 (see Table 9). As expected, this factor is unidimensional and represents emotional exhaustion.

Table 9

Factor Loadings of Emotional Exhaustion

Items	Factor 1 (Emotional exhaustion)
Emotional exhaustion1	**0.743**
Emotional exhaustion 2	**0.739**
Emotional exhaustion 3	**0.800**
Emotional exhaustion 4	**0.782**
Emotional exhaustion 5	**0.799**
Emotional exhaustion 6	**0.720**
Emotional exhaustion 8	**0.666**
Emotional exhaustion 9	**0.594**
Eigenvalues	4.303
Individual total variance explained (%)	53.786

Note. $N = 127$ after casewise deletion. Remaining items based on an iterative process. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >.50.

Job satisfaction scale. Using principal axis extraction, the three item job satisfaction scale indicated one factor. This factor had an eigenvalue of 1.796 and accounted for 59.851% of the variance. . Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity produced criteria that supported the factor analysis (KMO = .649; Bartlett's test of sphericity - $\chi^2(3) = 142.426, p < .001$). Factor loadings varied from .554 to .914 (see Table 10). Therefore, this factor is unidimensional and represents job satisfaction.

Table 10

Factor Loadings of Job Satisfaction

Items	Factor 1 (Job satisfaction)
Job satisfaction 1	**0.808**
Job satisfaction 2	**0.554**
Job satisfaction 3	**0.914**
Eigenvalues	1.796
Individual total variance explained (%)	59.851

Note. $N = 132$ after casewise deletion. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >. 50.

Work-life conflict scale. Principal axis extraction with varimax normalised rotation indicated two significant factors. Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity produced criteria that supported the factor analysis (KMO = .812; Bartlett's test of sphericity - χ^2 (45) = 616.679, $p < .001$). Work-to-life conflict item 3 and life-to-work conflict item 1 were removed from further analysis. The remaining items loaded onto two factors, with eigenvalues above 1.0 and explained 55.6% of the cumulative variance. The five items of work-to-life conflict loaded onto factor 1, accounting for 37.409% of the variance (factor loadings from .703 to .881). In addition, the five items of life-to-work conflict loaded onto factor two, explaining 18.191% (factor loadings from .626 to .736). Table 11 presents the variance of the two factors, and the subsequent factor loadings. It must be noted that life-to-work conflict will not be used in future analysis. It was included for the purpose of determining that the work-life conflict scale is bi-directional, and work-to-life conflict can be distinguished from life-to-work conflict. Therefore, the two factors represent work-to-life conflict and life-to-work conflict.

Table 11

Factor Loadings of Work-Life Conflict Dimensions

Items	Factor 1 (Work-to-life conflict)	Factor 2 (Life-to-work conflict)
Work-to-life conflict 1	**0.703**	0.124
Work-to-life conflict 2	**0.779**	0.137
Work-to-life conflict 4	**0.844**	0.116
Work-to-life conflict 5	**0.786**	0.151
Work-to-life conflict 6	**0.881**	0.041
Life-to-work conflict 2	0.256	**0.640**
Life-to-work conflict 3	0.194	**0.651**
Life-to-work conflict 4	-0.017	**0.736**
Life-to-work conflict 5	0.068	**0.626**
Life-to-work conflict 6	0.048	**0.635**
Eigenvalues	3.741	1.819
Individual total variance explained (%)	37.409	18.191
Cumulative total variance explained (%)		55.600

Note. $N = 125$. Remaining items based on an iterative process. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Rotation is varimax normalisation. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >.50

Positive affectivity scale. Principal axis extraction of the 10 item positive affectivity scale led to one factor, with an eigenvalue of 4.87 and explained 54.115% of the variance. Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity supported the factor analysis (KMO = .899; Bartlett's test of sphericity - $\chi 2\ (36) = 597.535$, $p < .001$). Item 4 was removed. The factor consisted of 9 items, with factor loadings varying from .506 to .826 (see Table 12). Thus this factor is unidimensional and represents positive affectivity.

Table 12

Factor Loadings of Positive Affectivity

Items	Factor 1 (Positive affectivity)
Positive affectivity 1	**0.660**
Positive affectivity 2	**0.506**
Positive affectivity 3	**0.800**
Positive affectivity 5	**0.797**
Positive affectivity 6	**0.785**
Positive affectivity 7	**0.595**
Positive affectivity 8	**0.782**
Positive affectivity 9	**0.826**
Positive affectivity 10	**0.800**
Eigenvalues	4.870
Individual total variance explained (%)	54.115

Note. $N = 114$. Remaining items based on an iterative process. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >.50

General self-efficacy scale. The eight item new general self-efficacy scale extracted one factor using principal axis extraction. The factor had an eigenvalue of 5.134 and accounted for 64.179% of the variance. Both the KMO and the Bartlett's test of sphericity produced criteria that supported the factor analysis (KMO = .921; Bartlett's test of sphericity - $\chi^2(28) = 698.903, p < .001$). Factor loadings varied from .652 to .890 (see Table 13). As expected, this factor is unidimensional and represents self-efficacy.

Table 13

Factor Loadings of New General Self-efficacy (NGSE)

Items	Factor 1 (NGSE)
New general self-efficacy 1	**0.774**
New general self-efficacy 2	**0.844**
New general self-efficacy 3	**0.861**
New general self-efficacy 4	**0.890**
New general self-efficacy 5	**0.876**
New general self-efficacy 6	**0.810**
New general self-efficacy 7	**0.652**
New general self-efficacy 8	**0.664**
Eigenvalues	5.134
Individual total variance explained (%)	64.179

Note. $N = 117$. Extraction method is principal axis factoring. Items in bold have acceptable factor loading of >.50

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Subsequent to the EFA, a CFA was performed on the emotional labour scale using the Statistica SEPATH model to test the dimensionality of the variable. According to Hair et al. (2010) multiple samples are required to perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The first sample should be examined with Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to purify the construct and its items. Subsequently, additional sample(s) should be used to perform the CFA. The technique was used to assess whether the emotional labour scale measured three distinct dimensions of emotional labour. As reviewed in chapter two, there is theoretical and empirical support for a two factor model and a three factor model of emotional labour (Chu & Murrmann, 2006; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Therefore, a CFA was performed on the emotional labour scale (see Appendix B).

On examination of the fit indices from the CFA, the three factor model was found to have a better model fit (CFI = .832) than the two factor model (CFI = .782). It must be noted that due to limitations discussed in the method section, only one sample was obtained for this study. In addition to this, a minimum sample size of 150 is recommended for models with seven or fewer constructs that have modest communalities of .50 or above (Hair et al., 2010). This study's sample was slightly smaller than the recommended sample size (N = 136). Therefore, the results from the CFA are included in Appendix B

Reliability Analysis

Following the exploratory factor analysis, the internal consistency of the scales were assessed using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α). Alpha values of .70 or above were considered an acceptable level of reliability. Furthermore, a higher alpha value indicates a higher level of internal consistency among the items (Burns & Burns, 2008). The scale's Cronbach's alphas ranged from .618 to .931.

All the scales, with the exception of naturally felt expression, demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency with alpha values above .70. The Cronbach alpha for naturally felt expression (α = .618) did not meet the acceptable level of .70. However, according to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), a Cronbach alpha value of above .60 is regarded as the lower limit of acceptability. In addition, usually a minimum of three, but preferably four items are needed to provide coverage of the construct's theoretical domain (Hair et al., 200). The naturally felt expression scale consisted of few items, but still met the minimum requirement of items needed and the lower limit of acceptability for the Cronbach alpha value. Therefore, a decision was made to retain this scale.

Descriptive Statistics

Subsequent to the reliability analysis of the new variables, a descriptive analysis was conducted to provide a clear and comprehensive representation of the data (Burns & Burns, 2008). Table 14 reports the variables' means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), standard error of the mean (*SE*), skewness and kurtosis.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for Composite Variables

Variable	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Surface acting	136	2.46	.90	.08	.425	-.17
Naturally felt expression	136	3.14	1.01	.09	-.037	-.65
Deep acting	134	3.54	.92	.08	-.377	-.07
Emotional exhaustion	133	3.05	1.48	.13	.567	-.30
Job satisfaction	132	5.22	1.51	.13	-.857	-.13
Work-to-life conflict	129	3.08	1.12	.10	-.171	-.98
Positive affectivity	123	3.77	.99	.09	-.735	-.23
General self-efficacy	119	4.28	.70	.06	-1.407	3.38

Note: *N* = Number of respondents after casewise deletion of missing data; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *SE* = standard error of mean.

Reported levels for emotional labour strategies have means ranging between 2.46 and 3.54 (range of *SD* = .90 and 1.01). Surface acting and naturally felt expression had a moderate average. However, deep acting reported a higher mean of 3.54. These means are considered high when reported on 5-point scale (Burns & Burns, 2008) and indicates that most participants within the sample are more likely to engage in deep acting. The reported level of emotional exhaustion was moderate with a mean of 3.05 (*SD* = 1.48) whereas the reported level of job satisfaction was high with a mean of 5.22 (*SD* = 1.51) as both scales consisted of 7-point rating scale. The standard error of

measure for emotional exhaustion (*SE* = .13) and job satisfaction (*SE* = .13) is of concern as it may indicate that the sample mean is less efficient as an estimate of the population mean (Burns & Burns, 2008). This finding was expected based on the small sample size of participants. Furthermore, participants reported above average levels of work-to-life conflict with a mean 3.08 (*SD* = 1.12). Participants also reported high levels of positive affectivity (*M* = 3.77, *SD* = .99) and even higher levels of self-efficacy (*M* = 4.28, *SD* = .70).

Correlation Analysis

Once the descriptive analyses had been conducted for the new composite variables, a correlation analysis using Pearson's product moment correlation technique was conducted. Casewise deletion of missing data resulted in a sample of 114 valid cases. This analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which surface acting, naturally felt expression and deep acting is related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. According to Cohen (1988), the strength of the correlation between variables can be categorized as small (correlation coefficients between 0 and .299), moderate (correlation coefficients between .3 and .499), or large (correlation coefficients above .5). Table 4.9 presents the correlation coefficients for the composite variables.

Table 15

Correlation Analysis for the Composite Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Surface acting	(.845)							
2. Naturally felt expression	**-.230***	(.618)						
3. Deep acting	-.100	**.201***	(.816)					
4. Emotional exhaustion	**.409*****	**-.236***	**-.241****	(.901)				
5. Job satisfaction	**-.270****	**.245****	**.445*****	**-.551*****	(.794)			
6. Work-to-life conflict	**.333*****	-.169	**-.271****	**.659*****	**-.416*****	(.799)		
7. Positive affectivity	**-.211***	**.326*****	**.503*****	**-.417*****	**.527*****	**-.316****	(.910)	
8. Self-efficacy	.003	**.361*****	**.451*****	-.067	**.205***	-.013	**.459*****	(.931)

Note: $N = 114$ after casewise deletion of missing data; *p ≤ .05; **p ≤ .01; ***p ≤ 0001.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test Propositions 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b and 3c because it allows the entry of variables into the regression model to be controlled based on theoretical knowledge (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, prior to performing a hierarchical regression analysis a number of assumptions must be met.

Assumptions of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Firstly, the size of the sample should be adequate. According to Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007, p. 123) formula: $N > 50 + 8m$ (Where m = number of independent variables), this study's sample is adequate for multiple regression (as cited in Pallant, 2011). Secondly, there should be no evidence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is found when independent variables are significantly highly correlated ($r > .90$). Some authors suggest a more conservative estimate of multicollinearity ($r > .70$) (Hair et al., 2010). Tolerance levels and variance inflation factors (VIF) were therefore checked for any evidence of multicollinearity in the regression models. No evidence of multicollinearity was found in this study's regression models. Thirdly, data should be examined for any outliers (extreme scores) as multiple regression analysis is very sensitive to such scores (Pallant, 2011). Outliers were identified by using critical chi-square values to evaluate Mahalanobis distances. This critical value was determined by using Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) guidelines, according to the number of independent variables in the regression model (as cited in Pallant, 2011). In this study, two outliers were identified: case 138 and case 175. A decision was made to not exclude these cases from the multiple regression analyses as according to Field (2009), if Cooks distance is below 1 and the outliers do not make a significant change in the regression, there is no need to remove the outliers. Lastly, assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were met by examining normalised probability plots and scatterplots (Pallant, 2011). Preliminary analyses therefore

confirmed that there were no violations of the assumptions of sample size, multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity.

Emotional Exhaustion as an Outcome of the Dimensions of Emotional Labour

To test Proposition 2a and 2b, hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the three dimensions of emotional labour (surface acting, naturally felt expression, and deep acting) to predict emotional exhaustion, after controlling for the influence of dispositional variables (general self-efficacy and positive affectivity). The dispositional variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 19,4% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. After entry of surface acting, naturally felt expression and deep acting at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 30.5% ($F_{(5,108)} = 9.467, p < .0001$). Thus, adding the emotional labour dimensions to the model explained an additional 11.1% of the variance in emotional exhaustion, after controlling for general self-efficacy and positive affectivity ($\Delta R^2 = .111, p = 0.001$)

Table 16 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analysis. In the final model, positive affectivity was a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.356, p = .001$). Surface acting was also found to be a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .303, p = .001$), recording a lower beta value than positive affectivity. Therefore, these results imply that employees who used higher levels of surface acting experienced increased emotional exhaustion. This finding is more significant for employees with increased levels of positive affectivity. Proposition 2a was therefore confirmed as only surface acting explains a significant proportion of variance in emotional exhaustion. Proposition 2b was not supported as naturally felt expression did not predict emotional exhaustion.

Table 16

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: DV = Emotional Exhaustion

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affectivity	-.490***	-.356**
General self-efficacy	.158	.169
Emotional Labour		
Surface acting		.303**
Naturally felt expression		-.094
Deep acting		-.089
R^2	.194***	.305
Adjusted R^2	.179***	.273
ΔR^2		.111**

Notes: $N = 114$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Job Satisfaction as an Outcome of the Dimensions of Emotional Labour

Hierarchical multiple regression was also used to test proposition 3a, 3b an 3c to determine the effects of emotional labour on job satisfaction. The dispositional variables were entered into step 1, and accounted for 28% of the explained variance in job satisfaction. The emotional labour variables (surface acting, naturally felt expression and deep acting) were then entered at step 2, and explained 36.1% of variance in the whole model ($F_{(5,108)} = 12.179, p < .0001$). Therefore, emotional labour variables accounted for 8.1% incremental change in the model's explained variance, after controlling for positive affectivity and general self-efficacy ($\Delta R^2 = .081, p = 0.005$)

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis are reported in Table 17. In the second step, both positive affectivity (β = -392, $p < .0001$) and deep acting (β = .276, $p < .005$) were significant predictors of job satisfaction, however positive affectivity was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than deep acting. These findings infer that employees who used higher levels of deep acting experienced increased job satisfaction. Proposition 2b was therefore confirmed as deep acting explains a significant proportion of variance in job satisfaction. However, propositions 2a and 2c were not supported.

Table 17

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: DV = Job Satisfaction

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affectivity	.549***	.392***
General self-efficacy	-.047	-.126
Emotional Labour		
Surface acting		-.142
Naturally felt expression		.075
Deep acting		.276*
R^2	.280***	.361
Adjusted R^2	.267***	.331
ΔR^2		.081*

Notes: N = 114 with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Mediation Analyses

Mediation analyses were conducted using the four-step methodology recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). Accordingly, before mediation can be performed, the predictor, mediator and dependent variables must be significantly correlated. In addition, regression analyses should be conducted to ensure (1) the predictor predicts the dependent variable; (2) the predictor predicts the meditator variable; and (3) the mediator variable predicts the dependent variable. Once Baron and Kenny's (1986) prerequisites for mediation analysis has been met, the predictor is then regressed on the dependent variable, after controlling for the mediator. Hence, mediation is determined by a reduction in the effect of the predictor on the dependent variable, after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Full mediation is demonstrated if the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable became non-significant, after controlling for the mediator. In contrast, partial mediation is determined if the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable decreased but was still different from zero, after controlling for the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

To test Proposition 4a, a mediation analysis was conducted using hierarchical multiple regression. Prior to this, the prerequisite assumptions for mediation analysis were met (see Appendix C). It must be noted that in the preliminary analysis, case 57 reported a standardised residual value above 3. However, on further investigation, the maximum Cook's distance value was below 1. Therefore a decision was made that this case would not have an undue influence on the regression model, and the case was not removed (Pallant, 2011).

Table 18 presents the results of the mediation analysis. At step 1, the dispositional variables were entered, accounting for 20% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. The mediating variable (work-to-life conflict) was then entered at Step 2, explaining

48.8% of the variance in emotional exhaustion ($F_{(3,111)} = 35.277, p < .0001$). After controlling for the mediating variable, the predictor variable (surface acting) was then entered at step 3, and accounted for 51.9% of the variance of the whole model ($F_{(4,110)} = 29.630, p < .0001$). Therefore, after controlling for the mediating variable, the predictor variable explained an additional 3.1% of the variance in emotional exhaustion ($\Delta R^2 = .031, p < 0.01$). This finding infers that work-to-life conflict accounts for a significant amount of variance in the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Proposition 4a was therefore confirmed as work-to-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion.

Table 18

Mediation Analysis: DV = Emotional Exhaustion

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Dispositional Variables			
Positive affectivity	-.497***	-.269**	-.239*
General self-efficacy	.153	.057	.042
Mediator Variable			
Work-to-life conflict		.574***	.520***
Predictor Variable			
Surface acting			.187*
R^2	.200***	.488	.519
Adjusted R^2	.185***	.47	.501
ΔR^2		.288***	.031*

Notes: $N = 114$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .01; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Surface Acting and Job Satisfaction

To test Proposition 4b, a mediation analysis was conducted using hierarchical multiple regression. Prerequisite assumptions for mediation analysis were examined and met before the mediation analysis was conducted (see Appendix C). It must be noted that in the preliminary analysis, case 72 reported a standardised residual value above 3. However, on further examination, the maximum Cook's distance value was below 1. Therefore a decision was made that this case would not have an undue influence on the regression model, and the case was not removed (Pallant, 2011).

Table 19 reports the results of the mediation analysis. The dispositional variables were entered at step 1, accounting for 28.7% of the variance in job satisfaction. The mediating variable (work-to-life conflict) was then entered at step 2, explaining 35.3% of the variance in job satisfaction ($F_{(3,111)} = 20.223, p < .0001$). After controlling for the mediating variable, the predictor variable (surface acting) was then entered at step 3, and accounted for a negligible change in the model that was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .009, p = 0.277$). This finding implies that work-to-life conflict accounts for all the significant variance in the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. Proposition 4b was therefore partially supported as work-to-life conflict fully mediates the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction.

Table 19

Mediation Analysis: DV = Job Satisfaction

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Dispositional Variables			
Positive affectivity	.554***	.445***	.428***
General self-efficacy	-.044	.002	.010
Mediator Variable			
Work-to-life conflict		-.276**	-.248*
Predictor Variable			
Surface acting			-.099
R^2	.287***	.353	.362
Adjusted R^2	.274***	.336	.339
Change in R^2		.067**	.009

Notes: N = 114 with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .01; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Final Note

Table 20

Result summary

Proposition	Data Analysis Technique	Level of Support
1. Emotional labour consists of three dimensions (surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expressions).	Exploratory factor analysis; Confirmatory factor analysis	Supported
2a: Surface acting leads to increased levels of emotional exhaustion.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported
2b. Naturally felt expression leads to increased levels of emotional exhaustion.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Not Supported
3a. Surface acting leads to decreased levels of job satisfaction.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Not Supported
3b. Deep acting leads to increased levels of job satisfaction.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported
3c. Naturally felt expression leads to increased levels of job satisfaction.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Not Supported

4a. Work-to-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression; Mediation analysis	Supported
4b. Work-to-life conflict partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction.	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression; Mediation analysis	Partially Supported

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to gain insight into emotional labour, its relationship with employee well-being, and the mediation role of work-to-life conflict (W2LC) on this relationship, particularly within a South African sample. This chapter presents a discussion of the main findings, with reference to the study's propositions. It will also present managerial implications, as well as suggestions for future research.

Contributions of this Study

The findings of this study have contributed to research in the following ways:

1. Emotional labour consists of three dimensions: surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt expression.
2. Different emotional labour strategies have different effects on employee well-being.
3. Work-to-life conflict plays a mediating role between surface acting and employee well-being.
4. Positive affectivity accounts for a portion of the variance between emotional labour and employee well-being.
5. Self-efficacy does not account for a portion of the variance between emotional labour and employee well-being.

Dimensions of Emotional Labour

The South African hospitality sample reported moderate use of *surface acting* and *naturally felt expression* during interactions with customers, and higher levels of *deep*

acting during these interactions. This indicates that more South African employees in the hospitality industry are likely to engage in deep acting.

Exploratory factor analytic techniques indicated that emotional labour comprises three components, namely *surface acting*, *deep acting* and *naturally felt expression*. This is an important finding as there is a debate in the literature as to whether *naturally felt expression* is its own distinct dimension of emotional labour, or if it is a proxy for low levels of surface acting and should be measured on the same dimension as surface acting. Kruml and Geddes (2000) found that *naturally felt expression* loaded on the same dimension as *surface acting*, and reflected low levels of surface acting. However, consistent with this study's finding, Diefendorff et al. (2005) and Glomb & Tews (2004) found that *naturally felt expression* is a distinct construct from both *surface acting* and *deep acting*. Furthermore, Chu and Murrmann (2006) concluded that the Hospitality Emotional Labour Scale (HELS) consists of two dimensions. However, on further examination of their study it was found that the three-factor model had slightly better fit indices (CFI and RMSEA) than the two-factor model. Yet they made a decision to use the two-factor model as it had equally acceptable fit indices and provided a more parsimonious model for emotional labour. Interestingly, further examination of this study's results demonstrated that the mean of *naturally felt expression* was high (mean of 3.14 on a 5-point scale) and the sample utilised naturally felt expressions more than surface acting, but less than deep acting. This suggests that *naturally felt expression* plays an important role in the way South African hospitality employees perform emotional labour at work. Further refinement of the HELS is needed to help achieve greater operational clarity of the emotional labour dimensions. In addition to this, the *naturally felt expression* subscale should be retained a separate scale from surface acting, contrary to the suggestions of Chu and Murrmann (2006).

Emotional Labour and Employee Well-being

Participants indicated that they experience moderate levels of emotional exhaustion (mean of 3.05 on a 7-point scale); whereas they reported high levels of job satisfaction (mean of 5.22 on a 7-point scale). This reflects that participants experience greater job satisfaction than emotional exhaustion during their service role jobs. South African employees may find their service job role fulfilling. Therefore, emotional labour may have positive outcomes, as well as negative outcomes.

Emotional Labour and Emotional Exhaustion

In support of proposition 2a, this study found that surface acting predicted emotional exhaustion, accounting for 30.3% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. This finding is consistent with previous research (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). When employees engage in surface acting, they are likely to experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Moreover, no support was found for proposition 2b, indicating that naturally felt expression does not predict emotional exhaustion. Limited literature has investigated naturally felt expression, particularly its relationship with emotional exhaustion. However, this finding is inconsistent with the findings of available research (Chu et al., 2012; Glomb & Tews, 2004). When employees use their genuine feelings to display naturally felt expressions, they do not experience a change in their level of exhaustion.

Emotional Labour and Job Satisfaction

This study also investigated job satisfaction as an indicator of employee well-being. No support for proposition 3a was found, demonstrating that surface acting does not predict job satisfaction. This is consistent with other findings (Gursoy et al., 2011;

Lee & Ok, 2012). When employees use surface acting during their interactions with customers, they do not experience any change in their levels of job satisfaction. In contrast, findings indicated support for proposition 3b. It was found that deep acting predicted job satisfaction, explaining 27.6% of the variance in job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with previous research (Chen et al., 2012; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Lam & Chen, 2012; Lee & Ok, 2012). When employees engage in deep acting, they are likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. In addition, this study found no support for proposition 3c. Naturally felt expression does not predict job satisfaction. No literature has investigated this relationship before. When employees display their naturally felt expressions, they do not experience any change in their levels of job satisfaction.

Mechanisms that Explain the Relationship between Emotional Labour and Employee Well-being

The relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion may be explained in terms of ego depletion, felt inauthenticity, impairment of social interactions and the experience of negative emotions.

The first mechanism, ego depletion, suggests that employees mental resources become drained due to the continuous monitoring of their actual and desired emotions (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). When employees engage in surface acting, they must supress their genuine emotions, as well as fake their emotional display. Consequently, employees continuously devote effort to suppress their genuine emotions, and fake an appropriate emotional display. This leads to the depletion of the employees' mental resources, which in turn results in emotional exhaustion. This may also have negative consequences for the organisation as when an employee reaches this point of emotional exhaustion they will attempt to conserve energy levels. Accordingly, Maslasch et al. (2001) suggests that in order to conserve energy levels, an employee

will reduce their cognitive and emotional involvement with customers. The employee, in turn, becomes less responsive to customers and does not meet the needs of the customer.

The second mechanism, felt inauthenticity, suggests the inconsistency between the employee's emotional display and genuine feelings that lead to stress (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). When employees engage in surface acting, their emotional display is not congruent with their genuine feelings; thereby resulting in felt inauthenticity. In support of this contention, Brotheridge and Lee's (2002) study demonstrated that the suppression of negative feelings and the stimulation of positive emotions led to lower levels of felt inauthenticity. Accordingly, when an employee experiences felt inauthenticity, he/she is likely to experience increased levels of stress. Therefore, an employee who engages in surface acting is likely to experience felt inauthenticity, which in turn will result in emotional exhaustion.

The third mechanism, impairment of social interactions, suggest that interactions with customers affect well-being through the perception of both interaction partners: the customer and the employee (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). An employee engages in surface acting to meet the needs of the customer. The customer, in turn, evaluates the employee's emotional display as inauthentic. According to Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen and Sideman (2005) positive emotional displays lead to positive reactions from customers only to the extent to which customers perceive them as authentic. Furthermore, surface acting is associated with inauthentic displays (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Therefore, it is likely that the customer will perceive the employee's emotional display as inauthentic and react unfavourably towards the employee. Consequently, the employee perceives the customer's reaction as unrewarding, which in turn increases the employee's level of emotional exhaustion.

The fourth mechanism involves the prolonged experience of negative emotions (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). When employees engage in surface acting, their emotional display changes to express positive emotions. However, employees continue to experience negative emotions. Experiencing positive emotions is beneficial to an individual's well-being (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). As a result, employees who engage in surface acting will experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion as they continue to experience negative emotions, regardless of their positive emotional display.

Similar mechanisms may also explain the relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction, namely ego depletion, felt authenticity, enhancement of social interactions and the experience of positive emotions.

Deep acting only occurs at the onset of the emotion (Grandey, 2000). In terms of the ego depletion mechanism, deep acting uses less mental resources than surface acting. When employees engage in deep acting, they only devote effort to modifying their internal feelings allowing the appropriate emotional expression to follow. This is opposed to surface acting in which employees continuously exert effort to fake their emotional display. An employee who engages in deep acting uses minimal mental resources, allowing them to conserve their reserves of mental resources. This in turn leads to increased levels of job satisfaction.

Felt authenticity, the second mechanism, suggests that there is congruence between employees emotional expressions and actual feelings (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Employees who engage in deep acting modify their actual feelings to meet the organisation's display rules. This causes an employee's emotional expressions to be congruent with their genuine feelings resulting in felt authenticity. Adelmann (1995, as cited in Pugliesi, 1999) reported that table servers who displayed real smiles at work had higher levels of job satisfaction than table servers who reported faking their

smiles. Employees who engage in deep acting modify their feelings to experience the appropriate feeling, which causes them to display true emotional expressions and in turn, experience higher levels of job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the enhancement of social interactions may also explain the relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction. Employees who engage in deep acting to meet the required emotional display for the customer change their internal feelings to express an authentic emotional display. Correspondingly, the customer perceives the employee's expression as authentic and genuine. In turn, the customer and the employee experience favourable interactions with one another. This results in the employee perceiving the interaction as rewarding. The employee's positive and fulfilling perception of the interaction leads to increased levels of job satisfaction, as the employee is satisfied with the interaction. Hence, an employee who engages in deep acting is likely to experience increased levels of job satisfaction.

The prolonged experience of positive emotions may also explain the relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction. When employees engage in deep acting, they stimulate positive emotions in themselves by modifying their internal feelings. As a result, when employees engage in deep acting, they will stimulate the prolonged experience of positive emotions. Furthermore, positive emotions leads to the development of a positive outlook (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002, as cited in Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Therefore, when employees engage in deep acting and stimulate positive emotions, they are likely to positively evaluate their job and experience increased levels of job satisfaction.

The study also found that surface acting did not predict job satisfaction. The non-predictive relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion was not proposed but is consistent with previous literature (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). The

absence of these relationships may suggest that different emotional labour strategies have different effects on employee well-being outcomes, while not all forms of emotional labour are associated with the different indicators of employee well-being.

Furthermore, findings from this study indicated that naturally felt expression does not predict emotional exhaustion or job satisfaction. According to the ego depletion mechanism, employees may use minimal mental effort when displaying naturally felt expression as these expressions are genuine and spontaneous, therefore requiring less effort. Martínez-Iñigo et al. (2007) suggested that in accordance with Cote's (2005) social interaction model discussed previously, employees who use genuine displays of emotion perceive the interaction between themselves and the customer as rewarding and satisfying. This positive interaction, in turn, should lead to increased employee well-being. This mechanism may not explain the relationship between naturally felt expression and employee well-being, and should be empirically investigated in future research.

Work-to-Life Conflict

Participants reported that they experience moderately high levels of work-to-life conflict (W2LC) (mean of 3.08 on a 5-point scale). This indicates that employees in the hospitality industry experience pressure from their job, which interferes with their life. Furthermore, these employees perform emotional labour indicating that work-to-life conflict may arise from jobs that require emotional labour.

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Consistent with proposition 4a, it was found that W2LC partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. This finding is in

contrast with Montgomery's et al. (2006) finding that W2LC does not mediate this relationship. The finding from this study show that surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion. Consistent with this finding, previous studies found that employees who engage in surface acting are more likely to experience increased levels of emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). However, this study demonstrated that W2LC partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, previous studies showed that an increase in work-to-family conflict leads to higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Similarly, this study clearly demonstrated this positive relationship between W2LC and emotional exhaustion. In addition, this study demonstrated a positive association between surface acting and W2LC. This is consistent with other studies, which showed that employees who engage in surface acting, report high levels of work-to-family conflict (Cheung & Tang, 2009; Montgomery et al., 2005; Seery et al., 2008). Therefore, this study suggests that surface acting is associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion, however W2LC accounts for a significant amount of the variance in the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion.

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Surface Acting and Job Satisfaction

Partial support was found for proposition 4b, which proposed that W2LC partially mediates the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. Findings from this study indicate W2LC fully mediates the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. On the basis of the literature search, this study appears to be the first to explore the mediational role of W2LC on the association between surface acting and job satisfaction. Previous studies have investigated the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2012; Gursoy et al., 2011; Lee & Ok,

2012) and reported that employees who engage in surface acting are more likely to experience increased levels of job satisfaction. Consistent with these studies, the results from this study demonstrated that surface acting is negatively associated with job satisfaction. However, this association is fully mediated by W2LC. As demonstrated by previous studies, an increase in work-to-family conflict leads to lower levels of job satisfaction (Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). This negative relationship between W2LC is clearly established in this study. Furthermore, a positive association between surface acting and W2LC emerged from this study. This is consistent with other studies, which showed that employees who engage in surface acting, report higher levels of work-to-family conflict (Cheung & Tang, 2009; Montgomery et al., 2005; Seery et al., 2008). Taken together, these findings suggest that high levels of surface acting are associated with high levels of W2LC, which in turn has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction.

Explanation of Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator of the Relationship between Surface Acting and Employee Well-being

The finding that surface acting and W2LC are related to well-being outcomes, namely emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, can be best understood from the ego depletion mechanism. As previously discussed, this mechanism suggests that surface acting depletes an employee's mental resources. Therefore, when employees engage in surface acting, they uses many mental resources to feign an emotional display and suppress their genuine emotions. Employees contribute a significant amount of their mental resources to their work role, which in turn leaves the employees with limited resources available to contribute to their life role. Accordingly, employees' role pressures are incompatible. Therefore, the emotional demands from employees' jobs deplete too many mental resources for them to be able to meet the demands from their life, which in turn results in W2LC.

Furthermore, this finding suggests that employees' suppressed emotions are likely to be decompressed within their life domain (Montgomery et al., 2006). Therefore, employees express their genuine feelings in their life domain. This expression of genuine feelings in the employee's life domain, in turn, leads to increased levels of emotional exhaustion and decreased levels of job satisfaction.

Dispositional Variables

Positive Affectivity

Of particular interest is the mean of PA as it was very high (mean of 3.77 on a 5-point scale). This indicates that the hospitality employees who responded to the survey are likely, on average, to experience high levels of PA. Therefore, they are likely to positively evaluate their work, themselves and their general environment (Watson et al., 1988). This high mean value may also be an indicator of sample bias. Consequently, hospitality employees with high PA may be more likely to be enthusiastic and complete the survey.

The inverse relationship between emotional exhaustion and PA in step 1 of the emotional exhaustion hierarchical regression analysis may indicate that a portion of emotional exhaustion can be explained by the amount of PA demonstrated by an employee. The similar findings for PA and job satisfaction, with the exception of the relationship being positive, may also infer that an element of job satisfaction can be explained by an employee's level of PA. Therefore, if an employee has high PA, they are more likely to experience less emotional exhaustion and more satisfaction with their job. Furthermore, PA may decrease the effect of emotional labour on these indicators of well-being.

General Self-Efficacy

In addition to PA, the mean for general self-efficacy was also very high (mean of 4.28 on a 5-point scale). This indicates that the hospitality employees who responded to the survey are likely, on average, to experience extremely high levels of general self-efficacy. They are therefore likely to perceive themselves as more than capable of demonstrating the necessary behaviours and achieving tasks in their job as well as other contexts. This extreme mean value may also demonstrate bias in the sample. Hospitality employees with high levels of general self-efficacy may feel more competent to complete the survey, which resulted in them completing the survey.

Furthermore, the correlation analyses indicated that there is a positive relationship between general self-efficacy, and both naturally felt expression and deep acting. However, the hierarchical regression analyses indicated that general self-efficacy does not explain any variance in emotional exhaustion or job satisfaction. Therefore an employee's level of self-efficacy does not affect the amount of emotional exhaustion or job satisfaction that they will experience. In addition to this, general self-efficacy does not affect the influence of emotional labour on emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

Implications for Organisations, Managers and Employees

This section will explore the important implications of emotional labour and employee well-being outcomes of performing emotional labour for organisations, managers and employees within the hospitality industry.

Service is a critical area for organisations to competitively differentiate themselves. The level of service provided by an organisation is a key factor in determining customer satisfaction, purchase decision and customer loyalty (Enz & Siguaw, 2000). Service excellence therefore provides organisations with a competitive advantage. A key component of service excellence is the service interaction between customers and employees. Consequently, the different emotional labour strategies performed by employees play an important role in this service interaction.

Managers can also use this study's findings to aid in better development of formal organisational policies, which in turn can benefit employee well-being. In terms of recruiting, managers can use realistic job previews in which the organisation can explicitly demonstrate their emotional display requirements and their emotional labour requirements, aiding applicants in self-selection. Applicants can decide for themselves whether their naturally felt expressions match the organisation's display requirements. In further support of realistic job previews, Phillips (1998) reported that they are related to higher performance and lower turnover.

In terms of selection, applicant's dispositional characteristics may help mangers make better personnel decisions (Kendrick & Funder, 1988). This study found that positive affectivity plays an important role in the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being. Managers can incorporate measures of dispositional characteristics such as positive affectivity into their selection process.

While recruitment and selection is beneficial, training also plays an important role. This study found that deep acting lead to positive outcomes of employee well-being. Training programmes should be designed to teach employees how to influence their emotions and emotional expressions through deep acting. For example, employees can be trained to reappraise different situations. Past research has demonstrated that training programmes are effective in changing emotional regulation (Parkinson &

Totterdell, 1999). This study also found that W2LC mediates the relationship between surface acting and employee well-being. Training could aid employees in developing alternative ways of dealing with emotions, other than decompressing them in their life when they leave work. Training may also result in more sincere service quality, and increase customer satisfaction.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study provides insights into emotional labour and its association with employee well-being. However, this study is not without limitations, and these limitations should be addressed in future research.

The cross-sectional nature of this study, measuring emotional labour performed by hospitality employees, does not allow causal inferences to be made. To gain insight into these causal inferences, a longitudinal study is suggested for future research.

Future research should also include multiple sources of data, for example from customers, supervisors etc. This study assessed variables only from employee self-reports. Self-reports have been criticised to be affected by biases such as common-method and self-serving bias (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988).

Scholars have recently focused their attention to naturally felt expression (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). However, limited studies have investigated the association between this regulation strategy and well-being. Therefore future research in this direction will advance knowledge of naturally felt expression and its outcomes.

This study also had limitations centred on sampling issues. Firstly, the sample size was small. A small sample size may not be representative of the population, which in turn affects the generalisability of the study's findings (Burns & Burns, 2008). In addition, the sample was from various hotels and restaurants with different star-ratings, with different emphases on service quality. Employees who work for hotels and restaurants with higher star-ratings may perceive emotional demands differently as the service quality is more important with stricter display rules.

Further research should investigate emotional dissonance to gain better insight into emotional labour and its relationship with employee well-being. Emotional dissonance has been explored in various studies of emotional labour and conceptualised in numerous different ways in the emotional labour literature. Zerbe (2000) suggested that two prominent conceptualisations of emotional dissonance exist throughout the literature. The first conceptualisation views emotional dissonance as the discrepancy between felt feelings and feelings required by the job (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf & Holz, 2006). In Holman, Martinez-Inigo and Totterdell's (2008) model, they identified this type of emotional dissonance as *emotional-rule dissonance,* as an antecedent to emotion regulation (surface and deep acting). In contrast, the second conceptualisation of emotional dissonance refers to a discrepancy between felt feelings and expressed emotional displays (Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Grandey, Diefendorff and Rupp (2013) referred to this form of emotional dissonance as *emotion-display rule dissonance.* Therefore more clarity is needed for this construct, and its understanding within emotional labour.

Conclusion

The rapid growth of the service sector worldwide, particularly in South Africa, has emphasised the importance of interactions between employees and customers. More

specifically, it has brought emotional labour to the attention of organisational psychology scholars, which is an important aspect of service interactions that is often neglected by organisations (Grandey, Grabarek, & Teague, 2012; Liao & Searcy, 2012).

This study presented a conceptual understanding of emotional labour, in addition to its effect on employee well-being. The findings indicated that emotional labour comprises three strategies: surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expression. Moreover, it was found that each emotional labour strategy affects employee well-being differently. In particular, it was found that surface acting predicts emotional exhaustion; whereas deep acting predicts job satisfaction. Naturally felt expression was found to have neither a negative, nor positive effect on employee well-being. Work-to-life conflict partially mediated the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, and fully mediated the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. Positive affectivity was also found to explain a significant amount of the variance in the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being.

These findings highlighted the importance of acknowledging emotional labour as a form of labour performed by employees. Further, it highlighted important implications for organisations, managers and employees. Organisations can use emotional labour as a competitive advantage. Managers can also use this study's findings to develop formal organisational policies for recruitment, selection and training which will aid organisations in using emotional labour as a competitive advantage while still benefiting employee well-being. From this study, it is evident that the role of emotional labour should be a focus area for the hospitality industry, and other service jobs.

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APPENDIX A:
Measurement Scales

Emotional Labour

Surface acting dimension

1. I fake a good mood when interacting wit customers
2. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers
3. I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job
4. I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel
5. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way
6. My interactions with customers are very robotic
7. I display emotions that I am not actually feeling
8. I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers

Naturally felt expression dimension

1. The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel
2. I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well
3. I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside

Deep acting dimension

1. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers
2. When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires
3. I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work
4. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers
5. When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day

6. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customers
7. I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers
8. I have to concentrate more on my behaviour when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel

Emotional Exhaustion

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
4. I feel burned out from my work
5. I feel frustrated by my job
6. I feel I'm working too hard on my job
7. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me
8. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope
9. Working with people all day is really a strain for me

Job Satisfaction

1. All in all I am satisfied with my job
2. In general, I don't like my job [Reversed item]
3. In general, I like working here

Work-Life Conflict

Work-to-life conflict dimension

1. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do
2. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests

3. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home
4. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends
5. My job or career interferes with my responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care
6. My job or career keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend with my family/friends

Life-to-work conflict dimension

1. I'm too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home
2. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work
3. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work
4. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work
5. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime
6. My home life keeps me from spending the amount of time I would like to spend on job- or career-related activities

Positive Affectivity

1. Interested
2. Alert
3. Excited
4. Inspired
5. Strong
6. Determined
7. Attentive
8. Enthusiastic
9. Active

10. Proud

Self-efficacy

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well

APPENDIX B:

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The null model was rejected based on the results from the fit indices, (90) = 410.735, $p < .001$. Following the rejection of the null model, two alternative models were tested. A two-factor model was based on the theoretical underpinnings from (Chu & Murrmann, 2006). The initial scale consisted of two dimensions: emotive dissonance (surface acting and naturally felt expression) and emotive effort (deep acting). The three-factor model consisted of three dimensions: surface acting, deep acting and naturally felt expression. Items included in the CFA were identified from an exploratory factor analysis. Latent variables in both the two-factor and three-factor model were correlated. Fit indices for the different models are presented in Table A1.

The three-factor model is identified as the best fit. However, absolute fit statistics indicate that it is not a good fit. The CFI is below the benchmark of .90 and the RMSEA is above the benchmark of .80 (Hair et al., 2010). It must be noted that the sample size is below the required number to perform a CFA.

Table A1

Comparison of Fit indices

	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	PGFI
Null model	410.735	90	.471	.206	.362
Two-factor model[a]	221.049	89	.782	.113	.584
Three-factor model[b]	188.707	87	.832	.0972	.609

Notes: $^{*}p < .001$; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; PGFI = parsimonious goodness-of fit-index. [a] This model includes emotive dissonance (surface acting and naturally felt expression) and emotive effort (deep acting). [b] This model includes surface acting, naturally felt expression and deep acting.

APPENDIX C:

Mediation Analyses

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Table A2

Mediation Analysis: Surface Acting predicts Emotional Exhaustion

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affect	-.497***	-.408***
General self-efficacy	.153	.112
Predictor Variable		
Surface acting		.325***
R^2	.200***	.299
Adjusted R^2	.185***	.280
Change in R^2		.099***

Notes: $N = 115$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Table A3

Mediation Analysis: Work-to-Life Conflict Predicts Emotional Exhaustion

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affect	-.497***	-.269**
General self-efficacy	-.153	.057
Mediator Variable		
Work-to-life conflict		.574***
R^2	.200***	.488
Adjusted R^2	.185***	.474
Change in R^2		.288***

Notes: $N = 115$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Table A4

Mediation Analysis: Surface Acting predicts Work-to-Life Conflict

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affect	-.398***	-.325**
General self-efficacy	.168	.134
Predictor Variable		
Surface acting		.265*
R^2	.124***	.190
Adjusted R^2	.108***	.168
Change in R^2		.066*

Notes: $N = 115$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Work-to-Life Conflict as a Mediator between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Table A5

Mediation Analysis: Surface Acting predicts Job Satisfaction

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affect	.554***	.509***
General self-efficacy	-.044	-.024
Predictor Variable		
Surface acting		-.165*
R^2	.287***	.312
Adjusted R^2	.274***	.294
Change in R^2		.026*

Notes: $N = 115$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .05; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold

Table A6

Work-to-Life Conflict Predicts Job Satisfaction

Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2
Dispositional Variables		
Positive affect	.554***	.445***
General self-efficacy	-.044	.002
Mediator Variable		
Work-to-life conflict		-.276**
R^2	.287***	.353
Adjusted R^2	.274***	.336
Change in R^2		.067**

Notes: $N = 115$ with casewise deletion of missing data; Beta coefficients are standardized; *p ≤ .005; **p ≤ .001; ***p ≤ 0001; significant beta coefficients are in bold