WORK MOTIVATION, STRATEGIES OF EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND WORK OUTCOMES OF TEACHERS IN SELECTED PROFESSIONAL COLLEGES IN KERALA

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Work Motivation, Strategies of Emotional Labour and Work Outcomes of Teachers in Selected Professional Colleges in Kerala

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Certificate

This is to certify that this thesis titled, "**Work Motivation, Strategies of Emotional Labour and Work Outcomes of Teachers in Selected Professional Colleges in Kerala**", submitted to the Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi, for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences, is a record of bona fide research work of Jitha G. Nair (Reg No: 3917) under my supervision and guidance at the School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi. This work does not form part of any dissertation submitted for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title or recognition from this or any other institutions in India or abroad. All the relevant corrections and modifications suggested by experts during the pre-synopsis seminar and recommended by the Doctoral Committee are incorporated in the thesis.

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Declaration

I, Jitha G. Nair (Reg. No: 3917), hereby declare that the research work in this thesis titled "**Work Motivation, Strategies of Emotional Labour and Work Outcomes of Teachers in Selected Professional Colleges in Kerala**", is a bona fide research work submitted to the Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi, for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences done under the supervision of former Prof. (Dr.) Sarada S. of the School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi. I further declare that this thesis is not previously used for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title or recognition from this or any other institutions in India or abroad.

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▌▌▌ Abstract ▌▌▌

Teachers play a very important role in attaining the objectives of any educational institutions. A good teacher needs to draw his/her students' attention to discussions, motivate them and, at the same time, ensure orderly conduct of classes. Such phenomenon very often implies that teachers exhibit certain emotions and suppress some others. This is termed Emotional Labour and is elaborated in the study. The two Strategies of Emotional Labour are Surface Acting and Deep Acting. This study addresses issues like- assessing the Strategies at workplaces required to manage emotion, the motivation for work along with work outcomes of teachers in a select sample of professional colleges in Kerala. Primary data collected through questionnaire is analyzed using Structural equation modeling. The result indicated that professional college teachers display Strategies of Emotional Labour- Surface Acting and Deep Acting in their teaching role. The study also proves that Work Motivation is an antecedent of Strategies of Emotional Labour. Suggestions include formulating appropriate Deep Acting Strategies, creating awareness among teachers and policy makers about the importance of Strategies of Emotional Labour in teaching, evolving and providing suitable training for teachers in using appropriate Strategies of Emotional Labour in classrooms and providing and creating new and challenging learning opportunities by encouraging teachers to attend and present relevant conferences and workshops in their area with the intention of enhancing Intrinsic Motivation to realize intended teaching outcomes.

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Emotional Labor: Management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display.

Display rules: defined as cultural rules dictating whether and how to express one's emotions in a certain situation.

Surface Acting: involves suppressing one's felt emotions and faking the desired emotions

Deep Acting: involves modifying one's feelings in order to display the appropriate emotions.

Motivation is "a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration"

Teaching Satisfaction: "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values"

Job involvement: "the degree to which a person identified psychologically with his/her work or the importance of work in his/ her total self-image"

Personal Accomplishment: "Measures feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work"

▌▌▌▌ List of Abbreviations ▌▌▌▌

AFVIF	-	Average Full Collinearity Variance Inflation Factors
ALM	-	Automatic Linear Modeling
ANOVA	-	Analyses Of Variance
AVE	-	Average Variance Extracted
AVIF	-	Average Block Variance Inflation Factors
CAGR	-	Compound Annual Growth Rate
CAS	-	Cronbach Alpha Score
DA	-	Deep Acting
DCE	-	Directorate of Collegiate Education
DV	-	Dependent Variable
EL	-	Emotional Labour
EM	-	Extrinsic Motivation
GER	-	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GoF	-	Goodness of Fit
IM	-	Intrinsic Motivation
IV	-	Independent Variable
JI	-	Job Involvement
NAAC	-	National Assessment and Accreditation Council
PA	-	Personal Accomplishment
PLS	-	Partial Least Square
SA	-	Surface Acting
SDT	-	Self-Determination Theory
SEM	-	Structural Equation Modelling
TSS	-	Teaching Satisfaction
UGC	-	University Grants Commission
VIF	-	Variance Inflation Factors

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Chapter **1**

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Does teaching at all encompass emotional labour? If so, what could be the quantum involved in it? Also, is there a requirement among teachers, especially in professional colleges, to regulate their emotions? This study addresses such debates – assessing the strategies at workplaces required to manage emotion, the motivation for work along with work outcomes of teachers in a select sample of professional colleges in Kerala.

It is widely acknowledged that teaching comprises face-to-face as also voice-to-voice interaction with students. A good teacher needs to draw his/her students' attention to discussions, motivate them and, at the same time, ensure orderly conduct of classes. Such phenomenon very often implies that teachers exhibit certain emotions and suppress some others. This is termed emotional labour and is elaborated in the sections that follow. Teaching, therefore, like many other professions involves two types of emotional labour, namely, surface acting and deep acting. When teachers try

to modify the expression of emotions they are surface acting; when they channel internal thoughts and feelings in order to actually feel a desired emotion, they are deep acting.

In a developing nation such as India – estimated to have the world's youngest population by 2020 – education and, therefore, teaching are of great significance. Enforcing high teaching standards, strengthening educational programmes and professionalization of higher education through sound institutional backing are priorities that the nation holds. Technical or professional education, in this regard, helps reduce the rate of unemployment contributing to the overall well-being of the country. This study focuses on a set of colleges in Kerala, a state with the highest rate of literacy in India and a sound platform for professional education. Doing so, it examines whether or not Kerala is able to maintain the quality of education – in this case, the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of its teachers – despite having an increase in the number of professional colleges.

Emotions are a key facet of being human. Emotions are like spice without which life would be dull (Mishra, 2008). The English word *emotion* is derived from the French word *émouvoir*. This is based on the Latin *emovere*, where *e-* (variant of *ex-*) means "out" and *movere* means "move"[1]. "*Emotion is a complex psychological phenomenon which occurs as animals or people live their lives. Emotions involve physiological arousal, appraisal of the situation, expressive behaviours, and conscious experience. Emotion is associated with feeling, mood, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation*" (Myers, 2003). The individual is considered as an emotional

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[1] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion.

being; emotions are the most important resources of the individual and are displayed at the workplace; emotions can be educated, and the benefits obtained from this process are enormous for the personal efficiency and for organizational efficiency (Grama & Boțone, 2009). The emotions – joy, sadness, anger and feelings of serenity are normal and accepted worldwide. Everyone experiences a similar range of feelings. Emotions give meaning to life as well as stimulate unhappiness and differences. Hence, emotions are both energising and debilitating (Mishra, 2008). Emotions can be amazing and useful or unpleasant, even hurting. Mild feelings of frustration, stress or anxiety can motivate us to act. However, stronger, deep unpleasant feelings can be self-defeating. Extreme anger, sadness or anxiety can spoil relationships and goals in life. Emotions have three major components: Physiological changes, subjective cognitive states, and expressive behaviour (Feldman, 2009). The physiological change refers to the bodily changes that happen during the process. For example, facial expressions, gestures etc. The subjective cognitive state refers to the thought process that happens during the process. Expressive behaviour is the observable behaviour in response to the stimuli. This implies that the process is a complex one.

Emotions are pervasive elements of our lives (Lowman, 1984). In the past, researches on emotions are scarce. In fact, the workplace is considered a rational environment with little role for emotions. However, in the last decade, big changes began sweeping the field of emotions. Researchers and practitioners started realizing the importance of emotions at the workplace and there is a sudden spurt in studies into the area of emotions. Many recent studies have confirmed that emotions at the workplace can explicate many individual and organizational outcomes (Mittal & Chhabra, 2011). Researchers are now

investigating how emotions managed by employees can influence work outcomes (Mittal & Chhabra, 2011). Managing emotions at work is termed as emotional labour (Grandey, 2000). In 1983, Arlie Hochschild in her seminal work, "The Managed Heart", introduced the term emotional labour. At times called as "emotional management" or "emotion work"; emotional labour has been conceptualized as multidimensional construct reflecting various processes, such as emotional display rules (feelings rules), felt and expressed emotions at work (emotional dissonance), internal process and emotion regulation (Çukur*, 2009). Emotional labour (EL) is viewed as the display of a particular emotion in exchange for a wage (Othman, Abdullah, & Ahmad, 2008). (Wong & Law, 2002) in reviewing works on EL summarized that there are at least three types of "labour" to be offered to the organization in exchange for reward. **Mental labour** refers to the cognitive skills and knowledge as well as the expertise of employees. **Physical labour** refers to the physical efforts of employees to achieve organizational goals. **Emotional labour** refers to the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion in order to perform the job in an efficient and effective manner (Wong & Law, 2002). According to Hochschild, 38.1 percent of all the occupations involve substantial emotional labour. In her work, she has given a detailed list of jobs, which involves emotional labour. Many other studies have identified professions that involve emotional labour (bank teller, beauty therapist, advocates, police officers, teachers, advocates etc.). Hochschild stipulated that jobs requiring emotional labour involve face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public; require that workers produce an emotional state in another person; and allow employers to control (at least to some extent) the emotional activities of workers (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild considered the job of a professor

involves substantial amount of emotional labour (Bellas, 1999). As put forward by Hochschild, professors have face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with students, colleagues, administrators, staff, and, at times, the public. Professors often try to bring forth emotions in people with whom they interact, which involve managing their own emotional expression (Bellas, 1999).

India is now home to one of the biggest higher education systems in the world. An approximate 25.9 million students have enrolled in more than 45,000 degree and diploma professional colleges in the country. The last decade witnessed the highest growth rate with the enrollment of students increasing at a CAGR (Compound annual growth rate) of 10.8% and professional colleges at a CAGR[2] of 9%. The private sector in India has actively participated in this growth, with private professional colleges now accounting for 64% of the total number of professional colleges and 59% of enrollment in the country, as compared to 43% and 33%, respectively, a decade ago(MHRD, 2011). In spite of the significant progress made during the past few years, India's higher education sector is still beset with several challenges, e.g., its relatively low GER (Gross Enrolment Ratio)[3], inequitable access to higher education on the basis of community, gender and geography and lack of high quality research and education professional colleges, resulting in sub optimal outcomes. The 12th Planning Commission recognized these challenges and came out with several initiatives on six focus areas namely _ Expansion, Equity, Excellence, Governance, Funding, Implementation and Monitoring. Under the focus area of Excellence,

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[2] CAGR- Compound annual growth rate
[3] GER- Gross Enrolment Ratio

the focus is mainly on faculty development, research, development and internationalization. In the last 30 years the enrollment of students in the higher education domain has gone up six times, as against the teacher intake of only four times resulting in the shortage of the teacher and higher-student-teacher ratio (MHRD, 2011). The overall impact is on the quality of higher education. As of March 2010, only 32.3% (159) of the total number of Indian universities and 13.1% (4,094) of the colleges in the country had been accredited by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) (MHRD, 2011). NAAC had rated 62% of the universities and 90% of the colleges as average (B) or below average (C) on specified quality parameters (MHRD, 2011).
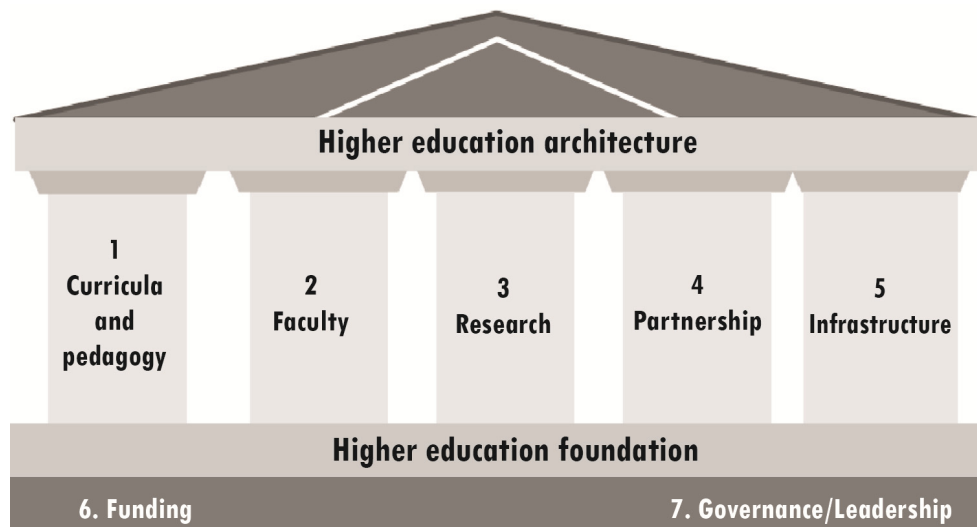
Source: (MHRD, 2011)

Figure 1.1: Higher Education Architecture

Figure 1 shows the higher education architecture as put forward by Ernst and Young in their research report. According to the figure, it is very clear that the teacher is a very important pillar in the higher education

scenario. It is said that India's higher education sector is working with only half of the teacher strength it actually requires. Faced with quality teacher crunch in educational institutions, the Government has set up several task forces and committees to study the problem and suggest a way out to make appropriate recommendations for its alleviation, but so far nothing has been achieved (Singh, 2013).

Kerala is the most literate state in India. The last few years saw a tremendous increase in the growth of professional colleges in Kerala. As of 2010 there is a 63% increase in the number of engineering institutes in Kerala. With the increase in the number of engineering institutes the requirement of qualified and motivated teachers also increased. Of late, experts have reported a dip in the quality of professional colleges. One reason of this fall in the quality of professional colleges is the shortage of motivated teachers. "The main reason for the degrading quality of teaching and research in our universities is the poor quality of teachers" (Singh, 2013).

As (Lowman, 1984) rightly said, *"beyond the solid mastery of the subject , the college teaching of the highest order appears to be a complex task requiring the ability to communicate well with the students, whether in large or small groups or in formal or informal settings, and to relate to them as people in ways they find positive and motivating."* College teaching happens in what are definitely dramatic and interpersonal areas, that it is above all an enterprise-involving student's human emotions and personalities as well as their cognitive reasoning and that it cannot be reduced to mechanical cause-and-effect (Lowman, 1984).

"Even though college classrooms are dramatic arenas with intellectual purposes, faculty members and students have more important relationships than that of a performer and spectator. College courses are settings in which myriad interpersonal encounters, some fleeting and others involved unavoidably occur. As in all human encounters, college teachers and students use strategies to maximize positive and minimize negative feelings about themselves. Though the groups have different interpersonal concerns, largely resulting from the different amounts of power they have in the classroom context, both seek to satisfy basic human needs for affection and control. The ways in which instructors and students meet these needs produce predictable interpersonal phenomena that influences the degree to which , and the conditions under which students are motivated to master the content placed before them" (Lowman, 1984).

Emotions are present in the classroom as well. There is no point in arguing whether emotions have a place in the classroom because they exist (Bowen, Seltzer, & Wilson, 1988). With the introduction of technology, the line between the private life and public life of teachers has been distorted. This technology boom creates chances for frequent interaction between the teacher and the students. The teacher's behavior has a significant impact on student feelings. Teachers may encourage students' trust and affection with kindness and sensitivity, or keep them at a distance and put them down with intellectual pride and superiority. Perhaps the most difficult situation for students is when the teacher seems to show kindness and recognition on a few students. Students find this condition particularly difficult, because not

only they depend on the teacher for the evaluations and grades, but also for many students, they are symbolic parents (Bowen, Seltzer, & Wilson, 1988). "A rejecting instructor may be taking the place of a rejecting parent for them, and this can be deeply terrifying and anger-provoking to the student, especially so if the student sees the teacher as selectively rejecting" (Bowen et al., 1988). Teachers are also human beings; they have their own troubles and challenges in life. Consequently, they may occasionally make mistakes. Some teachers even act these out, such as throwing chalk or through verbal aggression (Bowen, Seltzer, & Wilson, 1988). Students who are reliant upon the teacher are particularly sensitive to the teacher's behavior and may misinterpret the cues. "Both students and instructors generally will be treated by others as they expect to be treated. Research on interpersonal perceptions and behaviour has clearly demonstrated an interactive effect: personal attitudes tend to produce reciprocal attitude in others (Lowman, 1984).This implies that for active learning to take place teachers need to display right emotions before the students (Fleming, 2003). After reviewing different literatures, the author emphasized on the importance of **respect and consideration for students** as an important criterion in the effective university teaching. (Fleming, 2003) In his study he stressed the importance of the emotional aspect of the teacher-student relationship. He stated that students tend to understand the content of a lecture if the lecturer interacted with them in a way that encouraged involvement, commitment, and interest. From these arguments, it is clear that it is essential to understand the emotional labour of teaching, if we want to support the quality of education in our societies (Naqvi, 2012).

A number of researchers have researched and put forward the importance of emotional labour in the contemporary work (Barron & West, 2007), (Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001), (Karim, Weisz, & Cézane, 2010), (Lewig & Dollard, 2003) (Hochschild, 1983). The construct of emotional labour is a comparatively new one. Hochschild (1983) introduced this concept approximately 30 years ago; emotional labour has been the theme of numerous book chapters, journal articles, and conference proceedings. Researchers have focused their attention on further defining the emotional labour construct, by identifying antecedents, emotional regulation strategies, and outcomes of emotional labour. Most of the researchers to date focused on the negative consequences of emotional labour namely, emotional exhaustion, burnout, stress and job dissatisfaction (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). However very few researchers have suggested that there are positive consequences as well for the organizations and individuals (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). (Adelmann, 1989) in her study found that contrary to Hochschild estrangement assumption, performing emotional labour does not negatively impact employees' psychological well - being, but it improves their job satisfaction. After reviewing, the literature one thing is very clear that most of studies have shown inconsistent results. One reason for this inconsistency could be the fact that different definitions of the construct have been utilized with different antecedents by previous researchers. Therefore, some more research must be carried out in the area of emotional labour to have a better picture of the concept. Another reason for the difference in opinions about emotional labour's consequences is that researchers have ignored the importance of individual factors. Early Researchers have pointed out that individual characteristics may play a primary role in explaining variation in the

consequences (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Therefore, considering individual characteristics as the antecedents of emotional labour can help the researchers to understand how individuals carry out emotional labour and its related consequences (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2014).

Emotion and motivation are highly interconnected concepts. In psychology **emotion** is a subjective, conscious experience characterized primarily by psycho physiological expressions, biological reactions, and mental states. Emotion is considered as the driving force behind motivation, be it positive or negative. Understanding the motivation and emotion connection is a useful tool for parents, teachers, managers, and business people(Jackson, 2011). In the case of teachers, Teacher motivation is an important concern for educational leaders and managers because it has a significant effect on student motivation (Neves de Jesus & Lens, 2005). Only a motivated teacher can motivate a student to learn and improve. Teacher motivation is important for the satisfaction and fulfillment of teachers themselves(Neves de Jesus & Lens, 2005). As of now, only emotional labour researchers have studied about the antecedents, moderators and outcomes of the emotional labour. Why individuals choose certain strategies in a given situation is not been studied. In spite of the interest in emotional labour little attention is paid to what motivates employees to regulate their emotions (Sisley & Smollan, 2012). This area gained attention of the researchers after the work of (Bolton, 2005). (Sisley & Smollan, 2012) report that as of now only few studies have emerged in this area. Out of these studies, most of them are qualitative studies linking emotional labour and work motivation (Sisley & Smollan, 2012); (Cossette, 2014).

This study is conducted to determine the emotional labour strategies used by the teachers of professional colleges in Kerala as perceived by the teachers during the school year 2013-2014. The aspects looked into are the work motivation of teachers, strategies of emotional labour and the work outcomes namely teaching satisfaction, personal accomplishment and job involvement.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

From the review of literature and the gaps identified the following objectives has been set for the study.

1) To examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala display strategies of emotional labour in terms of surface acting and deep acting

2) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and personal accomplishment of professional college teachers

3) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and job involvement of professional college teachers

4) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and teaching satisfaction of professional college teachers

5) To study the relationship between work motivation and strategies of emotional labour to understand whether work motivation is an antecedent to the strategies of emotional labour

6) To examine the mediating role of emotional labour between work motivation and work outcomes

1.3   Chapterization Scheme

All the materials that make up this thesis have organized and sequenced into nine chapters. The chapters have been arranged in such a way that each links into the succeeding one and the details of the contents of each chapter have been explained in the following paragraphs.

Chapter 1 Introduction to the study

This chapter introduces the concepts of emotional labor and work motivation. It specifies the objectives of the study and states the limitation of the study.

Chapter 2 Review of Literature

This chapter reviews' literature on the concepts of emotional labour, different approaches to emotional labor, strategies of emotional labour, antecedents and outcomes of emotional labor, teaching and emotional labour, motivation at work, self-determination theory, emotional intelligence, link between emotional labour, work motivation, and employee work outcomes.

Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter states the problem, elaborates the significance of the study, identifies the dependent and independent variables, specifies the objectives and states the hypotheses. This chapter details the methodological choices on measurement, type of data, tools of data collection, population and sampling design and the analytical tools.

Chapter 4 Descriptive Analyses

This chapter deals with the descriptive analyses of the variables such as strategies of emotional labour, work motivation and work outcomes. The socio-demographic profiles of teachers are also explored.

Chapter 5 Exploring link between emotional labour and work outcomes

This chapter deals with the analyses of the relationship between the first independent variable namely emotional labour and the dependent variables namely, teaching satisfaction, personal accomplishment and job involvement.

Chapter 6 Work Motivation as an antecedent of emotional labour

This chapter deals with the analyses of the relationship between the second independent variable of work motivation and strategies of emotional labour to find whether work motivation can be claimed as the antecedent of the strategies of emotional labour.

Chapter 7 Validation of the Conceptual Model by using Structural Equation Modeling

This chapter deals with statistical validation of an empirical model that explains link between strategies of emotional labor and work motivation to achieve specific work outcomes. It offers analysis of the data resulting in a theoretical confirmation that is conceived as the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter 8 Findings, Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

This chapter presents the summary of the thesis. It consolidates the findings and contributions of this research including the theoretical, methodological and social implications and proposes directions for future research.

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Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1   Emotions

Emotion is a complex psychological state that involves three distinct components: a subjective experience, a physiological response, and a behavioural or expressive response (Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2011). Charles Darwin in his book "The expression of the emotions in man and animals" attempted to define the word that contains the exact meaning that it holds (Darwin, 1871). The English word *emotion* derived from the French word *émouvoir*. This is based on the Latin *emovere*, where *e-* (a variant of *ex-*) means "out" and *movere* means, "move[1]. When people are emotional, they are moved by their feelings (Hargreaves, 1998). Emotion represents a

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[1] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion.

range of feelings such as joy, anger, sadness fear etc. Everyone experiences a similar range of feelings. "Emotions are feelings that generally have both physiological and cognitive elements that influence behaviour" (Fieldman 2009). "Emotion is a state of being moved, stirred up or behaviourally aroused on experiencing an emotional situation and which involves external and internal physiological changes as a whole" (Mishra, 2008). Emotion is defined "as an emergent, dynamic process based on an individual's subjective appraisal of significant events". He tried to explain the emotions from a component process model perspective (Scherer, 2009). Emotions are triggered by an individual's interpretation of an event. Emotions are usually intense, not long-lasting, and always associated with a source makes others feel.

Emotions give meaning to life as well as stimulate unhappiness and differences. Hence, emotions are both energising and debilitating. Emotions can be amazing and useful or unpleasant even hurting. Mild feelings of frustration, stress or anxiety can motivate us to act. However, stronger, deep unpleasant feelings can be self-defeating. Extreme anger, sadness or anxiety can spoil of relationships and goals in life.

Emotions have influences beyond the individuals' lives. Human emotions have affected human history. As most emotion scholars say, without emotions, humans would not have survived as they struggled to exist in the harsh environments on the planet (Reevy, Ozer, & Ito, 2010). Emotion is a complex process. When most people think of emotions, they think of their feelings. But the feeling component is only one aspect of an emotion; emotions also include physiological responses like increased heart rate, sweating, tensed muscles; brain activity, thoughts, expressions such as

facial and body gestures (Reevy et al., 2010). Although many emotion-related experiences—such as moods and emotion-related personality traits such as callousness and uncaring traits occur over relatively long periods of time, emotions themselves is time limited. Emotions are reactions to external or internal events and last a few seconds, minutes, or hours.

Previously,emotions were not given the importance in the study of organizational behaviour. The workplace was viewed as a rational environment, where emotions would get in the way of sound judgement (Ramani & Sreedhar, 2006). Thus emotions were not even considered as a reason for workplace phenomenon. This view is being dismantled as more researchers are finding how workplace emotions help to explain important individual and organizational outcomes (Ramani & Sreedhar, 2006).

Emotions and their display are essential and primary to human activity in all organizations. It is defined as "an awareness of four elements that we usually experience at the same time, appraisal of a situation, changes in bodily sensations, the free or inhibited display of expressive gestures and a cultural label applied to specific constellations of the first three elements". Yet, emotions are generally of short duration and are associated with a specific stimulus, as opposed to "mood" which is more enduring, more diffuse and less related to specific stimuli.

2.1.1 The Functions of Emotions

Psychologists have identified a number of important roles that emotions play in the daily life of people (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Feldman, 2005; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2011). The first function is preparing individuals for action. Emotions act as a linkage between events

in the environment and responses. The second function is to shape the future behaviour. Emotions help individuals to learn information that enhances the probability of making appropriate reactions in future. An emotional response that occurs when individuals experience something unpleasant teaches them to avoid such conditions in the future. Similarly, pleasant emotions act as reinforcement for individuals' prior behaviour and therefore are appropriate to seek them to a similar situation in future. The third function is to help individuals to more efficiently interact with others. The emotions that individuals experience are understandable to observers, as they communicate through the verbal and non-verbal behaviours. These behaviours can act as an indicator to observers, allowing them to understand what others are experiencing and to predict their future behaviour. In turn, these behaviours promote more efficient and suitable social interaction.

Work is defined as a physical or mental activity directed towards production or other outcomes. When work is done in return for a wage or monetary payment is called as labour. Labour includes both physical and mental work undertaken for some monetary reward. In this way, employees working in factories, services of doctors, advocates, ministers, officers and teachers are all included in labour[2]. Emotions are linked to the workplace in a number of ways. When employees are unhappy, it shows in the workplace, because unhappy people are disconnected from their work (Hartel Charmine E. J., Zerbe, & Ashkanasy, 2005). Emotion management can occur through the regulation of the predecessor of emotions such as how one review the situation or contain emotion displays, and through conscious

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[2] http://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/economics/labour-meaning-and-characteristics-economics/10795/

adjustment of the physiological or observable signs of emotions. In this sense, emotion management involves adjusting the emotions one has by evaluating an event or adapting expression by faking or enhancing facial and bodily signs of emotions.

2.2 Emotional Labour- An Introduction

(Fineman, 2003) in his book pointed out the importance of emotions in the workplace. He mentioned that

"The emotional organization overturns this picture. It does two things. First, it places people at the very centre of organization – they constitute the organization, what it is and what it can achieve. Second, it reveals emotion as the prime medium through which people act and interact. Organizational procedures and processes are shaped, negotiated, rejected, reformed, fought over or celebrated, because of feelings. Careers blossom or crash through feelings. Offices and departments grow, compete and change the feelings that frame preferences, politics, and ambitions. Who works hard, seems not to care, or rarely takes the initiative, is based on emotion. Organizations change or stagnate because of the emotions that energize or freeze people. All organizations are emotional arenas where feelings shape events and events shape feelings."

Organisations have traditionally been regarded as a place of rationality (Brotheridge, 2006a). The prospect of work soaked with emotions was highly ignored in the past. In reality, emotions are surrounded in organizations and the work life. However, the individuals do not count most of the time emotions as a part of organizational life. These realizations came

because of the increase in the growth of service industry. In the service sector, emotional labour demands are rather important because work cannot be fully described by physical, sensory-motor and cognitive demands (Zapf, 2002). Therefore, service cannot be defined by the intellectual and physical labour alone; the emotional labour also plays a part in the process.

Emotional labour can be simply put as emotion regulation and management to create bodily and facial displays in line with social requirements. As (Fineman, 2003) rightly pointed out individuals need to appreciate the legitimacy of emotion regulation as an important part of their work. One way of achieving this is through emotional labour. The concept of emotional labour was first introduced by (A. R. Hochschild, 1983). She defined emotional labour as the management of feelings to create bodily and facial displays compliant with social requirements. According to Hochschild, jobs involving emotional labour is defined as those that require face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public require the worker to produce an emotional state in another person and allow the employees to exercise a degree of control over their emotional activities. She also mentions that emotional labour has an exchange value because employees put an effort of managing the emotion for their wage. This definition explicitly describes that service providers are required to manage their "felt" emotions and display those emotions for commercial purposes (Chu, 2002). These "displayed" emotions have economic value, which can be transformed into wages, salaries, or tips (Chu, 2002). "This labour required one to induce or suppress feelings in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others, in this case, the sense of being cared for in a convivial & safe place. This kind of labour calls for a coordination of

mind & feeling, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that individuals honour as deep & integral to their individuality" (Hoshchild, 2003). The definition also implies that EL (Emotional Labour) is beneficial for the employer and the organization. A standardized behaviour by all employees will result in the incapable fulfilment of duties, provision of high-quality services, and regular customers (Lazanyi, 2010). The major benefit of emotional labour was, it enhances the efficiency of working, reduces the necessity of direct control, and lessens interpersonal problems.

Emotional labour (EL) is viewed as the display of a particular emotion in exchange for a wage. (Othman & et al., 2008). Wong and Law (2002) in reviewing works on EL summarized that there are at least three types of "labour" to be offered to the organization in exchange for a reward. **Mental labour** refers to the cognitive skills and knowledge as well as the expertise of employees. **Physical labour** refers to the physical efforts of employees to achieve organizational goals. **Emotional labour** refers to the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion in order to perform the job in an efficient and effective manner (Wong and Law, 2002). Employees fake their true emotions, when employers through their expectations control emotions. Although this expectation is clear, one may not be able to consistently demonstrate the expectation all of the time. When an individual must exert effort to deliver the expectation, he or she is exerting emotional labour (Parajon, 2011).

Emotional labour is practised by employees who work with customers, clients, patients, students, or any other population where service is delivered on a regular basis, whether face to face, electronically or over the telephone (Parajon, 2011). This is usual in any service based type of

employment where there is a prospect to communicate emotion in a specific way, as required by the organization. Emotional labour stresses the relational rather than the task-based aspect of work (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). Like any other forms of labour, it is labor-intensive, skilled, effort-intensive, and productive. It creates value, affects productivity, and generates profit (Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

According to Hochschild 38.1 percent of all the occupations involves substantial emotional labour. In her work, she has given a detailed list of jobs that involves emotional labour. Many other studies have identified professions that involve emotional labour (bank teller, beauty therapist, advocates, police officers, teachers, advocates etc.).

In the article Morris and Feldman (1996), the authors regard emotional labour from the interactionist model of emotion. This view advocates that "individuals make sense of emotions through their understanding of the social environment in which emotions are experienced; this approach, then suggests that emotion is at least partly socially constructed. Consequently, emotional experience and expression can be and often are subject to the external direction, enhancement, and suppression." (Morris & Fieldman, 1996). Consistent with this view the authors also add that "even in situations in which there is congruence between individuals felt the emotion and organizationally desired emotion, there will be some degree of effort (labour) required in expressing emotions" (Morris & Fieldman, 1996). When the felt emotion and organizationally desired emotions are similar then the individual doesn't have to exert much effort, still, the individuals have to exert some efforts to ensure what is felt will be displayed in organizationally appropriate ways.

Emotional labor may involve enhancing, faking, or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression (Ramani & Sreedhar, 2006). Emotions are managed with the display rules for the organization or job. These rules about the expectations for emotional expression may be stated clearly in selection and training materials, or known by watching the co-worker. Many jobs have display rules concerning the emotions that employees should show the public. Those who communicate with customers or clients for a long time and who experience emotional events in those situations are more likely to regulate the emotions. Emotional labor may contribute in achieveingbetter organizational result, but it may cost the employees their health. The study of emotional labor continues to develop in accordance with the recognition that not only it exist in the workplace,but also they greatly affect the workplace and the employees. Emotion regulation may be an important aspect in explaining many facets of employee and organizational life.

2.2.1 Definitions of Emotional Labour

Hochschild (1983, 1989) "Management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display", "feel the appropriate feeling for the job in the context of paid work". According to Hochschild the main mechanism used by the employees to manage to feel are surface acting and deep acting. The focus was to understand the effect of emotional labour on workers.

Gordon (1989) defined emotional labour as "alignment of emotions with norms that governing that particular context". His focus was on ways in which institutional emotional culture cues.

James (1989) defined "emotional work as work of dealing with other people's feelings". He treated emotional work and emotional labour as one. The focus of the study was emotional labour as central to social reproduction.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined "emotional labour as the act of expressing socially desired emotions during service transactions". The focus of the study was on the effects of emotional labour on worker and organization.

Morris and Feldman (1996) defined emotional labour as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions". These authors proposed that emotional labour consists of four dimensions: (a) frequency of interactions, (b) attentiveness (intensity of emotions, duration of interaction), (c) variety of emotions required and (d) emotional dissonance.

Wharton, AS (1999) "emotional labour refers to the effort involved in displaying organizationally sanctioned emotions by those whose jobs require interaction with clients or customers and for whom these interactions are an important component of their work".

Grandey (2000) defined as "Emotional labour may involve enhancing, faking, or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression".

Youssef Carolyn M (2003) defines "emotional labour as any implicit or explicit perceived expectations about emotional expression."

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) defined emotional labour as the process of regulating one's emotional displays in response to display rules so that work goals can be achieved.

(Guy, M. E. and Newman, 2004,) "Emotional labour applies to both men's and women's work, but is the 'softer' emotions, those required in relational tasks, such as caring and nurturing, that disappear most often from job description, performance evaluations, and salary calculations"

2.2.2 Difference between Emotion Work and Emotional Labour

Emotion work is defined as the management of one's own feelings or as "work done in a conscious effort to maintain the wellbeing of a relationship".[3] It is the process of managing and presenting emotions in the private sphere of our lives such as among family and friends (Brook, 2009). The terms "emotional labour" and "emotion work" are often used conversely, which is confusing. Emotional labour refers to the emotional work done in a paid work setting, while emotion work relates to the unpaid emotional work that a person undertakes in their relationships with family and friends[4]. Examples of emotion work include showing affection, apologizing after an argument, bringing up problems that need to be addressed in an intimate relationship or any kind of interpersonal relationship, and making sure the household runs smoothly.[5]

In the 'public sphere' of emotional labour, front-line workers' feelings are commercialized as service through a 'transmutation' of 'private sphere' feelings into a package of emotions consumed by customers as a commoditised interaction. This process has the effect of alienating front-line workers from their emotional product as a consequence of management

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[3] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion_work date of access: 5/9/11

[4] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion_work date of access: 5/9/11

[5] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion_work date of access: 5/9/11

wresting formal ownership and control from workers of the form, timing, giving and withdrawal of emotional feelings, moods and their display so that they come 'more to belong to the organization and less to the self' (Hochschild, 1983: 198)

2.3 The emotional Labour Process

Numerous researchers expanded Hochschild's (1983) definition and approach in an effort to develop a better understanding of the different dimensions of emotional labour. The origination of the emotional labour process given here is based on a widespread review of the emotional labour literature until now. These consist of mostly accepted, as well as empirically tested, theory from available literature. Figure 2 provides a representation of the proposed process
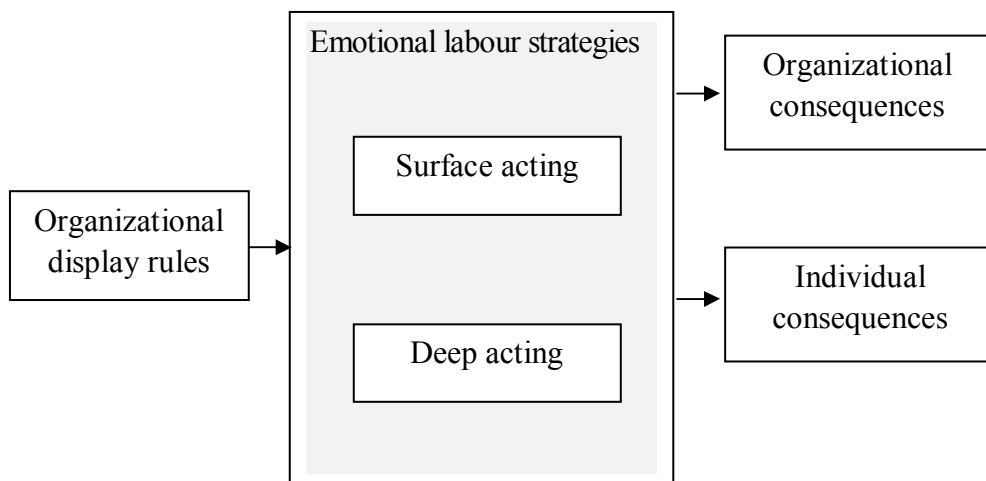
Source: From review of literature

Figure 2.1: The emotional labour process

2.3.1 Organizational Display Rules

Display rules are a key component of emotional labour jobs in which the employee is expected to "produce an emotional state in another person" (e.g., through emotional displays) and management is allowed. The basic function of display rules is to dictate the emotions that employees convey. These resulting emotional displays are proposed to facilitate the realization of other work goals "Through training and supervision, to exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of employees" (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). Some organizations allow the employees to be themselves. This could be termed as display autonomy. Most community settings have rules for emotional displays, called "display rules," which informs people about how to interact with others in generally acceptable ways. In organizational contexts, display rules for positive expressions can also be an explicit part of the job, especially in service occupations (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). The customer satisfaction and service quality ratings are measured based on friendly and enthusiastic display exhibited by the employee, for which organizations have to select and train their employees. Unfortunately, these display rules have negative effect (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). Hochschild (1983) research formerly proposed that the commercialization of human feeling has health-related costs to the employee. Most research on organizational display rules has examined links between perceived display rules and job strain, but the proof has been debatable. Some evidence supports that positive display rules results in burnout, and somatic symptoms, but display rules have shown to improve employees' efficiency and job satisfaction.

Every job is supposed to have its unique rules regarding the suppression and expression of emotions (Brotheridge, 2006b). These expectations are

usually drawn from cultural , professional, personal and situational sources. Recent research has found that workers in many different types of occupation regulate their emotions as part of their work. These includes managers, sales and office clerks, restaurant servers, nurses, emergency center operators, bill collectors, flight attendants, call center workers, professors, and even manual labourers (Brotheridge, 2006a).

2.3.2 Emotional Labour Strategies

A strategy is a plan of action desired to achieve certain objectives or as a solution to the problems. The emotional labour strategies are actions taken to achieve the display rules set by the organization. According to Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003), the emotional labour process involves constantly comparing one's emotional displays with display rules to ensure that the displays are appropriate. Display rules are defined as Cultural rules dictating whether and how to express one's emotions in a particular situation. The basic purpose of display rules is to dictate the emotions that employees express (Gosserand, Diefendorff, 2005). If an incongruity between displays and display rules is noticed, individuals may use emotion labour strategies to bring future emotional displays aligned with display rules. (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) argued that service providers comply with expression norms or "display rules" through surface acting, deep acting, and the expression of spontaneous and genuine emotion. Two commonly used strategies for regulating one's emotional displays at work are (a) *surface acting,* which involves suppressing one's felt emotions and faking the desired emotions, and (b) *deep acting,* which involves modifying one's feelings in order to display the appropriate emotions (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). When integrative emotional display rules are present,

surface acting involves suppressing negative emotions and/or faking positive emotions, and deep acting involves trying to experience positive emotions so that genuine positive displays follow (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). The basic purpose of surface and deep acting is to vary one's emotional displays to be consistent with display rules.

2.3.3.1 Surface Acting

Surface acting entails employees demonstrate emotions that are not actually felt, by changing their outward appearances (i.e., facial expression, gestures, or voice tone) when exhibiting required emotions. Using the surface acting technique, people alter the outward expression of emotion in the service of altering their inner feelings. By changing facial or bodily expressions, such as slumped shoulders, bowed head, or drooping mouth, inner feelings can be altered to a corresponding state (Hochschild, 1993). The use of surface acting does not mean that the individual experiences no emotion; it means that the displayed emotion differs from the felt emotion. Surface acting then is a discrepancy between feeling and displayed emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Surface acting is the form of acting typically discussed as impression management.

The literature proposes that this form of emotional labour is closely associated with emotional dissonance, a psychological state in which one experiences a sense of discrepancy between the real self and socially presented self (Hochschild, 1983). To some extent, surface acting serves as an active work stressor for employees because in surface acting the ongoing reflection on the real versus acted self makes one recognize the discrepancy, which often results in an unfavourable moral judgment of the self (Hochschild,

1983). Perhaps this moral judgment is due in part to the disguised nature of the act. Because surface acting involves the manoeuvring of false impressions and the hiding or disguise of true feelings, it can be considered as a form of deception.

There are indeed positives attributed to the act of faking the emotions. In most cases, the customer desires and expects a cheerful and friendly conduct from customer service associates. Accordingly, managers promote and reward this type of representation (Constanti & Gibbs, 2005). When the employee does not genuinely feel such emotions, surface acting serves to maintain a certain level of service delivery and prevent possible service faults (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). Regardless of possible benefits, surface acting is still a form of deception that can unfavourably impact the employees' psychological well-being and their relationship with the customer (if the act is perceived as insincere).

2.3.3.2 Deep Acting

Deep acting occurs when employees' feelings do not fit the situation; they then use their training or past experience to work up appropriate emotions. Unlike surface acting, deep acting involves changing inner feelings by altering something more than outward appearance. In much the same way that actors "psyche themselves" for a role, individual psyches himself or herself into experiencing the desired emotion. Feelings are actively induced, sup- pressed, or shaped. In surface acting, feelings are changed from the "outside in," whereas feelings are changed from the "inside out" in deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) classified deep acting as (1) exhorting feeling, whereby one actively attempts to evoke

or suppress an emotion, and (2) trained imagination, whereby one actively invokes thoughts, images, and memories to induce the associated emotion (thinking of a wedding to feel happy or a funeral to feel sad).

Finally, the concepts of surface and deep acting refer to the effort or act of trying to display the appropriate emotion, not to the outcomes—that is, the quality of the effort (how genuine the emotion appears) and the effects this effort has on the target audience (Hochschild, 1979).

2.3.4 Consequences of Emotional Labour

Hochschild's cautions (1983) about the potentially negative consequences of emotional labour form the background against which practically all later research on this issue has been conducted. According to Hochschild (1983), these negative consequences stem from the loss of control over emotion that occurs when employers begin to regulate the feelings workers display. From the point of view of Hochschild, the management of emotion is not the problem; the negative consequences of emotional labour arise primarily from the fact that employers rather than workers themselves dictate the terms of emotional display. There are two reasons when employers control the emotional display. First, workers are prevented from interacting with customers or clients in ways that emerge from the direct situations, but instead, they have to conform to scripts drawn up by others. That means, workers' own preference for interaction may be concealed and replaced by an organizationally approved response. Second, employers and workers may have different interests concerning the outcome of the interaction. For employers, workers' interactions with customers and clients serve an active purpose and workers' emotional displays are in the

service of that objective, Sometimes workers fail to do so. And in such situations workers interest may be sacrificed.

The consequences of emotional labour may be highly contingent upon other characteristics of the job, the organization, or the worker. Research on the consequences of emotional labour that fails to attend to these issues may yield misleading conclusions and has made the task of understanding these consequences more difficult (Wharton, 1999).

The negative psychological consequences of emotional labour involve an interference with workers' capacity to strike a balance between the requirements of the self and the demands of the work role (Hoschild, 1983). In particular, sustained performance of emotional labour may engender a fusion of self and work role, an estrangement between self and work role that comes at the expense of the self, or an estrangement between self and work role that comes at the expense of the work role. Though Hochschild views all three conditions as potentially damaging, later researchers have tended to treat the first two conditions as psychologically harmful for workers, while seeing the third condition as a more healthy response to emotional labour.

2.3.4.1 Individual Consequences

Reviews of emotional labour literature showed that, by engaging in the emotional labour employees will have to suffer consequences. Review showed that the major consequences that employees face during emotional labour are burnout (Brotheridge, 2006a; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Kinman, Wray, & Strange, 2011; Lings & Durden, 2010; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Montgomery, 2006; Zapf, 2002; Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte,

Mertini, & Holz, 2001; Zhang & Zhu, 2008), Mental and physical health (Brotheridge, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c; S. Brown, 2010; Nicky James, 1992; Zapf et al., 2001), Attitudes and Behaviour at work (Brotheridge, 2006a, 2006b) and Authenticity (Brotheridge, 2006a; Cossette & Hess, 2012; Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; van Gelderen, Konijn, & Bakker, 2011; Zhang & Zhu, 2008)

2.3.4.2 Burn Out

When jobs involve emotional labour, the fusion of self and work role increases the likelihood of burnout(Kinman et al., 2011; Wharton, 1999). Burnout has been defined as "the numbing of the inner signals of emotional feelings, reflected in the inability to create or feel any emotion" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Initial studies on burnout focused more on a job involving human services. Later on, studies revealed that any workers who identify with the work role are at risk because feelings expressed at work are inseparable from self. If the worker is not capable of depersonalize and detach himself increases the chance of burnout. While employers and customers may prefer workers who's an emotional display seem genuine. Workers' sincerity ultimately may increase their risk of burnout (Wharton, 1999).

2.3.4.3 Mental and Physical Health

The stress which is intrinsic in emotional labour results in problems with mental and physical health (Brotheridge, 2006b). Emotional labour produces emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and physical health problems such as headaches (Bono & Vey, 2005). Numerous studies have revealed that emotional dissonance and surface acting results in stress and

emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge, 2006a; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Well-defined display rules persistent in the organizations also result in increased stress and in physical symptoms (Pugliesi, 1999). Nevertheless, emotional labour does not get consistently negative consequences for employee health (Brotheridge, 2006b) Reviews on these areas was noted that employees who use deep acting feel more authentic and less exhausted (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). It was also observed that deep acting is associated with a higher level of personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

2.3.4.4 Attitudes and Behaviour at Work

Employees who perform emotional labour especially surface acting , tend to be less satisfied at work and less likely to identify with and commit to their work (Bono & Vey, 2005). In his research (Zerbe, 2000) found that emotional labour led to higher levels of voluntary turnover and role ambiguity and conflict. The existence of precise display rules also resulted in lower levels of employee satisfaction at work.

2.3.4.5 Authenticity

Individuals feel a sense of authenticity when they believe that their behaviour stems from themselves. Feeling a sense of authenticity at work is especially important given that our work becomes our core identity as well as the way in which we understand the work and are understood by the world. As argued by Carl Rogers (1961), a sign of maturity and psychological health in a human being is that they are able to drop their emotional masks and express themselves in a manner that is authentic and honest; that is they let others see who they really are. Furthermore psychological and existential

problems tend to arise primarily from having chosen to be someone that we are not.

2.3.5 Organizational Consequences

The major organizational consequences identifies from the review of literature were as follows.

2.3.5.1 Emotional Contagion

It is the tendency to catch and feel emotions that are similar to and influenced by those of others. One view developed by John Cacioppo of the underlying mechanism is that it represents a tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally (Hatfield & Rapson, 2000). It is well known that emotions can be transmitted between employees and their leaders, between employees and themselves and between employees and their clients. Research showed that the quality of interaction between employees and their clients influences clients attitudes and even their experiences and evaluation of organization itself.

2.3.5.2 Increased Sales

Existing research has not examined linkages between the type of emotional labour performed and sales level. However, Mann (1999) suggested that such associations might exist.

2.4 Approaches to Emotional Labour

Like any other concept, the emotional labour also underwent close scrutiny by different researchers. In the initial phase, literature was flooded

by theorization of this concept (Grandey, 2000; A. R. Hochschild, 1983; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, 2002). The result of which is the different conceptualization of the concept and difficulty in coming to a consensus to a common platform. Now researchers are focusing more on the quantitative aspect of the study. In this review, the researcher is attempting to study different type of approaches put forward by different authors(S. Brown, 2010; H. Lee, 2010)
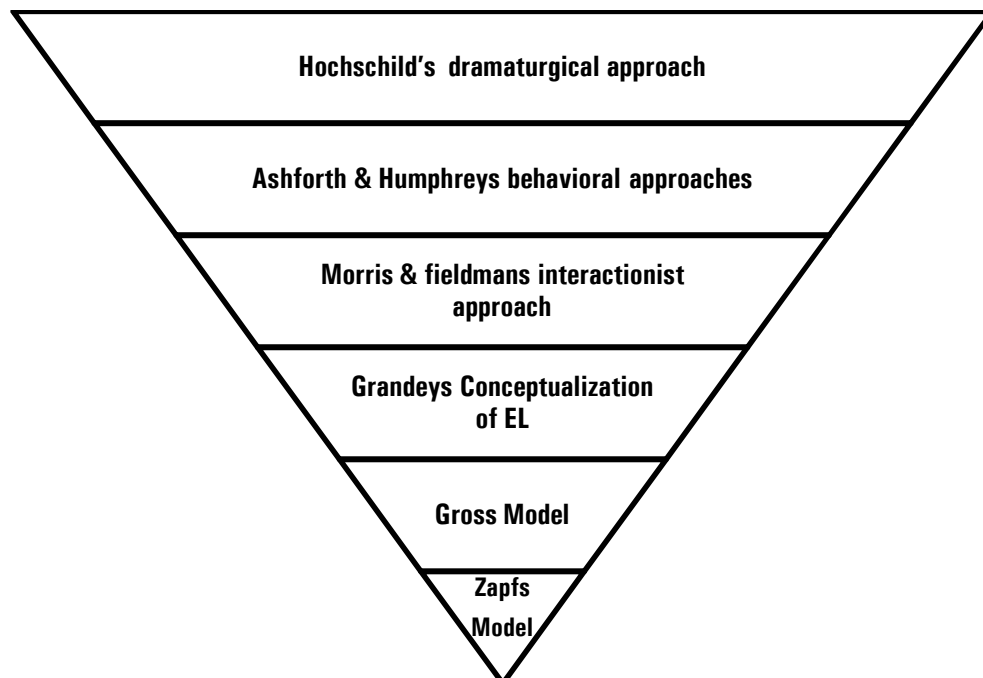
Figure 2.2: Major approaches to emotional labour

2.4.1 Hochschild's Dramaturgical Approach

The importance of emotion in the work role was first acknowledged by Hochschild (A. R. Hochschild, 1983; Arlie Hochschild, 1979). Hochschild invented the term emotional labour as a title for this work. She

defined EL as "management of feeling to create a publically observable and bodily display" (A. R. Hochschild, 1983)

Hochschild's study was primarily based on the flight attendants and their interaction with the customers. The dramaturgical approach is a sociological concept developed by Erving Goffman in the year 1959 by using the metaphors of theatre to explain the human behaviour. By using the dramaturgical perspective Hochschild explained the interaction between the customers and flight attendants. For this, she introduced the concepts called surface acting and deep acting for explaining how employees perform emotional labour. Surface acting occurs when a person changes the behaviour without altering the associated feelings and deep acting occurs when behaviour is aligned to the display (A. R. Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild stated that emotional labour included the requirement to suppress unacceptably or non-prescribed emotions, often while simultaneously expressing the required expression, entailing a complex degree of emotional management (S. Brown, 2010). Hochschild used a dramaturgical perspective in which "feeling rules" or the organisationally defined display rules are seen as similar to a script in a play. As mentioned in (S. Brown, 2010) the model for EL is as follows.

Feeling Rules	**Emotional Labour**	**Outcomes**
• Organisationally determined • For profit	• Surface acting • Deep acting	• Emotional Exhaustion • Disassociation from true self
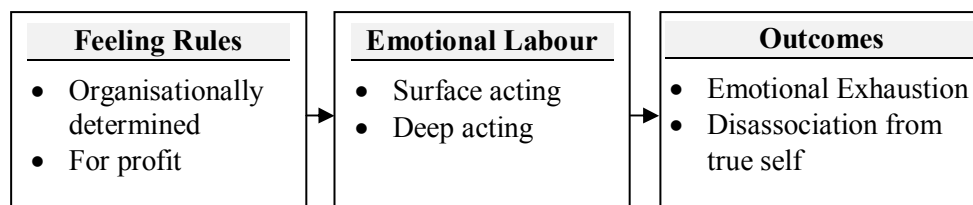
Source: (S. Brown, 2010)

Figure 2.3: Hochschild's approach to emotional labour

In her study, she mentioned the negative impact of emotional labour on the health of the employees in terms of emotional exhaustion and alienation from true self. Emotional exhaustion is a state of emotional depletion from a job or personal demands or from the stress. Self- alienation is the process of distancing from one's on feelings or activities which may occur in illness or stress. Hochschild introduced the notion of emotive dissonance, similar to cognitive dissonance, as an uncomfortable internal state, resulting from the tension created from the difference between felt and expressed emotion. Emotive dissonance (often referred to as emotional dissonance) has since been defined as "the expression of emotions that are not felt" (S. Brown, 2010; Zapf et al., 2001). These outcomes happen because expression of feelings is a personal experience and using it for a monetary value creates stress in an individual. The process of emotional labour is majorly employer driven and the reason to do is to acquire customer satisfaction and increase in profit. There are several criticisms in regard to her work, still, her work is considered as the most important work in the area of emotional labour. One important outcome of her study was to classify jobs ranging from high to low emotional labour. She has identified 44 occupations which have high emotional labour.

2.4.2 Ashforth & Humphreys Behavioral Approaches

(Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) defined emotional labour as the act of displaying appropriate emotion. This definition is different from that of Hochschild's definition because it focuses more on the observable behaviour than the feelings associated with it. One reason for focusing on the behaviour is that the observable behaviour is what is seen by clients while internal states are difficult to assess, and compliance may not require

altering of felt emotion. Ashforth and Humphrey emphasised that "display rules" is a more appropriate term for the emotional expectations of the organisation than the Hochschild's "feeling rules" (S. Brown, 2010).

Unlike Hochschild, Ashforth & Humphrey stated that EL can have positive effects on the individuals and the organization. This can happen when employees can relate well to the role that they take up and when they have some room for emotion expression. The end result is more convincing emotional performance, thus facilitating a smooth interaction between the employee and customer, leading to the satisfaction of both employee and the customer.

Ashforth & Humphrey agreed with Hochschild's idea that surface acting and deep acting was the core element of emotional labour. Apart from these two strategies Ashforth & Humphrey came up with one more strategy called as genuine emotion as the third emotional labour strategy. Genuine emotion happens when emotion naturally corresponds with the display rules of the organization. In the Hochschild's study, natural emotion was the part of the deep acting strategy. To explain it further why natural emotion should be separated with the deep acting Ashforth and Humphrey used the example of the sick child and the nurse, where the nurse is naturally sympathetic towards the sick child.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) stated that whether or not emotional labour results in positive or negative wellbeing outcomes rests on the social and personal identity of the employee and how closely this aligns to the role. By using social identity theory Ashforth and Humphrey stated that when employees can more readily identify with the service role, compliance

with the emotional requirements may be easy and enjoyable. Such identification is likely to lead to less effort and a more natural performance. In this way, Ashforth and Humphrey explained the outcomes of emotional labour as either positive or negative depending on how well the employee is able to align their identity with their role and conform to display rules.

In the Hochschild's study, she mentioned that organization is the sole formulator of the display rules but Ashforth and Humphrey stated that along with organization social and occupational norms will also act as a resource to form the display rules. An example could be the strong professional codes of doctors, nurses, lawyers etc.

Ashforth and Humphrey also pointed out that positive outcomes of emotional labour will happen if employees have some freedom of expressing themselves rather than the rigid display rules set by the organization. Emotional autonomy is thought to allow for a closer connection with clients in individual interactions, leading to greater job satisfaction and hence, more positive wellbeing outcomes

Display Rules Influences	**Emotional Labour**	**Wellbeing Outcomes**
• Organisational • Societal • Occupational	• Surface acting • Deep acting • Genuine emotion	• Task Effectiveness • Alienation • Self-esteem

Moderator
• Social and personal identity
• Emotional autonomy
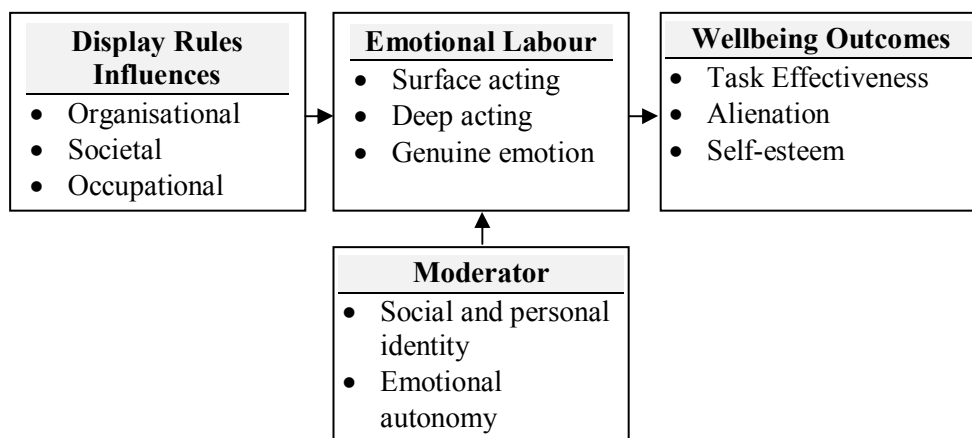
Source: (S. Brown, 2010)

Figure 2.4: Ashforth & Humphreys behavioral approaches

Ashforth and Humphrey in their study focused on the consequences of emotional labour i.e. emotive dissonance. According to them, it is the key problem for the employees engaged in the emotional labour. They expanded their work on dissonance; they explained that uncomfortable and inauthentic self-reflection that dissonance creates can lead to reduced self-esteem, depression, cynicism, and alienation. Because of this, surface acting is seen as a particular problem. Ashforth and Humphrey believed that deep acting as less problematic than surface acting, because they felt that deep acting may also lead to feelings of inauthenticity and self-alienation, if the emotional labour requirements are unrelenting, resulting in the substantial effort.

The major difference between Ashforth and Humphrey and Hochschild's study is that the former study focused more on the relational aspect of the role (e.g. nurse where the interaction is intense) and the latter study focused on the process (e.g. flight attendants interaction is more casual). In the Ashforth and Humphrey's study, they focus on observable expression and sees task effectiveness as the whole purpose of the management of emotion. Hence, an expression that is appropriate and leads to a smooth interaction is assumed to be associated with better performance, greater self-efficacy, and easier and more enjoyable interactions (S. Brown, 2010). On the other hand, their view of natural emotional expression as being confined to situations in which there is a natural concordance between what's felt and what's required may be a restrictive view of how natural emotions are used to comply with display rules

2.4.3 Morris & Fieldsman's Interactionist Approach

The Interactionist perspective is one of the major theoretical perspectives in sociology. It focuses on the concrete details of what goes on among individuals in everyday life. Interactionist study how we use and interpret symbols not only to communicate with each other, but also to create and maintain impressions of ourselves, to create a sense of self, and to create and sustain what we experience as the reality of a particular social situation.[6]

(Morris & Feldman, 1996) used the Interactionist approach to defining emotional labour. They defined emotional labour as ― "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions". Not all perspectives view surface and deep acting as core components of emotional labour. They view emotional labour as fixed on the idea that the social environment is crucial in determining how individuals make sense of and express emotion. They explained that the four dimensions of emotional labour as the frequency of emotional display, attentiveness to required display rules (duration and intensity of emotional display), a variety of emotions to be displayed, and emotional dissonance.

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[6] http://sociology.about.com/od/I_Index/g/Interactionist-Perspective.htm
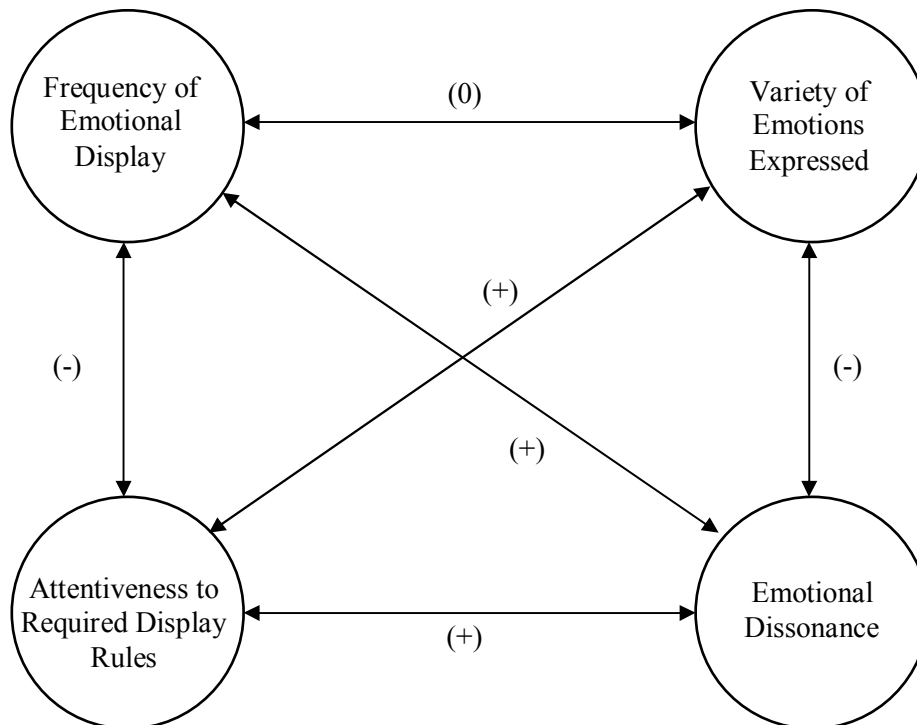
Source: (Morris & Feldman, 1996)

Figure 2.5: Morris & Fieldsman's Interactionist approach

This conceptualization is completely different from Hochschild and Ashforth and Humphrey conceptualization of emotional labour. They state that all these four components are positively related to emotional exhaustion and dissonance will be negatively related to job satisfaction.

In their model, Morris and Feldman (1997) focused on four important antecedent factors namely explicitness of display rules, task routineness, job autonomy, and power of role receiver. The most notable finding was that emotional dissonance was the only emotional labour component that led to poor outcomes in terms of both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction leading Morris and Feldman (1997) to reassess their position that emotional

labour should produce generally poor personal consequences. The three suggested components of emotional labour as proposed by Morris and Feldman (1997) have been criticised by Grandey (2000) and Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) as being unrepresentative of how employees actually express and inhibit emotion. Whereas surface and deep acting could be thought of as methods of actually performing emotional labour, Morris and Feldman's focus on frequency and duration, while possibly very important in determining how emotional labour might be conducted, does not define emotional labour.

2.4.4 Grandey's Emotional Labour Model

Grandey in her work "emotion regulation in workplace" states that emotions in the workplace were not regarded previously. The workplace was viewed as the rational environment, where considering emotion will create problems in sound judgement. Now there is a shift happening in this view and researchers have identified how workplace emotions help to explain important individual and organizational outcomes, researchers are now exploring how emotions are managed by employees to improve work outcomes. Grandey states that emotional labour may involve enhancing, faking or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression. Like Hochschild (1983), Grandey (2000) considered both the management of internal processes and outward expression in a definition of emotional labour as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals". Grandey (2000) argued that the previous definitions of emotional labour are likely to bring confusion because, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) seem to refer emotional labour as observable expressions of emotions, while Morris and Feldman (1996) appear to be dealing with the characteristics of a job that call upon emotional labour. Grandey (2000)

stated that the construct of emotional labour should be viewed as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals". Thus, from her perspective, emotional labour refers to the processes of emotional regulation through self-acting and deep acting. Grandey (2000) combined the situational focus of Morris and Feldman (1996) as antecedents of emotional labour, together with the central tenets of surface and deep acting (e.g. Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983) as the emotional labour mechanisms by which the display rule demands are met.

Situational Cues **Emotion Regulation Process** **Long –Term Consequences**

Interaction expectations
- Frequency
- Duration
- Variety
- Display rules

Emotional labour
Deep acting: modify feelings
- Attention deployment
- Cognitive changes

Surface acting: modify expression
- Response modulation

Individual well-being
- Burnout
- Job satisfaction

Organizational well-being
- Performance
- Withdrawal behavior

Individual factors
- Gender
- Emotional expressivity
- Emotional intelligence
- Affectivity(NAPA)

Organizational factors
- Job autonomy
- Supervisor support
- Co-worker support

Source: (Grandey, 2000)

Figure 2.6: Grandey's emotional labour model

Grandey (2000) supported the Gross's (1998 a; Gross, 1998 b) theoretical model of antecedent-focused and response-focused emotion regulation. Gross viewed emotional management as being regulated at either one of two points. Antecedent-focused regulation involves anticipating and preparing

for the emotionally stimulating event prior to exposure. On the other hand, response-focused regulation entails the individual suppressing or modifying their emotional response once the stimulus has been received.

Grandey (2000) noted that Gross's model as being relevant to emotional labour theory, mainly as antecedent-focused regulation is conceptually similar to the notion of deep acting, and response- focused regulation is similar to descriptions of surface acting. Significantly, Gross (1998 a) found that there was a greater sympathetic nervous system activation associated with response focused regulation as opposed to antecedent-focused regulation. And it has well-known associations with adverse health consequences (Gross, 1998 a), suggesting that surface acting may be a more damaging emotional labour strategy for employees (Grandey, 2000)

Grandey (2000) also saw the emotional labour process as being contingent upon antecedent variables such as the frequency, duration, and variety of interactions. Grandey also argued that the ease of compliance with display rules would be dependent on previous emotional events from work-related and personal sources, such as an abusive or critical customer or a sick relative. Grandey recommended that such negative events result in a greater difficulty for a subsequent positive performance.

Grandey's (2000) model considers individual and organisational factors as having a direct impact on whether surface or deep acting are utilized as emotional labour strategies. Individual factors considered in her study are gender, emotional expressivity, emotional intelligence, and the affective tendency of the individual. Organisational factors used in her study are sources of social support and the level of job autonomy. On the whole,

the antecedents, whether from personal or organisational sources, have an impact on whether surface or deep acting is used. In situations in which demands are frequent and the preceding emotional events are negative, the employee is likely to be distracted and in a negative emotional state, resulting in a greater propensity for surface acting to be used, particularly when positive emotion is required.

Grandey's (2000, 2003) conceptualization of emotional labour is restricted to methods of actually expressing and constraining emotion but it also allows for the impact of antecedent variables. The use of Gross's (1998 a, 1998 b) emotional regulation explains the different cognitive mechanisms behind the surface and deep acting and why these strategies might have differential consequences. The possibility that natural emotion can be an emotional labour strategy in the same way as surface and deep acting is missing from Grandey's (2000) model probably because the use of natural emotion as an emotional labour strategy is not as easily explained by Gross's (1998 a, 1998 b) emotional regulation model. Grandey's perspective can be seen as a reasonably comprehensive conceptualization of how emotional labour is conducted as well as how antecedents and organisational and individual factors impact on how employees use emotional labour components and their subsequent association with wellbeing outcomes.

2.4.5 Gross's Model

Gross's (1998) model states that Emotion Regulation can happen at two points. The first instance is called Antecedent-Focused, and this is when individuals regulate the antecedents of emotions. And in the response-focused, states that the individual alters the physiological signs of emotions.

Grandey (2000) compares these two points with Surface Acting and Deep Acting. (Gross, 1998) also stated that the Response- Focused Emotion Regulation or response modulation happens when the person manipulates how they express or show a specific emotional response. This process corresponds with Surface Acting. In this technique, employees work to display more emotions than they truly feel, or they suppress their true feelings, in favour of acceptable expressions.

2.4.6 Zapf's Model

In contrast to other researchers, Zapf (2002) preferred to use the term Emotional Work instead of Emotional Labour, because the word 'labour' is more of a sociological concept. The author defines this concept as "the psychological processes necessary to regulate organizationally desired emotions". The author argues that work activity is the psychological component of work process; therefore it is the psychological regulation of work actions and cognitive processes which link the objective work environment to behavior. Zapf (2002) provides a summary of the various levels of work actions.
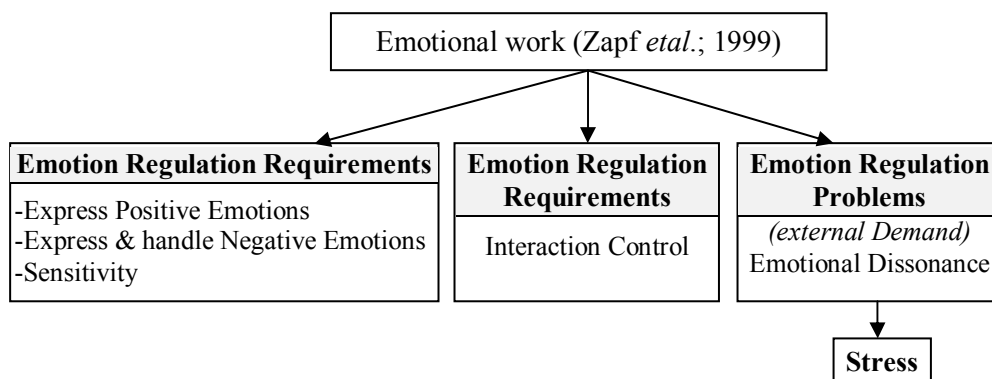
Source: (Zapf, 2002)

Figure 2.7: Zapf's emotional labour model

2.5 Antecedents of Emotional Labour

An antecedent variable is an independent variable that leads other independent variables. An antecedent variable could influence the independent variable and modify its relationship to the dependent variable.

2.5.1 Emotional Demands of Jobs

The emotional demands of the jobs consist of intensity, frequency and duration and a variety of emotions that need to be expressed as part of one's work role. Research has found higher levels of emotional labour among employees who are required to express a large variety of emotions that are very intense in frequent interactions of a lengthy duration (morris and fieldman 1996). Other research indicates that employees who experience greater autonomy or control in their work perform significantly less emotional labour, especially surface acting, than their counterparts.

2.5.2 Individual Characteristics

Individual characteristics can serve as a kind of interaction competency for the employee; in other words, they can help employees perform their interpersonal task more easily and agreeably and thus with less stress. There are several individual characteristics that may influence the degree of emotional labour performed by employees. Research has found that in comparison with employees with individualistic values, those with collectivist values are likely to use deep acting. Also, research has found that employees who easily adapt their behaviour to situational exigencies and those with a tendency to feel negative emotion are more likely to use surface acting.

2.6 Major Studies of Emotional Labour

Emotional management is an area of interdisciplinary study. Initially, social scientists were of the view that emotions were not governed by the social rules. (AR Hochschild, 1979) argued that emotions are in fact controlled by the social rules too. People try or not try to feel in ways that are appropriate to the situations. In the early theories of the emotions, emotions were considered as the stimulus-response pattern and the role of social factors was majorly neglected. In this review, Hochschild discussed the views of Goffman's and Freud regarding the emotion management and arrived at a conclusion. In this study, Hochschild proposed a new concept called as emotion work. According to the (AR Hochschild, 1979) Emotion work is defined as the act of trying to change in degree or quality and emotion or feeling. In other words, it is the act of evolving or shaping as well as suppressing, feelings in the individual. This can be achieved by the three techniques namely cognitive, bodily and expressed emotion work. In the cognitive emotion work the individual attempts to change the image, ideas or thought to change the feelings associated with them. In the bodily emotion work the individual attempts to change the body reactions to the feelings associated and in the expressive emotion work the individual attempts to change the expressive gestures to change the inner feelings. Management of the emotion in a social setting happen through the feeling rules. The paper tries to put forward the links among emotive experience, deep acting, and feeling rules. Feeling rules can be defined as the social guidelines that direct how we want to try to feel may be describable as a set of socially shared , even if latent rules. In this study, Hochschild proves that feeling rules exist with numerous examples. Hochschild argues that like

emotion work can be exchanged in private, it can also be exchanged in the marketplace. In such situations, it is called as the "commoditization" of emotion work. This was the first work which described the commoditization of emotion in the workplace which acted as the starting point of further emotional labour research.

The book managed heart is the seminal work done by Arlie Hochschild in the area of emotional labour. Arlie Hochschild defined emotional labour as "the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labour is sold for a wage and has a display value" (A. R. Hochschild, 1983). In her previous study, she talked about the commercialization of feeling and emotion work. Emotion work done in a commercial setting is called as emotional labour. Emotional labour requires employees to induce or suppress feelings in order to continue the outward expression that produces the proper state of mind in others. This effort requires coordination of mind and feeling. The effort is called emotional labour. Many of the jobs today have interaction with people as an integral part of their jobs. Communication and dealing with people and dealing with own emotions have become a vital part of service sector jobs. The book covers aspects of emotional Labour, how people manage emotion and the costs and benefits of managing emotion in private life and work. Hochschild proposes two strategies for managing emotion, which is surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting is a strategy where the individual suppresses the felt emotion and shows the required emotion in a current situation. In the deep acting strategy, the individual modify the felt emotion to match the situation so that there is a match between the felt emotion and displayed emotion. Hochschild clearly states that this

management of emotions are beneficial for the company but it is not suitable for the employee wellbeing and there is a cost associated with the emotion management. Finally, Hochschild provides the researchers with a list of jobs that has emotional labour and she also put forward three conditions for a job to have emotional labour i.e. first, they require face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public. Second, they require the worker to produce an emotional state in another person gratitude, fear, excitement, for example. Third, they allow the employer, through training and supervision, to exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of employees. This means that nearly one-third of all workers experiences a dimension of work that is seldom recognised and almost never taken into account by employers as a source of on-the-job stress. Employers ensure continuity by defining social exchanges and feeling rules where they has standardised into company manuals and subjected to a hierarchical control. According to Hochschild the major consequence of emotional labour is the increased stress level and emotional dissonance. Though emotional labour is potentially good for the organization but it can negatively affect the employees which affect the wellbeing.

(Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) in their study has defined emotional labour meticulously and its effects in service roles. They have defined emotional labour as "the act of displaying the appropriate emotion (i.e., conforming to a display rule) as emotional labour". The main difference from (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) definition and (A. R. Hochschild, 1983) definition is that the former focuses on the behaviour side and the latter focuses on the emotion part. They have also discussed the functional and dysfunctional aspect of emotional labour. They stated that emotional

labour facilitates task effectiveness and self-expression and it also triggers emotive dissonance and authentic self. They also have introduced the concept of identity to the emotional labour from the social identity theory and they argue that identity moderates the effect of emotional labour on the service agents. The author has concluded saying that EL can be a double-edged sword. Either it can facilitate task performance by regulating the interaction and excluding the interpersonal problems or it can hinder performance. They argued that EL can give the employees a window for self expression. They also stated that the negative effects of the EL can be moderated with the identification of the roles by the employees. They also state that identification help EL to be enjoyable and enhance the well-being but it also has an emotional effect. The significance of this research is that the authors state that EL can be positive for employees not necessarily negative always. It is possible to accentuate the positive effect of EL with good interventions.

(Morris & Feldman, 1996) defined EL as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions". The authors based their definition on the Interactionist perspective of emotion, which suggest that individuals understand emotions through the social environments where the emotion is experienced and expressed. According to the definition, there is an effort/labour required to display the organizationally desired emotion even if there is congruence between the felt emotion and the desired emotion. The authors extended the previous works on EL in a comprehensive way. They viewed EL using four distinct dimensions namely the frequency of appropriate emotional display, attentiveness to required display rules, a

variety of emotions required to be displayed, and emotional dissonance generated as the result of having to express organizationally desired emotions not genuinely felt. The author suggests that with the surge of service sector the expression of emotion has become just like any other commodity and in this article the authors focus on the expressive behaviour, unlike the Hochschild perspective.

(Pugliesi, 1999) started their article stating that service sector in the industrial economies and how the jobs focus on the social dimension of work experience. The author clearly states that distinguishing between emotional labour and emotion work will contradict the multidimensionality of the concept. The author explained that there are two forms of the emotional labour namely self-focused and other focused. In the self-focused EL, individual takes the effort to suppress or mask own emotion in a friendly manner. Whereas the others-focused EL individuals take the effort to help others to manage the emotions. He clearly states that "Emotional labour is not always restricted to interactions that occur in the course of the provision of a service or other primary tasks of work. Rather, emotion is inherent in all social relations in organizational contexts". The author states that emotional labour has both positive and negative consequences. The study focused on mainly 4 aspects (1) the effects of self- and other-focused emotional labour on workers' perceptions of job stress, levels of job satisfaction, and psychological distress, net of job control, demands, and complexity (2) the effects of the self- and other-focused emotional labour compare to the effects of job control, demands, and complexity (3) if emotional labour have direct or indirect effects on job satisfaction and distress (4) if the job control, demands, or complexity condition the effects

of either type of emotional labour. Data was collected from all employees of a midsized university in the USA with a total sample size of 1114 data. The study concludes that both self-focused and others focused forms of emotional labour have a number of consequences for workers; they affect perceptions of job stress, job satisfaction, and general distress. They also state that the effects of emotional labour are largely independent of job conditions, and are both direct and indirect.

(Kruml & Geddes, 2000) defines Emotional labour as "what employees perform when they are required to feel, or at least project the appearance of, certain emotions as they engage in job-relevant interactions". The primary objective of the article was to test Hochschild's institutional emotion management perspective as a theory of emotional labour and to initiate development of valid and reliable scales relevant to this and future emotional labour research. This study was done in two phases. In the phase 1 a questionnaire was constructed and they did a factor analysis on the items and it was found that three factors were prominent in the study namely emotive dissonance, emotive effort and emotional attachment. Since it was having low scores emotional attachment was considered as an antecedent variable in phase 2. Phase 1 confirmed the two-factor structure namely emotional dissonance and emotive effort (surface acting, active deep acting, and passive deep acting). In phase 2, the author tested the relationship between emotional labour and the antecedents' namely personal variables (gender, experience, empathic ability) and job variables (display training, display latitude, customer affect, quality orientation, emotional attachment). AMOS SEM was used to analyze data which showed that the antecedent variables explain 42% of the variance in emotive dissonance and 33%

variance in the emotive effort. The model showed a close fit. The research showed that emotional contagion has a strong impact on emotional effort and dissonance. The study also revealed that job variables significantly influence how a person performs emotional labour.

(Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000) the main objective of the study was to understand the characteristics of role and personality traits in determining the perception of emotional labour and how the perception of emotional labour influences the physical health. The other was to study the relationship between the perceived emotional labour and physical health and how it is moderated by emotional adaptability and work perceptions (job involvement and organizational identification.). The study was conducted by a research organization in the US with a sample size of 227 employees. It was found that the demands to express positive emotions in a job affect the physical symptoms which in fact proved that employees who do not genuinely express emotions affect their health.

(Tsai, 2001) in their article focus more on employee displayed positive emotion. The major purpose of the study was to test the psychological climate for service friendliness as a determinant of employee displayed positive emotions and also to examine the effect of displayed positive emotions on customers' purchase decisions and customer willingness to return to the store and pass positive comments to friends. The study was conducted among the sales clerk and customers of 156 retail shoe store in north Taiwan. The study found that psychological climate for service friendliness is positively related to the employee displayed positive emotions. The study also found that customer reactions are affected by the employee displayed positive emotions. The study concluded saying that if managers create a

psychological climate of service friendliness then employees would display more positive emotions to the customers. The study also revealed that display of positive emotion did not essentially lead to purchase decisions but it has an effect on customer's willingness to return to the store and spreading positive comments to friends.

(Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) In this study, the authors tried to examine the emotional demands of work with regard to the individual styles of responding to these emotional demands which acted as contributing factor to the employee stress. The authors explain that there are two ways of conceptualizing the emotional labour. They are job focused emotional labour (denotes the level of emotional demands in an occupation) and employee focused emotional labour (denotes employee process or experience of managing emotions and expressions to meet work demands). The major objective of the study was to examine whether employees with "people work" (high emotional labour jobs) occupational titles report higher levels of emotional demands and lower control over emotions than in other occupations and also to find out the levels of emotional demands and required emotional control, the job-focused emotional labour approach, predict burnout levels. Also, the employee-focused emotional labour, the process of managing emotions in response to work demands contributes uniquely to the prediction of burnout beyond the job-focused variables. The study was conducted among full-time Canadian employees with varied job titles. The study found out that employees in "people work" did not report significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion than did respondents employed in other occupations. The study also found significant differences in the nature of typical emotional labour occupations (service/sales) and

burnout occupations (caring work) compared to other occupational categories. These results clearly indicate that employees involved in the people work experience high burnout. This study compared the effects of employee-focused emotional labour on burnout to those of job-focused emotional labour on burnout. This comparison showed a stronger effect for surface and deep acting than for emotion work demands. The surface acting was related to feeling exhausted and detached, whereas deeper acting was related positively to personal accomplishment. The article concluded with the importance of training employees to engage in deep emotional labour techniques.

2.7 Emotional Labour and Teaching

(Nias, 1989)explained that teaching as an occupation has certain characteristics. Teaching involves emotions as well as cognition and practical activity. The daily work of classroom teaching involves emotional highs and lows like in any other occupation which is felt as well as experienced. Teaching also entitles for a large number of cognitive, practical and interpersonal skills, and to do it well requires that these be carried to a high level of performance. Teaching is extremely demanding. The costs of primary teaching are physical — mental and emotional exhaustion, constant self-examination, and self-doubt. Likewise, its rewards are high — warmth, acceptance, exhilaration, self-extension, fulfilment, and the satisfactions which come from doing a difficult job well and, sometimes, superbly.

Emotions are at the heart of teaching (Hargreaves, 1998). Even though this statement is true there was very little research on the area of teacher emotions (R. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Researchers know little about the

role of emotions in learning to teach, how teachers' emotional experiences relate to their teaching practices, how the socio-cultural context of teaching interacts with teachers' emotions also about how teachers regulate their emotions, the relationship between teachers' emotions and motivation, and how integral emotional experiences are in teacher development (R. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). One reason for this neglect was because the emotion has been seen as a term which is not suitable for research in the education field for a long period of time because emotions were considered as destructive, primitive, out of control and childish (Wang & Guo, 2013).

The interaction between teachers and learners is a considered as an emotional experience (Nias, 1989). As (Hargreaves, 2000) rightly pointed out "as emotional practitioners, teachers can make classrooms exciting or dull". The teachers who give importance to the emotional dimension can make the good student-teacher interaction, and it is very important for the outcome of students learning (Wang & Guo, 2013). Emotions influences students to engage in the classroom and improve academic experiences (E. L. Brown, 2011) . "Good teaching is charged with positive emotion. It is not just a matter of knowing one's subject, being efficient, having the correct competencies, or learning all the right techniques. Good teachers are not just well-oiled machines. They are emotional, passionate beings who connect with their students and fill their work and their classes with pleasure, creativity, challenge and joy" (Hargreaves, 1998). when teaching is conceptualized as a relationship between two or more people, rather than as an instrumental activity, it becomes possible for teachers to find personal and emotional satisfactions within their working lives rather than outside them (Nias, 1989). Teachers make heavy emotional investments in a

student- teacher relationship and their sense of success and satisfaction depends on the success of this relationship (Hargreaves, 1998). Higher education teachers job involves far more than simply imparting knowledge, they help students mature intellectually and emotionally; they motivate and stimulate student interest (Bellas, 1999).

From the arguments it can be interpreted that teaching encompasses more than an instructional focus, understanding the emotional component of teaching becomes an important factor, with regards to teacher-student relationships.

(Hargreaves, 1998) had clearly mentioned that teaching is a form of emotional labour. (A. R. Hochschild, 1983) has clearly mentioned the three criteria's for a job to have emotional labour. In the case of teaching as a job a teacher has a face to face interaction with the students. Teachers often try to elicit emotions in people with whom they interact, which involve managing their own emotional expression. Although teachers have considerable autonomy, management exercise some control over their emotional activities, for example, by assessing performance with evaluations by students and colleagues (Bellas, 1999). The feeling rules as put forward by Hochschild was learned by the teachers through professional socialization and explicit organizational or occupational codes of conduct.

The teacher's orientation to teaching and range of communication and human relations skills intervene the classroom experience and demands for emotional labour. Teachers who succeed on teaching may not feel that they are acting or performing. They stimulate and genuinely draw positive emotions (Bellas, 1999). Teachers who are not involved in the teaching

process may involve "surface acting" or "deep acting". Even though it was clear that teaching requires significant skills most of the teachers rely on the natural skills. In reality most, colleges and universities do not offer on-the-job training for the teacher (Bellas, 1999). College teachers are rarely taught to teach. Meeting Ph.D. requirement has been counted as sufficient qualification to teach others and teachers develop excellent skills on the job without formal training or consultation (Lowman, 1995). Teachers who wanted to develop their teaching tend to do through trial and error and feedback from students. In the teaching, field teachers are expected to display positive emotions and control the negative emotions. For example, during the assessment of student performance a teacher has to suppress his negative emotion and encourage the student for a better performance next time. Occasional display of annoyance sometimes helps the student to understand that he/she has crossed the line. Emotions like humour and tact sometimes help the teacher to control the difficult situations.

(Hargreaves, 1998) is one of the pioneer authors who liked emotions to teaching. This article reviews the educational changes that happened in the recent years in teaching and how these changes impact the teacher's emotional goals and the relationships. In this study the author interviewed teachers and their principals were regarding their perception of and responses to changes in curriculum and assessment, about the relationship these changes had with their previous experiences in teaching, and about their orientation to change in general. The results of the study pointed that the changes in the education have affected the teacher's emotional response to the structures, practices, traditions and routines. The author also explained how the teachers' emotional goals and relationship with their

students impact structure, pedagogy, and planning aspects of teachers' approaches to educational change.

The first study which was done in the area of emotional labour and teachers was by (Bellas, 1999). The study was a qualitative study explaining how well the concept of emotional labour fits into the teaching job and how gender difference affects the emotional labour of teachers in the job. The author tried to understand the activities both inside and outside the classroom required by the professors and the role of emotional labour in those activities. She found that most professors divide their time between teaching, research, service, and, for some, administration she also found that there is a gendered reward structure in academics. They reinforced the notion of Hochschild that higher education teachers experience emotional labour. The study identified that there is a gender difference in the emotional labour of teachers. Like in non- academic labour market there is a gendered reward structure in academia. Teaching is closely associated with characteristics and behaviours culturally defined as feminine and women teachers spend more time in these activities than men. In teaching, the skills and responsibilities are considered as feminines, such as nurturance and face-to-face interaction with the students, are unrewarded employers and stigmatized even when male teachers perform them. She also argued that teaching clearly involves sizeable amounts of emotional labour, but it is not valued properly and is consequently poorly rewarded. On the contrary, research and administration are related with traits culturally defined as masculine, and male teachers spend more time in these activities. Employers appreciate and reward these aspects of the job. The author also stated that the research and administration also involve emotional labour but the

emotional aspects tend to be ignored, while intellectual, technical, and leadership skills are emphasized and highly compensated. Apart from differences in the tendency of women and men to engage in different activities and the existence of gendered reward structure the type and intensity of emotional labour required of the gender may differ.

(Barrett, 2004) in the article explains the role of casual lecturers in the Australian public sector with the reduced funding. The main purpose this article was to perform a preliminary review of the issues associated with the emotional labour associated with casual teaching. The author stated that Australian universities are opting more casual teachers in their workforce and as a result, there is increased emotional labour and increased stress. They argue that the factors that are increasing the emotional labour of university teaching affect both "permanent" and casual academic staff. The author states that the reason for the increased casualisation of university teaching has been because of the scientific management and comparative advantage. The increased casualisation of the university teaching workforce has contributed to the intensification of emotional labour for casual teachers. This article uses a hard/soft model of Human Resource Management as a framework to argue that increased casualisation of university teaching has increased the emotional labour associated with casual teaching. The author also stresses that this emotional labour is neither recognised nor valued by university managers, hence is it unremunerated. The author identifies different issues like Frontline work, increased isolation; on call 24:7 and Unproductive investment contributes to increased intensification of the emotional labour that is being performed by casual teaching staff. The author opines that this is an area of educational research that has been largely ignored and has potentially

significant consequence for the higher education sector. These teachers are 'career casuals' who are often highly skilled and experienced workers, who have replaced workers who previously worked under standard forms of employment. The key issue discussed in this paper was how intensifying emotional labour among casual lecturers violates the psychological contract between employers and employees by emphasising the transactional aspect and downplaying the relational aspect.

(Constanti & Gibbs, 2004) mentioned that for a successful service delivery the front line staff/academic has to manage their feelings for student satisfaction and for making a profit. The author tries to find out whether the academic is being exploited in this three-way relationship. For this purpose, the author did in-depth interviews with the teachers, students, and management of higher education institutions. The author found that performing emotional labour is required both for a successful delivery of service to students, but also as a strategy for coping with the need to conceal real feelings. The demands made by students and the management means stress, exploitation and the unequal distribution of power. The author concluded from the interviews that Students and management of higher education institutions expect the teachers to perform emotional labour during the carrying out their duties, thereby adding value to the learning. The management is thus meeting the promise of delivering a pleasant experience to the students, while the teachers, has to possess other qualities which are neither evaluated nor rewarded, or indeed counter to her academic authenticity. It is taken for granted that he/she will perform emotional labour in the classroom for the benefit of the students in the first instance, and consequently for the good of the institution in the second.

(Ogbonna & Harris, 2004) the author argued that emotional labour is present at different hierarchical levels and among many occupational groups and no study has explored the issue of emotional labour in the context of work intensification among teachers. The author presents evidence resultant from interviews with teachers to assess (1) the frequency and propensity of emotional labour and the extent to which emotional labour is increasingly becoming part of the work of teachers, (2) the extent to which such emotional labour is derived from the intensifying changes to the work environment of university lecturers, and (3) the positive and negative consequences of such emotional labour and work intensification. The author found that emotional labour is present among the teachers in the university. It is argued that the increase in such emotional laboring is because of the intensification of the academic labour process, which is intensified by the multiple and sometimes conflicting demands of various stakeholders. The author argued that teachers believed that they cannot be 'professional' without emotional labour. The author also mentioned that the effect of such emotional labour has both positive and negative consequences.

(Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006) article was based on a collaborative action research study between one teacher and a teacher educator and provides an account of the emotional labour in performing caring teaching in the classroom. The author states that the emotional labour required in caring relationships was an area of research that has not received much attention. The author states that the teacher's performance of emotional labour is related to her professional and philosophical attitude about the role of caring in teaching and learning. The author also states that the performance of emotional labour was a key part of the reality of teaching

and has an effect on teacher's commitment, satisfaction, and self-esteem. The author also points out that emotional labor of teaching has both positive and negative outcomes and also alienating and liberating. The author also mentioned that the Teachers are expected to control their negative emotions—e.g. their anger and frustration—for being better teachers and are expected to display the positive emotions associated with caring. The author argued that in practice it will be difficult to separate between the caring and emotional labour. The authors also explained that understanding the consequences of emotional labour in teaching is very important.

(Näring, Briet & Brouwers, 2006) The author argued that emotional labour was related to high levels of burnout. The aim of the study was to show that emotional labour has a relationship with burnout that is separate from its relationship with the variables of the Demand Control Support (DCS) model. In this study emotional labour was studied, together with the variables of the Karasek Job Demand Control Support model. It was found that job characteristics were found to be specifically related to emotional exhaustion. The surface acting was related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and emotional consonance was related to personal accomplishment. It was also found that suppression is related to depersonalization. The authors argued that teachers who are exhausted or who feel detached from their students do not respond to certain situations in a way that feels natural. In such situations, teachers might have to use surface acting and suppression more.

(Hebson, Earnshaw & Marchington, 2007) the articles main objective was to use emotional labor to understand some of the changes that are ongoing in the teaching profession. The study is about the impact of new performance culture on a caring and emotional aspect of teaching. The study

was qualitative in nature where they interviewed teachers where they tried to find out through emotional labor how changes in new accountability and performance systems affect them. The authors made use of Bolton's typology of emotional management. The authors suggested that there is a shift in the caring aspect of teaching and also there is a similarity in the way of managing the emotional labour like in the service sector.

(Yin & Lee, 2012) the authors state that the performance of emotional labour is related to teachers' understanding about the role of caring in teaching and learning, the culture of the teaching profession and their perceptions of professional identity. This study tried to find the emotional rules governing teachers' work in the context of Mainland China. The study found that teachers can be seen as emotional workers and there are four emotional rules for Chinese teachers' feelings and emotional expressions. The four rules are a commitment to teaching with passion, hide negative emotions, maintain positive emotions and instrumentalize emotions to achieve teaching goals. The study also uncovered three interrelated issues about the nature of teachers' emotional labour from the context Chinese culture. The three issues are the role of teachers in Chinese culture, The Chinese way of emotional communication and expression and Chinese teachers' conformity to professional and ethical norms in managing emotions. The author's state that in china the heavy "heart-consuming" labour in teaching makes the Chinese teachers think of themselves as "mothers" or parents of their students, the students considers teachers as part of their extended family. Authority, responsibility, and morality are all part of this relationship. The findings of this study point out that teacher's pay particular attention to the potential consequence of emotional

expressions on students. They passionately commit to teaching, hide negative emotions, maintain positive emotions, and use vocal or gesture strategies to regulate emotional expressions in order to facilitate student learning. The study also points out that Chinese classrooms usually feature teacher authority, student compliance, and hierarchical teacher-student relationship, which does not necessarily lead to a harsh and cool classroom environment, but may generate a "hierarchical but friendly" climate. The study also revealed the rational instrumentalization of Chinese teachers' emotions according to their professional and ethical norms. (Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner, & Doverspike, 2011).

2.8 Motivation at Work

"Motivation is the process of arousing and sustaining goal-directed behaviour"(Nelson, Quick & Kandelwal, 2012). Motivation is defined as the forces within a person that affect his direction , intensity and persistence of voluntary behaviour (Pinder, 2014). That means motivated employees are willing to exert a particular level of effort (intensity) for a certain amount of time (persistence), towards a particular goal (direction). Motivation theories attempt to explain and predict observable behaviour. Philosophers and scholars have theorized for centuries about human needs and motives. In the last century researchers started focusing more on motivation from the business perspective. Motivation is one of the major concerns for researchers as well as a manager because motivation is closely related to the success of an individual, an organization, and a society. Through motivational efforts, people realize their personal and organizational goals. Motivating an individual is a complex process. How to motivate an employee is a big question before a manager. With the advances in technology, knowledge and financial

independence the problem has become more rigorous. Even then it is the responsibility of the manager to motivate an employee to achieve the organizational goal. To take up these responsibility managers need to understand why people behave as they do which is called motivation. Several theories have evolved to help explain different facets of motivation. This can be divided into content theories of motivation which focus on what motivates employees in organizations e.g. theories of Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland , and the process theories of motivation, which focuses on how employees in an organization can be motivated e.g. expectancy, equity, reinforcement, social learning theories. The process theories also explain why people behave the way they do.

2.8.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow postulated that human beings are motivated to satisfy their needs. He proposed five main hierarchical levels of needs- physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, ego needs and self-actualization needs. Physiological needs relate to the basic needs like hunger and thirst. Safety needs include security of all kinds. Love needs are the need to relate closely to others. Ego needs relate to the need for status and recognition. Self-actualization needs relate to achieving one's potential.

Maslow suggested that these needs have a hierarchy i.e. some needs are lower order compared to other higher order needs. He also argued that unless the lower order need is satisfied higher order needs will not be operative and once lower order need is satisfied it will be no longer motivate. From the perspective of motivation, the theory would say that while no need is ever fully satisfied, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. So if

the manager wants to motivate an employee, according to Maslow, the manager needs to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying the needs at or above that level.

Maslow's needs theory continues to be widely recognized some 60 years after he proposed it, particularly among practising managers. The practical significance of Maslow's theory is widely accepted. The theory is intuitive and easy to understand. Unfortunately, research does not generally validate the theory, although research does suggest that people have basic needs that are important to them and motivate them to get along with others. Maslow himself provided no empirical evidence for his theory. Several studies that examined the theory found little support for the prediction that needs form the hierarchy proposed by Maslow, that unsatisfied needs motivate, or that a satisfied need moves a person to seek satisfaction at a new need level. The main limitation of this theory is that all needs operate simultaneously and that higher order needs do not await the satisfaction of the lower order needs.

2.8.2 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg proposed two sets of needs- one set of needs caused dissatisfaction if they are not met which he called hygiene factors. They are safety, working conditions, company policy, supervision and workgroup. The second set of needs provided positive satisfaction if they were met. They were called motivators which are advancement, development, responsibility, recognition, achievement and work itself. Herzberg postulated that reducing dissatisfaction in the work environment is not the same as providing positive satisfaction. He further postulated that hygiene factors and motivators are qualitatively different aspects of work motivation and that motivation can be

provided only if motivators are used in the work environment in addition to the hygiene factors. This theory has led to job enrichment programs, entailing redesigning of jobs. Job enrichment tries to build motivators into the job.

2.8.3 Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfers ERG theory is an extension of Maslow's theory. He suggested three categories of need instead of five as mentioned by the Maslow namely existence, relatedness, and growth. Existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs involve interpersonal relationships and are similar to Maslow's love and ego needs. Growth needs are related to the attainment of one's potential and are similar to Maslow's self- actualization needs. There is two major differences between the ERG and Maslow's theory. ERG theory does not suggest that lower order needs must be satisfied before higher order needs become motivational. ERG theory also suggests that if higher order needs are not satisfied an individual will regress, and lower order needs become major motivation determinants. Therefore , ERG theory not only draws attention to the satisfaction of higher order needs like job challenge, advancement, creativity and growth.. In fact, Aldefer believed that as a person starts satisfying higher order needs they become more intense- the more power a person gets the more power he wants.

2.8.4 McClelland's Need Theory

McClelland suggested three motives as being important in motivating a person – Achievement, Motivation, and Power. Achievement motive is characterized by a concern for excellence, a tendency to compare with standards of excellence set by others or by self, the setting of challenging

goals for oneself, an awareness of the hurdles in the way of achieving one's goals and persistence in trying out alternative paths to one's goals. Affiliation motive is characterized by concern for establishing and maintaining close personal relationships, considerable value for friendship and tendency to express one's emotions.

McClelland considered achievement and affiliation to be simple variables, but the author considered power to be a complex variable. According to the author, power included an urge to control others- control motive, the desire to make an impact on others Influence Motive and the desire to use power for the benefit of other persons and groups- Extension Motive. Control motive is characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to stay informed and an urge to monitor a situation and take corrective action if needed. Influence motive is characterized by a concern for making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right and an urge to change things and develop people. Extension motive is characterized by a concern for others, an interest in superordinate goals, and a desire to be relevant and useful to larger groups, including society as a whole. The urge to control others is called personalized power, and the desire to make an impact and use of power for the benefit of other persons and the group is called socialized power.

2.8.5 Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory was put forward by **Victor Vroom** in the year 1964. Vroom's theory on outcomes, and not on needs unlike Maslow and Herzberg. The theory argues that the intensity of a tendency to perform in a particular manner is dependent on the intensity of an expectation and the

performance will be followed by a definite outcome and on the appeal of the outcome to the individual.

The **Expectancy theory** states that employee's motivation is an outcome of how much an individual wants a reward (Valence), the assessment that the likelihood that the effort will lead to expected performance (Expectancy) and the belief that the performance will lead to reward (Instrumentality). In short, **Valence** is the significance associated by an individual about the expected outcome. Valence is high if the executive desperately wants to be promoted. It is an expected and not the actual satisfaction that an employee expects to receive after achieving the goals. **Expectancy** is the faith that better efforts will result in better performance. For example, if an executive feels that there are very good chances that by working hard he will be able to sell more, expectancy is said to be high. Expectancy is influenced by factors such as possession of appropriate skills for performing the job, availability of right resources, availability of crucial information and getting the required support for completing the job.

Instrumentality is the faith that if you perform well, then a valid outcome will be there. Instrumentality is affected by factors such as believe in the people who decide who receives what outcome, the simplicity of the process deciding who gets what outcome, and clarity of relationship between performance and outcomes. In the above example the executive will sell more if he works hard, and if he sells more, he will get a promotion. Instrumentality is high if the chance of promotion is high on selling more.

Work motivation is the result of a combination of high expectancy, high instrumentality, and high attractiveness. The relationship between these

three factors is multiplicative, i.e., motivation is zero if any of these factors is missing. It also means that increase in these factors dramatically increases the level of motivation.

The expectancy theory focuses on the following three relationships:[7]

- Effort-performance relationship[8]
- Performance-reward relationship

Rewards-personal goals relationship: Vroom states that employees intentionally decide whether to perform or not at the job. This decision exclusively depended on the employee's motivation level which in turn depends on three factors of expectancy, valence and instrumentality.

2.8.6 Cognitive Evaluation Theory

According to this theory, there are two types of people intrinsically motivated and extrinsically motivated. Intrinsically motivated people perform for their own achievement and satisfaction and are motivated by intrinsic motivating factors like the intrinsic interest of work, nature of the job, responsibility, competence and actual performance. They begin to lose their motivation if they perceive that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some extrinsic rewards. Extrinsic factors come from the person's environment and are controlled by others. Cognitive evaluation theory also postulates that the presence of powerful extrinsic motivators can actually reduce a person's intrinsic motivation, particularly if the person perceives that the extrinsic motivators are controlled by others.

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[7] https://www.managementstudyguide.com/expectancy-theory-motivation.htm

[8] https://www.managementstudyguide.com/expectancy-theory-motivation.htm

2.8.7 Adam'Equity Theory

John Stacey Adams put forward his Equity Theory on job motivation in the year 1963. According to this theory subtle and variable factors affect employee's assessment and perception of their relationship with their work and employers. It postulates that the motivation is the function of perceived equity of one's reward with other's reward of the same effort. People assess the equity or fairness of the outcome. Equity is a person's belief that he is being treated fairly relative to his efforts and relative to the treatment of others. It means that managers should try to find a fair balance between the efforts that an employee makes and the rewards he receives. An employee feels satisfied and motivated when he perceives effort and reward to be in balance.

2.8.8 The Porter Lawler Theory of Motivation

Porter and Lawler further refined the Vroom's expectancy/valence theory. Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler came up with an inclusive theory of motivation i.e. they integrated both content and process theories into one interactive model combining the various aspects. Porter and Lawler's model is a total model of motivation. In the Porter and Lawler model they consider performance as a whole. This is a multivariate model which focuses on the relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance. Their model is based on four basic assumptions about human behaviour[9]:

a) Individual behavior is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment.

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[9] http://academlib.com/2845/management/porter_lawler_model_motivation

b) Individuals are assumed to be rational human beings who make conscious decisions about their behavior in the organizations.

c) Individuals have different needs, desires and goals.

d) On the basis of their expectations, individuals decide between alternative behaviors and such decided behavior will read to a desired outcome.

They argued that effort expended does not directly lead to performance. It can be mediated by individual abilities and traits, and by the person's role perceptions.
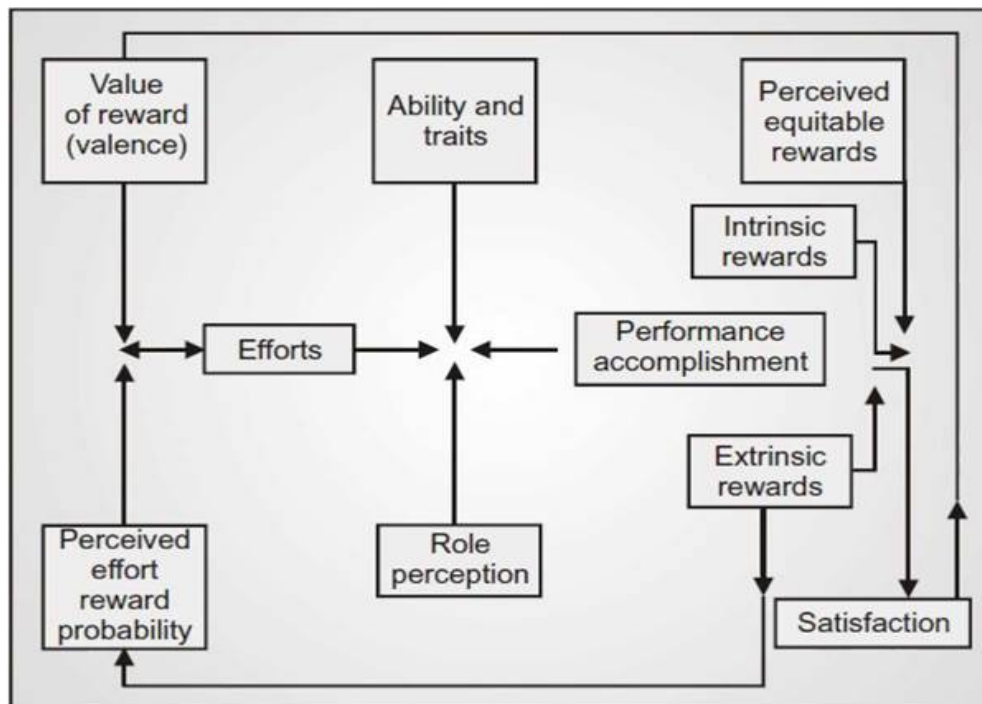
Source: http://academlib.com/2845/management/porter_lawler_model_motivation

Figure 2.8: Porter Lawler model of motivation

They also pointed out that individual behaviour is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment. They considered rewards as an intervening variable. In this theory of motivation they see motivation, satisfaction and performance as separate variables. Their model recognises that job satisfaction is more dependent upon performance, than performance is upon satisfaction.

The Various Elements of Porter and Lawler Model are Effort, Performance and Satisfaction.

Effort: Effort refers to the amount of energy an employee exerts on a given task. The effort is determined by two factors: (i) value of reward and (ii) perception of effort-reward probability.

Performance: effort leads to his/her performance. Nevertheless, the amount of performance is decided by the amount of labour and the ability and role perception of the employee. Thus, if an employee possesses less ability and/or makes wrong role perception, his/her performance may be low in spite of his great efforts[10].

Satisfaction: Performance leads to satisfaction. The level of satisfaction depends upon the amount of rewards achieved. If the amount of actual rewards meet or exceed perceived equitable rewards, the employee will feel satisfied[11]. In contrast, if actual rewards fall short of perceived ones, he/she will be dissatisfied.

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[10] http://academlib.com/2845/management/porter_lawler_model_motivation

[11] http://academlib.com/2845/management/porter_lawler_model_motivation

Rewards –can be intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Examples of intrinsic rewards are such as a sense of accomplishment and self-actualization. Extrinsic rewards may include working conditions and status.

Porter and Lawler view satisfaction as deficiency measure. Satisfaction is determined by the difference between actual rewards and perceived equitable rewards. They argued that if actual rewards exceed perceived rewards, then the result is satisfaction and if not then dissatisfaction occurs. The degree to which a person is either satisfied or dissatisfied depends on the size of the difference between the actual and perceived equitable rewards. By including internal motivation in the form of intrinsic rewards and external motivation as extrinsic rewards, the Porter and Lawler model implies that both the individual worker and the organization are responsible for motivation. Therefore, an employee's motivation or satisfaction is depended on his/her performance and it is affected by the value he places on rewards, the possibility that effort will result in rewards, his/her effort, his/her abilities and traits and his/her role perceptions.

2.8.9 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Many of the older motivational theories focus on two aspects of motivation i.e. the energy and the direction. *Energy* in motivation theory is basically a matter of needs (E L Deci & Ryan, 1985). So an adequate theory of motivation should take into account both the needs that are innate to the organism and those that are acquired through interactions with the environment (E L Deci & Ryan, 1985). *The direction* in motivation theory concerns the processes and structures of the organism that give meaning to internal and external stimuli, thereby directing action toward the satisfaction

of needs (E L Deci & Ryan, 1985). The study of motivation was required to understand why such behaviours by the human beings. But the previous theories were unable to answer that adequately. For this reason Deci & Ryan (1985) put forward a new theory which explains the motivation behind the human behaviours. They named the new theory as self-determination theory (SDT).

The major objective of the motivation research is to understand what moves people to act, think and develop. Until the emergence of the self-determination theory the focus on motivation research revolved on the conditions and processes that facilitated persistence, performance, development, and liveliness in human behaviour. Though motivational processes can be studied from the physiological perspective, it will not be complete. The difference in human motivation is because of the difference in the socio-cultural conditions that individuals participate. These social conditions and processes influence not only what people do but also how they feel while acting and as a consequence of acting (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2008). Most of the motivational theories that the researcher so far reviewed focused more on the effects of social environments which include the rewards, incentives to help others understand what makes an individual to effectively function at work. It is also considered as practical. . Previous theories treated motivation as a unitary concept that varies primarily in amount. They assumed that more the motivation greater the achievement and more the successful functioning. SDT on the contrary has maintained that there are different types of motivation—specifically, autonomous and controlled motivation and that the type of motivation is generally more important than the amount in predicting life's important outcomes

(Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2008). Autonomous motivation involves behaving with a full sense of volition and choice, whereas controlled motivation involves behaving with the experience of pressure and demand toward specific outcomes that comes from forces perceived to be external to the self.

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation and personality concerning people's inherent growth tendencies and their innate psychological needs (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2002). This theory focuses on the motivation behind the choices that people make without any external influence and interference. SDT primarily focuses on the degree to which an individual's behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined. Self-determination theory (SDT) is based on the theory of human motivation, development, and wellness. This theory focuses on types, rather than just the amount of motivation, paying particular attention to autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and motivation as predictor of performance, relational, and well-being outcomes. It also addresses the social conditions that enhance or diminish these types of motivation, proposing and finding that the degrees to which basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are supported or thwarted affect both the type and strength of motivation (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2008). This theory also examines people's life goals or aspirations, showing differential relations of intrinsic versus extrinsic life goals to performance and psychological health.

Self-determination theory assumes that all individuals have a natural tendency towards developing the self and identifying specifiable factors that both support and obstruct intrinsic motivation. Self-determination theory proposes that a person's intrinsic motivation is driven by three psychological

needs, which are autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy refers to a person's need for independence and the belief that they are in control of actions. The idea of competence is when a person likes that they are good at the activity in question. Relatedness addresses the need that a person wants what they are doing to be connected with their own goals or that it connects them to other people.

One of the major assumptions of SDT is that people are by nature active and self-motivated, curious and interested, vital and eager to succeed because success itself is personally satisfying and rewarding. It also states that people can also be alienated and mechanized, or passive and disaffected which is the opposite of motivated state. The theory SDT accounts for these differences in terms of the types of motivation.

Self-determination theory is different from the other basic motivational need theories such as McClelland Needs for Achievement theory and Maslow's Needs Hierarchy, which states that people are driven to engage in activities in order to fulfil certain needs. SDT states that humans have basic psychological needs that, when fulfilled, enable them to reach some other goal. The theory states that the fulfilment of needs is the means, not the end.

2.8.9.1 The Development of SDT

It is important to understand the basis of SDT in order to understand the make-up of the theory. SDT embraces both an organismic and a dialectical framework for the study of personality growth and development. From the organismic point of view, SDT conceives humans as active, growth-oriented organisms that innately seek and engage challenges in their environments attempting to actualize their potentials, capacities, and

sensibilities. But this only constitutes one side of the dialectical interface, the other side is the social environment that facilitates or hinders the individuals.

SDT has evolved over the past three decades in the form of mini-theories, each of which relates to the specific phenomenon (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2002). The mini-theories are linked in that they share organismic and dialectical assumptions and all involve that concept of basic psychological needs. When coordinated , they cover all types of human behaviour in all domains (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, 2002).

SDT was the outcome of Edward L. Deci research on the exploring the interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards after the work of Porter and Lawler. Porter and Lawler proposed that the work environment should be structured to encourage both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which, added together, encourage optimal motivation and job satisfaction. Contrary to this, Deci's research found that extrinsic rewards can interact negatively with intrinsic motivation, which Deci defined as the most natural and desirable motivational state because it leads to optimal functioning. Edward L. Deci called this theory as Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci, 1975).

2.8.9.2 Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)

CET was used, to specify the factors in social contexts that produce variability in intrinsic motivation. CET, argues that interpersonal events and structures (e.g., rewards, communications, feedback) that boost the *feelings of competence* during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action because they allow satisfaction of the basic psychological need for competence (R. Ryan & Deci, 2000). CET focuses on two fundamental needs i.e. perceived competence and autonomy which are improved or reduced based on

environmental and social factors. The research shows that perceived competence accompanied by feelings of autonomy has a positive impact on intrinsic motivation. CET also specifies that feelings of competence will *not* enhance intrinsic motivation unless they are accompanied by *a sense of autonomy* (R. Ryan & Deci, 2000). Hence, people must not only experience perceived competence (or self-efficacy), they must also experience their behaviour to be self-determined if intrinsic motivation is to be sustained or improved. In other words, for a high level of intrinsic motivation people must experience the satisfaction of the needs both for competence and autonomy.

CET has put forward three major propositions. The first one is that environment and social context leads to a feeling of competence which has a positive effect on intrinsic motivation. The second is that intrinsic motivation is positively impacted when people feel competent and autonomous or self-determined. And the last one is that when people engage in activities for internal rather than external reasons will show a positive effect on intrinsic motivation

The theory emphasizes that there are two processes by which extrinsic rewards can affect intrinsic motivation. The first process is by changing the perceived locus of causality and the second is by changing one's feelings of competence and self-determination (E. Deci, Cascio, & Kurusell, 1975). When a person has intrinsically motivated the locus of causality is within him. When the external reward is introduced the individual starts to perceive that he is doing the activity for the external rewards, so the locus of causality changes from within to the external rewards which reduce the intrinsic motivation. The theory also predicts that expected rewards reduce intrinsic motivation than the unexpected rewards (E. Deci et al., 1975).

2.8.9.3 Organismic Integration Theory (OIT)

OIT deals with the topic of extrinsic motivation in its various forms, with their properties, determinants, and consequences (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.). It is concerned with extrinsic motivation and social contextual factors that lead to internalization (Lloyd, 2008). OIT was formulated to help explain the dynamics of behaviours that are extrinsically motivated and the degree to which individuals might internalize and autonomously experience and regulate these behaviours (Lloyd, 2008). Broadly speaking extrinsic motivation is behaviour that is instrumental. There are distinct forms of instrumentality, which include external regulation, introjection, identification, and integration. These types of extrinsic motivation are called as *internalization* (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.). OIT argues that extrinsically motivated behaviours have various regulatory styles and that these regulatory styles are developmental outcomes. These styles have been used by researchers as individual differences in predicting well-being and performance (Lloyd, 2008). The more internalized the extrinsic motivation the more autonomous the person will be when enacting the behaviours. OIT is further concerned with social contexts that enhance or forestall internalization —that is, with what conduces toward people either resisting, partially adopting, or deeply internalizing values, goals, or belief systems (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.). OIT particularly highlights the support for autonomy and relatedness as critical to internalization.

2.8.9.4 Causality Orientations Theory (COT)

COT describes individual differences in people's tendencies to orient toward environments and regulate behaviour in various ways (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.). In other words, COT examines different

tendencies that people have as they orient to the social environment, resulting in individual differences. By examining a person's enduring orientations, causality orientations theory allows for the prediction of behaviour and experience (Lloyd, 2008). COT describes and assesses three types of causality orientations: the autonomy orientation in which persons act out of interest in and valuing of what is occurring; the control orientation in which the focus is on rewards, gains, and approval; and the impersonal or amotivated orientation characterized by anxiety concerning competence (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.).

2.8.9.5 Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT)

This mini theory is new to SDT. It elaborates the concept of evolved psychological needs and their relations to psychological health and well-being. Even though the emphasis on basic psychological needs was an important element in SDT's mini-theories, its role was often implicit. Hence basic needs theory was established to clarify the conceptual meaning and to provide details regarding the dynamic relation between basic needs and well-being or mental health (Lloyd, 2008). This theory argues that psychological well-being and optimal functioning is predicated on autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Hence, contexts that support versus preventing these needs should invariantly impact wellness. The theory suggests that all three needs are essential and that if anyone is let down there will be distinct functional costs (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.).

2.8.9.6 Goal Contents Theory (GCT)

The Goal Contents Theory (GCT) distinguishes between basic needs for satisfaction and well-being in terms of extrinsic and intrinsic goals

(Ryan & Deci, 2000). Goals are seen as differentially managed basic need satisfactions and are thus differentially associated with well-being (R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2002). Extrinsic goals focus more on wealth and reputation whereas intrinsic goals concentrate on the feeling of community, close relationships and personal growth[12]. Extrinsic goals such as financial success, appearance, and popularity/fame have been specifically contrasted with intrinsic goals such as community, close relationships, and personal growth, with the former more likely associated with lower wellness and greater ill-being (Edward L. Deci & Ryan, n.d.). These goals foster autonomy, competence, and relatedness, three of the fundamental needs of individuals. Consequently, these goals seem enjoyable, challenging, fulfilling, and important, sometimes called intrinsic motivation. These motivations tend to enhance persistence and improve wellbeing[13].

In contrast, some goals that individuals pursue seem to be extrinsic; these goals often hinder autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Subsequently, these extrinsic goals damage wellbeing and learning. Intrinsic goals, though related to intrinsic or autonomous motivation, are nevertheless different. Intrinsic goals are related to wellbeing even after the reasons or motives to pursue these goals- and thus intrinsic or autonomous motivation-are controlled[14].

2.8.9.7 Relationships Motivation Theory (RMT)

Relatedness, which has to do with the development and maintenance of close personal relationships such as best friends and romantic partners as

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[12] https://lefeza.wordpress.com/2013/12/16/goal-contents-theory-in-sdt/

[13] http://www.psych-it.com.au/Psychlopedia/article.asp?id=441

[14] http://www.psych-it.com.au/Psychlopedia/article.asp?id=441

well as belonging to groups, is one of the three basic psychological needs. ***Relationships Motivation Theory (RMT),*** *the sixth mini-theory,* is concerned with these and other relationships and put forward that some amount of such interactions is not only desirable for most people but is, in fact, necessary for their adjustment and well-being because the relationships provide the satisfaction of the need for relatedness. Nevertheless, research shows that not only is the relatedness need satisfied in high-quality relationships, but the autonomy need and to a lesser degree the competence need are also satisfied. Undeniably, the highest quality personal relationships are ones in which each partner supports the autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs of the other[15].

2.8.9.8 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation refers to behaviour that is driven by internal rewards. In other words, the motivation to engage in behaviour arises from within the individual because it is intrinsically rewarding. Whereas extrinsic motivation involves engaging in behaviour in order to earn external rewards or avoid punishments[16]. SDT differentiates between the types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The most basic distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is that the former refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting and the latter refers to doing something because it leads to the separable outcome (R. Ryan & Deci, 2000).

"Intrinsic motivation is defined as being the execution of a task or activity because of the inherent satisfaction arising from it rather than due to

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[15] http://www.selfdeterminationtheory.org/theory/

[16] http://psychology.about.com/od/motivation/f/intrinsic-motivation.htm

some separate outcome. Intrinsic motivation reflects the natural propensity of people toward learning and assimilation" (Matei Mirabela & Abrudan, 2011). Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. No external rewards are necessary to stimulate the intrinsically motivated person into action. The reward is the behaviour itself[17]. In spite of this, theorists Deci and Ryan have shown that this tendency appears to be expressed *only under specifiable conditions.*

In the contrast, *"extrinsic motivation* occurs whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome". Deci and Ryan argue that extrinsic rewards can decrease the intrinsic motivation. Rewards related to the completion of a task, threats, deadlines and directives undermine intrinsic motivation because individuals perceive them as behaviour control techniques (R. Ryan & Deci, 2000). Conversely, free choice and the opportunity for self-direction can increase intrinsic motivation because of the sense of autonomy linked to them. However, even extrinsic motivation can have a certain amount of autonomy (Matei Mirabela & Abrudan, 2011). The degree of autonomy varies in extrinsic motivation and it can be a reflection of either external control or true self-regulation. The base assumption of the theory is that extrinsic motivation reduces the intrinsic motivation, e.g. by reducing the autonomy or the perceived competence of an individual (Marinucci, 2014).

Intrinsically motivated behaviour which is driven by people's interest in the activity itself is usually autonomous. Nevertheless, an important

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[17] https://www.msu.edu/~dwong/StudentWorkArchive/CEP900F01-RIP/Webber-IntrinsicMotivation.htm

aspect of SDT is the suggestion that extrinsic motivation can vary in the degree to which it is autonomous versus controlled (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Activities that are not intrinsically motivating require extrinsic motivation, so their initial performance depends on upon the perception of a possibility between the behaviour and the desired consequence such as implicit approval or tangible rewards. According to SDT theory, when a behaviour is so motivated it is said to be externally regulated—that is, instigated and maintained by contingencies external to the person. This is the classic type of extrinsic motivation and is an example of controlled motivation. When externally regulated, people act with the intention of obtaining a desired consequence or avoiding an undesired one, so they are energized into action only when the action is instrumental to those ends (Gagné & Deci, 2005). External regulation is the type of extrinsic motivation that was considered when extrinsic motivation was contrasted with intrinsic motivation.

Based on the degree to which the value and regulation of an externally requested task or behaviour has been internalized, Deci & Ryan in their the Self-Determination Theory is able to describe in its Organismic Integration sub-theory part six different stages of motivation such as Amotivation, External regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation. Each of them describes a state with an increasing portion of self-motivation and decreasing external regulation.

Other than amotivation, all other types of extrinsic motivation result when a behavioural regulation and the value associated with it have been internalized. "Internalization is defined as people taking in values, attitudes, or regulatory structures, such that the external regulation of a behaviour is transformed into an internal regulation and thus no longer requires the presence

of an external contingency" (Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT propose a controlled-to-autonomous continuum to describe the degree to which an external regulation has been internalized. The more fully it has been internalized, the more autonomous will be the subsequent, extrinsically motivated behaviour. According to SDT, internalization is an overarching term that refers to three different processes: introjection, identification, and integration.

Amotivation	Extrinsic motivation				Intrinsic motivation
	External regulation	Introjected regulation	Indentified regulation	Integrated regulation	
Absence of intentional regulation	Contingencies of reward and punishment	Self-worth contingent on performance ego-involvement	Importance of goals, values and regulations to the individual	Coherence of goals, values and regulations within the individual	Interest and enjoyment of the task
Lack of motivation	Controlled motivation	Moderately controlled motivation	Moderately autonomous motivation	Autonomous motivation	Inherently autonomous motivation

Sources: (Sisley & Smollan, 2012)

Figure 2.9: Different types of motivation according to SDT

2.8.9.9 Amotivation

In addition to the two types of motivation mentioned by Deci and Ryan, they also introduced a third type of variable called Amotivation. Amotivation is defined as the single state, which holds the state of non-regulation. Neither an external nor an internal source is motivating the individual to do something. Individuals are amotivated when they do not perceive possibilities between outcomes and their own actions (Vallerand et al., 1992). They are neither intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Amotivated individuals do not perceive contingencies between their actions and the outcomes of their actions. They experience feelings of incompetence and lack of control (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

2.8.9.10 External Regulation

External regulation is divided into four types they are:

Introjected Regulation

Introjected regulation is motivation from an internalized, pressuring voice. To put it simple introjected regulation is acting to avoid feeling guilty, or to obtain contingent self-worth. "A regulation that has been taken in by the person but has not been accepted as his or her own is said to be introjected and provides the basis for introjected regulation. With this type of regulation, it is as if the regulation were controlling the person. Examples of introjected regulation include contingent self-esteem, which pressures people to behave in order to feel worthy, and ego involvement, which pressures people to behave in order to buttress their fragile egos" (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Introjected regulation is particularly interesting because the regulation is within the person but is a relatively controlled form of internalized extrinsic motivation. "This kind of regulation can include ego concerns and contingent self-esteem, where a person behaves in a given way in order to feel that he is a 'good' person" (Sisley & Smollan, 2012). With introjected regulation, the individual begins to internalize the reason for his or her actions. The source of motivation for behaviour is guilt, worry or shame. Introjected regulation inspires an individual to enact behaviour not because he wants to, but because he fears not to out of a sense of obligation. An example could be , athletes who participate in sports because they feel pressure to be in good shape for aesthetic reasons, and feel embarrassed or ashamed when they are not in best form, represent an example of introjected regulation (Pelletier et al., 1995). When submitting to this form of motivation, it's difficult for individuals to feel positive and confident about their actions.

Identified Regulation

Identified regulation is acting as one feels it is personally important. If a person has personally identified with the importance of behaviour and accepted it as a regulation of his/her own because it benefits his/her in achieving a goal, he/she is motivated by identified regulation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Through identified regulation, people feel greater freedom and volition because the behaviour is more congruent with their personal goals and identities (Gagné & Deci, 2005). With this form of motivation, the individual doesn't have to find enjoyment in the behaviour, and there doesn't have to be an immediate reward. The person also isn't motivated by guilt or shame. She simply recognizes that behaviour is beneficial towards her development and adopts that behaviour as her own. An example of identification is the case of nurses, If nurses strongly value their patients' comfort and health and understand the importance of doing their share of the unpleasant tasks for the patients' well-being, the nurses would feel relatively autonomous while performing such tasks (e.g., bathing patients), even though the activities are not intrinsically interesting (Sisley & Smollan, 2012).

Integrated Regulation

Through integrated regulation, individuals have a full sense that the behaviour is an essential part of which they are that it stems from their sense of self and is thus self-determined. For example, if the nurses would not only identify with the importance of the activities of maintaining their patients' comfort and health, but regulation of the activities would be integrated with other aspects of their jobs and lives. As a result, the job of nurse would be more central to their identity, they would be more likely to act in ways that are consistent with caring for people more generally, and they could come to

appreciate the importance of doing uninteresting activities (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Integrated regulation is put forward to represent the most developmentally advanced form of extrinsic motivation, and it shares some qualities with the other type of autonomous motivation, namely, intrinsic motivation. The integrated regulation does not, however, become intrinsic motivation but is still considered extrinsic motivation because the motivation is characterized not by the person being interested in the activity but rather by the activity being instrumentally important for personal goals (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In a nutshell, intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation are the two different types of autonomous motivation.

2.8.10 EL and Self-Determination Theory

(Sisley & Smollan, 2012) was the first researchers who stated that there is an association between emotional labour and self-determination continuum. Several studies (R. E. Sutton, 2004; R. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) shows that performing emotional labour is determined by specific motives related to professional efficacy and identity, while other authors suggest that the motives underlying emotional labour are related to professional norms and scripts (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006) (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). But none of these authors clearly state the motivational basis of teachers' emotional labour (Truta, 2014).

The table below shows how an employee might explain his or her reasoning for acts of expressing the 'right' emotion or suppressing the 'wrong' emotion.

(Sisley & Smollan, 2012) propositioned that *when employees express or suppress emotions appropriately because of an expected reward*

or punishment they are motivated by external regulation. And when employees express or suppress emotions appropriately because someone else expects it and/or they feel their self-worth is contingent on doing so, they are motivated by introjected regulation.

Table 2.1: Relationship between types of motivation and emotional labour

	External Regulation	**Introjected Regulation**	**Identified Regulation**	**Integrated Regulation**	**Intrinsic Regulation**
	Contingencies of reward and punishment	Self-worth contingent on performance; ego-involvement	Importance of goals, values and regulations	Coherence of goals, values and regulations	Interest and enjoyment of the task
Surface acting	*I pretend to care because of rewards or punishment.*	*I try to act as if I care because I will feel good if I act professionally*			
Deep acting			*I try hard to care because I believe it is important to care about clients in this situation and to treat them well.*	*I try hard to care because I deeply believe in the value of caring for others. It is important that the clients feel they have been treated appropriately.*	
Genuine emotional expression				*I show positive emotions when looking after clients because I genuinely care about them (Even when the actual tasks are uninteresting or unpleasant).*	*I enjoy looking after clients and I am happy to show it.*
	Controlled motivation	**Moderately controlled motivation**	**Moderately autonomous motivation**	**Autonomous motivation**	**Inherently autonomous motivation**

Source: (Sisley & Smollan, 2012)

2. 9 Teacher Work Outcomes

After reviewing the literature the researcher identified three major teacher outcomes that affect the strategies of emotional labour and work motivation. The three major teacher work outcomes are job involvement, personal accomplishment and teaching satisfaction.

2.9.1 Teaching Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the important factors that have drawn the attention of managers in the organization as well as academicians. There is always a difficulty in establishing a relationship between Job satisfaction and job performance. Even then, the job outcome is measured using the concept job satisfaction. It is also said that job satisfaction is the natural output of work situation and it is not considered as an input to increased efficiency. Various studies have been conducted to find out the factors which determine job satisfaction and the way it influences productivity in the organization. Though there is no conclusive evidence that job satisfaction affects productivity directly because productivity depends on so many other variables. Thus job satisfaction can be considered as the mental feeling. Job satisfaction can mean different things to different people, it is normally considered as a complicated concept (L. J. Mullins, 2005). Many researchers have proposed a relationship between job satisfaction and motivation but the nature of its relationship is not very clear. Even then we can say that satisfaction and motivation are not same (L. Mullins, 2004).

"Job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state. It could, for example, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative. It is often suggested that job satisfaction is

necessary in order to achieve a high level of motivation and performance"
(L. J. Mullins, 2005) .

(Kinman et al., 2011) found in their study that teachers who perform
more emotional labour tend to experience lower levels of job satisfaction.

2.9.2 Job Involvement

"Durkheim (1893), an eminent sociologist introduced the concept of
job involvement in the research literature and emphasized the significance
of job involvement in industrial set up, since then the social science
researchers became aware of it but concept gained much popularity and
attracted the attention of psychologists and management scientists from the
research work of Lodhal and Kejner (1965) who gave the conceptual
explanation of job involvement in a concrete and objective manner" (Allam
& Habtemariam, 2009).

Job involvement is "the degree to which a person's work performance
affects his self-esteem" (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). They also suggested that
those employees who are highly concerned with their jobs also show high
involvement in their organizations. (Kanungo, 1982) identified different
descriptions of job involvement while studying the relationship of job
involvement to numerous variables, including job characteristics,
performance, turnover, and absenteeism. (Lawler & Hall, 1970) defined job
involvement as "the level of importance of one's job to one's personality".
This definition is consistent with that of (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965).
Conversely, (Bass, 1965)considered job involvement as "the level to which
an individual is vigorously participating in his or her job". (Blau & Boal,
1987) stated that job involvement "is the measure of the extent to which a

person recognizes psychologically with his or her job and mull over his or her job".

(J. Richard Hackman & Lawler, 1971)argued that the degree of Job-involvement experienced by employees can be influenced by their self-respect and performance which means; when employees recognize that their job performance can aid satisfying their need for self-respect and can be improved through their efforts, they expend more energy at work. As a result, Job involvement is the main factor contributing to self-growth and satisfaction and an essential factor for self-encouragement and goal orientation.

"Teaching is tiring in an invisible way" (Fu, 2015). Lord and Harvey (2002) suggested that when employees' job involvement is high, they may reappraise or redefine their work. The emotional loads that teachers bear may change according to their personal adjustments. This change can, in turn, influence their job involvement (R. T. Lee & Ashforth, 1996) Emotional labour can lead to emotional exhaustion, followed by job burnout and low job involvement (Grandey, 2000). In the study (Fu, 2015) done on preschool teachers, the authors found that teachers engage in a high level of emotional labour and also their job involvement was also high.

It is always believed that job involvement leads to satisfaction in the job. Over the years there were studies conducted to find out the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. These studies always gave mixed results in the sense most of the studies showed a significant positive relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction (Khan & Nemati, 2011). But some other studies reported that there is no significant relationship

between job involvement and job satisfaction (Gholam-esfahani & Tamini, 2015; Knoop, 1995).

The finding of various studies suggests that involvement does not necessarily lead to satisfaction. The reason could be because of the nature of the work. One reason is because employees may become surrounded and drawn into work that is difficult, troublesome, or dangerous, leading to a discharge of responsibilities rather than satisfaction (Knoop, 1995). Another reason could be the work may be perceived as repetitive and routine, lacking in variety or significance (J R Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In both cases, the nature of the work may still demand involvement but may not lead to satisfaction (Knoop, 1995)

2.9.3 Personal Accomplishment

The words "accomplishment" and "achievement" are often nostalgic, as people look back at their lives or the immediate past at something already concluded[18]. (Seligman, 2012) suggests that "accomplishment is something that people seek even in the absence of other aspects of the full life, such as positive emotion, engagement, and meaning". Accomplishment is strongly linked to goal pursuit. Possibly goal pursuit, accomplishment, and meaning can form a continuum. It was suggested that self-esteem and accomplishment are linked together.[19] Psychological studies have suggested that accomplishment and satisfaction are strongly related.

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[18] http://positivepsychologynews.com/image-maps/accomplishment

[19] https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/the-fallible-mind/201201/the-key-self-esteem-accomplishment

"Personal accomplishment measures feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The personal accomplishment was taken from Maslach burnout inventory designed to measure the burnout. The subscale measures the feeling of one's own competence success in one's own work. In their study, they have clearly mentioned that scores of the three subscales i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment have to be taken separately and cannot be combined as the single total score. This means that each subscale in the burnout scale is independent and can independently be taken as separate variables.

Studies have shown that associations between emotional labour and feelings of personal accomplishment could be ambiguous. (Grandey, 2000) mentioned that by attempting to manage an emotionally demanding job over time might erode feelings of personal accomplishment and increase negativity towards the self and the job. (Zapf et al., 2001) argued that emotion display and sensitivity requirements can in an individual occur due to the feeling of personal accomplishment.

Numerous studies have found a negative association between sustained emotional labour and personal accomplishment that could be explained by increased feelings of negativity about the self and the job that are engendered by emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (Pugliesi, 1999; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). (Zapf et al., 1999). But studies haven't checked the combined effect of strategies of emotional labour on job involvement, personal accomplishment and teaching satisfaction.

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Chapter **3**

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Statement of the Problem

Emotions give life much of its length and depth. The purpose of the study is to understand motivation to use the specific emotional labour strategies by the teachers of professional colleges to achieve specific work outcomes. From the review of literature it is clear that the research on emotional labour of teachers in professional colleges is sparse. And among the very few studies most studies focused on the relationship to emotional labor and teacher burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002); (Kruml & Geddes, 2000); (Brown, 2011). Moreover, these studies are more of qualitative in nature.

In Kerala, there are 239 engineering and 88 management colleges are present in the year 2013 according to the AICTE website. There is 63% increase in the number of institutions right from 2006. Most of these colleges are in the private sector. The increase in the number of colleges shows that competition is very high in this sector. The county's pace of social development is highly related to the quality of higher education. According to the UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education the three pillars of quality higher education is research, teaching and student services. From this it is clear that quality of the faculty is a critical factor in the higher education system. It is equally applicable in the teachers of professional colleges. With the increased number of institutions and the boomer generations retiring the need for new recruits increased. These factors led to institutions taking young graduates without any experience and training into the teaching field. These days much of the attention has been given to learner center strategies undermining the importance of the faculty's role. Teachers are central to enhancing quality and student engagement in professional colleges. Only a creative mind can bring out the potential of a student. It is apparent that the faculty members' emotional management is a must for improving their educational performance and in dealing with the student's emotions and motivating them in achieving the learning outcomes.

The current study tries to view emotional labor of teachers from the perspective of positive psychology. "Positive Psychology is the scientific study of the strengths and virtues that enable individuals and communities to thrive"[1]. The study tries to find out the relationship of strategies of emotional labour on work outcomes namely personal accomplishment, job

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[1] http://www.positivepsychology.org/

involvement and teaching satisfaction and what motivates teachers to select the specific strategies of emotional labour.

3.2 Significance of the Study

Emotions are key feature of being human. Decades ago the workplace is considered as a rational environment and there is no place for emotions. But later researchers and practitioners realized that emotions are important resources of the individual for achieving personal efficacy and organizational efficacy. From that point onwards the research on emotions took a kick off. Academics as a group have traditionally concentrated on studying other occupational groups and neglected their own labour process. Although Hochschild has mentioned that professors perform emotional labour, to date this academic labour process is underexplored and hence this study. In the recent decades educational reforms all over the world tend to transform the educational setting to be a service like industry. In such a context teachers are similar to service workers who have to respond to the demands and needs of the educational consumers. And with this commercialization of education brings in more emphasis on the standardization and control in professional colleges.

Another reason for this study is that emotions have a significant impact on the learning process. As a teacher it is his/her duty to provide a positive, emotionally safe classroom environment to promote learning for the students. Teaching is a profession that involves regular interaction with the students. Good teachers are those who connect with their students, passionate and fill their class with pleasure, creativity, challenge and joy. Just knowing the subject will not help the teacher to be effective in teaching.

It involves significant emotional understanding and emotional labour. In this technological revolution the distinction between public life and private life of teachers has become blurred, thereby creating new avenues for interaction between teachers and students.

Teachers help student's intellectual and emotional maturity. They motivate and stimulate interest student for fruitful learning, in short they nurture young minds. The relationship between the teachers and students are very important in effective learning. In teaching, the faculty members combine their personal emotion and professional identity in their classrooms. The effect of personal emotion is very strong to the development of effective teaching. The faculty members who value the emotional dimension can make the good student- faculty interaction, and it is very important for the outcome of student learning. When it comes to the performance of the teacher, emotional dimension is an important criterion. Students' differentiate between the favorite teacher and not so favorite teacher based on the emotional dimension. Most of the student evaluations are based on the emotional dimension of teaching. Seldom do students don't evaluate a teacher based on the technique of teaching or on content knowledge. What differentiates a normal teacher from an exemplary teacher is the emotional dimension in teaching. In short understanding emotional management practice of teachers is very crucial in terms of improving the quality of education for faculty development and student learning and their life.

Despite skills involved in effective teaching, most universities and colleges do not offer the training before teaching; teachers rely on their natural abilities to teach. Professors who improve their teaching tend to do so through trial and error method. Feedback from the students is also used.

This process will take some time and students will not get the full benefits. Teaching early adult learners need specific skill on the part of teachers because there is significant difference between the andragogy and pedagogy. Early adult learners go through significant stress in developing their careers and their personal life, and as a teacher one should understand this emotional turmoil and channelize these emotions in right direction so that students can achieve their career goals.

With research determining that teaching encompasses more than an instructional focus, understanding the emotional component of teaching becomes paramount, especially in regards to teacher-student relationship. As a beginning, how emotions alter teacher-student interactions is examined. There must first be an understanding of teachers' emotion. It is currently difficult to find an empirical study that integrates emotional labour and work outcomes. This study can provide foundational knowledge for further research on this topic. The emotion management of the teachers may be best studied by understanding the emotional labour of teachers. Till now researchers are focusing on the antecedents and outcomes of emotional labour. Researchers haven't studied relationship among motivation of the teachers, emotional labor and work outcomes. Therefore the current study will focus on how emotional labor relates to work motivation and emotional labor influences work outcomes of teaching.

3.3 Variables

The variables in this study encompass independent variable and dependent variable and their definitions are listed below. In certain cases, available published standardized tests are used to operationally measure the

constructs after verifying the reliability by pre-testing, the relevant statistics is provided in the later chapters.

3.3.1 Dependent Variable

A variable is an object, event, idea, feeling, time period, or any other type of category you are trying to measure. There are two types of variables- independent and dependent. An independent variable is exactly what it sounds like. It is a variable that stands alone and isn't changed by the other variables you are trying to measure. A dependent variable is what you measure in the study and what is affected during the study. The dependent variable responds to the independent variable. It is called dependent because it "depends" on the independent variable. In a scientific experiment, researcher cannot have a dependent variable without an independent variable For example; someone's age might be an independent variable. In fact, when you are looking for some kind of relationship between variables you are trying to see if the independent variable causes some kind of change in the other variables, or dependent variables.

3.3.2 Work Outcomes

The dependent variable in this study is teacher work outcomes of teachers. There are four work outcomes considered in this study. The Teacher work outcomes that are considered in the study are personal accomplishment, job involvement and teaching satisfaction.

1.   Personal Accomplishment

"Measures feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work". The personal accomplishment is taken from Maslach

burnout inventory designed to measure the burnout. The sub scale measures the feeling of one's own competence success in one's own work.

The sub scale has 8 items which measures that describe feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. A sample item could be "I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients"

2.   **Job Involvement**

Lodhal and Kejner (1965) is the first set of researcher who started systematic work in the area of job involvement and gave a comprehensive definition of the concept and stated in terms of "the degree to which a person identified psychologically with his/her work or the importance of work in his/ her total self-image". For the current study (kanungo 1982) conceptualization is considered. He defined Job involvement as an individual's psychological identification or commitment to his / her job. Kanungo's job involvement scale is used to measure the job involvement concept. The scale had 10 items to measure the level of involvement in ones job.

3.   **Teaching Satisfaction**

The teaching satisfaction is measured using the teaching satisfaction scale of (Ho & Au, 2006). The author have followed the job satisfaction definition of Locke "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values". The scale had 5 items to measure the satisfaction of the teachers.

3.3.3 Independent Variables

An independent variable is the variable that the researcher has control over, what researcher can choose and manipulate. It is usually what researcher think will affect the dependent variable. In some cases, researcher may not be able to manipulate the independent variable. It may be something that is already there and is fixed, something researcher would like to evaluate with respect to how it affects something else, the dependent variable like color, kind, time.

Work Motivation

Pinder (1998) defined *work motivation* as "a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration". The current study makes use of the self determination theory approach (SDT). SDT distinguishes between intrinsic motivation (i.e., doing an activity for its own sake because one finds the activity inherently interesting and satisfying) and extrinsic motivation (i.e., doing an activity for an instrumental reason). The study utilized a combination of (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009) Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale . The scale had 20 items under four factors namely Intrinsic Motivation, Identified Motivation, Introjected Motivation and External Motivation

Emotional Labor

Grandey (2000) defined as "Emotional labour may involve enhancing, faking, or suppressing emotions to modify the emotional expression". The current study utilized Emotional labor scale by Brotheridge & Lee, 2003

3.4 Objectives

1) To examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala display strategies of emotional labour in terms of surface acting and deep acting

2) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and personal accomplishment of professional college teachers

3) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and job involvement of professional college teachers

4) To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and teaching satisfaction of professional college teachers

5) To study the relationship between work motivation and strategies of emotional labour to understand whether work motivation is an antecedent to the strategies of emotional labour

6) To examine the mediating role of emotional labour between work motivation and work outcomes

3.5 Conceptual Framework
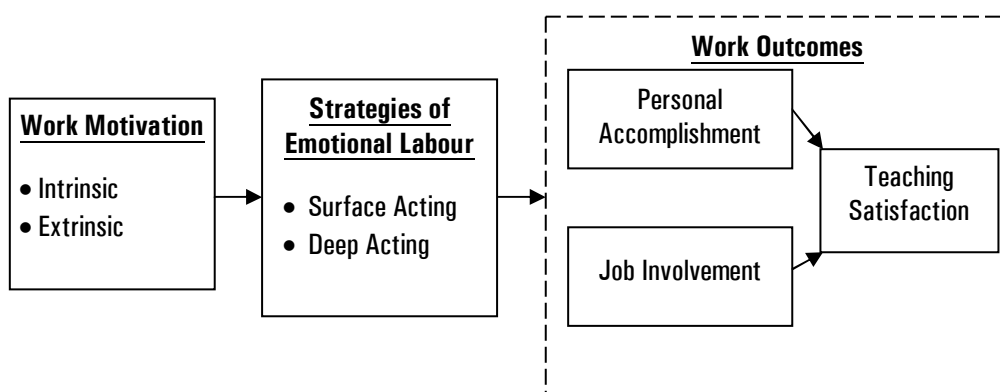
Figure 3.1: Conceptual model

3.6 Hypotheses of the Study

After reviewing the literature the researcher arrived at the following hypotheses. The hypotheses are formulated from the objectives set for the study. From the first objective two hypotheses are formulated since there are two different strategies of emotional labour. The first objective is to examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala display strategies of emotional labour in terms of surface acting and deep acting. The two hypotheses formulated to satisfy the objective is

H1: There is significant difference in display of strategy of surface acting among professional college teachers in Kerala

H2: There is significant difference in display of strategy of deep acting among professional college teachers in Kerala

The second objective of the study is to study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and personal accomplishment of professional college teachers. From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H3: There is negative relationship between surface acting and personal accomplishment

H4: There is positive relationship between deep acting and personal accomplishment

The third objective of the study is to study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and job involvement of professional college teachers. From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H5:   There is negative relationship between surface acting and job involvement

H6:   There is positive relationship between deep acting and job involvement

The fourth objective of the study is to study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and teaching satisfaction of professional college teachers. From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H7:   There is negative relationship between surface acting and teaching satisfaction

H8:   There is positive relationship between deep acting and teaching satisfaction

The fifth objective of the study is to study the relationship between work motivation and strategies of emotional labour to understand whether work motivation is an antecedent to the strategies of emotional labour. From this objective four hypotheses are formulated since there are two strategies of emotional labour and two types of work motivation.

H9:   There is negative relationship between intrinsic motivation and surface acting

H10: There is positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and deep acting

H11: There is negative relationship between extrinsic motivation and surface acting

H12: There is positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and deep acting

The sixth objective of the study is to examine the mediating role of emotional labour between work motivation and work outcomes. From this

objective six hypotheses are formulated since there are two strategies of emotional labour and two types of work motivation and two work outcomes.

H13: Surface acting mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job involvement

H14: Surface acting mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job personal accomplishment

H15: Surface acting mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and job involvement

H16: Surface acting mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and job personal accomplishment

H17: Deep acting mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job involvement

H18: Deep acting mediates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and job personal accomplishment

H19: Deep acting mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and job involvement

H20: Deep acting mediates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and job personal accomplishment

3.7 Research Design

A research design is an integrated statement of and justification for the technical details in planning the research project. According to Russell Ackoff, Design is the process of making decisions before a situation arises in which the decision has to be carried out. It is a process of deliberate anticipation directed towards bringing an unexpected situation under control.

Many authors have come up with different types of research design but the most commonly used are Exploratory, Descriptive and Casual research designs. Exploratory research proposal is to explore the research questions and does not offer final and conclusive solutions to existing problems. It is usually conducted in order to determine the nature of the problem and helps us to have a better understanding of the problem. This kind of research helps us to get a proper definition of problem at hand. The major emphasis is on the discovery of ideas and insights. It also helps the researcher to formulate hypotheses for further research. The biggest achievement of this design is flexibility and familiarity. The next type of design is descriptive research. A descriptive research is one in which information is collected without changing the environment. It is sometimes referred to as "Correlational" or "Observational" or "Explanatory" studies. The descriptive research is typically concerned with determining frequency with which something occurs or how two variables vary together. A descriptive research design requires a clear specification of who, what, when, where, why and how aspects of the research. It requires formulation of more specific hypotheses and testing these through statistical inference techniques. The third type is casual research design. Causal research is conducted in order to identify the extent and nature of cause-and-effect relationships. Causal research design is used to assess impacts of specific changes on existing norms, various processes. Experiments are the most popular primary data collection methods in studies with causal research design[2].

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[2] http://research-methodology.net/research-methodology/research-design/conclusive-research/causal-research/

The researcher has used descriptive research design for conducting the current study. Descriptive research design is concerned with specific predictions, narration of facts and characteristics concerning individual, group or situations.

3.7.1 Period of Study

The present research study titled "work motivation, strategies of emotional labour, and work outcomes of teachers in selected professional colleges in Kerala" is conducted during the year 2013-2014 in Kerala.

3.7.2 Sampling Design

Sampling design can be defined as the method chosen to select the sample from the overall population. It is a plan drawn up before any data are collected to obtain a sample from a given population. It is also known as sampling plan or survey design. Sampling designs usually describe details about the population, sampling frame and sample size.

3.7.2.1 Universe/Population

A research population is generally a large collection of individuals or objects that is the main focus of a scientific query. A research population is also known as a well-defined collection of individuals or objects known to have similar characteristics. All individuals or objects within a certain population usually have a common, binding characteristic or trait.[3]

The population of the study consists of all the teachers working in engineering and management colleges. In Kerala there are 14 government engineering colleges, 24 government sponsored self-financing colleges and

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[3] https://explorable.com/research-population

119 private self-financing colleges. Additionally there are 99 management departments or B Schools available in Kerala. Information regarding district wise number of aided and government colleges are obtained from Directorate of Collegiate Education (DCE) and that of self financing college is obtained from Directorate of Technical Education (DTE). These two pieces of data is combined to determine the number of colleges in each district. Calculating the number of colleges in each district is essential to decide the sample size of educators who need to be included in the study from each district. Table 3.1 shows the district wise frequency distribution of college teachers in Kerala that maximum numbers of colleges present in Thriuvanthapuram. Ernakulam ranks next in the number.

Table 3.1: District Wise frequency distribution of College Teachers in Kerala

Sl No	District	Total Number of College Teachers
1	Thiruvananthapuram	3099
2	Kollam	1517
3	Alappuzha	1349
4	Pathanamthitta	956
5	Kottayam	1758
6	Idukki	713
7	Ernakulam	2864
8	Thrissur	2418
9	Palakkad	1666
10	Kozhikode	1243
11	Wayanad	1604
12	Malappuram	289
13	Kannur	1703
14	Kasargode	752
	Total	19216

Source: Directorate of Technical Education

3.7.2.2 Types of Colleges Considered for the Study

Teachers from three types of college are considered for the study.

a) Government colleges

b) Aided Colleges

c) Self financing colleges

Table 3.2 projects the district wise frequency distribution Number of Faculty in Government College, aided college and self-financing college are shown in Table

Table 3.2: The District Wise Frequency Distribution College Teachers from Different Types of Colleges

Sl No	District	Govt. sector		Aided sector		Self financing
		No of Colleges	Total	No of Colleges	Total	Total Self Financing
1	Thiruvananthapuram	8	575	12	622	1902
2	Kollam	1	30	12	706	781
3	Pathanamthitta	0	0	9	509	840
4	Alappuzha	1	13	12	598	345
5	Kottayam	1	60	21	985	713
6	Idukki	2	40	6	190	483
7	Ernakulam	4	229	21	857	1778
8	Thrissur	3	108	17	1199	1111
9	Palakkad	4	240	7	225	1201
10	Malappuram	3	120	10	364	759
11	Kozhikode	6	185	8	432	987
12	Wayanad	2	42	4	117	130
13	Kannur	2	149	9	367	1187
14	Kasargode	3	102	2	85	565
	Total	40	1893	150	7256	12782

3.7.2.3 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is a list of all the items in the population. It is a complete list of everyone or everything the researcher wants to study. The basic difference between a population and a sampling frame is that the population is general and the frame is specific.

Primary data needed for the study is collected through questionnaire issued to teachers working with selective engineering and management colleges in Kerala. This constitutes the sample for the study.

3.7.2.4 Sample Size

The sample size is determined by using the appropriate sample size calculator from www.checkmarket.com[4]. For calculating the sample size the website asks for population size, margin of error and confidence interval. In the current study, population is 19216; margin of error is fixed as 5% at 95% confidence interval. The sample size thus calculated is 377. Even though 377 is the sample, 750 questionnaires are distributed among the teachers considering probability of non-responses that might occur. After repeated attempts the researcher is able to obtain 627 responses for the study.

3.7.2.5 Selection of the Sample Units

A multi-stage proportionate random sampling technique is used to select the sample units. It is done in different stages. The population of the current study is taken as; all the teachers working in the engineering and management institutes in Kerala There are 14 districts in Kerala. These districts are divided into three regions namely North, South and Central

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[4] https://www.checkmarket.com/sample-size-calculator/

Kerala. North Kerala consisted of 5 districts namely Kasargode, Kannur, Wayanad, Kozhikode and Malappuram. Central Kerala consisted of 4 districts namely (Palakkad, Thrissur, Ernakulam and Idukki. South Kerala consisted of 5 districts namely Thiruvananthapuram, Kollam, Alappuzha, Pathanamthitta and Kottayam. The sample size of 377 is proportionately divided among these three regions based on region wise population. The following table represents the region wise proportionate sample of teachers.

Table 3.3: Region wise Proportionate Sample of teachers

District	Total Eng and mgmt	Govt eng	Total	Dist wise proportion	Govt	Self financing	Govt	SF	Total	
Thiruvananthapuram	1827	311	2138	94	14	80				South Kerala
Kollam	736	186	922	40	8	32				South Kerala
Pathanamthitta	645	0	645	28	0	28				South Kerala
Alappuzha	300	0	300	13	0	13	22	154	176	South Kerala
Kottayam	653	64	717	31	3	29				Central Kerala
Idukki	318	59	377	17	3	14				Central Kerala
Ernakulam	1253	154	1407	62	7	55				Central Kerala
Thrissur	1036	174	1210	53	8	45				Central Kerala
Palakkad	1036	155	1191	52	7	45	27	188	215	Central Kerala
Malappuram	309	65	374	16	3	14				North Kerala
Kozhikode	627	64	691	30	3	28				North Kerala
Wayanad	100	34	134	6	1	4				North Kerala
Kannur	827	67	894	39	3	36				North Kerala
Kasargode	400	0	400	18	0	18	10	99	109	North Kerala
Total	10067	1333	11400	500					500	

Therefore, from north Kerala the researcher has to collect 109 responses, from south Kerala 176 and from central Kerala 215. The study is done in both offline and online method. For online method, the researcher selected those colleges where email ids of the teachers are available. By visiting each college website the researcher collected all the email ids and prepared a list of respondents. From the list, the researcher randomly selected email ids and send emails requesting to participate in the research. To avoid duplication of data the researcher personally contacted those institutions which are not considered for online survey and collected the data.

3.8 Types of Data

Primary and secondary data are used for the study. Primary data are collected from the respondents using a questionnaire. Discussions with various scholars in the field of education and management are also a source of primary data. The researcher also contacted authors who are pioneers in the field of emotional labour through emails for further clarifying the process of collection of data.

Secondary data from various sources are also collected for the study. Information regarding number of Aided and Government colleges is obtained from Directorate of Collegiate Education (DCE), Government of Kerala. Information about number of self-financing colleges is obtained from Directorate of Technical Education (DTE), Government of Kerala. The researcher also browsed the college websites to get the secondary information. The secondary data are collected from the World Wide Web is also used for this study. Secondary data are also collected from other

books, journals, magazines and newspaper articles are also used to get the secondary data.

3.9   Tools of Data Collection

3.9.1 Emotional Labor

For measuring the emotional labor of teachers, the emotional labor scale of Brotheridge and Lee, 2003 is used. Surface acting is measured by six items and deep acting is measured by three items. A five-point scale is used to measure surface acting and deep acting ranging from (5) Always, (4) Often, (3) Sometimes, (2) Rarely and (1) Never. 0.708 is the reliability score of the instrument.

3.9.2 Work Motivation

For measuring the work motivation of teachers, the modified version of work extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scale by (Trembley et al., 2009) is used. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are measured by three items each. A seven-point scale is used to measure Intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation ranging from 1= not at all; 2 = very little; 3 = a little; 4 = moderately; 5 = strongly; 6 = very strongly; 7= exactly. The reliability score of the instrument for measuring Intrinsic motivation is 0. 89 and Extrinsic motivation is 0.769.

3.9.3 Personal Accomplishment

This construct is measured using Maslach burnout inventory by Maslach and Jackson, 1981. The subscale of Personal Accomplishment contained **8** items that described feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people. A five-point scale is used to

measure personal accomplishment ranging from (5) Strongly Agree, (4) Agree, (3) Neutral, (2) Disagree, (1) Strongly Disagree. 0.72 is the reliability score of the instrument measuring personal accomplishment.

3.9.4 Job Involvement

Job involvement is measured by a modified version of the Job Involvement Scale known as JIQ of (Kanungo, 1982) is used. The scale has 10 items out of which three items are deleted and the final scale had seven items. Based on suggestions of experts three items are deleted due to cultural misfit. . A five-point scale is used to measure Job Involvement ranging from (5) Strongly Agree, (4) Agree, (3) Neutral, (2) Disagree, (1) Strongly Disagree. 0.885 is the reliability score of this instrument.

3.9.5 Teaching Satisfaction

Teaching Satisfaction is measured by a modified version of the Teaching Satisfaction Scale (TSS)of Ho & AU, 2006 is used. The scale has five items out of the 5 items two items are deleted and the final scale is having three items due cultural misfit by the expert opinion. A five-point scale is used to measure Teaching Satisfaction ranging from (5) strongly agree, (4) Agree, (3) Neutral, (2) Disagree, (1) strongly disagree. The reliability score of the instrument is .88

3.10 Pilot Study

A pilot study is conducted using the consolidated instrument consisting of 33 items in a sample size of 75 respondents. The collected data are studied in detail and the variances in the response are studied. Two Questions scoring below 0.7 as reliability score are deleted from the

instrument measuring personal accomplishment. Another question is deleted from the same instrument due to cultural misfit as identified by experts.

3.10.1 Reliability Analysis

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire/ test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated tests. To be precise, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters. Using the data obtained from the pilot study, a reliability analysis is done using the classical Cronbach Alpha Model (CAV). The procedure starts with all items considered and sequentially eliminating items whose elimination may improve the Alpha. Reliability analysis using cronbach alpha model is attempted for questions Emotional labour, work motivation, and teacher outcomes namely career satisfaction, teaching satisfaction, personal accomplishment and job involvement. The procedure is continued till there is no more improvement possible.

Table 3.4: Cronbach's Alpha Values Of Variables in the Pilot and Main Studies

Name of the scale	C A V (pilot study)	CAV (- main study)
Emotional Labour- Surface acting	.805	.728
Emotional Labour- Deep Acting	.743	.730
Work Motivation – Intrinsic Motivation	.848	.899
Work Motivation- External Motivation	.857	.769
Personal Accomplishment	.831	.858
Job Involvement	.890	.854
Teaching Satisfaction	.850	.827

3.10.2 Period of the Study

The period of the study is between July 2014- September 2014

3.11 Data Analysis Tools

The study mainly used correlation, One Sample t test**,** ANOVA, Automatic Linear Modeling, T Test and structural equation modeling, for analyzing the data.

3.11.1 Correlation

Statistical correlation is a statistical technique which tells us whether two variables are related[5]. It is used to understand whether the relationship is positive or negative and the strength of relationship. Correlation is measured by what is called coefficient of correlation (r). Its numerical value ranges from +1.0 to -1.0. It gives us an indication of the strength of relationship. In general, if r > 0 indicates positive relationship, r < 0 indicates negative relationship while r = 0 indicates no relationship (or that the variables are independent and not related). Here r = +1.0 describes a perfect positive correlation and r = -1.0 describes a perfect negative correlation. Closer the coefficients are to +1.0 and -1.0; greater is the strength of the relationship between the variables. The major types of correlations are Pearson product moment correlation, spearman rank correlation coefficient, and partial correlation. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation is one of the measures of correlation which quantifies the strength as well as direction of such relationship. It is usually denoted by Greek letter ρ[6]. The coefficient (ρ) is computed as the ratio of covariance between the variables to the product

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[5] https://explorable.com/statistical-correlation

[6] https://explorable.com/pearson-product-moment-correlation?gid=1586

of their standard deviations. Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient is a non-parametric measure of correlation, using ranks to calculate the correlation.[7] A partial correlation analysis involves studying the linear relationship between two variables after excluding the effect of one or more independent factors.

3.11.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a methodology for representing, estimating, and testing a network of relationships between variables (measured variables and latent constructs).[8] Traditional statistical tools to data analyses are somewhat inflexible they specify default models and assume measurement without error. However, Structural Equation Modelling requires specification of a model based on theory and research. It is a multivariate technique incorporating measured variables and latent constructs, and explicitly specifies measurement error. A model specifies relationships between variables. Two goals in SEM are to understand the patterns of correlation/covariance among a set of variables and to explain as much of their variance as possible with the model specified. The purpose of the model, in the most common form of SEM, is to account for variation and co variation of the measured variables (MVs). Path analyses (e.g., regression) tests models and relationships among measured variables. Confirmatory factor analyses tests models of relationships between latent variables (LVs or common factors) and measured variables which are indicators of common factors. Latent Growth curve Models (LGM) estimate initial level - the intercept, rate of change the slope,

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[7] https://explorable.com/spearman-rank-correlation-coefficient?gid=1586

[8] http://www.wuss.org/proceedings08/08WUSS%20Proceedings/papers/pos/pos04.pdf

structural slopes, and variance. Special cases of SEM are regression, canonical correlation, confirmatory factor analyses, and repeated measures analyses of variance. SEM is similar to traditional methods like correlation, regression and analyses of variance in many ways. First, both traditional methods and SEM are based on linear statistical models. Second, statistical tests associated with both methods are valid if certain assumptions are met. Traditional methods assume a normal distribution and SEM assumes multivariate normality. Third, neither approach offers a test of causality. Traditional approaches differ from the SEM approach in several areas. First, SEM is a highly flexible and comprehensive methodology. This methodology is appropriate for investigating achievement, economic trends, health issues, family and peer dynamics, self-concept, exercise, self-efficacy, depression, psychotherapy, and other phenomena. Second, traditional methods specify a default model whereas SEM requires formal specification of a model to be estimated and tested. SEM offers no default model and places few limitations on what types of relations can be specified. SEM model specification requires hypotheses with theory or research and specifies relations a priori. Third, SEM is a multivariate technique incorporating observed-measured- and unobserved variables -latent constructs- while traditional techniques analyze only measured variables. Multiple, related equations are solved simultaneously to determine parameter estimates with SEM methodology. Fourth, SEM recognizes the imperfect nature of measures. SEM explicitly specifies error while traditional methods assume that measurement occurs without error. Fifth, traditional analyses provides straightforward significance tests to determine group differences, relationships between variables, or the amount of variance explained. SEM provides no straightforward tests to determine model fit. Instead, the best strategy for

evaluating model fit is to examine multiple tests (e.g., chi-square, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Bentler-Bonett Nonnormed Fit Index (NNFI), Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA)). Sixth, SEM resolves problems of multicollinearity. Multiple measures are required to describe a latent construct (unobserved variable). Multicollinearity cannot occur because unobserved variables represent distinct latent constructs. Finally, a graphical language provides a convenient and powerful way to present complex relationships in SEM. Model specification involves formulating statements about a set of variables. A diagram- a pictorial representation of a model- is transformed into a set of equations. The set of equations are solved simultaneously to test model fit and estimate parameters.

3.11.3 One Sample t- test

One sample t-test can be used to determine if the mean of a sample is different from a particular value. One-sample t-test is used to estimate the mean of a population and to compare it with a target or reference value when the researcher does not know the standard deviation of the population. By using this test, it can be determine whether the mean of a group differs from a specified value and also calculate a range of values that is likely to include the mean of the population. The test calculates the difference between sample mean and the hypothesized mean relative to the variability of the sample. Larger the difference and the smaller the variability in the sample, the greater the chance that the population mean differs significantly from the hypothesized mean[9].

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[9] http://support.minitab.com/en-us/minitab/17/topic-library/basic-statistics-and-graphs/hypothesis-tests/tests-of-means/why-use-1-sample-t/

3.11.4 t-test

A t-test is an analysis of means of two population means through the use of statistical examination; a t-test with two samples is commonly used with small sample size, testing the difference between the samples when the variance of two normal distributions are not known. A t-test looks at the t-statistic, the t-distribution and degrees of freedom to determine the probability of difference between populations; the test statistic in the test is known as the t-statistic.

3.11.5 One way ANOVA

The analyses of variance or F-test is used in such problems where it becomes essential to test the significance of the difference between more than two sample means. An analysis of variances is helpful for testing three or more variables. It is similar to multiple two-sample t-tests. However, it results in less type I errors and is appropriate for a range of issues. ANOVA groups differences by comparing the means of each group and includes spreading out the variance into diverse sources. It is employed with subjects, test groups, between groups and within groups. The ANOVA produces an F-statistic, the ratio of the variance calculated among the means to the variance within the samples.

3.11.6 Automatic Linear Modelling

The SPSS software has introduced a new analysis called Automatic Linear Modelling (ALM). This is similar to multiple regression but the results are displayed in visually appealing graphical way. Easy to interpret results is one of the main benefits of using ALM analyses. The Automatic Linear Model will predict final values because it is more

robust than the manual regression procedure. The Automatic Linear Modeling procedure avoid the numerical issues by using scaling and centering of variables to form a correlation matrix instead of a raw cross products matrix, and uses a sweep algorithm that allows it to avoid trying to invert a singular matrix.

Traditionally, Linear Regression l in SPSS is carried out using the Regression procedure, which is capable of fitting linear models and computing a variety of model fit statistics. However, this aspect of the program also has limitations. Linear Regression is Limited in terms of the stepwise method with no capability of conducting all-possible-subsets regression. It is limited in terms of optimality statistics for variable Selection. Existing criteria are in the form of significance tests prone to Type I/II errors.

- It is unable to automatically identify and handle outlying cases.

- It is unable to conduct model ensemble to improve predictions.

- It is unable to interact with the SPSS Server program to work with very large data

The new procedure of Automatic Linear Modelling is an improvement over the traditional linear regression modelling in the two major areas of automatic variable selection and automatic data preparation.

3.12 Limitation of the Study

In spite of all the methodological and measurement precautions that are built into the study, certain limitations are identified.

- The student perspectives on emotional labour of their teachers are not included.

- Even though data are collected by direct personal interview method it is probable for the presence of respondent bias.

- Despite repeated requests for participation certain institutions are reluctant to give data.

- Only 10% of the questionnaires send online are completely filled and returned hence it resulted in very high rate of elimination.

- The study has consumed more than expected time and resources.

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Chapter **4**

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Chapter 4 contains objectives, profile of the respondents, descriptive analyses of each variable, reliability analysis, one sample t- test, t- test and ANOVA.

This research study focuses on the following goals. The first goal is to examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala experience Emotional Labour. The second goal is to study the relationship between

strategies of Emotional Labour and Personal Accomplishment of professional college teachers. The third goal is to study the relationship between strategies of Emotional Labour and Job Involvement of professional college teachers. The fourth goal is to study the relationship between strategies of Emotional Labour and Teaching Satisfaction of professional college teachers. The fifth goal is to study the relationship between work motivation and strategies of Emotional Labour to understand whether work motivation is an antecedent to the strategies of Emotional Labour.

Emotional Labour is assessed based on the two acting strategies namely Surface Acting, and Deep Acting. This study adapts the Emotional Labor Scale developed by Brotheridge & Lee; 2003 which is modified after conducting the pilot study to suit the needs of respondents in Kerala. Work motivation was measured using Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale by (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, & Villeneuve, 2009). The teacher work outcomes comprise of variables concerning two job related factors and one person related factors which are Personal Accomplishment, Teaching Satisfaction, and Job Involvement.

Exploratory and descriptive research methods are used during the different stages of this study. Primary and secondary data are used for the research. Primary data are collected by using a set of standardized inventories. The scheme for analyses is set down in the following manner. Profile of the respondents is analyzed first, to identify the personal, professional and economic background of the respondents. Then Work Motivation, Emotional Labour and Teacher work outcomes are analyzed for different group of respondents. Subsequently, analyses are carried out to establish relationship between Emotional Labour and teacher work

outcomes and work motivation and teacher work outcomes. The mediating effect of Emotional Labour on the relationship between Work Motivation and Teacher work outcome is also studied.

4.1 Profile of the Respondents

Profile of the respondents describes the basic characteristics of the respondents. In social research, personnel characteristics of respondents have importance, as it plays a role in shaping the attitude of the respondents. Profile of an individual usually has a considerable position in shaping the cognitive behaviour of an individual. It helps in understanding the context in which respondents provide their views. So in this part of the study, the personal and professional profiles of teachers are considered in order to have an idea about the background details of respondents.

4.1.1 Age of the Respondents

Age of the respondents is one of the most important characteristics in understanding their views. Generally, age indicates the level of maturity of individuals. The thought process of an individual is certainly shaped by his/her age. As age increases, an individual gains more life experiences and he/she may understand and take decisions better.

Table 4.1: Age of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Below 25 years	63	10.0
26-36 years	385	60.9
37-47 years	120	19.0
48-58 years	49	7.8
58 and above	10	1.6
Total	627	99.2

From the table 4.1, it is clear that 10% of the teachers are below 25 years of age. Most teachers fall in the age category of 26-36 years i.e. 60.9% of the sample falls in this category. At the same time, 19.1% falls in the 37-47 years category and 7.8% of the total sample falls in the category of 48-58 years. From this it is clear that most of the teachers in this study are young adults, who have started their career as teachers.

4.1.2 Gender

Anatomically, chemically, hormonally, and physiologically there is significant difference in the functioning of male and female brains. Researchers have revealed that there are differences in the way the brains of men and women are structured, genetically affecting the way they react to events and stimuli. Therefore, gender is an important factor in the survey data.

Table 4.2: Gender of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Male	317	50.2
Female	310	49.1
Total	627	99.2

From table 4.2, it is quite clear that out of the total respondents investigated for this study, 50.2 per cent of them are females whereas about 49.1 per cent are males. Even though teaching is considered as woman's profession as mentioned in many literatures (Bellas, 1999), in this study there are almost an equal representation of male and female responses.

4.1.3 Educational Qualification

Education is one of the most important characteristics that might affect the person's attitude and the way of looking and understanding any particular social phenomenon. In the education sector qualification of the teacher is an important criterion for selection. Particularly in the Engineering and Management education, the minimum qualification for the post of teacher is post graduation. A doctoral degree (PhD) is required for promotion to higher ranks along with the experience. Educational qualifications equip the teachers to gain knowledge and better impart knowledge to the students. And more over, it is a statutory requirement too.

Table 4.3: Educational Qualification of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor degree	16	2.5
Post Graduate	517	81.8
PhD	90	14.2
Post doctoral fellow	4	1
Total	627	100.0

The table 4.3, the data shows that among the respondents 2.5 percent are graduates, 81.8 percent are postgraduates and 14.2 percent are PhD holders and 1 percentage are post doctoral fellows. It is evident from the table that the entire teachers chosen in the study are professionally qualified. The 2.5 % of teachers who are graduates are teaching in the engineering institutions.

4.1.4 Experience

The number of years of experience the respondents has in their jobs is another important factor in determining their behaviour.

Table 4.4: Experience of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
0-5 years	252	40.2
6-11 years	211	33.7
12-16 years	88	14.0
17-21 years	26	4.1
22-27 years	25	4.0
28-33 years	14	2.2
Above 33 years	11	1.8
Total	627	100.0

From table 4.4, it is clear that most of the sample respondents' fall in the category of 0-5 years with 40.2%. The second comes 6-11 years category with 33.7%. The third falls in the 12-16 years category with 14%. It is clear from this table that most of the respondents are young.

4.1.5 Designation

In the higher education sector, according to UGC guidelines there are basically three designations for the job. They are Professor, Associate Professor and Assistant Professor. UGC has clearly given the required criteria for admitting teachers into these three categories.

Table 4.5: Designation of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
The director	10	1.6
Professor	38	6.1
Associate	88	14.0
Assistant Professor	491	78.3
Total	627	100.0

From table 4.5, it is clear that most of the teachers of the sample fall in the Assistant Professor designation with 78.3%. The next is Associate Professors with 14% of the total sample. This result also confirms that the majority of the teachers are young.

4.1.6 Type of College

In Kerala, there are basically three types of colleges - Government, Aided and Self –Financing. Government colleges are run and directly managed by the university or by the government. Aided colleges are managed by the private sector but funded by the government. Self-financing colleges are funded and managed by the private sector.

Table 4.6: Type of college

	Frequency	Percent
Government	92	14.7
Aided	48	7.7
Self financing	487	77.7
Total	627	100.0

From table 4.6, it is clear that most of the teachers participated in this study are working in self financing sector with 77.7% of the total sample. 14.7 % teachers are working in Government colleges. Only 7.7% of teachers who participated in the study work in the aided sector.

4.2 Objective and Related Hypotheses

The first objective and hypotheses relating to the objective are given below.

Objective 1: To examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala experience Emotional Labour.

The two hypotheses formulated from the objective are:

H1:   There is significant difference in display of strategy of Surface Acting among professional college teachers in Kerala

H2:   There is significant difference in display of strategy of Deep Acting among professional college teachers in Kerala

4.2.1 Descriptive Analyses of Emotional Labour

Emotional Labour is defined as the process of managing both experience and expression of feelings to support or achieve organizational goals (Grandey, 2000). Emotional Labour is measured using two acting strategies namely Surface Acting and Deep Acting.

Emotional Labour in this study is measured using revised Emotional Labour scale by (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). The Emotional Labour scale has two components namely Surface Acting and Deep Acting. Each variable in the scale has three items each. It used Likert's five-point scale with scale points never (1), rarely (2), sometimes (3), often (4), and always (5).

The first step is to check the reliability of the scale. The reliability testing is done using the Cronbach Alpha Score (CAS). The CAS for the Emotional Labour scale shown in table 4.8 is 0.877. Any score above .05 is considered as reliable.

Table 4.8: Reliability Statistics of Emotional Labour Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.877	9

In the previous studies, the Cronbach Alpha Score ranged from 0.63 to 0.89. So compared to the previous studies the Cronbach Alpha Score of this study is much high. And it shows that the scale is reliable. The table 4.9 below shows the inter item correlation of the Emotional Labour scale.

Table 4.9: Inter Item Correlation of Emotional Labour Scale

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SA1	22.46	49.584	.724	.853
SA2	22.45	56.005	.382	.883
SA3	22.69	48.155	.724	.853
SA4	22.47	51.585	.746	.853
SA5	22.61	49.816	.805	.847
SA6	22.49	51.292	.764	.852
DA1	22.22	56.561	.404	.880
DA2	22.62	53.027	.518	.872
DA3	22.44	51.387	.559	.869

After checking the reliability of Emotional Labour the data is used to check the normality. In most of the tests like ANOVA, Regression and SEM, the assumption is that the data is normally distributed. There are mainly two ways for checking the normality of data. The first method is visual checking of the data and the second method of measuring normality is by using tests like Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and the Shapiro-Wilk

(S-W) tests. But both the tests are very sensitive to the size of the sample. It is advised that the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test can be used when n > 2000. There are still debates going on in the research world regarding the suitability of these tests. (Rose, Spinks, & Canhoto, 2014) advised the researchers not to overly rely on using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and the Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests. They suggested the visual checking of the data by using box plot, histogram and normal Q-Q plot. The researcher is relying on the visual checking of data using Box plot and Q-Q plot to check whether the data is normal or not. The box plot (a.k.a. box and whisker diagram) is a standardized way of displaying the distribution of data based on the five number summaries: minimum, first quartile, median, third quartile, and maximum. In the simplest box plot the central rectangle spans the first quartile to the third quartile. A segment inside the rectangle shows the median and "whiskers" above and below the box show the locations of the minimum and maximum[1]. A box plot is generated to check the spread of the data and to find out outliers if any. Data analyses involve the use of statistical techniques to identify patterns that may be hidden in a group of numbers. The box plot uses the median, the approximate quartiles, and the lowest and highest data points to convey the level, spread, and symmetry of a distribution of data values. It can also be easily refined to identify outlier data values. Table 4.10 shows the box plot diagram which reminds the presence of some outliers in some of the variables. The researcher checked for the normality of data collected for Emotional Labour scale by running a Q-Q plot. Here using the preliminary analyses, outliers are determined through the examination of means and standard deviations to identify if

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[1] http://www.physics.csbsju.edu/stats/box2.html

scores are plus or minus one standard deviation from the mean. To test the normality of the data normal Q-Q plot and box plot are used.

Table 4.10: Q-Q Plot of Emotional Labour Scale

Surface Acting	Deep Acting
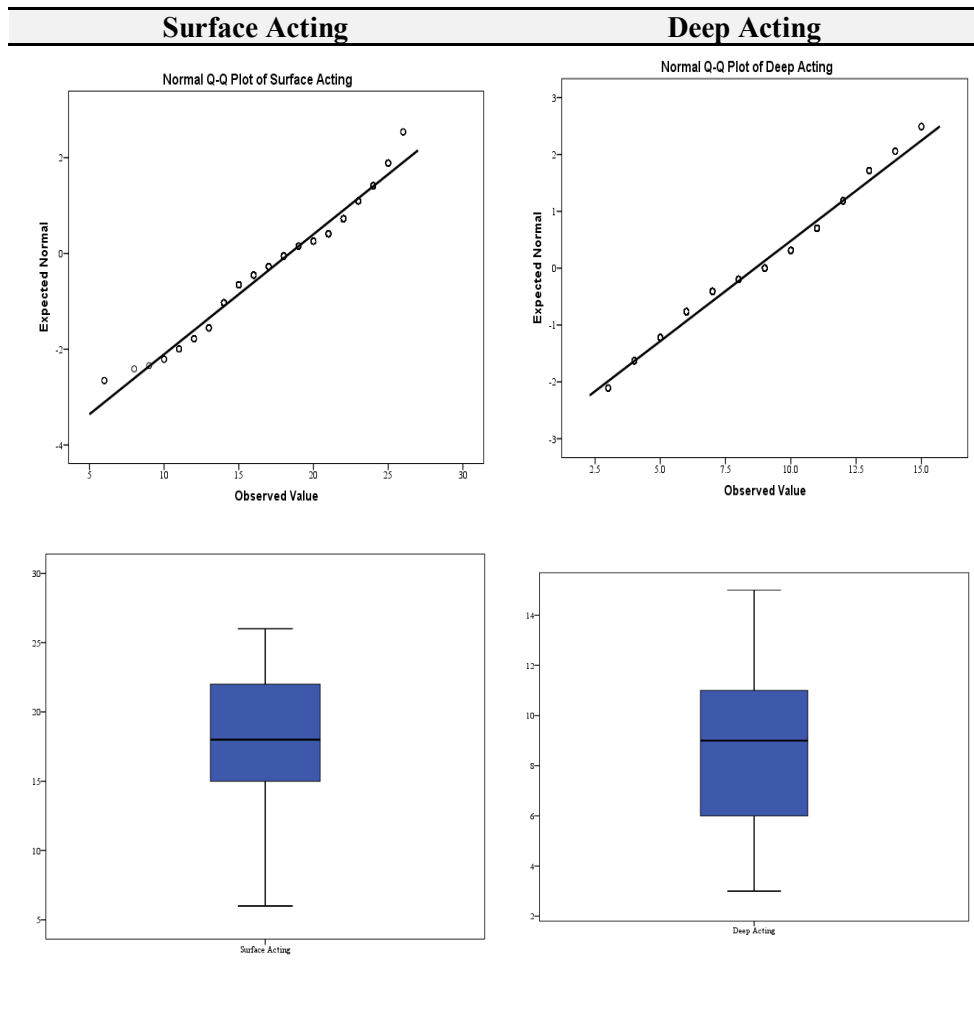
From table 4.10, it can be seen that the data collected is normally distributed for Surface Acting and Deep Acting.

Outliers are extreme values as compared to the rest of the data. The determination of values as "outliers" is subjective. Currently there are several technical ways of dealing with outliers which are in practice worldwide. Major among the treatment techniques are data transformations usage of robust methods like trimmed mean , outlier removal and merging with immediate lower/ upper value (Osborne & Overbay, 2004). These methods are used to adjust the outliers according to the need of the data and merit of the method to arrive in producing the descriptive statistics as shown in above table 4.10. From the table 4.10, it can be seen that the data is normal and there are no outliers in the chosen sample.

The next set of analyses done by the researcher is the descriptive statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Together with simple graphics analyses, they form the basis of virtually every quantitative analysis of data.[2] The researcher also has done descriptive analyses to understand the data. The below table 4.11 shows the descriptive statistics.

Table 4.11: Descriptive Statistics of Emotional Labour

	Surface Acting	**Deep Acting sum**
Mean	18.4051	8.64
Median	18.0000	9.00
Std. Deviation	3.99022	2.836
Range	20.00	12
Minimum	6.00	3
Maximum	26.00	15

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[2] http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/statdesc.php

From table 4.11, it can be concluded that Emotional Labour is evident in the professional college teachers in Kerala. Literature shows that Emotional Labour involves engagement of two constructs namely Surface Acting (Hochschild, 1983) and Deep Acting (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Results clearly showed that professional college teachers engage in Emotional Labour in several ways. The Emotional Labour which is measured in a five-point scale contains total of 9 items of which each construct has three items for Deep Acting and six items for Surface Acting. So minimum possible scoring for Deep Acting on this scale is three (1 × 3 items) and maximum is fifteen (5 × 3 items). The mid-point of the scale is nine (Minimum + Maximum /2). In the case of Surface Acting the minimum is six (1 × 6 items) and maximum is thirty   (5 × 6 items).

To test whether professional college teachers experience Emotional Labour the one sample t-test can be used. For the test, the test value is taken as midpoint of the scale. In the case of Deep Acting the midpoint is nine and in the case of Surface Acting it is eighteen. If the mean of the sample is above the midpoint, it can be inferred that teachers perform that particular acting strategy.

Table 4.12: One sample t test of Surface Acting

	Test Value = 18			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Surface Acting	2.542	626	.011	.40510

Table 4.13: One sample t test of Deep Acting

	Test Value = 9			
	t	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**
Deep Acting	-3.211	626	.001	-.364

From tables 4.12 and 4.13, it is clear that teachers in Kerala prefer to use strategies of Surface Acting than Deep Acting. Surface Acting t (626) = 2.542; p = 0.011 is greater than the midpoint 18; Deep Acting t (626) = -3.211, p = 0.001 is less than midpoint nine.

Table 4.14: Status of hypotheses 1 and 2

Hypotheses	**Status**
H1: There is significant difference in display of strategy of Surface Acting among professional college teachers in Kerala	Accepted
H2: There is significant difference in display of strategy of Deep Acting among professional college teachers in Kerala	Accepted

4.2.2 Descriptive Analyses of Work Motivation

Work motivation is measured using (Tremblay et al., 2009) Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale. The scale is developed by using the self- determination theory. The scale has two variables namely Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation, integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation and amotivation. Each variable has three items each making it as eighteen item scale. For this particular study the researcher has considered only two variables namely Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation. So the scale has total of

six items. A seven-point likert scale was used to measure intrinsic and external motivation.

The researcher did reliability analyses of the data. The Cronbach Alpha Score of the scale is 0.637. The Cronbach Alpha Score of the previous studies range from 0.60 to 0.84 and when compared to the present study the Cronbach Alpha Score is good and the scale is reliable.

Table 4.14: Reliability statistics of work motivation

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.851	.850	6

Table 4.15: Inter Item Correlation of Work Motivation

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
IM1	21.28	54.943	.502	.850
IM2	21.69	46.046	.746	.804
IM3	22.13	48.618	.654	.823
EM1	21.69	53.022	.535	.845
EM2	21.82	50.666	.650	.824
EM3	22.38	48.060	.730	.808

The next step is to check the normality of the data using box plot and Q-Q plot. The below table 4.16 shows the box plot and Q-Q plot of Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation.

Table 4.16: Box plot and Q-Q plot of work motivation

Variable Name	Box Plot	Q-Q Plot
Intrinsic Motivation		
Extrinsic Motivation		
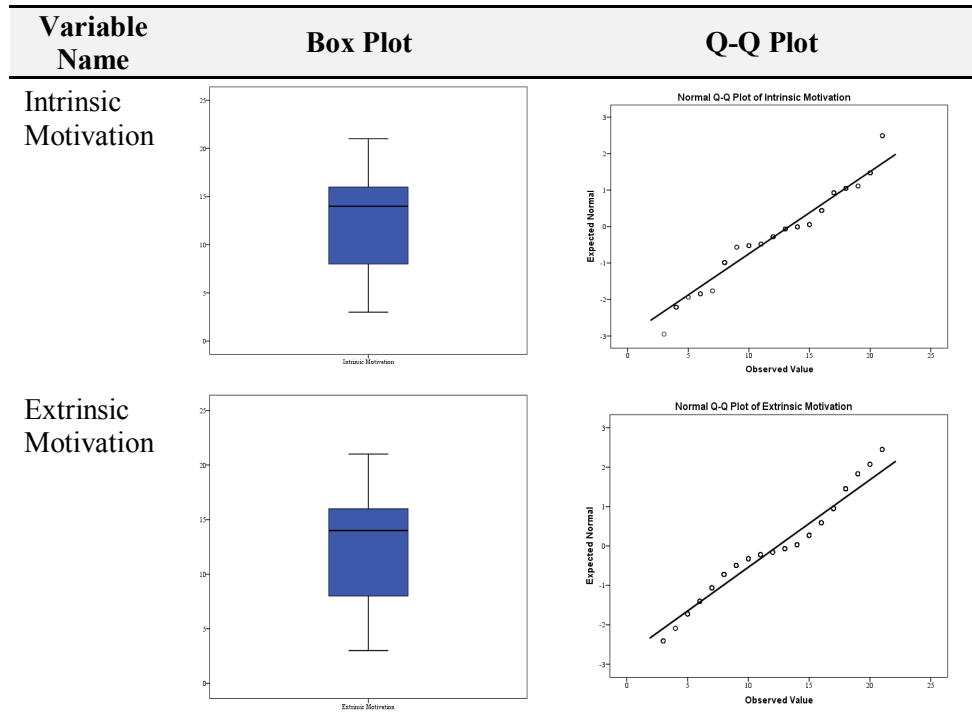
From table 4.16, it can be seen that the data is normal and there are no outliers in the chosen sample.

The researcher also did the descriptive statistics for the current data. Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the scale is calculated to measure work motivation and it is shown below in table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Descriptive statistics of work motivation

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrinsic Motivation	627	3	21	13.31	4.436
Extrinsic Motivation	627	3	21	12.43	4.505

Hence it can be concluded that professional college teachers in Kerala experience work motivation. The self determination theory identifies two types of motivation- intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The Work Motivation scale contains total six items of which each construct has three items each. Work motivation is measured in seven point scale. So minimum possible scoring on this scale is three (1×3 items) and maximum is twenty one (7×3 items). The mid-point of the scale is twelve (Minimum + Maximum /2). The results clearly show that the professional college teachers experience Intrinsic Motivation (M = 13.28, SD = 4.42) more than Extrinsic Motivation (M = 12.47, SD = 4.49).

4.2.3 Descriptive Analyses of Work Outcomes

The work outcomes selected for this study are Teaching Satisfaction, Job Involvement and Personal Accomplishment. The reliability scores of the scales are given in the table 4.18. It shows the Cronbach's alpha score of work outcomes and table 4.19 to 4.21 show the reliability scores of the inter item correlation of the teacher work outcomes. Since reliability scores of all items in three work outcomes show above 0.5 none is deleted.

Table 4.18: Reliability statistics of work outcomes

Name of the scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Personal Accomplishment	.858	8
Job Involvement	.854	7
Teaching Satisfaction	.827	3

Table 4.19: Inter Item Correlation of Personal Accomplishment

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Personal Accomplishment 1	27.58	20.167	.602	.841
Personal Accomplishment 2	27.71	19.436	.665	.833
Personal Accomplishment 3	27.65	19.560	.665	.833
Personal Accomplishment 4	27.50	19.885	.620	.839
Personal Accomplishment 5	27.50	19.649	.683	.832
Personal Accomplishment 6	27.82	19.782	.501	.855
Personal Accomplishment 7	27.71	20.381	.525	.850
Personal Accomplishment 8	27.78	20.216	.584	.843

Table 4.20: Inter Item Correlation of Job Involvement
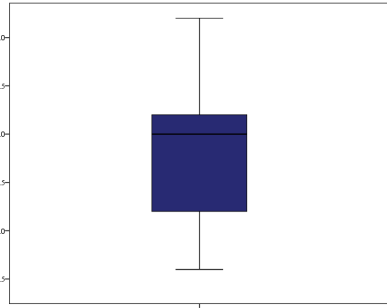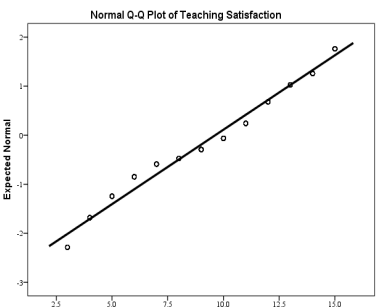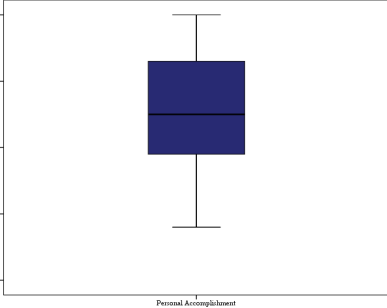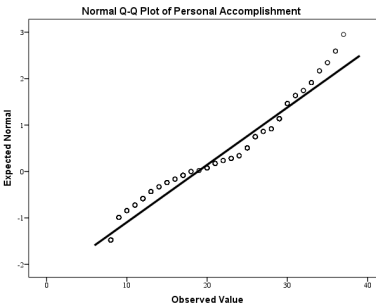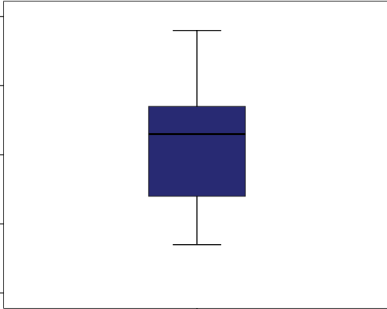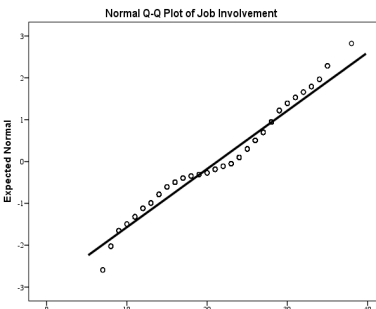
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Job Involvement 1	21.19	23.045	.508	.848
Job Involvement 2	20.80	24.381	.428	.857
Job Involvement 3	21.62	20.888	.664	.827
Job Involvement 4	21.42	20.485	.723	.818
Job Involvement 5	21.73	20.109	.693	.822
Job Involvement 6	21.60	20.920	.648	.829
Job Involvement 7	21.55	21.137	.646	.830

Table 4.21: Inter Item Correlation of Teaching Satisfaction

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Teaching Satisfaction	8.49	3.089	.623	.819
Teaching Satisfaction 2	8.16	3.052	.711	.739
Teaching Satisfaction 3	8.20	2.547	.729	.716

Table 4.22 shows the box plot and Q-Q plot. The next step was to check the normality of the data using box plot and Q-Q plot. The table 4.22 below shows the box plot and the Q-Q plot of Personal Accomplishment, Job Involvement and Teaching Satisfaction.

Table 4.22: Box Plot and Q-Q plot

Variable Name	Box Plot	Q-Q plot
Teaching Satisfaction		
Personal Accomplishment		
Job Involvement		

From table 4.22, it can be seen that the data is normal and there are no outliers in the chosen sample.

Table 4.23: Table of descriptive statistics of work outcomes

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Job Involvement	627	7	38	21.28	7.18
Personal Accomplishment	627	8	37	18.84	8.09
Teaching Satisfaction	627	3	15	9.63	3.29

From table 4.23, it can be concluded that professional college teachers in Kerala experience different work outcomes. From the review of literature the researcher selected two job related outcomes and one personal related outcome. The Teaching Satisfaction scale contains total 3 items. The scale is measured using a Likert's five-point scale. So minimum possible scoring on this scale is three (1 × 3 items) and maximum is fifteen (5 × 3 items). The mid-point of the scale is nine (Minimum + Maximum /2). The Personal Accomplishment is a part of Maslach burnout inventory and this construct has eight items. This is also measured by using Likert's five-point scale. So minimum possible scoring on this scale is eight (1 × 8 items) and maximum is forty (5 × 8 items). The mid-point of the scale is twenty four (Minimum + Maximum /2). Finally the Job Involvement scale has seven items. The scale is measured by using Likert's five-point scale. So minimum possible scoring on this scale is seven (1 × 7 items) and maximum is thirty five (5 × 7 items). The mid-point of the scale is twenty one (Minimum + Maximum /2).

4.3 Gender and Emotional Labour

Literature shows that men and women differently respond to emotions under different circumstances and in different ways. (Bellas, 1999) states that this is mainly because of difference in cultural expectations and difference in the psychological processes of men and women. Academics often considers teaching as an ideal career option for women as they are natural nurturers (Bellas, 1999). And students expect female teachers to be more sympathetic to their issues. This does not necessarily mean that female teachers have an upper hand in the classrooms. "The association between teaching and mothering and the lower status and authority of women may cause male and female professors to experience Emotional Labour in the classroom quite differently" (Bellas, 1999).

Table 4.24: Independent T-test between gender and Emotional Labour

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t- value	Significance
Surface Acting	1 Male	317	8.5426	3.143	-1.090	0.276 P>.05 Not Significant
	2 Female	310	8.1161	3.044		
Deep Acting	1 Male	317	8.7697	2.916	1.219	0.034 P <.05 Significant
	2 Female	310	8.4935	2.708		

Emotional Labour as a psychological process involves regulating emotions to project organizationally expected behaviour (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). (Norsby & DeHart-Davis, 2007) argued that gender difference does exist in the Emotional Labour process because of societal

norms and acculturation processes and the masculine culture that gives importance for emotional suppression and control and feminine culture that gives importance to responsiveness and submission. In the case of teachers due to this difference in masculine and feminine cultures, male teachers experience a higher Emotional Labour than that of their female counterparts.

From the descriptive statistics shown in table 4.24, it is clear that male teachers (mean = 8.76, SD = 3.14) experience more Deep Acting than that of the female teachers (mean = 8.493, SD = 2.78). The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using an independent sample t-test. It was found that t- test is significant for Deep Acting with t = 1.219 and p = 0.034 which is less than 0.05. Since the test is significant, we can conclude that, the mean values of the two groups are significantly different. So it is statistically proved that male teachers use Deep Acting more than the female teachers. The result also shows that there is no significant relationship between gender and Deep Acting. However, the previous studies have shown that there is a relationship between gender and Emotional Labour. (Yilmaz, Altinkurt, Guner, & Sen, 2015) in their study argue that Emotional Labour of teachers differ according to variables such as gender, marital status, responsibility, school type, and subject matter expertise. The study proves that male teachers are more inclined to perform Surface Acting compared to female teachers.

4.4 Gender and Work Motivation

"Intrinsic Motivation stems from a direct relationship between the doer and the task and it is usually self-applied. These are the self- generated factors, which influence people to behave in a particular way or to move in a

particular direction. These include, responsibility, freedom to act, scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement" (George & Sabapathy, 2011). "People can be motivated by the management through such methods as pay, promotion and praise. This can be termed as "Extrinsic Motivation" and stems from the work environment external to the task and is usually applied by others or someone other than the person being motivated"(George & Sabapathy, 2011).

Table 4.25: independent t test between gender and work motivation

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t- value	Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	1 Male	317	13.5962	4.46304	1.808	.705 P>.05 Not ignificant
	2 Female	310	12.9581	4.37352		
External Motivation	1 Male	317	12.7729	4.50093	1.678	.838 P>.05 Not Significant
	2 Female	310	12.1710	4.47862		

The descriptive statistics of work motivation in table 4.25 shows only a very small difference in the mean value. Thus it could be stated that, as far as work motivation is considered, both the groups are on equal ground. However, the statistical significance of this statement needs to be tested. The mean value of Intrinsic Motivation for male is 13.59 with a standard deviation of 4.463 and for female; the mean value was 12.95 with 4.373 standard deviation. The mean value of Extrinsic Motivation for male is 12.77 with a standard deviation of 4.50 and for female the mean value is 12.17 with 4.47 as standard deviation.

Table 4.25 also shows the result of Independent sample t-test. Test is not significant as p> 0.05. So it can be observed that the mean values of the two groups are not significantly different. Therefore it is statistically proved that male and female teachers express no significant difference between intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation.

4.5 Gender and Work Outcomes

Three teacher work outcomes are selected in this study. Teaching Satisfaction is the first work outcome. Teaching Satisfaction is satisfaction of the teachers in their current teaching job. Personal Accomplishment is defined as the feelings of job competence and successful achievement in one's work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) defined Job Involvement as "the degree to which a person identified psychologically with his/her work or the importance of work in his/ her total self-image".

Table 4.26: Table showing independent t- test between gender and work outcomes

	Gender:	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t- value	Significance
Teaching Satisfaction	1 Male	317	9.3186	3.14362	1.152	0.835 P>.05 Not Significant
	2 Female	310	9.0258	3.21897		
Personal Accomplishment	1 Male	317	25.5110	8.38157	-1.800	0.785 P>.05 Not Significant
	2 Female	310	26.7226	8.47042		
Job Involvement	1 Male	317	21.4259	7.19430	.992	0.933 P>.05 Not Significant
	2 Female	310	20.8548	7.22287		

The work outcomes chosen for this study have not shown any significant relationship with gender. The mean value of Teaching Satisfaction for male is 9.31 with a standard deviation of 3.14 and mean value of Teaching Satisfaction for female is 9.025 with a standard deviation of 3.21. The mean value of Personal Accomplishment for male is 25.51 with a standard deviation of 8.38 and mean value of Personal Accomplishment for female is 26.72 with a standard deviation of 8.47. The mean value of Job Involvement for male is 21.42 with a standard deviation of 7.19 and mean value of Job Involvement for female is 20.85 with a standard deviation of 7.22. Independent sample t test is conducted for work outcomes and gender. It is observed that the test is not significant ($p > 0.05$). Thus it could be stated that male and female teachers show no significant difference between Teaching Satisfaction, Personal Accomplishment and Job Involvement.

The next step of analyses is to check the relationship between experience and strategies of Emotional Labour. Since under experience there are more than two groups one way ANOVA is used to find the difference between the means.

4.6 Experience and Emotional Labour

(Jimoh, 2008) in his study found that job tenure is a significant factor along with Emotional Labour in predicting the job performance of the individual. Job tenure is length of time an employee has worked for his/her employer. So it is clear that the experience of employees have a significant impact on how they perceives and manages the emotions.

Table 4.27: One way ANOVA between experience and Emotional Labour

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f- value	Significance
Surface Acting	0-5 years	252	8.3214	3.106	-1.090	0.276 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	8.4123	3.178		
	12-16 years	88	7.8182	2.878		
	17-21 years	26	8.2692	3.305		
	22-27 years	25	9.5200	3.150		
	28-33 years	14	8.5714	2.874		
	Above 33 years	11	8.2727	2.649		
Deep Acting	0-5 years	252	8.5159	2.865	1.219	0.223 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	8.5782	2.794		
	12-16 years	88	8.6023	2.769		
	17-21 years	26	9.0000	2.727		
	22-27 years	25	9.3200	2.824		
	28-33 years	14	8.7857	2.939		
	Above 33 years	11	10.0000	2.645		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.27 explains that, the test is not significant for Surface Acting (F=-1.090, p > 0.05) and Deep Acting (F=1.219, P>0.05). It can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across experience of the teachers and Emotional Labour.

4.7 Experience and Work Motivation

Table 4.28: one way ANOVA between experience and work motivation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Intrinsic Motivation	0-5 years	252	13.1587	4.53743	.538	.780 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	13.2370	4.39813		
	12-16 years	88	13.0568	4.01250		
	17-21 years	26	13.8462	4.61902		
	22-27 years	25	14.0800	4.88126		
	28-33 years	14	13.8571	4.84938		
	Above 33 years	11	14.8182	4.04520		
Extrinsic Motivation	0-5 years	252	12.2579	4.65727	.660	.682 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	12.6351	4.43949		
	12-16 years	88	12.2386	4.25075		
	17-21 years	26	12.9231	4.17539		
	22-27 years	25	13.7600	4.16613		
	28-33 years	14	13.0000	4.48930		
	Above 33 years	11	11.6364	5.53665		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.28 explains that, the test is not significant for Intrinsic Motivation (F=.538, p > 0.05) and Extrinsic Motivation (F =.660, P = 0.682). The p values for both intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation are greater than 0.05. It can be concluded that there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across experience of the teachers and work motivation.

4.8 Experience and Work Outcome

Table 4.29: One way ANOVA between experience and work outcomes

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Teaching Satisfaction	0-5 years	252	8.8532	3.17583	0.754	.606 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	9.3744	3.15430		
	12-16 years	88	9.3750	3.30556		
	17-21 years	26	9.4231	3.50055		
	22-27 years	25	9.4400	2.94505		
	28-33 years	14	9.2143	3.06791		
	Above 33 years	11	9.8182	2.89200		
Personal Accomplishment	0-5 years	252	26.2937	8.49520	0.667	.676 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	25.6209	8.48575		
	12-16 years	88	27.2273	8.34284		
	17-21 years	26	26.5385	9.04757		
	22-27 years	25	24.0000	8.32666		
	28-33 years	14	25.9286	8.17561		
	Above 33 years	11	26.3636	6.65241		
Job Involvement	0-5 years	252	20.4722	7.29482	0.780	.586 P>.05 Not Significant
	6-11 years	211	21.6256	7.15523		
	12-16 years	88	21.0909	7.16254		
	17-21 years	26	22.0000	7.92465		
	22-27 years	25	22.4800	7.22911		
	28-33 years	14	21.3571	6.67495		
	Above 33 years	11	22.3636	5.55469		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.29 explains that, the test is not significant for Teaching Satisfaction (F=.754, P=606), Personal Accomplishment (F=.667, P=.676) and Job Involvement (F=.780, P=.586).

The p values for Teaching Satisfaction, Personal Accomplishment and Job Involvement are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across experience of the teachers and work outcomes.

4.9 Age and Emotional Labour

(Dahling & Perez, 2010) in their study proved that age has direct and indirect effects on the Emotional Labour strategies that employees can use in service situations. Age is positively related to Deep Acting and negatively related to Surface Acting. (Scheibe, Stamov-Rossnagel, & Zacher, 2015) in their study mentioned that older adults are more effective at regulating emotional experience. As people become older, positive emotional experience becomes more prominent because they realize that their life span is finite. Because of this, people become ever more motivated to maximize the experience of positive emotions and minimize the experience of negative emotions as they age (Dahling & Perez, 2010).

Table 4.30: One way ANOVA between age and Emotional Labour

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Surface Acting	Below 25 years	63	8.4444	3.15092	.977	.420 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	8.1506	3.10295		
	37-47 years	120	8.7583	3.09240		
	48-58 years	49	8.5102	3.10995		
	58 and above	10	8.6000	2.63312		
Deep Acting	Below 25 years	63	8.4603	2.75227	.548	.701 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36years	385	8.5455	2.84470		
	37-47 years	120	8.8333	2.76938		
	48-58 years	49	8.9388	2.90408		
	58 and above	10	9.2000	2.48551		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.30 explains that, the test is not significant for Surface Acting (F= .977, P=0.420) and Deep Acting (F=.548, P=0.701). The p values for Surface Acting and Deep Acting are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across age of the teachers and Emotional Labour.

4.10 Age and Work Motivation

Table 4.31: One way ANOVA between age and work motivation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Intrinsic Motivation	Below 25 years	63	13.5079	4.64853	.410	.801 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	13.1351	4.34003		
	37-47 years	120	13.3417	4.45613		
	48-58 years	49	13.8980	4.83152		
	58 and above	10	13.7000	4.47338		
Extrinsic Motivation	Below 25 years	63	12.4921	5.17398	1.040	.386 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	12.3325	4.48012		
	37-47 years	120	12.9000	4.23352		
	48-58years	49	12.9592	4.19305		
	58 and above	10	10.4000	5.03764		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.31 explains that, the test is not significant for Intrinsic Motivation (F= 0.410, P=0.801), Extrinsic Motivation (F=1.040, P=0.386). The p values for Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that,

there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across age of the teachers and work motivation.

4.11 Age and Work Outcome

Table 4.32: One way ANOVA between age and work outcome

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Teaching Satisfaction	Below 25 years	63	8.8095	3.48664	.454	0.769 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	9.1403	3.19441		
	37-47 years	120	9.4500	3.07839		
	48-58 years	49	9.1837	3.01851		
	58 and above	10	9.4000	3.02581		
Personal Accomplishment	Below 25 years	63	25.5397	9.57454	.708	0.587 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	26.5195	8.36163		
	37-47 years	120	25.1417	8.43193		
	48-58 years	49	25.8980	7.85346		
	58 and above	10	26.6000	7.02693		
Job Involvement	Below 25 years	63	20.2857	7.87284	.457	0.767 P>.05 Not Significant
	26-36 years	385	21.0753	7.25410		
	37-47 years	120	21.7667	7.03023		
	48-58years	49	21.2449	6.74083		
	58 and above	10	21.2000	5.95912		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.32 explain that the test did not show any significant difference between age and Teaching Satisfaction (F=.454, P=0.769) and between age and Personal Accomplishment (f = 0.787, P = 0.738). The test result did not show any significant difference in the case of age and Job Involvement (F=.457, P=0.767). As the p values for

Teaching Satisfaction, Personal Accomplishment and Job Involvement are greater than 0.05 it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across age of the teachers and work outcomes.

4.12 Designation and Emotional Labour

Table 4.33: One way ANOVA between designation and Emotional Labour

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Surface Acting	The director	10	8.4000	3.37310	1.414	0.238 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	8.5789	2.92826		
	Associate	88	8.9205	3.00276		
	Assistant professor	491	8.2057	3.12012		
Deep acting	The director	10	10.0000	2.78887	1.339	0.260 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	8.9211	2.74484		
	Associate	88	8.8295	2.70895		
	Assistant professor	491	8.5479	2.83981		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.32 explain that the test is not significant for Surface Acting (F= 1.414, P = 0.238) and Deep Acting (F = 1.339, P = 0.260). The p values for Surface Acting and Deep Acting are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across designation and Emotional Labour.

4.13 Designation and Work Motivation

Table 4.34: One way ANOVA between designation and work motivation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Intrinsic Motivation	The director	10	14.6000	4.92612	1.084	0.355 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	13.4737	4.24096		
	Associate	88	13.8977	4.51572		
	Assistant professor	491	13.1283	4.41401		
Extrinsic Motivation	The director	10	13.2000	3.85285	.922	0.430 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	12.5000	4.88655		
	Associate	88	13.1591	4.07088		
	Assistant professor	491	12.3360	4.54940		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.34 explains that, the test is not significant for Intrinsic Motivation (F = 1.084, P = 0.355) and Extrinsic Motivation (F = 0.922, P = 0.430). The p values for Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across designation of the teachers and work motivation.

4.14 Designation and Work Outcome

Table 4.35: One way ANOVA between designation and work outcome

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Teaching Satisfaction	The director	10	10.6000	3.74759	.977	.403 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	9.0263	2.99086		
	Associate	88	9.4432	3.07327		
	Assistant professor	491	9.1079	3.20372		
Personal Accomplishment	The director	10	28.3000	8.24688	1.292	.276 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	25.7895	8.12456		
	Associate	88	24.6250	8.42726		
	Assistant professor	491	26.3564	8.46248		
Job Involvement	The director	10	23.8000	7.43565	.972	.405 P>.05 Not Significant
	Professor	38	21.1053	6.81727		
	Associate	88	21.9773	7.02046		
	Assistant professor	491	20.9430	7.26614		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.35 explain that the test is not significant for Job Involvement (F = .972, P = 0.405), Teaching Satisfaction (F = .977, P = 0.403) and Personal Accomplishment (F = 1.292, P = 0.276). The p values for Job Involvement, Teaching Satisfaction and Personal Accomplishment are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across designation of the teachers and work outcomes

4.15 Type of college and Emotional Labour

Table 4.36: One way ANOVA between type of college and Emotional Labour

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Surface Acting	Government	92	8.2826	3.20825	0.066	0.138 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	8.4792	2.95347		
	Self financing	487	8.3265	3.09888		
Deep Acting	Government	92	8.2826	2.84519	0.882	0.415 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	8.8125	2.64701		
	Self financing	487	8.6817	2.82831		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.36 explain that the test is not significant for Surface Acting (F= 0.066, P=0.138) and Deep Acting (F=0.882, P=0.415). The p values for Surface Acting and Deep Acting are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across type of colleges and Emotional Labour.

4.16 Type of College and Work Motivation

Table 4.37: One way ANOVA between type of college and work motivation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	f-value	Significance
Intrinsic Motivation	Government	92	13.1739	4.61152	0.544	0.581 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	13.9167	4.34586		
	Self financing	487	13.2382	4.40360		
Extrinsic Motivation	Government	92	12.1522	4.46706	0.516	0.597 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	12.9583	4.08400		
	Self financing	487	12.4887	4.54418		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.37 explain that the test is not significant for Intrinsic Motivation (F = 0.544, P = 0.581) and Extrinsic Motivation (F = 0.516, P = 0.597). The p values for Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across type of the colleges and work motivation.

4.17 Type of College and Work Outcome

Table 4.38: One way ANOVA between type of college and work outcome

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	Significance
Teaching Satisfaction	Government	92	8.9130	3.22985	0.791	0.454 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	8.8125	2.72620		
	Self financing	487	9.2587	3.21500		
Personal Accomplishment	Government	92	26.6957	8.55202	0.363	0.696 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	25.4792	7.82791		
	Self financing	487	26.0616	8.48772		
Job Involvement	Government	92	20.4022	7.40517	0.641	0.527 P>.05 Not Significant
	Aided	48	20.8958	6.34216		
	Self financing	487	21.3080	7.25488		

The statistical significance of the above observation is tested by using one way ANOVA. The test results displayed in table 4.38 explain that the test is not significant for Job Involvement (F = 0.641, P = 0.527), Teaching Satisfaction (F = 0.791, P = 0.454) and Personal Accomplishment (F=.363,

P = 0.696). The p values for Job Involvement, Teaching Satisfaction and Personal Accomplishment are greater than 0.05. Thus it can be concluded that, there exists no significant difference among the mean values reported across type of the colleges and work outcomes.

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EXPLORING LINK BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND WORK OUTCOMES

This chapter deals with exploring link between strategies of emotional labour and work outcomes. For this purpose Automatic linear modeling (ALM) is used. A detailed discussion of the ALM is given below.

Multiple regression analysis is done to study the effect of independent variables on dependent variable. Linear regression is a statistical method that helps to summarize and study relationship between two continuous variables X and Y, where X is an independent variable and Y is a dependent variable. When the research has multiple independent variables and one dependent variable, then a multiple regression method is used to find the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable. The goal of multiple linear regression (MLR) is to model the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

The SPSS software has introduced a new analysis called Automatic Linear Modeling (ALM). This is similar to multiple regression although the results are displayed in visually appealing graphical way. Easy to interpret results is one of the main benefits of using ALM analysis. The ALM will predict final values because it is more robust than the manual regression procedure. The Automatic Linear Modeling procedure avoid the numerical issues by using scaling and centering of variables to form a correlation matrix instead of a raw cross products matrix, and uses a sweep algorithm that allows it to avoid trying to invert a singular matrix.

Traditionally, Linear Regression Modeling in SPSS is carried out using the regression procedure, which is capable of fitting Linear Models and computing a variety of model fit statistics. But there are many limitations for this method. The first one is that linear regression is limited to the step-wise method only with no capability of conducting all-possible-subsets regression. The next is that linear regression is limited in terms of optimality statistics for variable selection and existing criteria are in the form of significance tests prone to Type I/II errors. Another limitation is that it is unable to automatically identify and handle outlying cases. To remove these limitations, IBM SPSS introduced a new tool in SPSS pertaining to Linear Modeling. The Linear Procedure is available since the introduction of SPSS v. 19.0. The new method accelerates the data analysis process through several automatic mechanisms. The new procedure is an improvement over the traditional method with the limitations outlined above. Predominantly, two major areas of improvement are in automatic variable selection and automatic data preparation.

The first result output from the Automatic Linear Regression is the model summary with R^2 value. The target shows the dependent variable chosen for the analysis. The ALM allows two types of model selection methods namely "Forward Stepwise" method and "All Predictors Selected" method. The forward stepwise is similar to stepwise regression in the Normal Linear Regression. In this analysis, the researcher used "all predictors selected" method. Then there is Information Criterion Score in the model summary. Information criterion score is used to compare different models and to find best fit to the data.

The second output generated is the Automatic Data Preparation table. In this table, information regarding the data preparation done by the SPSS programme for doing the analysis is received. The next ensemble that is obtained is the predictor importance chart. Usually, the modeling efforts on the predictor fields that matter the most and consider dropping or ignoring those that matter the least is opted. The predictor importance chart helps to do this by indicating the relative importance of each predictor in estimating the model. Since the values are relative, the sum of the values for all predictors on the display is 1[1]. Predictor importance does not relate to model accuracy. It just relates to the importance of each predictor in making a prediction, not whether or not the prediction is accurate. The ALM also provides ANOVA table and the Coefficient table based on which the significance and prediction can be made like in the linear regression.

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[1] http://hp:51364/help/index.jsp?topic=/com.ibm.spss.statistics.help/idh_model_viewer.htm

5.1 Strategies of Emotional Labour and Personal Accomplishment

Objective 2: To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Personal Accomplishment of professional college teachers

From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H3:   There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Personal Accomplishment

H4:   There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Personal Accomplishment

The hypotheses are tested using the ALM where the independent variable is the strategies of emotional labour and dependent variable is Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.1: Summary of ALM

Target	Personal Accomplishment
Automatic Data Preparation	On
Model Selection Method	None (All Predictors Entered)
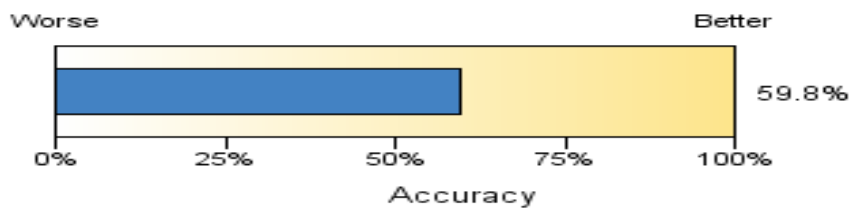
Figure 5.1: R-square values of strategies of emotional labour on Personal Accomplishment

"Accuracy" is equivalent to the Adjusted R-square value in the multiple regression. The adjusted R-square value is used in place of R-square to account for additional variables in the model. This means that because of the presence of more variables a model has, higher the R-square value, greater will be the Adjusted R-square value. The actual R-square value of this model is 0.598 which is less than the standard value of one. So the level of accuracy of the data is 59.8 %, proving that the data is fit for the model. The diagram below shows the predictors in the final model in rank order of importance.

Predictor Importance
Target: Personal Accomplishment

Most Important

Figure 5.2: The order of importance of strategies of emotional labour to Personal Accomplishment

In the figure 5.2, variables are presented in the order of predictor's rank. It can be observed that Surface Acting is ranked first in the order of importance (95 %) followed by Deep Acting as second with 5% importance.

Table 5.2: ANOVA table of strategies of emotional labour on Personal Accomplishment

	F value	Sig	importance
Constant	465.744	.000	
SA	335.434	.000	.946
DA	19.224	.000	.054

It is evident from table 5.2 that the two independent variables- Surface Acting and Deep Acting- are statistically significant. The procedure used in reduction in the information criterion to determine which predictors have to be added to the Linear Equation is done according to the F test. It also shows the order of importance of variables.

Table 5.3: Coefficients of strategies of emotional labour on Personal Accomplishment

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t	Sig	Importance
Intercept	39.590	2.073	19.100	.000	
SA	-1.336	0.073	-18.315	.000	0.946
DA	0.448	0.102	4.384	.000	0.054

The parameter estimates are the Coefficients of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Personal Accomplishment which is presented in table 5.3. The coefficients show the relationship of each model parameter to Personal Accomplishment. The model can be characterized in the equation as follows:

PA=39.590+ (-1.336 X SA) + (0.448 X DA)   .... (5.1)

It is important to note that all the independent variables are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. The model also shows each independent

variable in the order of importance to Personal Accomplishment. It is clear that in the order of importance; Surface Acting (95%) is ranked first compared to Deep Acting (5%) which is ranked second. The model summarises that, among the two strategies of emotional labour, the variable Deep Acting has positive effect on the Personal Accomplishment of professional college teachers. Based on the results, both the hypotheses are accepted.

Table 5.4: Status of hypotheses 3 and 4

Hypotheses	Status
H3: There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Personal Accomplishment	Accepted
H4: There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Personal Accomplishment	Accepted

5.2 Strategies of Emotional Labour and Job Involvement

Objective 3: To study the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Job Involvement of professional college teachers

From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H5: There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Job Involvement

H6: There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Job Involvement

The hypotheses are tested using the ALM, where the independent variable is the Strategies of Emotional Labour and dependent variable is Job Involvement.

Table 5.5: summary of ALM

Target	Job Involvement
Automatic Data Preparation	On
Model Selection Method	None (All Predictors Entered)
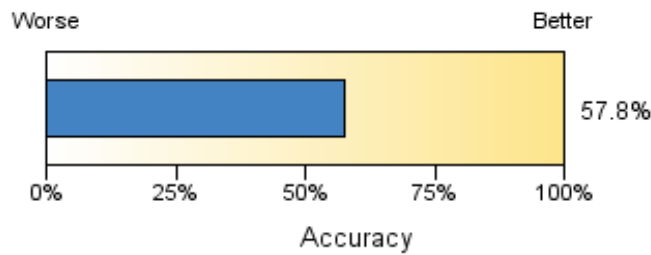
Figure 5.3: R-square values of strategies of emotional labour on Job Involvement

The actual R-square value of this model is 0.578. So the level of accuracy of the data is 57.8 %, proving that the data is fit for the model.
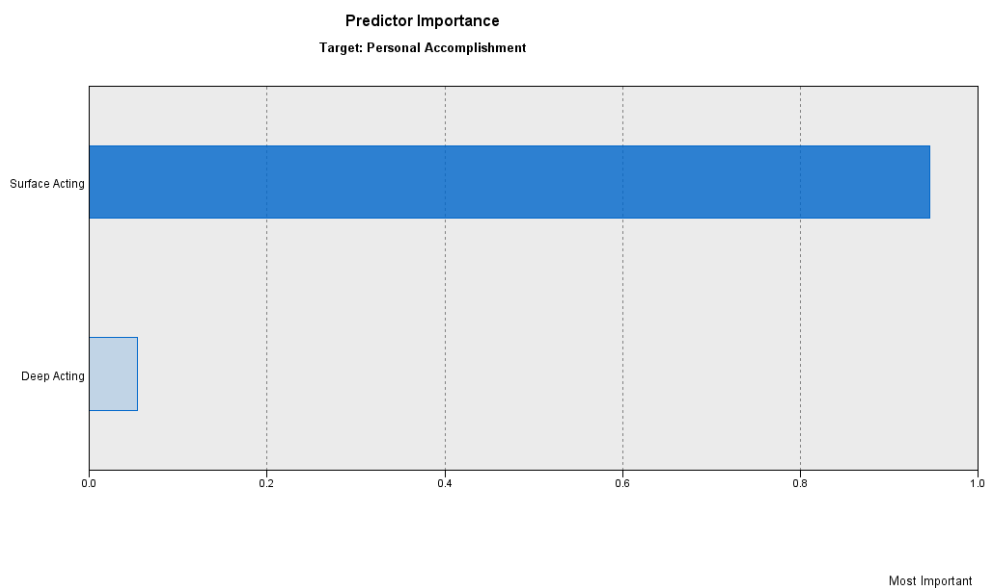

Figure 5.4: The order of importance of strategies of emotional labour to Job Involvement

In the figure 5.4, variables are presented in the order of predictor's rank. It can be observed that Surface Acting is ranked first in the order of importance (76%) followed by Deep Acting as second with (24%) importance.

Table 5.6: ANOVA of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Job Involvement

	F value	Sig	Importance
Constant	428.971	.000	
SA	204.09	.000	0.759
DA	64.741	.000	0.241

It is evident from table 5.6 that all variables are statistically significant. The procedure used in reduction in the information criterion to determine which predictors have to be added to the linear equation is done according to F test. It also shows the order of importance of variables.

Table 5.7 Coefficients of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Job Involvement

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t	Sig	Importance
Intercept	32.286	1.886	17.122	.000	
SA	-0.948	0.066	-14.286	.000	0.759
DA	0.747	0.093	8.046	.000	0.241

The parameter estimates are the Coefficients of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Job Involvement which is presented in table 5.7. The coefficients show the relationship of each model parameter to Job Involvement. The model can be characterized in the equation as follows:

JI = 32.286+ (-0.948 X SA) + (0.747 X DA) .... (5.2)

It is important to note that all the independent variables are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. The model also shows each independent variable in the order of importance to Job Involvement. It is clear that in the order of importance; Surface Acting (76%) is ranked first

compared to Deep Acting (24%) which is ranked second. The model summarises that, among the two strategies of emotional labour, the variable Deep Acting has positive effect on the Job Involvement of professional college teachers. Based on the results both the hypotheses are accepted.

Table 5.8: Status of hypotheses 5 and 6

Hypotheses	Status
H5: There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Job Involvement	Accepted
H6: There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Job Involvement	Accepted

5.3   Strategies of Emotional Labour and Teaching Satisfaction

Objective 4: To study the relationship between Strategies of Emotional Labour and Teaching Satisfaction of professional college teachers

From this objective two hypotheses are formulated.

H7:   There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Teaching Satisfaction

H8:   There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Teaching Satisfaction

The hypotheses are tested using the ALM where the independent variable is the Strategies of Emotional Labour and dependent variable is Teaching Satisfaction.

Table 5.9: Summary of ALM

| Type	V4
Target	Teaching Satisfaction
Automatic Data Preparation	On
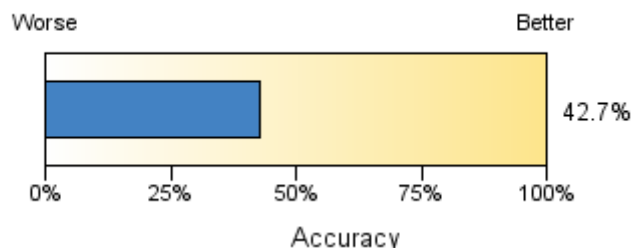
Figure 5.5: R-square values of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Teaching Satisfaction

The actual R-square value of this model is 0.427. So the level of accuracy of the data is 57.8 %, proving that the data is fit for the model.
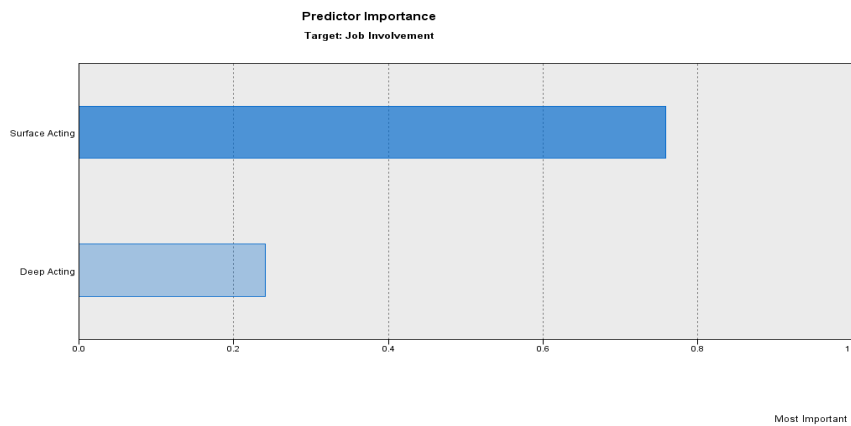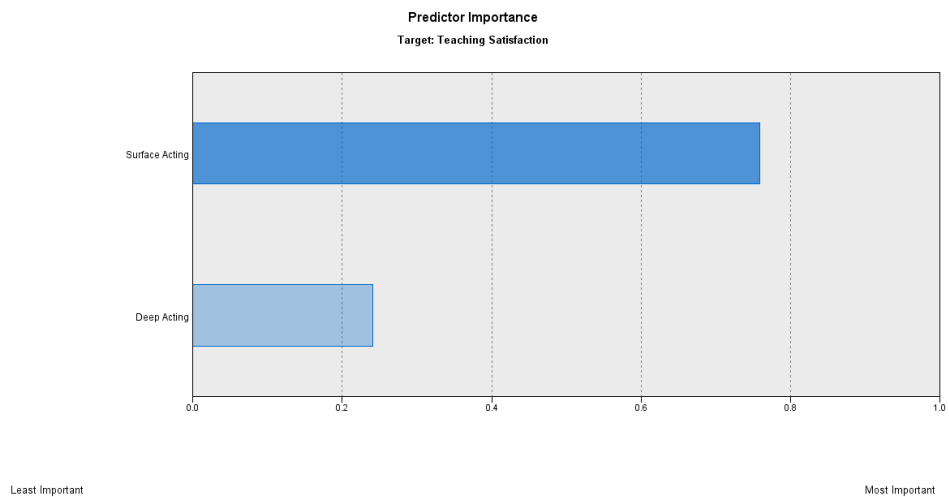

Figure 5.6: the order of importance of Strategies of Emotional Labour to Teaching Satisfaction

In figure 5.6, variables are presented in the order of predictor's rank. It can be observed that Surface Acting is ranked first in the order of importance (76%) followed by Deep Acting as second with (24%) importance.

Table 5.10: ANOVA of strategies of emotional labour on Teaching Satisfaction

	F value	**Sig**	**Importance**
Constant	234.087	.000	
SA	111.439	.000	.760
DA	35.287	.000	.240

It is evident from table 5.10 that all variables are statistically significant. The procedure used in reduction in the information criterion to determine which predictors have to be added to the linear equation is done according to F test. It also shows the order of importance of variables.

Table 5.11: Coefficients of strategies of emotional labour on Teaching Satisfaction

	Coefficient	**Std. Error**	**t**	**Sig**	**Importance**
Intercept	13.976	1.007	13.884	.000	
SA	-0.374	0.035	-10.556	.000	0.760
DA	0.295	0.050	5.940	.000	.240

The parameter estimates are the Coefficients of Strategies of Emotional Labour on Teaching Satisfaction which is presented in table 5.11. The coefficients show the relationship of each model parameter to Teaching Satisfaction. The model can be characterized in the equation as follows:

TSS=13.976+ (-0.374 X SA) + (0.295 X DA)..................... (5.3)

It is important to note that all the independent variables are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. The model also shows each independent variable in the order of importance to Job Involvement. It is clear that in the order of importance; Surface Acting (76%) is ranked first compared to Deep Acting (24%) which is ranked second. The model summarises that, among the Two Strategies of Emotional Labour, the variables Deep Acting has positive effect on the Job Involvement of professional college teachers. Based on the results both the hypotheses are accepted.

Table 5.12: Status of hypotheses 7 and 8

Hypotheses	Status
H7: There is negative relationship between Surface Acting and Teaching Satisfaction	Accepted
H8: There is positive relationship between Deep Acting and Teaching Satisfaction	Accepted

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WORK MOTIVATION AS AN ANTECEDENT OF EMOTIONAL LABOUR

This chapter finds whether work motivation can be an antecedent of strategies of emotional labour. For this purpose Automatic linear modeling (ALM) is used. Since there are two strategies of emotional labour which are Surface Acting and Deep Acting both are tested in relation to work motivation.

6.1 Work Motivation and Surface Acting

Objective 5: To study the relationship between work motivation and strategies of emotional labour and to understand whether work motivation is an antecedent to the strategies of emotional labour

From this objective, four hypotheses are formulated

H9:   There is negative relationship between Intrinsic Motivation and Surface Acting

H10: There is positive relationship between Intrinsic Motivation and Deep Acting

H11: There is negative relationship between Extrinsic Motivation and Surface Acting

H12: There is positive relationship between Extrinsic Motivation and Deep Acting

Table 6.1: Summary of ALM

Target	Surface Acting
Automatic Data Preparation	On
Model Selection Method	None (All Predictors Entered)
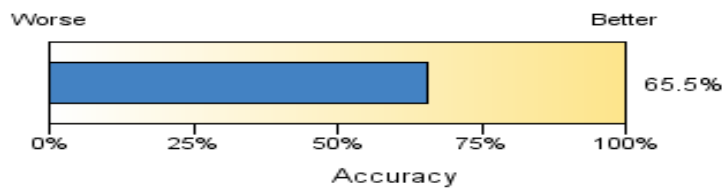
Figure 6.1: R-square values of work motivation on Surface Acting

"Accuracy" is equivalent to the Adjusted R-square value in the Multiple Regression. The adjusted R-square value is used in place of R-square to account for additional variables in the model. This means that because of the presence of more variables in a model, higher the R-square value, greater will be the Adjusted R-square value. The actual R-square value of this model is 0.655 which is less than the standard value of one. So the level of accuracy of the data is 65.5%, proving that the data is fit for the model. The diagram below shows the predictors in the final model in rank order of importance.
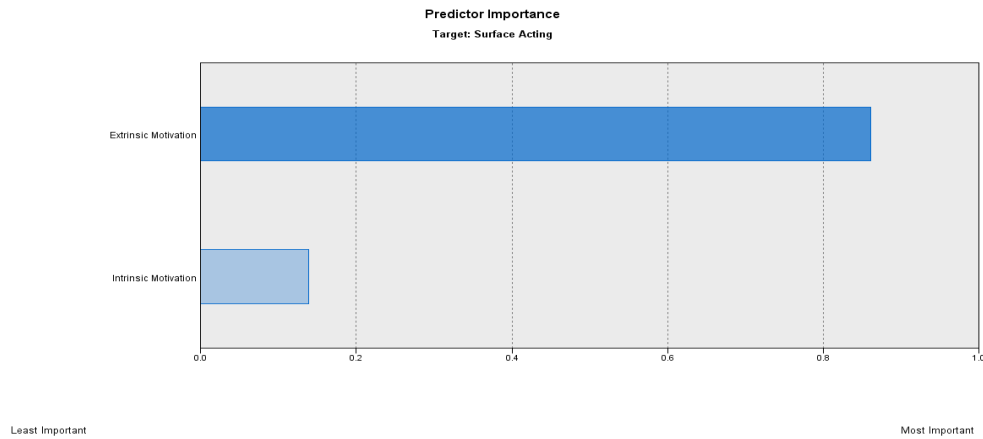
Figure 6.2: order of importance of Work Motivation to Surface Acting

In the figure 6.2, variables are presented in the order of predictor's rank. It can be observed that Extrinsic Motivation is ranked first in the order of importance (86 %) followed by Intrinsic Motivation as second with 14% of importance.

Table 6.2: ANOVA Work Motivation and Surface Acting

	F value	Sig	Importance
Constant	595.054	.000	
EM	328.713	.000	.861
IM	52.958	.000	.139

It is evident from the table 6.2 that the two variables- Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation- are statistically significant. The procedure used in reduction in the information criterion to determine which predictors have to be added to the Linear Equation is done according to the F test. It also shows the order of importance of variables.

Table 6.3: Coefficients of Work Motivation on Surface Acting

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t	Sig	Importance
Intercept	28.115	0.307	91.574	.000	
EM	-0.544	0.030	-18.130	.000	0.861
IM	0.222	0.030	-7.277	.000	0.139

The parameter estimates are the Coefficients of Work Motivation on Surface Acting which is presented in table 6.3. The coefficients show the relationship of each model parameter to Surface Acting. The model can be characterized in the equation as follows:

SA=28.115+ (-0.544 X EM) + (-0.222 X IM) .... (6.1)

It is important to note that the two independent variables are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. The model also shows each independent variable in the order of importance to Surface Acting. It is clear that primary importance is for Extrinsic Motivation with the order of 86% importance followed by secondary importance to Intrinsic Motivation with 14% order of importance. The model summarises that, among the two variables of work motivation, the variable Extrinsic Motivation has negative effect on Surface Acting of professional college teachers. Based on the results, both the hypotheses (9&11) are accepted.

6.2 Work Motivation and Deep Acting

The hypotheses (10 &12) are tested using ALM where the independent variable is work motivation and dependent variable is Deep Acting.

Table 6.4: Summary of ALM

Target	Deep Acting
Automatic Data Preparation	On
Model Selection Method	None (All Predictors Entered)
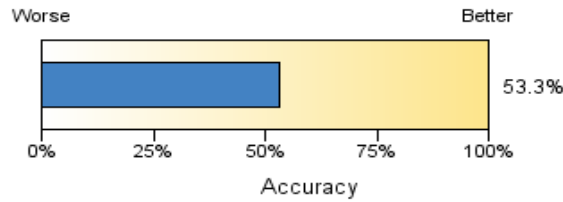
Figure 6.3: R-square value of Work Motivation on Deep Acting

The actual R-square value of this model is 0.533. So the level of accuracy of the data is 53.3%, proving that the data is fit for the model.
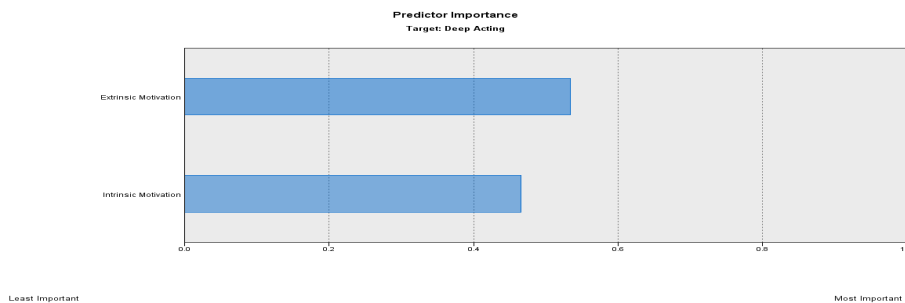
Figure 6.4: order of importance of Work Motivation to Deep Acting

In figure 6.5, variables are presented in the order of predictor's rank. It can be observed that Extrinsic Motivation is ranked first in the order of importance (53 %) followed by Intrinsic Motivation as second with (47%) importance

Table 6.5: ANOVA of Work Motivation and Deep Acting

	F value	Sig	Importance
Constant	357.671	.000	
EM	106.814	.000	0.534
IM	93.139	.000	0.466

It is evident from table 6.6 that all variables are statistically significant. The procedure used in reduction in the information criterion to determine which predictors have to be added to the linear equation is done according to F test. It also shows the order of importance of variables.

Table 6.6: Coefficients of Work Motivation and Deep Acting

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t	Sig	Importance
Intercept	2.213	0.254	8.717	.000	
EM	0.256	0.025	10.335	.000	0.534
IM	0.243	0.025	9.651	.000	0.466

The parameter estimates are the Coefficients of Work Motivation on Deep Acting which is presented in table 6.7. The coefficients show the relationship of each model parameter to Deep Acting. The model can be characterized in the following equation as follows:

EM=2.213+ (0.256 X EM) + (0.243 X IM) .... (6.2)

It is important to note that both the independent variables are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. The model also shows each independent variable in the order of importance to Deep Acting. It is clear that the greater importance is for Extrinsic Motivation (53%) compared to Intrinsic Motivation (47%). The model summarises that, both variables of work motivation- Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation- have positive effect on Deep Acting of professional college teachers. Based on the results all the hypotheses are accepted.

Table 6.7: Status of Hypotheses 9 to 12

Hypothesis		Status
H 9:	There is negative relationship between Intrinsic Motivation and Surface Acting	Accepted
H 10:	There is positive relationship between Intrinsic Motivation and Deep Acting	Accepted
H 11:	There is negative relationship between Extrinsic Motivation and Surface Acting	Accepted
H 12:	There is positive relationship between Extrinsic Motivation and Deep Acting	Accepted

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VALIDATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Structural Equation Modelling is used to validate the conceptual model. Chapter 7 deals with model testing and mediation analysis.

Objective 6: To examine the mediating role of emotional labour between work motivation and work outcomes

7.1 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a second generation data analyses technique, which can be considered as a generalization, integration, and extension of familiar techniques such as analyses of variance (ANOVA), multiple regression analyses, and factor analyses (Hoyle, 2012). SEM is a multivariate statistical technique that combines the methods of factor analysis and multiple regression to simultaneously estimate a series of interrelated causal relationships, such as those in the proposed structural equation model (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013). One of the major advantages of the SEM is that it allows simultaneous equation estimations

that assess both measurement issues and causal relationships in one model and the use of path analyses that statistically and visually illustrate the system of complex relationships. A path diagram helps show the direction of each effect and the correlation or non correlation among all variables with one analyses (Bollen, 1989). SEM makes possible researchers to answer a set of interrelated research questions in a single, systematic, and comprehensive analyses by modelling the relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs simultaneously (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000). It allows researchers to concurrently estimate the relationships between observed and unobserved variables (latent variables) and the relationships among unobserved variables. Latent variables are not directly observed. They are operationally defined in terms of behaviour believed to represent it. The measured scores (measurements) are termed as observed or manifest variables, and they serve as indicators of the underlying construct which they presume to represent. It also allows researchers to simultaneously include both continuous and categorical observed and latent variables (Hoyle, 2012).

Structural equation model includes two kinds of sub-models, measurement model and structural model. The measurement model defines relations between a latent variable and observed indicator variables. When SEM model includes only measurement model, it is a confirmatory factor analyses model. The structural model defines relations among the latent variables and observed variables that are not the indicators of latent variables (Hoyle, 2012).

The structural model is the path model, which relates the independent to the dependent variables. Structural model analyses is an essential tool for

the identification of the causal relationship between several constructs in which separate multiple regression equations are estimated simultaneously (Hair et al., 2013). The measurement model allows to use several variables for a single independent or dependent variable and assesses the contribution of each scale item and incorporates how well the scale measures the concept into the estimation of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Hair et al., 2013).

7.1.1 Measurement Assessment

The measurement model describes the relationship between the measured variables or indicators (i.e., specific items) and latent variables (i.e., dimension or sub-dimensions). It provides the link between scores on a measuring instrument (i.e. the observed indicator variables) and the underlying constructs they are designed to measure. The results of the measurement model test determine how well the indicators capture their specified constructs. The measurement model represents therefore the Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA), in that it specifies the pattern by which each measure loads on a particular factor. It concentrates on validating the model and does not explain the relationships between constructs. It represents how the measured variables come together to represent constructs and is used for validity and reliability checks. In this study, a confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) is applied in the format of Structural Equation Modelling by letting all the constructs correlate freely and applying the same goodness of fit indices used in SEM to determine the model fit. The model fit is determined by examining goodness of fit indices. The structural model identifies causal relations among the latent variables. It specifies that particular latent variables directly or indirectly

influence certain other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2001). SEM can be used to evaluate measurement reliability and validity, as well as testing hypotheses to determine the overall goodness of fit between the sample data and the hypothesized model (Byrne, 2001). The main focus of this model is to test the proposed hypotheses and to investigate the causal relationship among work motivation, strategies of emotional labour and work outcomes.

7.1.2 Partial Least Squares Approach

Partial Least Squares has become increasingly popular as an alternative approach to SEM. PLS SEM is originally designed to use in econometrics but now it is widely used in social sciences. Though there are differences in the terminologies used by PLS and SEM , the basic structure remains the same (Hair et al., 2013). PLS is based on an iterative approach that maximizes the explained variance of endogenous constructs (F. Hair Jr, J., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & G. Kuppelwieser, 2014). PLS-SEM works much like a multiple regression analyses which makes PLS-SEM particularly valuable for exploratory research purposes. PLS SEM can handle all kinds of data from non-metric to metric with minimal assumptions about the characteristics of the data. It can also handle both reflective and formative constructs. This technique focuses on the explanation of the variance rather than covariance and significance testing of parameter estimates and are not possible without boot strapping methods (Hair et al., 2013). The basic difference between the PLS and SEM programmes is in its fundamental objectives. In PLS the focus of the analyses is on prediction whereas in SEM the analyses are more focused on the explanation which is useful in theory testing. PLS is more robust than the SEM. PLS is insensitive to

sample size, it can handle both small and large sample size equally. For the analyses of the research model, a variance based approach or Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach is adopted in this research. WarpPLS 5.0 software is used to test the structural model in this research. WarpPLS 1.0 was introduced in 2009 which is a powerful Partial Least Squares (PLS) based SEM software that identifies nonlinear or "warped" relationships among the latent variables and estimates the path coefficients accordingly. The relationships among variables associated with natural and behavioural phenomena are usually nonlinear, with U-curve and S-curve relationships being particularly common. The Warp3 PLS regression algorithm tries to identify a relationship between latent variables defined by a function whose first derivative is a U-curve and, if that relationship exists, the algorithm transforms or "warps". The warping takes place during the estimation of path coefficients, after the estimation of all weights and loadings in the model (Kock, 2014b).

7.2 Analyses of Measurement Model

The model is analysed using WARP PLS software. The analyses consist of two parts - one is the analyses of measurement model and the other is the analyses of structural model.

7.2.1 Validation of the Emotional Labour Scale

To ensure that the instrument developed to measure emotional labour is indeed measuring the construct, the goodness of measures is assessed by testing the reliability and validity of the instrument. Validation tests such as convergent and discriminant validity are conducted before the Structural Equation Modelling is done.

7.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent and discriminant validity are considered as subcategories and subtypes of construct validity[1]. Convergent validity is established when measures that are related should be related in reality. Convergent validity tests are intended to establish whether answers from different individuals to question-statements are sufficiently correlated with the respective latent variables (Ketkar, Kock, Parente, & Verville, 2012). (Kock, 2014b) proposes two criteria for concluding that a measurement model has acceptable convergent validity. The first criteria is that the p-values associated with the loadings should be lower than 0.05 and the second is that ,for accepting the convergent validity of measure the loadings for indicators of all respective latent variables must be 0.5 or above. In this study, the factor loadings associated with latent variables range from 0.679 to 0.939 as shown in the table 7.1. The loadings for each latent variable in the parentheses are all high while cross loadings are low. The p- values associated with the loadings are all lower than 0.001. Since there are no indicators for which these criteria are not satisfied, there is no need to remove any of the indicators and the convergent validity of the scale is established.

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[1] http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/convdisc.php

Table 7.1: Combined loadings and cross-loadings of the model

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS	SE	P value
sa1	(0.895)	-0.049	-0.042	-0.060	0.001	-0.014	-0.001	0.036	<0.001
sa2	(0.808)	-0.061	0.006	0.047	0.096	0.001	-0.222	0.037	<0.001
sa3	(0.879)	0.002	-0.056	-0.012	0.102	-0.003	-0.164	0.036	<0.001
sa4	(0.849)	-0.012	0.074	-0.135	-0.108	0.043	0.209	0.036	<0.001
sa5	(0.833)	0.044	-0.032	-0.071	-0.072	0.003	0.194	0.036	<0.001
sa6	(0.787)	0.083	0.059	0.255	-0.020	-0.032	-0.020	0.037	<0.001
da1	-0.001	(0.781)	-0.086	-0.026	-0.035	-0.083	0.143	0.037	<0.001
da2	-0.330	(0.679)	0.023	0.061	0.185	0.067	-0.412	0.037	<0.001
da3	0.311	(0.726)	0.071	-0.029	-0.135	0.026	0.232	0.037	<0.001
im1	0.000	0.041	(0.691)	-0.016	-0.070	-0.025	-0.013	0.037	<0.001
im2	-0.050	-0.071	(0.893)	0.001	0.098	0.048	-0.077	0.036	<0.001
im3	0.054	0.042	(0.828)	0.012	-0.047	-0.031	0.094	0.037	<0.001
em1	-0.026	-0.268	0.051	(0.722)	0.044	0.219	0.113	0.037	<0.001
em2	-0.038	0.180	-0.028	(0.818)	0.007	-0.069	-0.127	0.037	<0.001
em3	0.056	0.052	-0.016	(0.885)	-0.043	-0.115	0.025	0.036	<0.001
ji1	-0.085	0.030	-0.081	0.008	(0.862)	-0.023	0.168	0.036	<0.001
ji2	0.088	0.056	0.070	-0.010	(0.925)	-0.002	-0.041	0.036	<0.001
ji3	-0.059	-0.023	-0.054	0.015	(0.886)	0.006	-0.109	0.036	<0.001
ji4	0.008	0.044	-0.017	0.047	(0.925)	-0.059	-0.132	0.036	<0.001
ji5	0.004	-0.109	0.035	-0.071	(0.893)	0.011	0.092	0.036	<0.001
ji6	0.007	-0.045	0.017	0.027	(0.916)	-0.060	-0.021	0.036	<0.001
ji7	0.030	0.044	0.024	-0.016	(0.918)	0.126	0.053	0.036	<0.001
pa1	0.001	0.047	0.068	0.034	0.065	(0.922)	-0.088	0.036	<0.001
pa2	-0.001	-0.053	-0.037	0.026	-0.019	(0.895)	0.054	0.036	<0.001
pa3	-0.001	-0.023	-0.031	-0.037	0.005	(0.931)	-0.006	0.036	<0.001
pa4	0.014	-0.005	-0.022	-0.019	0.050	(0.962)	-0.046	0.036	<0.001
pa5	-0.006	0.042	0.041	-0.031	-0.032	(0.916)	0.027	0.036	<0.001
pa6	0.090	-0.003	0.030	-0.068	-0.065	(0.896)	0.114	0.036	<0.001
pa7	-0.022	-0.022	-0.011	0.063	0.010	(0.939)	0.009	0.036	<0.001
pa8	-0.072	0.017	-0.036	0.030	-0.020	(0.923)	-0.056	0.036	<0.001
ts1	0.630	0.112	0.051	0.290	-0.158	0.086	(0.802)	0.037	<0.001
ts2	0.198	-0.049	-0.016	0.013	0.015	0.116	(0.891)	0.036	<0.001
ts3	-0.952	-0.064	-0.037	-0.341	0.159	-0.240	(0.717)	0.037	<0.001

7.2.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity tests that decide whether concepts or measurements that are not supposed to be related are, in fact, unrelated. A measurement model has acceptable discriminant validity if the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for each latent variable is higher than any of the correlations between the latent variable under consideration and any of the other latent variables in the measurement model. On the diagonal of the latent variable correlation table 7.2 are the square roots of the average variances extracted for each latent variable. As seen in table 7.2, the average variance extracted for each variable in the parentheses is higher than any other values above or below it or to its left or right. Thus discriminant validity of the measurement model is established.

Table 7.2: Correlations among latent variables with sq. rts. of AVEs

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS
SA	(0.843)	-0.699	-0.696	-0.787	-0.727	-0.737	-0.779
DA	-0.699	(0.730)	0.674	0.676	0.666	0.609	0.705
IM	-0.696	0.674	(0.808)	0.729	0.629	0.594	0.631
EM	-0.787	0.676	0.729	(0.811)	0.750	0.737	0.748
JI	-0.727	0.666	0.629	0.750	(0.904)	0.595	0.842
PA	-0.737	0.609	0.594	0.737	0.595	(0.923)	0.577
TSS	-0.779	0.705	0.631	0.748	0.842	0.577	(0.807)

Note: Square roots of average variances extracted (AVEs) shown on diagonal.

7.2.4 Reliability

Reliability is defined as the overall consistency of the results in research. A scale is said to have a high reliability if it produces similar

results under consistent conditions. Reliability is highly important for a research. This is because it tests if the study fulfils its expected aims and hypotheses and also ensures that the results are due to the research and not because of other extraneous variables. If a study is reliable it can have positive implications for other areas of research. A scale is said to have good reliability if the statements associated with each latent variable are understood in the same way by different respondents. For a measurement instrument to have good reliability, both the composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients should be equal to or greater than 0.7. (Bowling & A, 1997; White et al., 2012) in their studies stated that a Cronbach Alpha score above 0.5 is acceptable. Table 7.3 shows the composite reliability scores range from 0.773 to 0.979. The Cronbach's Alpha Scores range from 0.559 to 0.975. These results ensure the reliability of the scale.

Table 7.3: Reliability, Validity and multicollinearity statistics

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS
Composite reliability	0.936	0.773	0.848	0.851	0.969	0.979	0.847
Cronbach's alpha	0.918	0.559	0.729	0.736	0.963	0.975	0.727
Average variances	0.710	0.533	0.653	0.658	0.817	0.853	0.651
Full collinearity VIFs	4.175	2.581	2.543	4.172	3.919	2.666	4.684

Average variance extracted (AVE) are used in conjunction with latent variable correlations for discriminant validity assessment. AVE threshold is frequently recommended for acceptable validity which is 0.5 for the reflective latent variables. From table 7.3 it can be seen that the AVE range from 0.533 to 0.853.

Collinearity is a phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated. Collinearity can be

measured by using Variance inflation factors (VIF). VIF measure how much the variance of the estimated regression coefficients are inflated as compared to when the predictor variables are not linearly related[2]. (Hair et al., 2013) suggests that when a VIF value is less than 10 it can be considered that the scale has no multicollinearity. (Kock, 2014b) mentions that a VIF value less than 5 can be accepted. From table 7.3, it is inferred that there is no multicollinearity because all the VIF values are below 5.

7.2.5 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

The Confirmatory Factor Analyses is conducted together with the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Warp PLS can conduct the Confirmatory Factor Analyses while doing the SEM (Kock, 2014b). (Kock 2015 pp 59) states that the 'p' values which are given for indicator of all latent variables are often referred to as validation parameters of confirmatory factor analyses, because they resulted from the test of a model where the relationship between the indicators and latent variables are defined beforehand. Confirmatory Factor Analyses are usually conducted in combination with SEM analyses.

7.3 Analyses of Structural Model

7.3.1 Model Validation - Model Fit Indices and P-values

The Figure 7.1 shows the research model with the relationship between the latent variables and also the indicators used to measure the variables. The 'R' shown in parentheses inside the latent variable indicates whether the latent variable is reflective or not. The number of indicators

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[2] http://support.minitab.com/en-us/minitab/17/topic-library/modeling-statistics/regression-and-correlation/model-assumptions/what-is-a-variance-inflation-factor-vif/

used to measure each latent variable and the indicators are also shown along with the variable label.
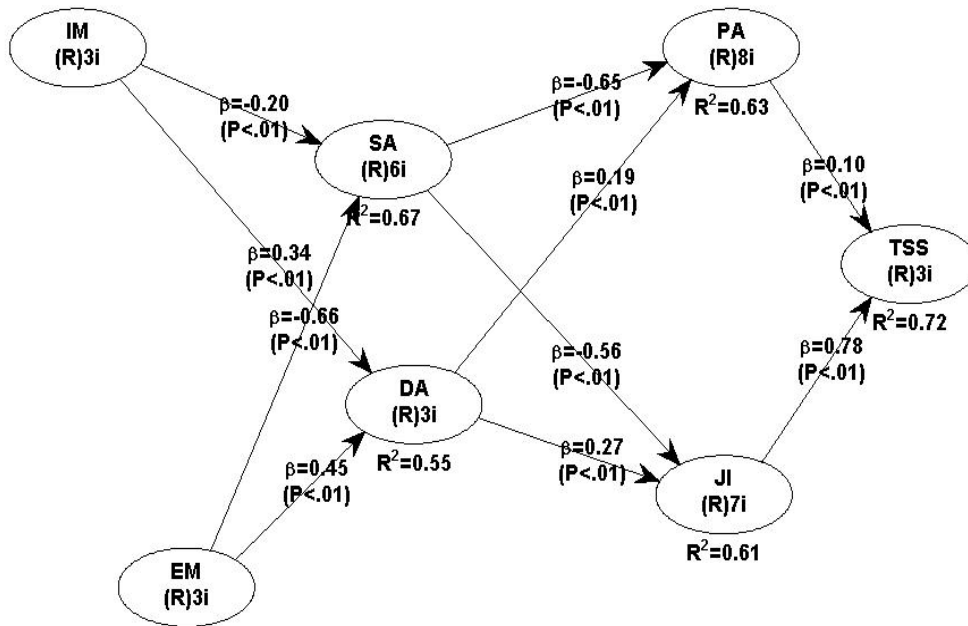
Figure 7.1: Structural Model with β and R² values

The models in PLS are estimated by loadings or weights, which describe how the observations relate to the unobservable variables. The structural relationships explain how the values of unobservable variables influence values of other unobservable variables in the model. The general results of the SEM analyses are as shown in table 7.4. All the criteria for model fit are, as shown in table 7.4, are satisfied by the model

Table 7.4: Model fit and quality indices

Measures	Threshold Values/ P value	Observed values
Average path coefficient (APC)		0.419, P<0.001
Average R-squared (ARS)		0.636, P<0.001
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)		0.635, P<0.001
Average block VIF (AVIF)	acceptable if <= 5, ideally <= 3.3	2.211
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	acceptable if <= 5, ideally <= 3.3	3.534
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	small >= 0.1, medium >= 0.25, large >= 0.36	0.666
Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR)	acceptable if >= 0.7, ideally = 1	1.000
R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)	acceptable if >= 0.9, ideally = 1	1.000

7.3.2 Path Coefficients and P values

The estimated model with path coefficients and corresponding p- values in the parentheses are provided in table 7.6 and figure 7.1. In warp PLS, path coefficients are referred to as beta (β) coefficients. The explanatory power of the structural model is evaluated by examining the squared multiple correlation (R^2) value of the dependent constructs. The R square coefficient measures the percentage of variation that is explained by the model.

Table 7.5: (R^2) value

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS
R-squared coefficients	0.670	0.551			0.615	0.630	0.715
Adjusted R-squared coefficients	0.669	0.550			0.614	0.629	0.715

Table 7.6: Path coefficients and P value

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS
SA			-0.199 (<0.001)	-0.655 (<0.001)			
DA			0.338 (<0.001)	0.449 (<0.001)			
IM							
EM							
JI	-0.561 (<0.001)	0.272 (<0.001)					
PA	-0.646 (<0.001)	0.186 (<0.001)					
TSS					0.777 (<0.001)	0.103 (<0.001)	

7.3.3 Effect Sizes for Path Coefficients

Effect sizes for path coefficients for each path coefficients are given below in table 7.7. An **effect size** is a quantitative measure of the strength of a relationship (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). Effect size indicates how much change the dependent variable can be explained by independent variable. A Standard error is a statistical term that measures the accuracy with which a sample represents a population. The effect sizes described in warp PLS are similar to Cohen's (1988) f-square coefficients. The effect sizes help to determine whether the effects indicated by path coefficients are small(0.02), medium(0.15), or large (0.35) (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). From table 7.7, it is clear that among the two strategies of emotional labour, intrinsic motivation has more effect on Deep Acting than Surface Acting and in the case of Extrinsic Motivation, the effect is more on surface acting than the deep acting. The effect of surface acting on job involvement is more compared to that of deep acting. In the case of personal accomplishment, the effect of surface acting is more than that of deep

acting. In the case of teaching satisfaction, the effect of job involvement is more than that of personal accomplishment.

Table 7.7: Effect sizes for path coefficients

	SA	DA	IM	EM	JI	PA	TSS
SA			0.140 (small)	0.530 (large)			
DA			0.232 (medium)	0.319 (medium)			
IM							
EM							
JI	0.428 (large)	0.187 (medium)					
PA	0.506 (large)	0.124 (small)					
TSS					0.654 (large)	0.061 (small)	

7.4 Mediating effect of Emotional Labour on Work Motivation and Work Outcomes

7.4.1 Mediation Analyses

Mediation implies a situation where the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable can best be explained using a third mediator variable which is caused by the independent variable and is itself a cause for the dependent variable.
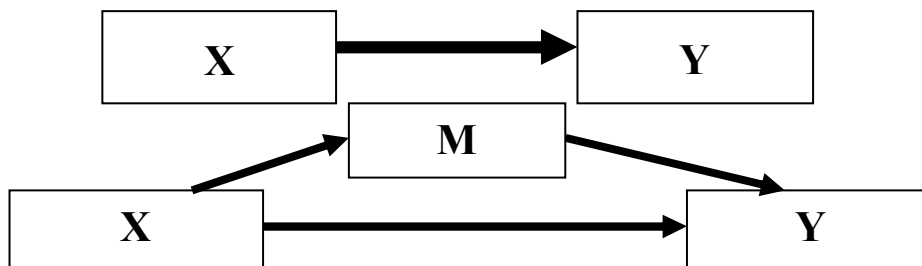
Figure 7.2: Mediation Analyses

That is to say, instead of X causing Y directly, X is causing the mediator M, and M is in turn causing Y. The causal relationship between X and Y in this case is said to be indirect. The relationship between the independent, the mediator and the dependent variables can be depicted in form of a path diagram/model.

Mediator specifies a given cause of original predictor variable-Independent Variable (IV) - that works indirectly through a more direct cause of mediator variable- to a final effect on outcome variable which is the Dependent Variable (DV). The mediator is adding to the overall variance accounted for in the model and trying to explain **'why'** the Dependent Variable and Independent variable are related. Mediators explain how external physical events take on internal psychological implication. Whereas moderator variables specify when certain effects will hold, mediators speak to how or why such effects occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A variable may be considered a mediator to the extent to which it carries the influence of a given independent variable (IV) to a given dependent variable (DV). Generally speaking, mediation can be said to occur when (1) the independent variable IV significantly affects the mediator, (2) when the independent variable significantly affects the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator, (3) when the mediator has a significant unique effect on the dependent variable , and (4) when the effect of the independent variable IV on the dependent variable DV shrinks the addition of the mediator to the model.

Emotional labour mediates the relationship between Work Motivation and Job Satisfaction. Work motivation better explained by the self determination theory. "Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a macro theory of

human motivation and personality that concerns people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs. It is concerned with the motivation behind choices people make without external influence and interference" (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The theory is concerned with optimal human functioning and for this, individuals must fulfil three basic psychological needs namely autonomy, competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2002). By meeting these needs, the motivation becomes more autonomous and result in the psychological wellbeing of the individuals (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Gagné & Deci, 2005). It is proved that self determined motivation decreases burnout and increase satisfaction (Vallerand et al., 1992). Since self-determined motivation and emotional labour both affect employee well-being ,emotional labour strategies could act as mediating variables between the motivation and employee well-being (Michel Cossette & Hess, 2012; Michel Cossette, 2014). (Michel Cossette & Hess, 2012) in their study proved that deep acting mediates the relationship between self determined motivation and job satisfaction and it also showed a positive effect on the use of deep acting strategies in the jobs of the respondents. (Michel Cossette & Hess, 2012; Michel Cossette, 2014) also proposed that Deep Acting reduces burnout and increases job satisfaction. But (M Cossette, Blais, & Hess, 2006; M. Cossette & Hess, 2012) cannot find an effect of surface acting on the outcomes; this could be because of the nature of the job (Michel Cossette, 2014).

7.4.2 Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects

Total, Direct, and indirect effect coefficients are calculated using Warp PLS 5.0. Calculation of such indirect, direct and total effect coefficients can prove crucial in evaluating and explaining mediating effects

of variables in the model. Warp PLS software calculates total and indirect effects related to all latent variables that are linked through one or more paths with more than one segment. The software provides the following values associated with total and indirect effects: "the path coefficients associated with the effects, the number of paths that make up the effects, the p- values associated with effects which is calculated via re-sampling, using the selected re-sampling method, the standard errors associated with the effects, and effect sizes associated with the effects" (Kock, 2014b). The effect sizes are calculated as Cohen's (2009) f -square coefficients.

Table 7.8: Indirect effects in structural model

	Indirect effects	P-value	Effect Size Coefficient	Effect Size	Std. Err
IM-SA-JI	0.146	<0.001	0.093	Small	0.028
EM-SA-JI	0.506	<0.001	0.381	**Large**	0.027
IM-SA-JI-TSS	0.125	<0.001	0.079	Small	0.023
EM-SA-JI-TSS	0.426	<0.001	0.322	Medium	0.022
IM-SA-PA	0.153	<0.001	0.091	Small	0.028
EM-SA-PA	0.523	<0.001	0.385	**Large**	0.027
IM-SA-PA-TSS	0.091	<0.001	0.057	Small	0.023
EM-SA-PA-TSS	0.310	<0.001	0.234	Medium	0.022
IM-DA-PA	0.221	<0.001	0.132	Small	0.028
EM-DA-PA	0.295	<0.001	0.218	Medium	0.027
IM-DA-PA-TSS	0.131	<0.001	0.083	Small	0.023
EM-DA-PA-TSS	0.175	<0.001	0.132	Small	0.023
IM-DA-JI	0.232	<0.001	0.146	Medium	0.028
EM-DA-JI	0.311	<0.001	0.234	Medium	0.027
IM-DA-JI-TSS	0.195	<0.001	0.123	Small	0.023
EM-DA-JI-TSS	0.262	<0.001	0.198	Medium	0.022

Indirect effects are introduced when the path from an initial variable to an outcome variable has other intervening variables. The intervening

variables in a model can have a mediation effect on the relationship between the initial and outcome variables. The indirect effects by number of aggregated segments and summation of indirect effects for each variable relationship in the model along with the effect size with respective p- values and standard error are also calculated is reported in the table 7.8. It is found that all the paths are found to be significant.

Total effect contains direct effects also. Direct effects for each variable relationship in the model along with the effect size with individual P values and standard error are shown in table 7.8. Direct effects are similar to the path coefficients for each variable -to-variable relationship. It is essential to note effect size when examining direct effects. While a direct effect may be significant (P<0.001), magnitude of that effect - effect size- may be small. Here the relationship between extrinsic motivation and surface acting; surface acting and job involvement; surface acting and personal accomplishment and job involvement; is large. All the other relationships are either small or medium. And all the relationships are significant.

Table 7.9: Total effects

	Total effects	P-value	Effect Size Coefficient	Effect Size	Std. Err
IM- SA	-0.199	<0.001	0.140	Small	0.039
IM- DA	0.338	<0.001	0.232	Medium	0.038
EM- SA	-0.655	<0.001	0.530	**Large**	0.037
EM-DA	0.449	<0.001	0.319	Medium	0.038
SA-JI	-0.561	<0.001	0.428	Large	0.038
SA_PA	-0.646	<0.001	0.506	Large	0.037
DA-PA	0.186	<0.001	0.124	Small	0.039
DA-JI	0.272	<0.001	0.187	Medium	0.039
PA-TSS	0.103	<0.001	0.061	Small	0.039
JI-TSS	0.777	<0.001	0.654	**Large**	0.037

"For a mediating effect to be considered significant, the P value associated with the product of coefficients *a. b* must be significant at a specified level which is usually lower than .05. Additionally, the P values associated with *a, b* and *r* must also be significant. If these conditions are met, and the P value associated with *c* is **not** significant, it is said that *full mediation* is occurring. If the P value associated with *c* is significant, it is said that *partial mediation* is occurring" (Kock, 2014a). In this study, it is found from the indirect effects table that the P values associated with *a. b* is significant. it is also seen from total effects table 7.8 that the *c* values are significant. Thus it is proved that strategies of emotional labour partially mediate the relationship between work motivation and work outcomes.

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Chapter 8

DISCUSSIONS, FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter deals with discussion of the analysis, findings and conclusion of the study. The classroom is considered as an emotional place both for the students and the teachers (Boekaerts & Pekrun, 2015). Classrooms contain both positive and negative emotions. Positive emotions enhance the process of learning and negative emotions hinder the process of learning. So emotions can be considered as the key for learning process. Teachers have major role in promoting positive emotions in the classroom. An enthusiastic teacher often interests the class with excitement, enjoyment and anticipation; engages students to participate; and inspires them to explore. As a result, teachers' enthusiasm sparks curiosity of students and encourages their motivation to learn. Teacher enthusiasm can lead to better teaching evaluations, positive attitudes toward teachers, better student performance, and improved classroom behaviour by students[1].

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[1] https://www.natcom.org/CommCurrentsArticle.aspx?id=4678

8.1 Research Findings and Discussions on Strategies of Emotional Labour and Gender

The demographics of the respondents show that there is an equal representation of male and female teachers. Most of the teachers are from the age group of 26 to 36 years with an experience of 0-5 years. Majority of the teachers are Assistant Professors mainly from self financing sector. In Kerala, in the past 10 years, there is remarkable increase in the number of self financing colleges in the professional educational sector. The main reasons for the presence of young teachers in the professional colleges are due to the rapid increase of self financing colleges on the demand side and on the supply side, the availability of post graduates with no/less teaching experience and the retirement of the baby boomer generation from these colleges. Self financing colleges have reported difficulties in appointing qualified teachers based on UGC norms, resulting in the recruitment of fresh post graduates. 81% of the teachers in this study have post graduation as qualification and they have less than 5 years teaching experience.

The current study tries to find whether there is significant relationship with demographic variables like age, gender, educational qualification, experience, designation, and type of colleges and strategies of emotional labour, Work Motivation and work outcomes. It is found that except for gender and Deep Acting, all other demographic variables in relation to dependent variables have not shown statistical significance. Majority of the previous studies reveal responses relating to relationship between gender and emotional labour as positive. However, one of the recognized studies is that of (Bono & Vey, 2005) which reports no significant relationship of weighted mean correlation between gender and Surface Acting and gender

and Deep Acting. (Mann, 2007) reports that people expect difference in emotional display between men and women. Women are expected by society to show warmth regardless of their true feelings. (Bellas, 1999) reports that in the case of teachers, students expect female teachers to be more approachable and to show more warmth than that of their male counterparts. (Norsby & DeHart-Davis, 2007) argue that gender difference does exist in the emotional labour process because of societal norms and acculturation processes and while the masculine culture gives importance to emotional suppression and control, feminine culture gives importance to responsiveness and submission. According to their study, in the case of teachers, due to this difference in masculine and feminine cultures, male teachers may experience higher emotional labour than women teachers. (Cheung & Tang, 2010) in their study found significant relationship between Surface Acting and gender and they also report that men tend to use Surface Acting more than women. (Fay, 2011) reports that women's gender identification positively predicts Surface Acting. In this study also, it is proved that the analysis on gender and strategies of emotional labour complies with former result that women teachers use more of Deep Acting strategies than of Surface Acting compared to that of their counterparts.

The first objective of the study is to examine whether professional college teachers in Kerala display strategies of emotional labour in terms of Surface Acting and Deep Acting. It is found that professional college teachers in Kerala favour strategies of Surface Acting than Deep Acting. This proves that professional college teachers in Kerala experience emotional labour on their job. Surface Acting when used over a period of time can harm the teachers in the long run. It is evident from personal

discussions carried among the sample respondents that no training is given by the professional colleges in teaching in the category of new teachers. It is also observed that no training is given to teachers of all categories in managing the emotions of teachers for optimum performance. Teachers use their intuition and their experience to manage their emotions in the classroom. Many teachers are of the opinion that it is extremely helpful for them if induction training is given to them in managing emotions in the classroom.

8.1.1 Exploring Link between Strategies of Emotional Labour and Work Outcomes like Personal Accomplishment, Job Involvement and Teaching Satisfaction

The objectives, two, three and four in the study deal with the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and the three work outcomes, namely Personal Accomplishment, Job Involvement and Teaching Satisfaction. Personal Accomplishment is the feeling of competence and successful achievement at one's work. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) in their study clearly indicates that Personal Accomplishment scale is independent of the other subscales in the burnout scale. (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Zhang & Zhu, 2008) in their study mentioned that the Personal Accomplishment component of burnout does not have a strong association with the other two components such as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization; it is not a genuine component of burnout, so it can be taken independently to measure an individual's feeling of accomplishment. Previous studies show mixed results with regard to the relationship of emotional labour and Personal Accomplishment which is always measured as a factor of burnout. In this current study, Personal Accomplishment is independently considered as a

component from a positive perspective, for measuring the teachers' own feeling of competence and success at their work. (Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999) in their study found the positive influence of emotion on Personal Accomplishment. They also argue that handling complicated negative emotions can give an individual a sense of Personal Accomplishment and this is the reason why they argue that emotional labour as such cannot be termed as negative or positive. (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) in their study found that Surface Acting is negatively related to Personal Accomplishment and Deep Acting is positively related to Personal Accomplishment. (Kinman, Wray, & Strange, 2011) in their study argue that teachers who perform more emotional labour tend to report higher rather than lower levels of Personal Accomplishment. (Näring, Briet, & Brouwers, 2006) find that there is no relationship between Deep Acting and Personal Accomplishment.

The second objective explores the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Personal Accomplishment. It is found that the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Personal Accomplishment is found to be significant. The linear model shows the importance of each independent variable to Personal Accomplishment. It is clear that the greater importance is for Surface Acting (95%) compared to Deep Acting (5%).

The third objective of the study is to explore the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Job Involvement. The previous literature always mention that emotional labour depends on Job Involvement to achieve job satisfaction (Pugliesi, 1999; A. Wharton, 1999; A. S. Wharton, 1993). But it is not empirically tested. In this study, the relationship between emotional labour and Job Involvement is tested. It is found that

relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Job Involvement is statistically significant. It is clear that in the order of importance, Surface Acting (76%) is ranked first compared to Deep Acting (24%) which is ranked second. (Zammuner & Galli, 2005) in their study mentioned that the level of Job Involvement affects the level of involvement in managing emotions.

The fourth objective of the study is to explore the relationship between strategies of emotional labour and Teaching Satisfaction. Most of the literature relating to emotional labour focuses on burnout and job satisfaction (Kinman et al., 2011; Yin, Lee, Zhang, & Jin, 2013a). Research results expose that teachers who perform more emotional labour tend to experience lower levels of job satisfaction (Kinman et al., 2011; Yin et al., 2013a). The researches done in the service sector shows that emotional labour can reduce feelings of satisfaction with the job role by depleting emotional resources (Zapf et al., 1999). Research results have shown that when Surface Acting increases, job satisfaction decreases and when Deep Acting increases, job satisfaction increases (Hazel-Anne M. Johnson, 2004; Kinman et al., 2011; Pugliesi, 1999; Yang & Chang, 2008; Yin, Lee, Zhang, & Jin, 2013b). It is found that the strategies of emotional labour and Teaching Satisfaction are statistically significant. It is clear that in the order of importance; Surface Acting (76%) is ranked first compared to Deep Acting (24%) which is ranked second. Thus it is proved that Teaching Satisfaction is negatively related to Surface Acting and positively related to Deep Acting.

8.1.2 Work Motivation as an Antecedent of Emotional Labour

The fifth objective of the study is to find whether Work Motivation is an antecedent of emotional labour. In recent literatures, researchers are focusing on motivation behind selecting emotional labour strategies in achieving work outcomes. (Sisley & Smollan, 2012) are the first researchers who try to explain the motivational bases of employees to use the two emotional labour strategies. They explain the motivational bases of emotional labour strategies using self determination theory. (Cossette, 2014) is the first author who comes up with the idea that emotional labour strategies can act as a mediating variable between motivation to perform emotional labour and employee well-being. He argues that motivation to perform can positively be related to Deep Acting and negatively be related to Surface Acting. He also argues that further studies are required in more homogeneous samples to understand the relationships better. (Cossette & Hess, 2012) argue that employees' motivation to express positive emotions leads to the expression of the naturally felt emotions and the use of reappraisal. On the contrary, motivated employees use less suppression of emotion at their work. Therefore, employees' motivation seems to facilitate the adoption of a more authentic stance toward customers. (Truta, 2014) in her study among Romanian teachers studied the role of Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation as antecedents of emotional labour strategies-Surface Acting and Deep Acting. The study found that Intrinsic Motivation has significant relationship with Deep Acting, while Surface Acting is not associated with any form of motivation. From these studies it is clear that emotional labour strategies can be conceptualized as motivated acts (Cossette & Hess, 2009; Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005). This

study attempts to ensure homogeneity in the sample in terms of size, qualification, gender and experience. It proves that there is significant relationship between Work Motivation and strategies of emotional labour. The study also proves that the two Work Motivation variables-Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation- have negative effect on Surface Acting. The regression model also shows the importance of each independent variable to Surface Acting. It is clear that primary importance is for Extrinsic Motivation with the order of 86% importance followed by secondary importance to Intrinsic Motivation with 14%. When the relationship between Work Motivation and Deep Acting is checked using ALM it is found that the two Work Motivation variables-extrinsic and intrinsic-, have positive effect on Deep Acting. The regression model also shows the importance of each independent variable to Deep Acting. It is clear that the greater importance is for Extrinsic Motivation (53%) compared to Intrinsic Motivation (47%). Therefore, it is proved that Work Motivation is an antecedent of strategies of emotional labour.

8.1.3 Integrated Model Linking Work Motivation, Emotional Labour and Work Outcomes

An integrated model is developed and tested in this study. The initial model is developed based on the review of literatures on Work Motivation, emotional labour and work outcomes. This study is done based on the positive psychology perspective, which believes in the positive outcomes which can be used to improve the organization. When the review of literature is done, it is found that studies are done to ascertain job satisfaction of employees in relation to strategies of emotional labour. Though research results have mentioned that high Job Involvement is

required for emotional labour to achieve satisfaction, it is not empirically tested. This study attempts to find the relationship of strategies of emotional labour to Teaching Satisfaction through Job Involvement and Personal Accomplishment. This study also tries to find what motivates teachers to use specific strategies of emotional labour to achieve Teaching Satisfaction.

The initial framework of the study is conceptualized using a simple model which shows a direct relationship among Work Motivation, strategies of emotional labour and work outcomes of professional college teachers. In this model, strategies of emotional labour and Work Motivation are considered as independent variables and the work outcome variables such as Personal Accomplishment, Job Involvement and Teaching Satisfaction are considered as the dependent variables.
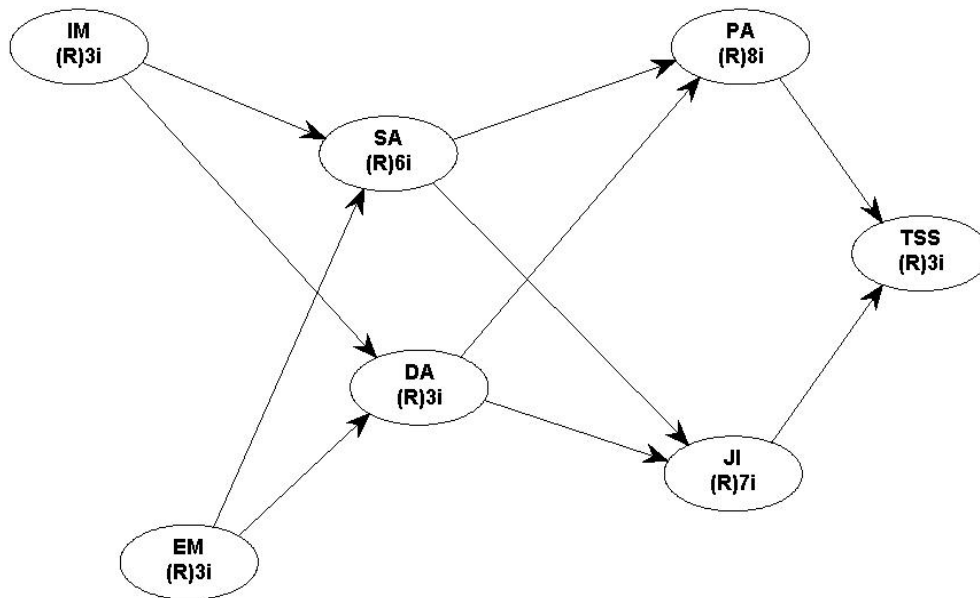

Figure 8.1: Structural Model

Structural Equation Modelling is used in proposing and validating the conceptual model in terms of strategies of emotional labour, Work Motivation and work outcomes of teachers. After doing SEM analysis it is found that the model has a better fit when the Personal Accomplishment and Job Involvement act as an intervening variables to Teaching Satisfaction. It is also found that all the paths are significant. Out of these paths, the effect size of paths between Surface Acting-Extrinsic Motivation, Surface Acting-Job Involvement and Job Involvement-Teaching Satisfaction is found to be large. The effect size of paths between Intrinsic Motivation - Deep Acting, Extrinsic Motivation - Deep Acting, and Deep Acting -Job Involvement is found to be medium. The model has good fit with Average block Variance inflation factors (AVIF)-2.211, Average full collinearity Variance inflation factors (AFVIF)-3.534 and Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF)-0.666.

8.1.4 Mediation of Emotional Labour between Work Motivation and Work Outcomes

(Cossette, 2014) in his article explained why and how employees regulate emotions at work. They also argue that emotional labour strategies act as mediating variables between motivation to perform emotional labour and employee well-being, job performance, job attitudes and turnover. This is not empirically tested. This study tries to find the mediating effects of strategies of emotional labour on Work Motivation and work outcomes. This study uses PLS- SEM to examine the mediating effects of emotional labour on Work Motivation and work outcomes. PLS - SEM shows partial mediation. So, it can be concluded that emotional labour mediates the relationship between Work Motivation and work outcomes. These results agree with the work of (Cossette, 2014) that emotional labour acts as a

mediator between motivation and work outcomes especially in a homogeneous group of teachers.

8.2 Implication of the Findings

This study tries to find motivation of teachers to select the specific strategies of emotional labour to achieve selected work outcomes. It also tries to further understand the importance of strategies of emotional labour in teaching careers. The findings of this study are in line with (Brown, 2011), stating that emotional labour is present in teachers' daily work, but the phenomenon has not yet formally been introduced to teachers nor incorporated into the supervision of their daily work. Through this kind of research, administrators will understand the complexities of emotional labour in teaching and this may usher in a change for translating these concepts into practice. It is clear from the study that professional college teachers are satisfied with external motivational factors like pay and security. The study also points the less-stressed effect of Personal Accomplishment. One predominant reason for this is the lack of Intrinsic Motivation of the teachers. Another reason is the influx of self financing colleges in Kerala. In the current situation, in the learning process, students hold much money power because they are considered as the ultimate customers. And the administrations of these institutions give more importance to students. These factors have led teachers to focus only on immediate goals like grading and finishing the curriculum. In this changed academic setting, there is less of an emotional bonding between teachers and students in the professional colleges.

8.2.1 Suggestions

The recommended actions are as follows.

1) Awareness creation on display strategies of emotional labour has to be generated among policy makers, educational programme developers and teachers.

2) Tests of strategies of emotional labour can be included in the process of selection of teachers.

3) Specific training has to be given to display appropriate strategies of emotional labour, particularly in the category of new teachers in achieving expected teaching outcomes.

4) Creative learning opportunities have to be provided to enhance Intrinsic Motivation to achieve teaching outcomes.

5) Teachers have to be encouraged to attend conferences and seminars to gain further knowledge and presentation skills.

6) While recruiting new teachers it is to be ensured that they are genuinely interested in teaching career. The pay package alone should not be the motivating factor. To achieve this, professional colleges have to introduce more comprehensive recruitment process. To ascertain genuine interest in candidates, psychometric tests can be utilized. There are two main advantages for this selection process. One is that the professional colleges can make sure of the person-job fit and the second is the reduction of attrition among teachers. Many a time it is found that new recruits with hardly any experience consider teaching as a temporary career option till a better one crops up.

7) In most of the professional colleges, due to lack of experienced teachers, administration recruits fresh graduates and post graduates. They are given neither training nor coaching on how to teach. In schools, teachers are made to go through rigorous training programmes before they are actually allowed to teach. In the case of teachers in professional colleges, imparting knowledge is through a method of trial and error. By the time they grasp the nuances of teaching, much damages are done. The transfer of image of teachers from senior to junior batches will create implications on the quality of teaching. Therefore providing basic training in managing classrooms by using appropriate strategies of emotional labour is suggested.

8) Strategies of emotional labour have to be included in the training programmes for all teachers to realize the expected teaching outcomes. Training can also be given in managing self emotions and that of students in the classroom. This is very important because the right emotions can help forge a good relationship between teachers and their students especially by modulating the behaviour of the teachers in the classrooms.

9) It will also help new teachers to have mentors who will guide them in their career paths. Professional colleges can think of introducing a mentorship programme by assigning new teachers under experienced hands. This will help the new teachers in acclimatizing themselves to new situations and challenges in their career. The mentors can guide junior teachers in innovative ways of student-control and emotion-control. They can also help students with right career options and encourage and guide them to do research.

10) Professional colleges have to implement a proper performance appraisal system by considering all the aspects of teaching rather than depending on student feedback alone for promoting teachers. 360 degree appraisal is beneficial in this regard. Through this method, administration will get an all-round review about the teacher from students, peers, parents, and heads of departments. Performance appraisal system has to contain student feedback, peer reviews, department head review, research initiative, curriculum design and conference and seminars attended and initiated.

11) Every year, performance goals have to be set for each teacher by the teacher and the head of department which will enhance the career of teachers.

12) To motivate teachers, they have to be provided with new learning opportunities. One way of doing it is to encourage the teachers to attend conferences and seminars to gain new knowledge. Another way is to encourage and provide opportunities to interact with industries to get practical experience based on theoretical knowledge, which will have a positive influence on learning.

13) Recognition is another way of intrinsically motivating teachers. Professional colleges can come up with schemes of rewards and recognitions to appreciate the talents of teachers. For example, a best teacher award, a best publication award and such other recognitions can go a long way in boosting the morale of teachers.

14) Autonomy has to be given to teachers in modifying the curriculum and introducing new teaching methods. When teachers feel they are

allowed to exercise more control over their work, they will perform better and this can only help optimum student outcomes.

15) The teachers have to be encouraged to create an emotional bond with students which are essential for the growth and development of both students and teachers.

16) Professional colleges have to lay down Plans for Career development for teachers to will motivate them in achieving their career goals.

8.3 Conclusion

This study exposes the finding that professional college teachers display strategies of Emotional Labour- Surface Acting and Deep Acting in their teaching role. Out of the two strategies, it is found that Deep Acting is the most appropriate strategy of Emotional Labour for teachers to achieve expected Work Outcomes. However, teachers are found to be using strategy of Surface Acting which will not produce expected Work Outcomes. It is also proved that teachers favour Extrinsic Motivation than Intrinsic Motivation in achieving Work Outcomes. Along with Extrinsic Motivation, it is essential to find right ways to intrinsically motivate the teachers by giving new opportunities and challenges in teaching to ensure expected Work Outcomes. Suppressing positive and negative emotions inside classrooms obviously hinders learning outcomes which in turn affects the quality of teaching. Suggestions include formulating appropriate Deep Acting strategies, creating awareness among teachers and policy makers about the importance of strategies of Emotional Labour in teaching, evolving and providing suitable training for teachers in using appropriate strategies of Emotional Labour in classrooms and providing and creating

new and challenging learning opportunities by encouraging teachers to attend and present relevant conferences and workshops in their area with the intention of enhancing Intrinsic Motivation to realize intended teaching outcomes.

To conclude, there are many other aspects of Emotional Labour that can be researched and this study may be a torchbearer for such research in the area of Emotional Labour.

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▐▐▐ **References** ▐▐▐

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||||| **Appendices** |||||

Appendix I

Questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

I am Jitha G. Nair, a full time research scholar, working under the guidance of Dr. Sarada S. (Rtd) at the School of management studies of the Cochin University. As part of my Ph.D. research work, I have to collect data on Emotional Labour, Emotional Intelligence and Work motivation. I request you to carefully fill all the questions. I assure you that the data collected will be confidential and only be used for research purposes.

Sincerely

Jitha G. Nair
Research Scholar
Cochin University
Jithakannan@yahoo.com
9747235541

**Section A: Personal Profile**

Please give me some information about yourself. All information will be kept confidential. Please fill the vacant column and tick the appropriate box.

1.	Age:	☐ Below 25 years ☐ 26- 36 years ☐ 37- 47 years ☐ 48- 58years ☐ 58 and above
2.	Gender:	☐ Male ☐ Female
3.	Marital Status:	☐ Married ☐ Unmarried ☐ Separated /widow/widower
4.	Educational Qualification:	☐ Bachelor degree ☐ Post Graduate ☐ Ph.D. ☐ Post Doctoral Fellow
5.	Subject Stream	☐ Engineering ☐ Management ☐ Others
6.	District	
7.	Designation	☐ The director / Dean / Principal ☐ Professor ☐ Associate Professor ☐ Assistant Professor
8.	Experience:	☐ 0- 5 years ☐ 6-11 years ☐ 12- 16 years ☐ 17-21 years

		☐	22-27 years
		☐	28-33 years
		☐	Above 33 years
9.	Type of college	☐	Government
		☐	Aided
		☐	Self financing
10.	Employment Status of the Spouse	☐	Employed
		☐	Unemployed
		☐	Self earning
		☐	Not applicable
11.	Number of children	☐	No children
		☐	One child
		☐	Two children
		☐	More than 3
12.	Whether any of your parents were in the teaching profession?	☐	Father
		☐	Mother
		☐	Both
		☐	None

Section B

*The following items express your emotions as a teacher, while interacting with students on an average day at work. Please carefully read each statement and express your view on each statement by **circling** one of the five choices given as **(5) Always, (4) Often, (3) Sometimes, (2) Rarely, (1) Never.** Please give your natural response and do not omit filling any of the items.*

SL No	Code	Items	Always 5	Often 4	Rarely 2	Never 1		Some times 3
1	SA1	I show emotions that I do not feel	5	4	2	1		3

2	SA2	I pretend to have emotions that I really do not have	5	4	2	1		3
3	SA3	I show emotions that are expected than what I feel	5	4	2	1		3
4	DA1	I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others	5	4	2	1		3
5	DA2	I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job	5	4	2	1		3
6	DA3	I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show	5	4	2	1		3
7	HF1	I hide my true feelings about a situation	5	4	2	1		3
8	HF2	I resist expressing my true feelings	5	4	2	1		3
9	HF3	I conceal what I am feeling	5	4	2	1		3

Section D

*Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work. This is accompanied by the scale 1= **not at all; 2= very little; 3 = a little; 4 = moderately; 5 = strongly; 6 = very strongly; 7= exactly.***

SL No	Code	Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1	Int1	I enjoy teaching very much	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Int3	I teach because it gives me satisfaction	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Int4	I teach for the satisfaction I experience of taking on an interesting challenge	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Ext1	I teach because this job affords me an expected standard of living	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Ext2	I teach because it allows me to earn sufficient money	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Ext 4	I teach because it gives me security	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section E

*The following items express your satisfaction level in the career. Please carefully read each statement and express your view on each statement by **circling** one of the five choices given as **(5) Strongly agree, (4) Agree, (3) Neutral, (2) Disagree, (1) Strongly disagree.** Please give your natural response and do not omit filling any of the items..*

1	PA1	I can easily understand how my students feel about things	5	4	2	1		3
2	PA2	I deal very effectively with problems of my students	5	4	2	1		3
3	PA3	I feel I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work	5	4	2	1		3

4	PA4	I feel very energetic	5	4	2	1		3
5	PA5	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students	5	4	2	1		3
6	PA6	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students	5	4	2	1		3
7	PA7	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job	5	4	2	1		3
8	PA8	In my work, I deal with emotional problems calmly	5	4	2	1		3
9	JI1	The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.	5	4	2	1		3
10	JI2	I am very much involved personally in my job.	5	4	2	1		3
11	JI3	I live, eat and breathe my job	5	4	2	1		3
12	JI4	Most of my interests are centred on my job.	5	4	2	1		3
13	JI5	Most of my personal life goals are job--oriented	5	4	2	1		3
14	JI6	I consider my job to be very central to my existence.	5	4	2	1		3
15	JI7	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	5	4	2	1		3
16	TSS 1	Being a teacher is close to my ideal	5	4	2	1		3
17	TSS 2	I am satisfied as a teacher	5	4	2	1		3
18	TSS 3	If I could choose my career again, I would be a teacher again	5	4	2	1		3

Thank You

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▌▌▌ List of Publications ▌▌▌

Refereed Journals

(1) Effect of Emotional Intelligence, Caring Orientation and Emotional Labour Strategies on Job Involvement of Higher Education Teachers: A Study from the Most Literate State in India By Jitha G Nair, Dr. Hareesh Ramanathan and Dr. Sarada S., Kelaniya Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume 7, Number 2, July 2012, ISSN 1800-1793.

(2) Work motivation as the antecedent of emotional labour process among professional college teachers in Kerala by Jitha G Nair and Dr. Sarada S., Research journali's Journal of Human Resource, December 2016, RJ Factor- 2.19.

Paper Presentation

(1) Emotional labour of professors in Kerala by Jitha G Nair, Applied psychology in transforming education and management in the context of globalization, Toc H institute, Arakkunnam, 15-17 June 2012.

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▌▌▌ Curriculum Vitae ▌▌▌

Name	:	Jitha G. Nair
Date of birth	:	5th May, 1983
E-mail	:	jithakannan@yahoo.com
Religion	:	Hindu, Nair
Nationality	:	Indian
Marital status	:	Married

Education qualifications:

Name of Exam	Year of passing	Board/university	Division/ Class
S.S.L.C	1998	State, Anitha Vidyalaya, Kalady	First Class
Pre Degree	2000	MG University, Kerala Marthoma College For Women, Perumbavoor	Second Class
B.C.A	2003	Bharatiyar University, Coimbatore CMS College of Science and Commerce, Coimbatore	First Class
MBA	2005	Bharatiyar University, Jansons school of business, Coimbatore	First Class

Working experience : July 2008- January 2013 - School of Communications and Management Studies (SCMS), Assistant Professor

July 2005-October '2007 - Sree Narayana Gurukulam College of Engineering), Assistant Professor

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