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AN EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND WORK  
ALIENATION

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Yukarıda adı geçen öğrenci tarafından hazırlanan “Duygusal Emek ve İşe Yabancılaşma İlişkisi Üzerine Ampirik Bir Araştırma” başlıklı bu çalışma 07 / 12 / 2016 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği/oyçokluğu ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından yüksek lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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### ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, duygusal emek ve işe yabancılaşması arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Araştırmada, hizmet sektöründe çalışan ve özellikle Konya ilinde Karatay, Selçuklu ve Meram'de bulunan turizm acenteleri üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır. Bu çalışmanın örneklem boyutunda toplam 158 anket uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, duygusal emeğin işe yabancılaşmayla istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ilişkilere sahip olduğunu ve duygusal emek ile işe yabancılaşma arasındaki ilişkilerin orta düzeyde pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Veriler, çalışanların farklı yaş, gelir ve iş deneyimi düzeyleriyle duygusal emek arasında belirgin bir fark olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu çalışma, farklı yaş ve iş deneyimi düzeylerindeki, çalışanların işe yabancılaşması düzeyleri arasında istatistiksel olarak önemli bir fark olduğunu bulmuştur. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları, farklı eğitim seviyeleriyle duygusal emek seviyeleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu yaklaşımını desteklememektedir. Üstelik bulgular, farklı eğitim ve gelir düzeyleriyle işe yabancılaşma düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmadığını da ortaya koymuştur.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** duygusal emek; işe yabancılaşma; eğitim; yaş; gelir; deneyim.



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### SUMMARY

The aim of this research was to perform an empirical investigation on the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. The research was focused on the employees who work in the service industry and particularly in tourism agencies located in Karatay, Selçuklu, and Meram in Konya province, Turkey. A total of 158 respondents were set as the sample size in this study. The results showed that emotional labor has statistically significant relationships with work alienation and the relationships between emotional labor and work alienation was moderately positively correlated. Based on the data, there is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in the different age, income, and work experience levels. The study found that there is a statistically significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age and work experience levels. The results from this research did not support the approach that there is a statistically significant difference between the emotional labor in different education levels. Moreover, findings suggested that there are no significant differences between the work alienation in different education and income levels.

**Key word:** emotional labor; work alienation; education; age; income; experience.



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## INTRODUCTION

The fast growth of the service sector, especially in developed countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Japan, and at the same time the growing consideration of the role and importance of service in the different sectors caused the birth of new phenomena. These new events required determination of new concepts that are able to handle new challenges derived from these developments. Employees behavior problems at the workplace and customers' higher expectations encouraged an intense study of new terms such as emotional labor and alienation.

Changes and higher expectations prompted employers and employees to think in new and creative ways. Creative thinking helps organizations to develop new ideas and build innovation skills that may be the base for more profit. But on the other hand, there is a risk that changes and expectations might be a negative factor for workers, which can provoke feelings of doubt and insecurity about work and can be stressful, resulting in psychological problems and even more in alienation. In order to effectively manage constant change, transformation of the nature of work, satisfy customers and increase their profits, companies or employers should understand the character of phenomena, which can help employees to cope with changes and find relevant ways to solve issues concerning to employee itself and consequently to customers and organization.

An effective way of managing emotional labor contribute to higher performance at the workplace and higher motivation for workers. Nowadays companies see emotional labor as much important as they see professional skills. Inability to understand and manage emotions causes erratic mood. Therefore, learning how to reduce stress and manage emotions can be a crucial step towards the development of emotional labor, which then contribute to establishing strong relationships both at work and in personal terms.

Alienation is a process that occurs when there is a difference in natural feelings and innate behavior, resulting in atypical behavior and unexpected situation. An

individual's abnormal behavior and the situation can be momentary or constant repetition. Such circumstances may affect an individual and when it happens it distracts a part of "self" to him, causing the highest stage of change in "self" of the individual, which is called alienation. In the case of employees, the risk of being alienated is permanent due to routine work and techniques practiced at the workplace. One of the techniques used by employees in order to raise the quality of service during the work process is emotional labor.

This research study has examined the link between emotional labor and work alienation. This work was conceptualized into three parts. The first part displays a theoretical framework of emotional labor concept, followed by the theoretical framework of alienation in the second part. The third part is made of the application of theory into practice. Also in this part, the methodology used, acquired results, discussion, and limitations are presented.

## **PART I**

### **EMOTIONAL LABOR**

#### **1.1 Emotional Labor Concept**

Emotional labor is difficult explicitly to be defined. Usually, some of the people think that emotional labor is about being wise and some think that is about intelligence quotient, where individuals with higher IQ have better emotional labor.

However, this concept is more about consciousness and self-control. Emotional labor appears to be the ability to identify, understand, use and manage emotions in a way that stress may be reduced. In this context, the ability to identify and understand emotions allows creating and developing ways to communicate effectively, face challenges and prevent possible conflicts. Meanwhile, the ability to use and manage emotions is a manner which affects different aspects of the daily life such as behavior and interaction with others.

Hochschild has been the first who proposed emotional labor concept in the literature in 1983 and since her proposal different approaches have been developed. Ashforth and Humphrey in 1993, and Morris and Feldman in 1996 are amongst first names to have developed emotional labor approaches. Grandey is another important name that in 2000 has presented his idea about emotional labor. In order to portray these approaches and understand the theoretical frame of this concept and its contribution to the literature Hochschild, Ashforth and Humphrey, Morris and Feldman, and Grandey have been described as follows.

##### **1.1.1 Hochschild's Approach (1983)**

Hochschild has explained emotional labor by giving the example of the flight attendant. When a flight attendant pushes meal cards he or she does physical labor, and when the flight attendant prepares and organizes emergency landings and evacuations or other services he or she does mental work. Through this example she has claimed that the employee does more than physical and mental labor, he or she does something that she defined as emotional labor. Hochschild defined emotional



labor as "the labor that requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others, in the sense of being cared for a convivial and safe place, and where this labor calls for a coordination of mind and feelings, and it sometimes draws on a source of self that we honor as deep and integral to our individuality" (Hochschild, 1983: 6-7).

Hochschild has emphasized the risk posed by emotional labor. She added that the risk may come because of doing things differently to his/her true state. A close investigation of the differences between mind and feelings or deep and integral of individuality can lead to unexpected results. These differences may cause a possible alienation where the laborer may become estranged from one aspect of self, either the body or the soul (Hochschild, 1983: 7). At the first glance, the flight attendant may look happy with the job he/she does as long as showing to "love the job" is part of the job but in real he/she may be depressed. Daily job routines such as trying to enjoy the job they do and satisfy clients help in this effort. Therefore, from a real depressed situation, the worker may be changed in a real happy mood. Further, the physical movements of a worker's arm in a factory is another sample. In this case, when the worker's arms are used as a part of the machinery to produce the product it is irrelevant to say that the worker consciously controls the movements.

According to Hochschild emotions were not uncontrollable and impossible to be manipulated. Thus, she introduced surface and deep acting as types to demonstrate that emotions can be managed and manipulated. Surface acting is defined as "the capability of disguising what we feel, of pretending to feel what we do not, where the box of clues is hidden, but it's not changed" (Hochschild, 1983: 33). Meanwhile, deep acting "makes feigning easy by making it unnecessary, and where the clues can be dissolved, which involves deceiving oneself as much as deceiving others" (Hochschild, 1983: 33). Deep acting seems to be something more than pretending to convince. With other words, in surface acting the person deceives others, and not himself, but in deep acting, he deceives himself as well. Theatre actors may be considered an illustrative example of surface acting. During the acting, an actor imposes artificial gestures in order to transmit the message to the audience

as if he had felt. Deep acting is more complex. They are two methods of doing it. One of the methods is doing it by stimulating feelings and the other one is doing it by performed imagination (Hochschild, 1983: 38). The second method is generally more effective in individual's efforts to feel as much as he/she have real feelings.

An important contribution of Hochschild in emotional labor literature is her work related to occupational groups. Based on her findings, only six groups out of twelve occupational groups used in U.S. were more vulnerable to experiencing emotional labor. These six groups were as follows: professional and technical workers, managers and administrators, sales workers, clerical workers, and service workers of two types; those who work in inside and those who work outside of private households (Hochschild, 2012: 244). She also has insisted that sales workers, managers, and administrators were expected to do emotion work. On the other side, other professions such as service and clerical workers looked to involve considerable amounts of emotional labor.

### **1.1.2 Ashforth and Humphrey's Approach (1993)**

Ashforth and Humphrey have attempted to point out the behavioral outcomes of the emotional labor more than experienced emotions. In this context, Ashforth and Humphrey have determined emotional labor as a work provided in a manner where someone manifest feelings and this manifestation have a strong impact on the quality of service transactions, the attractiveness of the interpersonal climate and the experience of emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993: 80).

Unlike Hochschild, Ashforth and Humphrey have targeted more the visible behaviors. The reasons behind this approach are that clients and customers determine the quality and value of the service according to the behavior of the employee. Hochschild indicated that service offered by the employee while working is expected to have certain behaviors, and these expectations for particular behavior at the workplace from clients may play a psychologically negative role for the employee. In the case of stewardesses, passengers expect her to provide meals and look after them and during the service, she is expected to be cheerful and looks as she enjoys the job, too. But always personal layer is an inseparable part of every individual. Probably

she is not on a good day, but passenger as a customer is interested only in offered service. This attitude of them stimulate more stress and create an uncomfortable situation for the worker. In these conditions, stewardess' behavior can be not as expected and passengers can feel that the worker is not paying attention to them, therefore low-level evaluation of offered service is inevitable.

As stated in Hochschild's approach, a worker may normally think that he or she can directly express his/her feelings and it is not necessary to manage the emotions. Differently from Hochschild, Ashforth and Humphrey proposed another approach. They revealed their disagreement on this point by giving another example. A case of a nurse who feels sympathy at the sight of an injured and tries to transmit the idea that she feels pity about patient, looking like she shares the same pain, is an indicator of "acting". According to them, this is a genuine way of acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993: 94). They have rendered this experience of playing with emotions as a third type of performing emotional labor.

Also, Ashforth and Humphrey distinguished emotional labor concept from other managerial sectors by noting that labor with emotions occurs in the service sector or service context (1993: 90). They aligned some reasons why labor with emotions happens in the service context. Firstly, service personnel consisting of employees that represent the company in front of customers are directly exposed to the company-customer interaction. Employees who are the frontline of service have direct contacts with customers. Secondly, interaction process includes face-to-face communication between employee and customer. As every direct contact, interaction process involves face-to-face contact as well. In addition, during face-to-face interaction employee and customer have not only psychological intercommunion but sometimes may include physical cooperation such as the case of a nurse while she offers her service. Thirdly, employee-customer intercommunication comprises changeable and uncertain behaviors usually created by customer during service transmission, which can be a dynamic and unclear process. Customer participation is an expression of his will to cooperate with the employee in order to benefit the service. Despite his will to benefit the service his behavior and attitude may not

always be similar to expectations, hence exist potential chances of uncertainty. And fourth, service is a relatively intangible process, so it is difficult for costumers to rate service value. Service quality may be percepted diversely. The same received service can be differently evaluated by costumers. Although, these reasons focus more on employees as members of the organization and their contact with customers.

### **1.1.3 Morris and Feldman's Approach (1996)**

Emotional labor concept has encouraged a large amount of research. Morris and Feldman's research was from another perspective. They were the first to study emotional labor's antecedents and outcomes. Their investigation of antecedents and outcomes emphasized the quantitative nature of emotional labor.

They described emotional labor as "the act of expressing organizationally desired emotions during service transactions" (Morris & Feldman, 1996: 987). In contrast with Hochschild's approach of two-dimensional emotional labor and Ashforth and Humphrey' three-dimensional emotional labor, they recommended four dimensions of emotional labor: (a) frequency of appropriate emotional act, (b) attentiveness to necessary display rules, (c) variety of emotions needed to be displayed, and the fourth (d) emotional dissonance caused as reflection of preferred emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1996: 987).

The frequency of emotional manifestation is an essential element in the determination of emotional labor. On the other side, frequency alone is not relevant to define the level of control and display emotional labor. Therefore, three other dimensions should take into account in order to manage emotional labor. The second dimension indicates the level of attentiveness to demonstrate rules enforced by the workplace. By showing the rules enforced by workplace a higher psychological and physical effort is made by employees. In this case, a new level of emotional labor is acquired. Morris and Feldman introduced duration and intensity of emotional labor as two components of attentiveness to display rules dimension that contributes to the more accurate evaluation of emotional labor (Morris & Feldman, 1996: 989-990). The third dimension highlights the importance of diversity of emotions. Employees express diverse emotions and it may vary according to situations and duties.

Different situations necessitate different response by employees towards clients. The more new situations the more "labor" is needed and thereby the more psychological and physical attempt is inevitable. Emotional dissonance dimension of emotional labor is the last dimension of emotional labor. In 1989 emotional dissonance was defined by Middleton as "a difference in the emotion actually held compared to that one that is considered to be the norm" (Middleton, 1989: 199). This conflict occurs when authentic feelings of employee and emotions that should be expressed at the workplace are not the same.

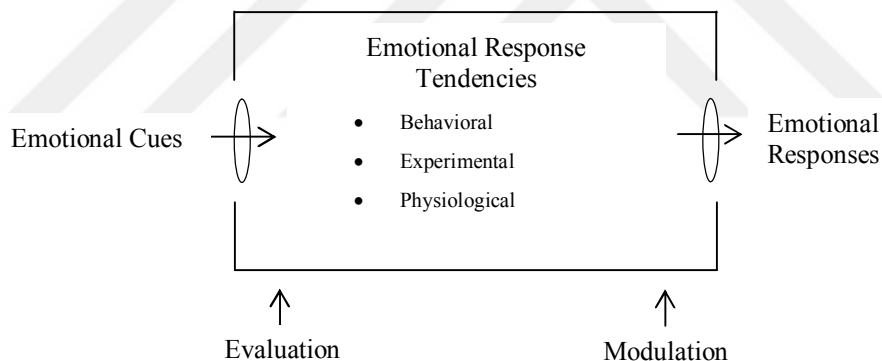
Also, both of them Morris and Feldman have admitted that Hochschild's outlook was right when it comes to the belief that emotional labor needs effort and emotional expression, and it can be helpful to mention that they omitted terms "surface acting" and "deep acting" in their classification. Furthermore, removal of terms "surface acting" and "deep acting" in their four-dimensional model can be because their model is regarded as a model where employees are of free will. In this context, this perception helps employees to express emotions in both internal and external environment.

#### **1.1.4 Grandey's Approach (2000)**

Grandey is another name that contributed to the development of emotional labor by presenting her conception and model. She acknowledged that previous definitions of emotional labor contain problems. Hochschild considered emotional labor in terms of surface and deep acting, which is a model that doesn't explain very clearly the reasons and outcomes of emotional labor. Meanwhile, Ashforth and Humphrey agreed with Hochschild about the impact of duties at the workplace, highlighting effectiveness more than employee's health or stress. Also, Ashforth and Humphrey proposed a model which focuses more on observable behaviors and emotional displays that are genuine. This approach is incomplete because almost excludes the importance of feelings. Moreover, Grandey argued with Morris and Feldman's conceptualization, too. She suggested that the determination emotional labor only in terms of frequency, duration, and variety is insufficient. So, she came up with her conceptualization.

Grandey explained emotional labor as a process where employees adjust their arousal and cognitions in favor of displaying the proper emotions at the workplace and reveal desired emotions (Grandey 2000: 98). In addition, she suggested a new model of emotional labor called emotion regulation process. The emotion regulation concept was defined by Gross (1998 b: 275) as a process where individuals effect emotions that they have and at the same time the way how individuals experience and express emotions. Also, Gross has described emotional regulation as an automatic and controlled process, which individuals may be aware or not of their emotions. These emotions can play an important role and may have a significant impact on emotion productive process. In order to portray his proposal about the process, Gross suggested his model named as "Consensual Process Model of Emotion Generation" adapted from his earlier study "Antecedent and Response Focused Emotion Regulation".

**Figure 1. A Consensual Process Model of Emotion Generation**



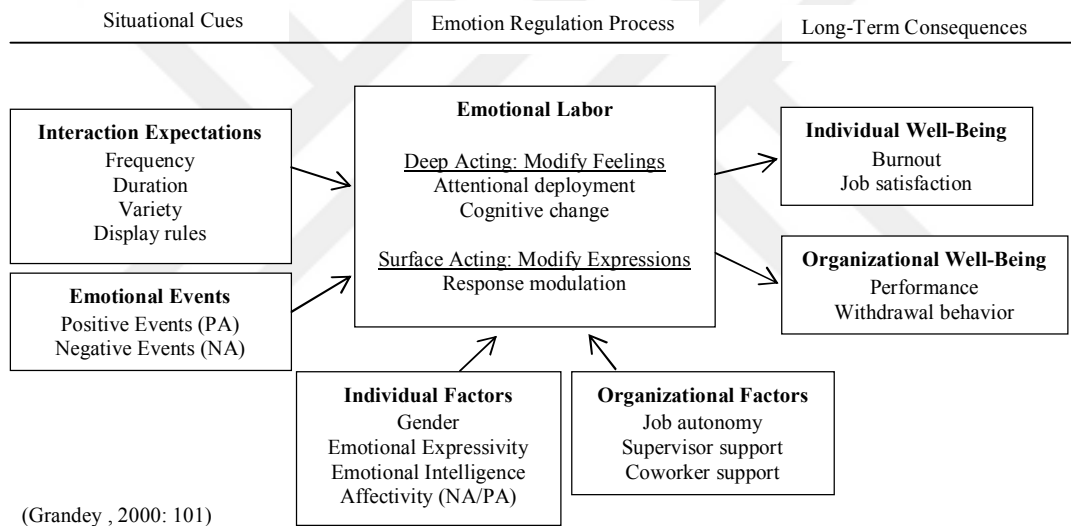
(Gross, 1998 a: 226)

The recommended approach and model of emotion regulation process impressed Grandey. She engaged and applied Gross' approach to emotional labor concept and then she suggested her model. In Grandey's model, emotion regulation and emotional labor's antecedents, individual and organizational characteristics, functions, expectations and other factors are integrated into one system.

The first model provides a theoretical model of emotion regulation process, while the second gives a conceptual model of emotion labor. Grandey's model is based on the combination of emotion regulation theory and emotional labor concept. In this model the antecedents or situational variables are the same with emotional

variables of Gross' model (1998 b) about emotion regulation process. Job characteristics can be seen as a new and important element of the model. Hochschild (1983) insisted that employees expression of feelings depend on organization's expectations. This expectation pushes employees to control more their emotions in the workplace. On the other hand, Morris and Feldman (1996) in their approach added the significance of duration and variety of emotions. The model proposed by Grandey appears to be a combination of employee-customer interaction and expectations of customers and organization. Those characteristics together can be considered as the key factors which employees react with emotion regulation.

**Figure 2. The Proposed Conceptual Framework of Emotional Regulation Performed in the Work**



Individual factors such as gender, personal expressivity, individual intelligence and organizational factors such as support required and offered at the workplace, autonomy related to decision-making process can be thought as influencing elements on emotional labor associated then with surface and deep acting. In her model, Grandey has exposed consequences in terms of individual and organizational prosperity. Burnout and job satisfaction were classified as individual components that contribute positively when employees are satisfied with job and burnout is at low levels. Performance and behavior were regarded as additional components. In this sense, understanding the characteristics, functions, acting and components help to predict consequences of the emotional labor process. Prediction of consequences

may serve as a positive contributor to more controlled emotions and behavior at workplace and welfare for the organization as well.

### **1.1.5 Kruml and Geddes' Approach (2000)**

In their study "Exploring Emotional Labor" Kruml and Geddes (2000) have endeavored to address some of the limitations of Hochschild (1983) and also they have tried to provide whether surface acting and deep acting were distinct dimensions of emotional labor or they are two branches of the same dimension. Kruml and Geddes and Hochschild have provided insights concerning to emotional labor consequences. Based on their findings and analysis, emotive effort and emotive dissonance were acknowledged as dimensions of emotional labor. Their results indicated that these two dimensions have different behavior related to respective antecedents showing that they may provide different pieces of evidence (2000: 37). This philosophy deals with Hochschild's conceptual construct of emotional labor. Their findings also suggested that emotional contagion has a strong effect on emotional effort and emotional dissonance. In this study, they pointed out when employees are skillful and capable of interacting emotionally with customers, less emotive dissonance is present and more emotive effort is requested. In addition, when employees are left in free will they express authentic feelings and in this case less dissonance and less effort occurs. With other words, employees tend to display real feelings when display rules are not essential and requested.

Personal and job characteristics were considered crucial and noteworthy antecedents of emotional labor. Kruml and Geddes (2000) considered display training, display latitude, customer affect, quality orientation, emotional attachment as job-related antecedents of emotional labor and gender, age, experience, empathic ability as personal antecedents of emotional labor. All these predecessors, directly and indirectly, affect emotions of employees and process of labor. The interaction between employees and customers is influenced by these antecedents. In every step of emotional labor each of antecedents have their own specific function and place. Some of them are part of emotional labor process at the beginning and some of them during the process. In their study, Kruml and Geddes (2000: 39-40) revealed that



emotional labor is a concept that may involve human resource practices. Training, job design, and selection are some of the practices that were applied in their study. Furthermore, these practices can be successful for associations, organizations, and companies when are regularly enforced and implemented. Procedures implemented by organizations and followed by employees may train them when and how to change emotions. The nature of change it is up to interaction with customers. For instance, it is easier for employees to intercommunicate with customers when they have positive attitude showing collaborative stance. Unlike when customers have a positive attitude it is more difficult for employees to anticipate customers action and then reaction.

## **1.2 Antecedents of Emotional Labor**

The structure and activity of relationship between emotional labor and other concepts have been unclear. Several studies have been made in order to understand and explain reasons why emotional labor occurs, what are consequences, and how are other concepts interrelated to the complex relationship. Understanding antecedents of emotional labor helps to find out the complexity of relationship, functions, and the way how it works. In this study situational and dispositional, and their distinct categories were given as the major antecedents of emotional labor.

### **1.2.1 Individual Antecedents of Emotional Labor**

The nature of the job and the social environment appears to play a key role. Emotions are substantially a private matter, but they are influenced by culture and norms of society, and at the workplace, they are regulated by organization rules. Hochschild definition of emotional labor as the management of emotions that tends to create publicly visible facial and bodily display (1983: 7), it represents her attitude that emotional labor transfers its personal dimension to the public world of work. This attitude expresses people's aim not only to manage their own emotions but also to affect others' emotional state and influence it. Therefore, by looking into individual, job, and organizational characteristics, it would help to shape expectations and understand interaction employee-customer.

It is important to mark individual characteristics of emotional labor and to examine the role and functions they play in the management of emotions. Numerous similar and distinct individual antecedents such as gender, age, race, religion, culture, education level, perception about privacy limits, empathy, and emotional intelligence may underlie as emotional labor components that may affect in different ways the beginning, development and the end phase of labor with emotions.

#### **1.2.1.1. Gender**

One of the most important factors as an individual characteristic is gender. With other words, sex differences deserve attention, because such differences can be decisive when it comes to involvement in work. Commonly named the “traditional” family is made of a mother-caregiver, a father breadwinner, and children (Williams, 1999: 8). This stance and existing norm imposed by the societal culture that women should be focused on feelings more than men create the idea that women can be more appropriate and fitting with emotional labor. This perception may serve as a real impetus for women to work more on their feelings. On the other hand, for several reasons in some societies men are seen as the gender that should repress negative emotions and women should express them, while in some other societies it is the opposite. In the first case, men are supposed to work more on their emotions, especially when they experience negative emotions and women to work less because the society and community encourage to express freely feelings. But in the second case, it is the opposite. Women are assumed to work more on their negative emotions and repress them, while men are prone to express them.

This cultural pressure and expectations depending on gender can interfere between felt and expressed emotions, therefore emotional labor it is inevitable. Hochschild (1983: 168) has pretended that practically everybody works with emotions, men, and women, but comparing with men women are assumed to work more with them. Women are more able to speak, comment, suggest, smile, make a compliment and change their emotions. In this context, she described the woman as a “conversational cheerleader”. Hochschild (193: 162-163) has noted that the importance of emotional labor may not be similar to both genders. Emotional labor

can be more important for women than for men. The reason is the financial imbalance and the gap that exist between them in terms of power, authority, and status. In societies where the gap of finance, power, authority and status between women and men is bigger, the work with emotions of women is bigger, so in that way, they can achieve their goals. In this aspect, genuine acting can be predominant over two other dimensions of emotional labor.

Erickson and Ritter (2001) have also investigated the influence of gender on emotional labor. In their research, they found out that there were no gender differences of emotional labor between men and women (2001: 157). In addition, their results showed that women were more disposable than men to hide negative feelings such as concern, worry, and other stressful situations. On the other side, sex difference had no effect on management and administration of positive or negative feelings. Based on their findings, working independently increase chances to manage emotions. Employees feel more free, where an absence of pressure from an employer can boost ability to hold and master emotions. Erickson and Ritter (2001) suggested that women were more capable not only of hiding negative emotions, but they were also more able to manage and play with them. Contrary to women, man were less skillful on managing negative emotions. In their research Erickson and Ritter (2001) have underlined that experience of emotions and management process are variable, by reducing the role and place of gender in this process. Their analyses indicated that employees who experience positive emotions minimize negative emotions such as anger, agitation, nervousness. In that way, Erickson and Ritter have emphasized a personal aspect behind gender.

#### **1.2.1.2 Age**

Regardless of gender, significance and process of emotional labor concept, it would be incomplete without an analysis of age. Age of employees and customers has a decisive role in the emotional labor process and manipulation with emotions. Hochschild (1983) has indicated that age influences the manner used by employees and methods applied by them to perform emotional labor. It is common that older employee, because of their age have larger emotional recording than young ones.

Moreover, Hochschild (1983) argued that older employees are more suitable than young employees at controlling emotions. For instance, an older receptionist can manage efficiently his emotions during interaction with an emphatic customer in an uncomfortable situation for him, while a young employee it can quickly become impatient and expressing his anger to a customer. Such circumstances lead to a dysfunction in relations between employees and customer. However, age it must not be seen as an isolated agent that operates alone. The failure of managing feelings should not be seen through the lens of the age factor, but should be considered as a complementary and influential factor of emotional labor.

Age-differentiated work is another reason why age is an important matter. Nowadays, very often can be seen age criteria in job announcements provided by different companies in various countries. Age limits for a specific job may vary depending on culture and norms of one country about limits that a certain age should make or not a particular job, which is adjusted by organizational culture rules and knowledge expectations. In a case of a job announcement where the age criteria are 25-40 years old, can exert indirect pressure to current employees that are near these limits or have passed. For example, when the company is looking for an employee between 25-40 years old for the same job position of a 39 or 41 years old current employee, he may feel that his working position is threatened. These conditions may affect employee's well-being, thus his behavior differentiates, causing a change in his efforts to work with emotions. More emotional labor provided by a current employee can reflect his desire and motivation to continue the current job, even that he feels the pressure of job position threat. In this sense, this pressure prompted the employee to have a higher level of emotional labor.

### **1.2.1.3 Status**

Similarly to gender and age, status is another additional antecedent of emotional labor. Hochschild (1983: 172) indicated that higher-status people are more likely to have more privileges of having their emotions overlooked and considered important. Meanwhile, the lower-status people may have other treatment, which means that paying attention to their emotions and considering them noteworthy it is

less likely to happen. The power of this difference in treatment can be considered as a reflection of dissimilar status approaches followed by societies or companies. Equal service for all customer is a principle that helps employees to satisfy customers of lower-status, resulting in qualitative service perception and pleasant experience. On the other hand, this principle may not meet expectations of higher-status customers for personalized service and special treatment through which they experience the feeling of being important and focused on their emotions. In such situations, it is the duty of employees to deal with lower-status customers and higher-status customers as well. Providing expected services and satisfying both of classes is a process that may require extra work with emotions, thus emerges emotional labor.

#### **1.2.1.4 Experience**

Experience is a term that refers to the knowledge, capability or method of an individual which results in the cumulative addition and redundancy of having experience (Erlich, 2003: 1126). With other words, an experience can be interpreted as knowledge capital that one person has gained over the life. Meanwhile, an experience is a process that happens constantly. This continuity is due to an interaction of human being and envioning circumstances that are involved in the living process (Dewey, 2005: 36). Dewey (2005) affirmed that in a case when an individual is under resistance and conflict circumstances, where the nature of self and factors of the world affect interaction, the experience can be identified with emotions and conscious ideas. Such explanation emphasizes the role of experience as a complementary element of an individual during the interaction.

Besides, Forlizzi and Battarbee (2004: 262-263) have determined three types of experience: a) user-centered, b) product-centered, and c) interaction-centered. In their first categorization of experience, Forlizzi and Battarbee (2004) have described human aspects that contribute to the interaction of human experience. By describing different aspects of human being, which is labeled as “user”, they have captured elements that help a person to be motivated to act, interact, and other elements such as personal interests, individual characteristics, etc. While, by the product-centered model they have described different features of the product such as appearance,

design, etc., and the way how these features affect user's experience. In this sense, an experience is seen as a "give-and-take" process. A user who represents the employee and its product can create a relationship which may influence the employee's way of doing the job and its results. As the last dimension of experience, interaction-centered dimension focuses more on the interaction of the user with the system, where the system summarizes in one, personal aspects, products features and people, which can be members of an organization, family or anyone else who the user has contact. This classification can contribute to a broader and comprehensive understanding of the context of experience as an influential component during interaction process of an individual.

#### **1.2.1.5 Privacy, Personal Features and Social Life**

Privacy can be another agent that affect emotional labor. This notion may include a broad definition, but in the context of emotional labor privacy concept it can be regarded as the right of privacy for what an individual consider private. Privacy may include personal relationships, family life, interest, lifestyle, hobbies, and emotions. Some individuals are more sensitive to these issues and some are less. Emotions can be presented and interpreted diversely. The diversity of performance it may come as a result of different perceptions whether the emotion is subject to privacy or not. With other words, for some employee expressing their emotions is a private element of his own life. While, for some other displaying feelings, is not regarded as a private issue.

This approach can lead to the different commitment of emotional labor among employees. On the other hand, this commitment it depends not only on what employees consider private life for themselves, but also depends on the attitude of customers about what is privacy and where is the limit that should not be crossed. This limit is variable depending on the personal outlook of customers and employees. Therefore, employee's emotional labor effort rely on customer's attitude. For instance, an employee can be capable enough to interact with a customer, but the is not currently willing for collaboration. This hesitation that comes as a consequence of private limit approach compels in a way employee to work more with emotions.

An illustrative example of personal relationship privacy limits may be a customer that has broken up with his girlfriend. Such situation is convenient for an employee to act genuinely and express naturally felt emotions. Employee's attempt to show that even he is in a similar situation regardless the fact that this is not true, his effort to act as he cares about him and he feels upset are indicators of genuinely acting. But for a customer, this is a personal matter and this is a subject that should not be shared and discussed with anyone. In this case, the employee is exposed to remodel his behavior. Remodeling behavior requires more emotional labor, where the employee should act wisely in order to return at the beginning of service performing, thereby escaping disagreement and dispute with the customer. In such circumstances, unsuccessful execution of emotional labor carries the risk of customer dissatisfaction.

Family life refers to every topic that converges to the family. Age of family members such as husband and spouse's age, children's age and probably ancestors' age; the number of members such as the number of children and ancestor; education level, and even the fact whether all family members reside or not under the same roof. Each of them may vary and represent distinctive characteristics which compose what can be named as family background. In terms of emotional labor, family composition is an inseparable factor that determines the psychological mood of an employee or customer. From this point of view, organizations should take into consideration family composition of an employee, because it may encourage them to understand employee's background. In this sense, a company can apply personalized emotional labor training and results can be more productive.

Lifestyle, hobbies, and personal interest complete other personal features. Lifestyle term presents particular models of values, attitudes, and actions that distinguish one group from another or one person from another (Hallin, 1994: 174). Hallin (1994) continued that the lifestyle of one individual evolves as an interaction between his individual capacity and limitations imposed by the social and physical environment. Therefore, his standpoint highlights the importance of lifestyle as an actor and factor during interaction process. Hobbies and personal interest can be extra factors that an employee can consider before emotional labor process. All

factors taken together can contribute to understanding customer's background and his potential emotional reaction. Thus, selection of the proper method and technique to be used by an employee at the workplace may be easier. However, this does not guarantee the success of emotional labor, but it may serve as a helpful instrument when employees work with emotions.

#### **1.2.1.6 Emotional Intelligence**

In their study, Mastracci, Newman, and Guy have referred to emotional intelligence as individual's natural ability to be aware of personal emotions and to point out the emotive situation of another person (2010: 134). Seen from this point of view, emotional labor includes not only control of the emotional situation of "self" but also the management of emotional mood of another person. In this context, they have introduced "artful effect" as a valuable term to portray performance of emotional labor. This concept refers to the ability to be ingenious at understanding the emotional situation of another person, whereas mastering person's own emotive expression. Meanwhile, Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008: 713) have defined emotional intelligence as a concept that reflects the extent of a person to follow, process, and act upon information, which can be gained through interpersonal and intrapersonal emotional interactions. They also stated that interpersonal interactions associated with emotion awareness and regulatory processes can lessen person's stress at workplace, which may result in a beneficiary relationship. Besides, better management of intrapersonal relationship tends to overcome stress and it assists in controlling negative emotions. Therefore, emotional intelligence has a significant role and may affect positively emotional labor.

Mastracci, Newman, and Guy (2010) indicated that such ability and behavior have two sides. One is reactive side, that can be interpreted as a necessity of employee to react to every emotional situation of another individual. The reaction is a phase that starts simultaneously with interaction and finishes at the same time with interaction. While, the other side is proactive affect. Unlike reactive acting, proactive acting is the skill of an individual to predict the emotional mood of a person that will interact, and to behavior in a way that softens negative emotive state. For example,



the nurse's behavior can be considered as a reaction when a patient goes to the nurse and she provides her service just by doing the needle, replying to possible questions and customer's relevant behavior. Meanwhile, when a nurse anticipates or knows characteristics, temperament, and expectations of the patient she can minimize the risk of poor performance. In a case of a child as a patient, the nurse can decorate the room in accordance with child's age and memorize a song for children in order to make her job easier and child not to experience an unpleasant situation. The prediction and such behavior increases chances of better performance, less labor with emotions, less effort in the management of situations during the work process. Prediction can not be always successful. Emotional intelligence is a key factor on anticipation relevant behavior and situations.

### **1.2.2 Job and Organizational Antecedents of Emotional Labor**

Apart from individual antecedents as a part of antecedents of emotional labor, this concept is also dictated and affected by job and organizational characteristics. Finding the proper job and working in positive environment is an opportunity that is not possible for everyone. The case of doing the desired job and working with cooperative co-workers is not similar with example of the employee who works in unfavorable conditions and does not do the job that he considers the right one for him. An employer or employee can take into consideration several reasons before deciding whether is the right job and he wants to do it or the opposite. His decision depend not only on personal characteristics and qualification, but on job features and the type of organization. However, by analysing job features and practices applied in organizations, their contsruct and link to emotional labor concept, this study will provide more detailed explanation and complete other aspects of emotional labor.

#### **1.2.2.1 Display Training**

According to Kruml and Geddes (2000), display training represents the frequency that the company trains employees before they are hired. This training consists on how employees should display and show their emotions and act appropriately with customers. An employee trained in the company by staff on how to react in a specific situation with a customer, when the customer conveys particular

emotions is an example of display training. A waitress before being hired at the workplace is trained how to display her emotions before, during, and after serving to her customers. Training may include customer as an individual with his personal characteristics and expectations which may also involve all dimensions of emotional labor.

#### **1.2.2.2 Display Latitude**

Display latitude notion reflects the amount of discretion that employees have display emotions to customers (Kruml & Geddes, 2000: 22). Discretion can be comprised of wisdom, intelligence, and maturity. The function of all these elements is to cope with customers and freely to express thoughts and emotions. Discretion resembles the coin. Both of them have two sides. If the coin has two faces the discretion have positive and negative aspect. In this sense, this freedom for employees can be risky because they can perceive freedom concept differently and then interpret it in accordance with their approach and personality. This may cause diverse reactions from customers. Some of them may respond positively evaluating sincerity and natural emotions, and some of them may react negatively paying attention more to their emotions and how they should be treated. In the second case, the company risks losing its customer, while the first one it is an indicator of the loyal customer.

#### **1.2.2.3 Customer Affect**

Customer affect it is an instrument to gauge the ability of the employee to understand customer's emotional situation (Kruml & Geddes, 2000: 22). Not all employees are capable and equipped with needed skills to recognize emotional state of customers. Customer affect serves as a tool for the company to find out employee's capacity. Employees with a higher scale of customer affect are more capable of recognizing customers emotional mood, so they are more skillful to work with emotions and be closer to customers. An employee can guess whether a customer is angry or he is happy. Based on his ability to read customer's emotional state employee can respond properly and interaction can be easier.

#### **1.2.2.4 Quality Orientation**

This is another term introduced by Kruml and Geddes (2000) that reflects the scale of the course, where employees understand organization's goals in terms of quality. For instance, for an employee, the number of clients that he or she served is the most substantial evidence that the job is well-done. But for the organization, this proof can not describe enough whether the job is done. The reason is that the company can have other goal and can be oriented more in quality than in quantity. So, the company is less interested in the number of clients and more focused on the service which was given to them. Interaction with clients in order to fulfill their needs can be a priority for the organization, because customers can perceive the higher performance of work and service, resulting in higher satisfaction level. This goal of the company can be based on the generally accepted idea that it costs more to attract a new client or customer than to keep existing one. Hence, it is important for employees to be oriented in the same direction with organization's goals. Following the same course can lead employees to interact with customers taking into consideration organization's focus rather their personal interest. In this situation emotional labor is inescapable.

#### **1.2.2.5 Job Autonomy**

One of the most influential job characteristics is the autonomy at the workplace. Jonge (1995: 11) defined job autonomy as freedom, self-determination, and independence. Based on his conceptualization freedom concept appears to refer to the liberty of choice and looseness of following own will. Also, he described self-determination as the opportunity to act or conduct own behavior and the independence as moral or organic independence. By this definition, job autonomy seems to be similar to task independence. But Braugh (1985) argued that they are different concepts.

Job autonomy was also divided into two levels: a) external level, and b) internal level (Jonge, 1995: 14). He explained that external level of job autonomy refers to the opportunity employee possesses in order to design and define his own job duties. With other words, the external level of job autonomy can be considered as

the freedom of the employee to decide about the time schedule program and the amount of work. On the other side, internal level of job autonomy involves more important aspects of work such as decision what methods and techniques to be used and evaluation by the employee of his own work.

#### **1.2.2.6 Task Routiness and Feedback**

Wright and Davis (2003: 73) defined routineness as a job characteristic that expresses the scale of predictability an employee deals with daily duties. Generally, employee's daily tasks are seen as the same every day. Because of the unpredictable and dynamic nature of the work, this may not be true. Work environment provides a wide variety of situations that employees are supposed to face. In terms of employees, this variety imposes them more tasks to do in order to cope with new experiences. Further, new experiences require extra skills, thus more effort and labor. In this context, Stimson and Johnson (1977) confirmed that employees who experience a wide variety of work duties and less routine, experience less boredom and more satisfaction at work. Perception of employees that their job is a routine job leads to dissatisfaction with the job which then may cause other effects such as low performance and unsatisfactory service.

Meanwhile, employees during accomplishment of daily duties are in contact with not only with customers but with supervisors and co-workers as well. Getting feedback is a process that occurs simultaneously with the fulfillment of job responsibilities. Wright and Davis (2003) alleged that seen from an organizational perspective most of the employee's feedback is expected to happen during the training period, where the organization teaches an employee how to discipline his emotions in accordance with display rules. During this time organization may see employee's authentic emotions and his real feedback. But on the other hand, when the employee is hired at the company he is expected to follow display rules. With other words, acting and playing with emotions are what organization expects from him in order to achieve organizational goals and higher performance. But in this conditions, understanding employee's true emotional state, so his feedback, it can be considered as a process that doesn't lead an organization to figure out real feedback.

Such perspective doesn't help the organization to solve the problems and then provide an action plan for employees. This plan may comprise redefinition of current tasks and likely roles which come as a result of change and facilitate problem-solving process. Thereby, the organization may cope efficiently problems with employees and then consolidate long-term relationship with customers.

### **1.2.3 Situational Antecedents of Emotional Labor**

A conceptual framework of situational antecedents of emotional labor was presented in this study. By giving the theoretical framework of two groups of situational antecedents such as emotional display rules and affective events this study also tends to explain the significance of such antecedents to the emotional labor construct.

#### **1.2.3.1 Emotional Display Rules**

Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005: 1256) showed that the main purpose of display rules is to dictate employees' emotions at the workplace. In their earlier study, Diefendorf and Gosserand (2003: 945) labeled emotional labor as a process that regulates and influences emotions of a person in order to achieve work goals. A person can be a consumer, a customer or even a co-worker. While, the main goals of employees is to sell the product and influence decision-making process at the workplace. Some employees may have further goals such as personal interest and in this case, such kind of goal can be a serious matter for the organization. In such circumstances, the organization may dictate emotion display rules in order to identify and specify which emotions are convenient in particular situations. By providing display rules organization may prevent unexpected situations and achieve its purposes. Diefendorf and Gosserand (2003) gave the example of the employee that should smile, conveys positive vibes, be helpful, and avoids negative emotions and customer on the other side as a typical example that describes display rules. Furthermore, they added that emotional display expected by organization and customer can be in accordance with organization's display rules when an employee is in a good emotional state. The opposite may happen when an employee is in a

negative mood. He is then required to use emotion regulation strategies in order to meet with organization's emotional display rules, and so to achieve goals.

### **1.2.3.2 Affective Events**

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996: 11) have called Affective Events Theory as an approach that focuses on “the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work”. In their description, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) explained that affective experiences may affect and be affected by other constructs such as job satisfaction, reaction, and behavior. They added that the employee's affective experiences may influence even the disposition and character of constructs. Furthermore, the impact of affective experiences on the constructs may result in unpredictable consequences. They also suggested that environmental features have a significant impact on affective events and as a result, they influence employee's affective experience as well. On the other side, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) stressed the importance of time as an element that interacts and affects events and experience. For example, the impact of employee's affective experience fluctuates over time. Moreover, the patterns of expression change over the time as well. In this context, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) proposed that time influences the affective reaction, shapes feelings, thus changes employee's behavior at the workplace.

### **1.2.4 Dispositional Antecedents of Emotional Labor**

In the literature extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience were determined as the five major dispositional antecedents of emotional labor. The theoretical framework of each antecedent appears to contribute in predicting employee's emotional labor developments.

#### **1.2.4.1 Extraversion**

Zellers et. al. (2000: 1555) have named a person which is cheerful, enthusiastic and energetic as extrovert. In their explanation, they added that unlike pessimist, extrovert individuals are more likely to be positive and collaborative at work. They can better interact and cooperate with supervisors, members of organizations, and family. Such approach of an extrovert employee has a positive impact on other

factors such as support at work, precise definition of roles at work, accurate distribution of responsibilities and duties and on the other side can reduce stress, dissatisfaction, and exhaustion. Zellars et. al. (2000) stated that employees who are extrovert engage more in interpersonal relationships not only with family and organization's members but also with other people that surround him and with customers as well. For this reason, an extrovert employee can be seen as more convenient in building professional relationships with customer, resulting in better service and higher performance. In this context, extraversion can be considered as an important and complementary element of an employee, which helps organization and supervisor to understand a particular employee's emotional features especially before he is hired at the company.

#### **1.2.4.2 Neuroticism**

Neuroticism was defined by McCrae and Costa (1987: 86) as a term that is similar to worrying, insecure, self-conscious, and temperamental. They added that neuroticism seems to involve not simply negative effects, but negative thoughts and behaviors as well. A person may experience such state when he is concerned, have turbulent emotions, and feels that is troubled or in conflict with the reality. Such thoughts push him to change behavior, which is associated with negative changes in patterns of behavior. For instance, a person that experience a high level of neuroticism is more likely to not quit smoking, because the anxiety is more dominant than a person that experience less neuroticism. McCrae and Costa (1987) continued by explaining that an individual that experience more neuroticism is prone to use and practice inappropriate approaches such as self-blame and wishful thinking in order to quit smoking more than truly quitting it. The underlying reasons for such approaches it appears to be their continuous unpleasant situations and negative emotional state.

#### **1.2.4.3 Conscientiousness**

Meantime, Barrick and Mount (1993: 111) have described conscientiousness as responsibility, perseverance, and conscientious person as achievement oriented person. While Rothman and Coetzer (2003: 69) have defined a conscientious person as purposeful, strong-willed and determined. They also agreed with Barrick and

Mount (1993) about achievement oriented characteristic of the conscientious person. Rothamn and Coetzer (2003) added that achievement-oriented conscientiousness of an individual can be manifested by hard work, patience, persistence, planning, and organization. However, a high level of conscientiousness it leads to some negative consequences such as compulsive hard work and long hours, irritation, and uncommon behavior. But on the other side, Rothamn and Coetzer (2003) affirmed that a low level of conscientiousness can not be interpreted as absence of fundamental principles at work and lack of moral for the individual.

#### **1.2.4.4 Agreeableness**

Rothmann and Coetzer (2003: 69) have determined an agreeable individual as a person that possesses an altruistic spirit, sympathetic and willing to help others. In addition, an agreeable person believes that his desire and willingness to help others is similar to the willingness and help that others would give to him. Contrary to agreeable person, a disagreeable character of an individual doesn't contribute positively to interaction process and such person can be named as antagonistic. He doesn't believe that people have good intentions. Moreover, he is skeptical and less collaborative. In this sense, an antagonistic employee is more potential to have a disagreement with organization's members mostly with his supervisor and co-workers. Such circumstances may push him to express his dispute and tense situation to customers during the service. The conflictual situation when it is transferred outside the organizational environment may cause low performance. In conflictual situations, emotional labor seems to be the only opportunity that could rescue employee and organization from an unsatisfied customer.

#### **1.2.4.5 Openness to Experience**

Openness to experience is a concept that links active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, attentiveness to emotions, curiosity to learn, and independent reasoning (Rothman & Coetzer, 2003: 69). A person that is not open to experiences can be described as a traditional and conservative individual. These characteristics can be manifested by his behavior and appearance. However, characteristics may vary depending on the culture. In order to figure out whether an individual is open or not



to experiences, organizational and national culture can be seen as supplementary elements that may help to achieve more realistic results. For instance, a closed employee is less open to experiences and his emotional responses appear to be muted. In such case, because of employee's silence, customers may perceive that employees don't care about their emotions. This lack of attention can then lead the customer to dissatisfaction and disappointment.

On the other side openness seems to be a safe instrument that helps employees to be more confident and to create better professional relationships with customers. Rothman and Coetzer (2003) added that individuals who are open to experiences seem to be unconventional, willing to ask questions and to respond to customers, and ready to embrace new ideas. This readiness and curiosity may be considered as the impetus that motivates employees to be open to new experiences, and so their lives to be more diverse and dynamic. However, new experiences not always can be pleasant to them. Therefore, during interaction employees may experience positive and negative emotions as well. In this sense, openness increases the frequency of experiences and doesn't guarantee only positive emotions. From this point of view, openness to experiences looks to bring the higher frequency of interaction, extend employee's emotional memory, help them to manage different situations and their emotions. With other words, openness to new experiences it serves as a driving factor that increases emotional labor.

### **1.3 Dimensions of Emotional Labor**

There is no a single unified agreement among scientists about the dimensional construct of emotional labor. However, in this research emotional labor construct was conceptualized in terms of three dimensions: surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting or the expression of naturally felt emotions. Hence, the three-dimensional construct was based on Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Kruml and Geddes (2000), and Grandey (2003) approaches.

### **1.3.1 Surface Acting**

Hochschild proposed surface acting as the outer dimension of emotional labor. She defined surface acting as the skill of changing emotions in order to feel what people do not (Hochschild, 1983: 33). When people play with their emotions and instead of their real emotions they tend to display expected behavior, it means that there is a shift taking place in felt emotions towards expected emotions. Generally, this is a process that doesn't require too much effort, therefore it was considered as "a shift" from one form to another.

### **1.3.2 Deep Acting**

Meanwhile, deep acting was another dimension proposed by Hochschild. She described deep acting as a process where a person tends to be cheating emotionally (Hochschild, 1983: 33). This dimension appears to be a method which can be used by an individual in order to play more with emotions and show expected behavior. When a person acts deeply, he/she pretends to convince that his/her emotions are real and behavior is natural. With other words, during surface acting the individual deceives others and not himself. Unlike surface acting, during deep acting, a person deceives "self" as well.

### **1.3.3 Genuine Acting**

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested one more dimension of emotional labor what they called "genuine acting", while Dieffendorff et. al. (2005) named as "the expression of naturally felt emotions". They presented their argument on this point by giving the example of a nurse who feels pity at the sight of the hurt person and attempts to give the impression that she feels sorry about the patient, acting like she experiences the same injury with patient. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 94) called this a genuine way of acting. In this context, they have presented this example to illustrate a third type of playing with emotions.

## **1.4 Forms of Emotional Labor**

The expression of emotions it was considered in two forms: employee-focused and job-focused emotional labor. The first form refers to the individual as the center of emotional labor developments, while the second kind relates to the job as the place where emotional labor occurs, and as the pivotal factor that impacts employee's emotional labor.

### **1.4.1 Employee-focused Emotional Labor**

According to Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 18), employee-focused emotional labor form introduces the management process of emotions and it is a reflection of this experience to match work demands. This kind of emotional labor can not be fully understood without an analysis of acting processes. During surface acting, it is easy for the employee to control their emotional state and less effort is required to act. Hochschild (1983) insisted that persistent and continuous acting of employee increases the risk of feeling detached not only from "self" or authentic state of him but also feeling separated from other people's feelings that employee interacts. On the other side, Chu and Murrmann (2006: 1182) clarified that emotional labor seen from acting prospect can contribute in understanding emotional labor and especially internal processes, and may help to understand the influence of employee's labor in the organization's performance. In addition, Chu and Murrmann (2006) asserted the argument that such labor and processes may affect employee's well-being as well. Based on Hochschild (1984) emotional classification, Diefendorff et al. (2005: 340) viewed surface and deep acting as a strategy that employee can apply at the workplace when they have difficulty in displaying proper emotions.

### **1.4.2 Job-focused Emotional Labor**

In their analysis of job-focused emotional labor, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 18) described it as an indicator of the emotional demand level in an occupation. They also suggested that in a case of an accuracy of job-focused view employees are supposed to make more emotional efforts, because of higher emotional demands, especially for employees in the frontline of service occupation

(2002: 20). Demands can be measured by occupational titles (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002), such as service job which Hochschild (1983) indicated as “people work”, and interaction between employees and customers in terms of frequency (Morris & Feldman, 1996) and expectations (Hochschild, 1983).

### **1.5 Consequences of Emotional Labor**

An overview of considerable research has focused on consequences of emotional labor. The majority of researchers have targeted negative consequences and have examined how aftermaths affect the employee. Consequences that stem from playing with feelings and acting can be considered as a real and permanent danger, that appears to change unconsciously employee’s authentic emotions and resulting in alienation of innate feelings and alienation of “self”. Some of the employees are capable to successfully resist possible attacks on themselves and some others do not own this skill. In this sense, it seems that emotional labor is not an agent that stops employee to maintain a distance between his real individuality and work role.

Researchers have done several studies and applied different measurements to find out consequences and the existence of relationships between emotional labor and another phenomenon. Hochschild (1983) noted that emotional labor may be the cause and reason, which explain smoking, alcohol use, drug abuse. Based on her example with stewardesses Hochschild (1983) concluded that emotional labor may serve as cause for alienation. This occurs because of stewardess’ genuine acting which influences negatively in different dimensions of her psychological state. Besides, emotional labor can be engaged with another phenomenon such as stress, dissonance, exhaustion, reluctance to go to work, avoidance of tasks, and lower level of job satisfaction. In addition, these phenomenon does not simply imply psychologically, but also include physical consequences, thereby making the prediction of consequences more difficult and complex process. Morris and Feldman (1997) revealed from their findings that emotional dissonance and not emotional labor was engaged to lower levels of job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Kruml and Geddes (2000) argued that emotional dissonance was linked with

emotional exhaustion and burnout. However, Ashforth and Humphre (1993) have proposed that in fact interaction can be predictable and emotional labor contributes to removing and eliminate possible risk of interpersonal problems.

### **1.5.1 Job Burnout**

Maslach (2003: 189) defined job burnout as “a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job”, while Lee and Ashforth (1990: 743) explained job burnout as “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization of other, and as a feeling of reduced personal accomplishment”. Maslach (2003) divided job burnout into three dimensions: exhaustion, cynicism, and sense of inefficacy. She recommended that multidimensional construct of job burnout describes controversial nature of job burnout as the opposite of unidimensional conceptualization because the classic formulation doesn’t go any further of individual experience. In this sense, the multidimensional construct of job burnout is made of personal stress experience, personal response to the job, response to himself which clarify that job burnout is not a simple phenomenon that is related only to stress. She also engaged job burnout with other concepts such as job involvement, job stress and intervention at the workplace. Also in the literature, emotional exhaustion is another common frequent outcome of emotional labor. Based on their findings, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) revealed that emotional exhaustion was significantly correlated with the necessity to hide negative feelings or emotions. They also indicated that this relationship had a significant impact on employee-focused emotional labor.

### **1.5.2 Job Satisfaction**

The level of satisfaction at work appears to vary due to personal and work environment characteristics. Also, employees’ job satisfaction fluctuates because it is closely linked to expectations which differ from person to person. For example, an employee with lower expectations it is more likely to perceive high score of job satisfaction. The reason consists of the argument that lower expectations are easier to be completed by the management, while the high expectation is more difficult to

realize due to their complexity. However, in both cases, it is the duty of management to guide employee towards natural and realistic expectations in order to harmonize employees' expectations with organizational goals, which then may lead to the desired outcomes. Shalley et. al. (2000: 217) remarked the significant role of work environment on employees' job satisfaction. They stated that a positive and especially creative work environment can facilitate employees work process. The level of creativity relies on the level of support for innovation at work. In cases of supportive attitudes, employees feel more free to act and express themselves, consequently leading to job satisfaction. On the other side, a negative work environment may influence employees' psychological need leading to low level of job satisfaction and probably unexpected outcomes. In such circumstances, emotional labor it arises as a necessity for employees in order to adhere organization' display rules.

### **1.5.3 Turnover Intention**

Turnover intention refers to the probability which an individual will leave the job in the organization at some point in the near future (Chambers, 2008: 9). Having the intention to leave means that the employee is not yet leaving, so some changes and application of new approach can reduce the risk of turnover intention to the lowest level. It is crucial to reduce the turnover intention because employees with such intention usually feel released from work tasks causing low work performance and a higher risk of absenteeism (Omar and Noordin, 2014: 71). From another perspective, affective and cognitive situations of employees such as low levels of job satisfaction, lack of organizational commitment and negative justice perception were considered as factors that lead to turnover intention. This phenomenon is commonly hard for employers to be distinguished at the beginning. However, it is not difficult for them to indicate the voluntary turnover intention of employees because of behavioral evidence provided at the workplace. This uncertainty encouraged Bu, McKeen, and Shen (2013: 117) to examine turnover intention based on behaviour-focused approach, where employers can observe employees' behavior and intention to leave.

## PART II

### ALIENATION

#### 2.1 Alienation Concept

Alienation is not a new phenomenon. Nowadays, a number of people who experience changes in their authentic feelings and personality it is constantly growing. This phenomenon can be easily noticed by expressions that are increasingly used by people such as “I feel different”, “I don’t recognize myself”, or “What is happening with me”. More than just finding the answers to these questions a study about the reasons why such questions are asked and a detailed investigation into circumstances that determine such emotional state, it would give a comprehensive explanation of this phenomenon.

The first proposal of alienation it was made by Karl Marx (1932). He explained that labor it produces not only goods but at the same time it produces even the employee as a commodity (1932: 28-29). This argument reflects the approach that employee perceives the product he produces as something alien, something strange and out of him. In this sense, Marx (1932) added that commodities produced by him represent his labor, which is embodied in one material thing, which he defined objectification, which appears to be employee’s realization of labor. He also pointed out that in such situation, employee’s realization of labor seems to reflect a loss of realization and a loss of the object and contact to it, resulting in estrangement in a form of alienation (1932: 29). In this sense, these outcomes indicate that employee considers the product of his labor as a foreign thing. Such conditions lead to the loss of employee’s authentic characteristics and natural individuality.

Alienation can be manifested in different manners and diverse behaviors. It depends on what extent a person experience alienation, his ability to recognize, understand and express as well. Not all people have the same capacity to behavior properly, so alienation sometimes it may be associated with bizarre behavior which can lead to undesirable consequences. Additionally, people who try to reject values and norms of society and attempt to escape from the reality by using alcoholic

substances, drugs and other forms of abuse, are an example of negative consequences of alienation, which manifest the lack of capacity to cope with change. Reid (1972) noted that such consequences can increase the risk of another form of alienation. The risk of alienation from humanity (1972: 5), which it may cause a fundamental change of self-hood. A person can be less sensitive, rude and heartless while he interacts with other people. Somehow this turns into kind of belief for him which make interaction more difficult process.

In his study, Reid (1972: 5) defined alienation “as the cry of men who feel themselves the victims of blind economic forces”. By that definition, powerlessness and lack of contact with society can be understood. Furthermore, Reid (1972: 5) added that alienation is the disappointment of ordinary people that are left out of decision-making process. Therefore, frustration and hopelessness prevail upon happiness and encouragement. In such a way people feel that they are powerless to shape their future.

In recent years alienation has become a focus of studies, particularly in the context of working process. Many of studies have examined the relationship of other phenomena with alienation and the impact of these phenomena on alienation and vice versa. Researchers also have studied the nature, antecedents, dimensions and consequences of alienation concept. Yet, any study could provide a complete theoretical framework, because alienation is a constantly changing phenomenon due to dynamic and complex developments in the world. This study investigates alienation concept in the field of management and examines the impact of this phenomenon on employees in terms of work alienation.

Alienation concept has different definitions and usage in various fields and context. Warshak (2003) examined alienation in the context of the child-parent relationship. In his study, the case of a child that unreasonably rejects one of the parents, so making interaction difficult was defined as parental alienation (2003: 274). This case may serve as an example that explains the nature of alienation in terms of rationality, whether this process is irrational or rational. By giving the example of the child who is estranged Warshak (2003) argued that alienation may be



a rational process because the rejection of child to interact is evidence of severe treatment made by the refused parent. With other words, child as a symbol of truthfulness that never lies appears to provide an adequate proof of rationality. On the other side, Warshak (2003) emphasized that this approach should be seen as irrational as well. Because a child who refuses a formerly loved parent generally have insignificant reasons for their change, thus mistreatment and abuse is not always a relevant argument.

Horowitz (1966: 231) defined alienation as a word that implies an intense separation first from objects in the world, and then from other people, and at the end an intense separation from ideas about the world held by other people. In this context, alienation concept is similar to separation and differs from integration. Horowitz (1966) explained that philosophical approach of alienation concept refers to alienated individual as incomplete and as a person that needs to be integrated. Moreover, in his definition he used phrase “alienated from”, which can be considered the opposite of “integrated with”.

Similarly to Horowitz, Miller (1975) in his research has defined alienation in relation to the lack of contact with others or expressed in a single word in rapport with isolation. Miller (1975: 261) stated that a person can be alienated when the surrounding circumstances hinder a person to create contact with other persons, resulting in the lack of relationships between him and others. Characteristics of surrounding circumstances may vary, but what Miller (1975) intended were related mostly to work characteristics and person’s position in the society.

Fromm (1955: 120) asserted that alienation should not be seen as a phenomenon that occurs only in the context of relationships with other people, but also as a phenomenon that happens when a person is subject to irrational passions. In order to explain further his approach about alienation he gave an example of what he called an absolutely alienated person. When an individual is mostly motivated by lust for power it is very hard for him to understand the notion of human being and to recognize the limits of humanism, in this way he can be subject to his irrational passions and so the risk of being “a slave” of his passions is unavoidable. For

instance, money can become an idol and object to admiration for a person whom passion and the only goal in life are money. Therefore, he may not control and possesses himself. A person may think that he is doing the right thing and feel that he is following his dream. In this way, he is driven by his passion which is separated from him. So, he becomes a stranger to himself, where there is no need to interact with another person. In this situation where the person is driven by his passion and unconscious forces, he can be considered as an alienated person (Fromm, 1955: 120).

## **2.2 Dimensions of Alienation**

Alienation represents an area of particular interest due to the recent developments, which have impacted the interaction of employees not only with others but also with his own self. In order to understand the impact of alienation phenomenon and to clarify this concept, Seeman (1959) proposed five dimensions of alienation.

### **2.2.1 Isolation**

The social sphere is made of complex structures and patterns which vary from one culture to another. This complexity and differences which diversify depending on characteristics of societies appear to be an indicator of distinct knowledge that people possess in order to interact with others and the surrounding physical and social environment. In this context, Rogers et. al. (2008: 218) figured that this knowledge mostly relates to the methodology used for the manufacture of products, service techniques, decision-making process and conflict management. They also emphasized the importance of social characteristics such as prestige, social ranking, aesthetic, personal belief, and even the systems for finding partners, raising children, and inheriting property.

De Jon Gierveld et. al. (2006: 486) described isolation is a concept that refers to the absence of relationships with others and individual with a limited number of meaningful ties can be considered as socially isolated. Hortulanus et. al. (2006: 37) added that when people perceive the absence of meaningful social contacts they are more prone to be alone and find themselves in a position of isolation, and often

resulting in serious problems such as depression and poor self-esteem. Meanwhile, Samuel et. al. (2014: 3) defined isolation as the experience of feeling alone. Moreover, Samuel et. al. (2014) have portrayed an isolated person as an individual that feels like he is sitting alone somewhere at the bottom of the corner, and he experiences as if no one knows he is suffering, no one cares, and his voice cannot be heard, thus he thinks and feels that he is invisible and out of all circles of concern.

Nigel and Lewis (2014: 94) explained isolation as the anxiety that derives from contradictions between ideal and perceived social relationships which then may reflect the lack of contact with people, social support, or the perception of being alone. Rokach and Wright (2013: 49) admitted that hierarchy at the work may be a danger for some individuals, where employees with the higher status in an organization have a higher level of risk to be isolated by their professional occupations. Rokach and Wright (2013: 49) asserted that hierarchy at the work may be a danger for some individuals where employees with the higher status in an organization have a higher level of risk to feel lonely by their professional occupations.

Biordi and Nicholson (2013) claimed that social isolation can involve diverse regrettable feelings which can cause alienation and impact other dimensions of alienation such as powerlessness, meaninglessness, and self-estrangement. Isolation usually is associated with loneliness. However, isolation and loneliness are two concepts that differ because being socially isolated expresses the objective state of social contact and loneliness reflects the experience of subjective feelings (Brown et. al., 2015: 72). Victor et. al. (2008: 31) continued that loneliness and isolation have become 'pathological' concepts that seem to focus more on the negative aspects of social relations.

According to Lubkin and Larsen (2011: 115), isolation has no specific instrument of measurement. But, Zaveleta et. al. (2014: 20-28) suggested the following domains as indicators for measuring isolation such as external and internal isolation domains. External domain refers to the frequency of social contact, social network support, the presence of discussion with others, while internal domain

emphasizes the need for relatedness and being important to someone and society, and satisfaction with particular relations as well. Anyway, despite academic definitions being socially isolated is a deeply human and personal experience (Samuel, 2015: 1).

### **2.2.2 Powerlessness**

Kanungo (1992: 416) defined empowerment as an antidote to powerlessness. Recently empowerment it has gained a special attention by organizations. Meanwhile, Seeman (1959: 784) have determined powerlessness as the expectation or possibility of an individual to determine his own behavior and even more to control the outcomes and receive his desired results. Anyhow, this can be described as the lack of opportunity to determine his own destiny. The interest of organizations in empowerment can be seen through different approaches and diverse practices implemented by organizations. This interest indicates the growing importance of empowerment.

Kanungo (1992: 416) stated that empowerment focus can serve as "an emerging dealienation strategy". Considering this focus as not adequate Kanungo (1992: 417) expressed that this approach doesn't contribute to deeper understanding of the nature of empowerment, theoretical background and moral rationale for dealienation practices. Besides, most of the researchers have agreed with empowerment as a group of practices implemented by organizations to its members. Anyway, still there is not a clear theoretical explanation related to the antecedents, construct and character of empowerment in terms of alienation.

### **2.2.3 Meaninglessness**

Seeman (1959: 786) have defined meaninglessness concept as the ability of individual to understand the event which he is involved. With other words, meaninglessness measures the level of skill that one individual possesses in order to identify and understand the comprehensive developments at the workplace. An employee with a low score at understanding the system of tasks and goals in the organization can be considered as an employee with a high level of meaninglessness. Contrarily, when an employee has a high level of meaninglessness he faces difficulty

in identifying the organizational goals and tasks, so somehow he can not fully be included at work. Kanungo (1982: 26) affirmed that when an employee is charged with routine work and doing simple tasks which are not associated with major responsibilities, he tends to lose the meaning and the purpose at work, hereby “the job becomes meaningless”.

#### **2.2.4 Self-Enstrangement**

Self-estrangement is the fourth distinct form of alienation. Seeman (1959: 790) have defined the self-estrangement concept as “the loss of intrinsic meaning or pride in work”. In this context, self-estrangement it can be identified as a condition where an individual is removed from himself. Moreover, Seeman (1983: 179) divided self-estrangement into three distinct conceptions; a) the “despised” self, b) the “disguised” self, and c) the “detached” self. The first concept attempts to point out the low level of self-esteem and the difference between the individual’s desired status and the reality. Seeman (1983) claimed that the second concept is more complicated. He added that this version of self-estrangement is similar to the Marxian approach of self-estrangement in terms of “false consciousness”. Therefore, the “disguised” self-notion describes the inability to understand the real emotional state of an individual and its interests as well. Meantime, the “detached” self-concept relies on the separation between an individual’s activities and influence. By this conceptualization, it can be assumed that activities do not carry the same impact. Some of them require more involvement and engagement, thus making problem-solving a process that seeks for more labor in order to avoid dissatisfaction.

#### **2.2.5 Normlessness**

Holcomb-McCoy (2004: 192) defined normlessness as the dimension of alienation which “encompasses the expectation that illegitimate means have to be used in order to realize culturally prescribed goals”. In order to explain normlessness dimension Holcomb-McCoy (2004) described the example of American society. He added that the American mass media by focusing on materialism and the accumulation of possessions as the main subject of their programs, they have caused

changes in the values and norms of society. Somehow by following this strategy they have created a new model of the individual who is generally accepted by the society. Particularly individual with low-income appears to feel hopeless and desperate due to limited financial access. Hence, mainly low-income individuals seem to be more at risk of alienation because of being unable to do what they want and the pressure of society that considers them as helpless. In this point, normlessness looks to converge with powerlessness dimension of alienation.

### **2.3 Work Alienation**

Researchers have supposed that the alienation at work has significant consequences for employees and organization itself as well. Kanungo (1982: 53) defined work alienation as “a psychological state that results in dissatisfaction among workers toward various job outcomes”. By this definition, he assumed that this phenomenon is the reason that may influence other job attitudes such as proper behavior at work, job satisfaction, performance, turnover intention, and sabotage. On the other side, he suggested that initially work alienation can be seen as a result of dissatisfaction and weak performance. In order to clarify his approach, he added that job satisfaction of evident needs of employee and reaction from the certain performance can increase job involvement of employee (1982: 53). In addition, Kanungo (1982) added that this psychological state of employee can express; a) a cognitive separation between job and work duties, b) a sense of frustration associated with negative affect which causes a shift from perceived failure to success in fulfilment of objectives through organization’s required behaviors, and c) a manifest of behavioural state of apathy. Moreover, Kanungo (1982) admitted that most of the psychological literature of job involvement concept was focused more on the rapport of job involvement with other concepts such as job satisfaction, efforts made by employees in the workplace, the performance of them, absenteeism and turnover intention. Hence, work alienation also can be viewed as a phenomenon which interacts and can be affected simultaneously by several factors. Later in his work, Kanungo (1992) also underlined that it is crucial for the organization to understand that the alienation of its members can be expressed as a form of sickness that it has to be avoided.

In his research Kornhauser (1965) revealed that there is a difference between employee's preferred work or sector and current work. Based on his findings, he found that three out of four employees would prefer to change current work or sector, where a considerable percentage of skilled employees (52 percent) and a high percentage of assembly employees (82 percent) would choose to change work (1965: 671). These results of his research can be interpreted as a measure of employees' work alienation. However, these results can not be generalized and in this point, he emphasized that changes of employees in levels of job involvement, interest, job satisfaction and characteristics can vary, thus employees can be differently affected.

Hirschfeld and Feild (2000) have assumed that the commitment of employees to work not only increase the ability of employees to understand the nature of work, but also they are indicators that show engagement of employees in the world of work. Based on their findings employee's psychological level of engagement in the world of work is similar to the level of employee's enthusiasm for the nature of work they do. Surprisingly, work involvement doesn't lead to engagement in the work role. They argued that this result is an expression of work centrality more than the evidence of work involvement role. However, Hirschfeld and Feild (2000) added that work centrality does not enclose psychological engagement in the work role and work alienation can be considered as the only agent that displays engagement in the work (2000: 790).

The nature of work was accepted by Nair and Vohra (2010) as an important variable that affects alienation. Based on their research they found that a skillful employee in an organized environment when he works to solve a problem in the organization, but within the limits of self-expression specified by organizational members, he can experience bad situations and perceive those work relationships are not pleasurable (2010: 608). In such circumstances, the employee feels disconnected from work, out of work context and later estranged from "self". These situations lead to work alienation and employee's alienation. In this case, as soon as an employee is involved in poor relationships with co-workers and unfavorable situations as soon he may experience alienation.

## **2.4 Causes of Work Alienation**

The alienation concept may be considered as a complex process which occurs not only because of the individual's internal conflict with self but also as a phenomenon that is closely related to external factors as well. Both of environments can be considered as an impetus which together cause alienation of the individual and affect the complex process.

### **2.4.1 Social Bonds**

Seeman (1967: 280) suggested that social bonds are important to work alienation and it affects its outcomes. He pointed out that membership in the organization can smooth negative effect of employee's work alienation, serving as a tool which helps employees to manage personal and organizational interests. Membership in the organization represents work-related social bonds which can involve a wide range of relationships. For example, during the work an employee does not simply create and maintain social relationships with fellow colleagues, but also he can establish relationships with customers as well. The nature of social links may differ from person to person, which can be described as a process that comprises a personal level and a series of factors. Therefore, predicting employee's work alienation can be a difficult task.

### **2.4.2 Cultural Factors**

Spencer (2008: 3) has defined culture as an indistinct set of fundamental values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioral practices that are experienced by a group of people, and that influence individuals behavior and his/her interpretations of the 'meaning' of other people's behavior. Hence, values derive from several sources such as family, religion, social influence, work ethic and from some events which have a personal character such as loss of beloved people, divorce, major health problems, and financial troubles. Generally, American society is admitted as an individualist society and Japanese as a collectivist one. Also, some communities are considered to be more masculine and some others more feminine. In this context, individuals share different values, norms, attitudes, and beliefs. In this



context, individuals share different values, norms, attitudes, and beliefs. The changeable and unpredictable character of cultural factor may be a basis for conflict situations which can lead to social isolation, meaninglessness, loneliness, resulting in alienation phenomenon.

### **2.4.3 Economic Factors**

The economic factors may evolve due to both government and organization's policies. Change of economic factors can cause various outcomes on organization and employee as well. The increase in taxes, inflation, labor cost, interest rates etc., directly or indirectly impact employee and reshape his socio-economic status. Because of these developments, his salary may decrease or the employee can be fired from work and an increase of the insecurity about the future is inevitable. Consequently, the employee is predisposed to work more in order to overcome the fear of uncertainty. Although this situation carries the risk of employee's anxiety, burnout, frustration, and job dissatisfaction. In such circumstances, the employee's experience of alienation is more likely to occur.

### **2.4.4 Urbanism and Modern Social Structure**

According to Fischer (1973: 312), urbanism was defined as population concentration which can be measured by the number of the individual's town or metropolitan area. Fischer (1973) also studied the role and impact of urban life on the alienation. He examined whether the size of the towns or metropolitan cities influences the alienation's dimension. The data of his study showed that urbanism has an impact on the alienation's dimension such as isolation, but on the other side doesn't affect the powerlessness dimension. He explained that isolation was affected by urbanism because, in the larger towns where the urban life is more dynamic, individuals have more opportunities to choose their friends and partners, thus larger towns minimize the risk of being isolated. This argument can also be paraphrased as the lack of alternatives in the smaller areas.

### **2.4.5 Technology and Automation**

As noted by Seeman (1967: 279) work alienation can be seen as a result of the employee's lack of control over his work. This inability can be manifested in different ways, but an essential cause is the work process through technology and automation. In this sense, Seeman (1967) raised the question whether technology and automation control employees or the employees are capable of commanding technology and automation processes.

### **2.5 Consequences of Work Alienation**

Work alienation can cause several consequences which may be of particular importance for employees and organization itself. Work alienation can impact negatively performance at work (Clark et. al., 2010). Another research made by Hirschfeld and Field (2000) provided findings that highlight the negative effect of work alienation on the performance. They added that low level of performance can be expressed by a low level of organizational commitment. Moreover, they figured out that dimensions of alienation and in particular powerlessness and meaninglessness have a noteworthy impact on the organizational commitment. Seen from this perspective an employee that appears to lose the meaning and feels powerlessness can be considered as more sensitive to alienation, thus impacting negatively commitment at work. Hirschfeld and Field (2000) have also revealed that work alienation, when it is associated with a high score of meaninglessness, has a negative impact on the family. This impact is related to work-family conflict concepts. For example, when an employee has lost its interest for the job because he thinks that the work makes no sense and has no meaning, he will make fewer efforts in order to fulfill daily tasks. In this aspect, Hirschfeld and Field (2000) affirmed that powerlessness and meaninglessness have a strong effect on employee and so in the organization. This influence goes beyond limits of organization and in the case of strong effect, it appears to be transmitted to the family.

Furthermore, the findings of Tummers and Dulk (2013) confirmed the same results as Hirschfeld and Field's research (2000). Tummers and Dulk (2013: 856) concluded that in cases of the alienated individual from work, the individual makes

fewer efforts at work, less commitment and such situation it continues to be reflected even in the family. They also confirmed that alienation dimensions and especially meaninglessness have a strong impact and cause different outcomes. However, seen from personal and social aspects work alienation aspects have a negative impact on careerism and career dissatisfaction (Chiaburu et. al., 2013: 16).

Furthermore, Kocoglu (2014: 32) examined the consequences of work alienation in terms of job stress and cynicism amongst nurses. Her findings demonstrated that work alienation tends to increase when the level of job stress and cynicism is higher amongst nurses. However, based on their research in six different countries Banai and Reisel (2007: 472-473) revealed that the consequences of work alienation may differ depending on national cultures. In this context, they also added that work alienation is less predictable and the nature of impact may vary. They hypothesized that western countries as part of the same managerial culture would have the same form of work alienation. But their hypothesis was proved wrong because their findings demonstrated that U.S. had different levels of personal alienation compared to Germany. On the other side, the social aspect of alienation resulted similar in both countries. In terms of leadership typology, their findings showed that supportive leadership style in countries such as Russia and Cuba had a significant impact on alienation. Results in these two countries seem to reflect the character of respective cultures. However, Banai and Reisel (2007) acknowledged that regardless of the different results in specific states the personal alienation have higher magnitude and it is more frequent than social alienation. They explained that personal alienation express the disagreement between the self and his occupations such as personal values, relationships, so the feeling of connected to life. On the other aspect, social alienation presents the cynic person towards others who may be lonely, unaffiliated to society, egocentric, and self-restricted when it comes to offering help.

In addition, Ramaswami et. al. (1993: 190) claimed commitment has a crucial importance and it helps in reduction of work alienation. In this sense, they stated that factors which increase commitment will indirectly contribute in decreasing of work

alienation. They added that job characteristics such as job design, a variety of tasks and autonomy serve as the factor that minimizes work alienation. In their research, they devoted a special place to the variety of work duties and task autonomy. However, task variety increases the risk of role ambiguity which may influence negatively work alienation. On the other hand, by defining particular goals of each employee and by following a supportive style rather than autocratic, task autonomy it may serve as a booster to enhance commitment. Based on their findings Ramaswami et. al. (1993) found that supportive style of supervisors doesn't influence the job stress of employees, but has a positive impact on commitment, and consequently on work alienation. They also indicated that job codification and observation increase work alienation which can be seen as a reflection of the role vagueness and conflict of employees at the workplace.

## **2.6 Previous Studies**

Iplic, Topsakal, and Iplik (2014) studied the effects of emotional labor on job attitudes of hotel employees in Antalya by examining the use of social support and job autonomy. The research results demonstrated that the emotional labor has a negative impact on emotional exhaustion and a positive impact on job satisfaction. Moreover, they figured out that social support and job autonomy factors influence the relationship between emotional labor and job satisfaction. Kaya and Ozhan (2012) attempted to release the complexity of the relationship between emotional labor and job burnout of tour guides. The analysis showed that the more deep and genuine acting tour guides show, the more fulfillment and the less depersonalization they experience, so the less job burnout. Also, Bayram, Aytac, and Dursun (2012) observed the impact of emotional labor variables on the levels of burnout. The results showed that according to the gender, no statistically significant deviation exist in the emotional labor and burnout variables. They found that the hiding emotions variable of the emotional labor was statistically significant. In addition, Agirman (2012) investigated the effects of emotional labor demonstrations on the employees' burnout. Her research was applied to nurses employed at university and state hospitals located in Erzurum. She revealed that job and employee focused emotional

labor has a significant effect on employees' burnout, depersonalization, and accomplishment as well. Besides, Savas (2012) studied the effects of emotional intelligence and emotional labor on teachers' job satisfaction. Findings of his study indicated that emotional intelligence and emotional labor significantly predict teachers' job satisfaction. The results showed that emotional labor plays an important role on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Still, Genc (2013) studied the effects of emotional labor and emotional intelligence on job satisfaction. His research was applied to employees working in tourism establishments (hotels and travel agencies) in Alanya. Based on his data, it was found that emotional labor has a meaningful influence on job satisfaction of worker employed in tourism companies. Ozgun (2015) analyzed the effects of emotional labor on work stress of teachers in Izmir. The results of her research indicated that male teachers are prone to express felt emotions more than female teachers, surface acting has a notable influence on work stress, and age and experience factors don't have an impact on emotional labor.

Tokmak (2014) examined the effect of psychological capital in the relation between emotional labor and work alienation. The results of his research showed that the increase in the employee's labor intensity proportionally enhances the work alienation. Moreover, he suggested that the psychological capital of the employees has a modest impact on the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. While Sayu (2014) studied the relationship between perceived organizational injustice and work alienation. In her research, organizational justice was arranged with its sub-dimensions such as distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Her findings indicated that only interactional justice impacts work alienation. She revealed that in terms of income level, individuals with higher income experience a moderate level of work alienation and those individuals with lower income tend to experience further work alienation. Meanwhile, Ozdogan (2014) investigated the effects of work alienation, organizational climate, and coaching on job satisfaction. After her analysis, she concluded that work alienation plays a significant role on employee's job satisfaction. Although, she recommended that the most influential factor in job satisfaction was organizational climate. In 2013

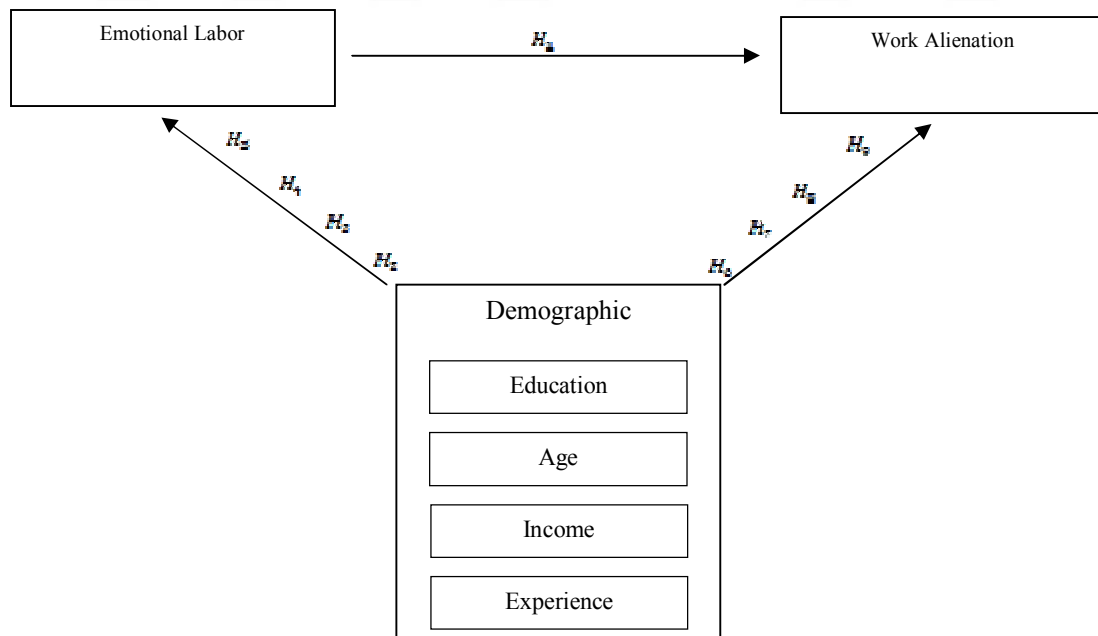
Kaya and Serceoglu studied work alienation among emotion workers in the service industry. For this purpose, they analyzed data which was collected from employees who serve in the hospitality industry (hotels), advertising and retailing (call centers, stores). They concluded that there is a significant positively relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. In addition, they identified two determinants of emotional labor such as emotional dissonance and emotional effort. They added that particularly emotional dissonance has more impact on work alienation. Kasapoglu (2015), analyzed the relationship between work alienation and organizational justice among elementary school teachers. Her research results showed that elementary school teacher experience work alienation and strength of the impact it is combined with employment period. Also, Simsek, Balay, and Simsek (2012) investigated work alienation of elementary school teachers. According to their findings, work alienation of elementary school teachers was generally at the medium level and factors affecting the work alienation usually derive from socio-demographic characteristics and job-related circumstances. Besides, Guneri (2010) investigated the level of exposure of mobbing and work alienation on the academic staff of Akdeniz University. Based on his findings, he suggested that there is a moderate positive relationship between work alienation and work related mobbing. Also, his study showed that there is a significant variation of work alienation and age and academic degree qualification. Ceylan and Sulu (2011) examined the relationship between perceptions of organizational injustice and work alienation among employees in the health care system (doctors and nurses) in Istanbul. Their results showed that every organizational injustice dimension (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, informal injustice) was correlated with work alienation. Furthermore, Erben (2008) examined the role of work alienation in the relationship between job characteristics satisfaction related to intrinsic motivation and general job satisfaction and negative emotions. Even more, she questioned the role of work alienation in the relationship between JCSIM and intention to quit. Based on her data, she stated that work alienation has a full mediator role in the relationships between JCSIM and job satisfaction, negative emotions and intention to quit.

## 2.7 Research Conceptual Framework

This study attempts to investigate the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation by proposing a comprehensive model to describe potential courses of action and to present and discuss the approach. The theoretical framework for this research was adapted from the Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) model. Emotional labor is assumed to be the independent variable and work alienation on the other side will be examined as the dependent variable. It is expected that emotional labor will significantly influence and predict the results of work alienation. Also, the emotional labor and work alienation it is supposed that will have significant differences in different levels of demographic variables such as education, age, income, and work experience.

This research tried to answer the following question: “Is there is a relationship between emotional labor and work alienation”. Figure 3 illustrates the conceptual framework which was developed for this research.

**Figure 3. The Proposed Conceptual Framework**



Source: Developed for this research.

## **2.8 Hypotheses of the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation**

The concept of emotional labor and work alienation has encouraged a series of scientific research. Although, less has been done in providing theoretical and practical guidance for employers and employees. Regardless of limitations, these concepts have presented to researchers insights that help to examine a range of concerns, where most of them will be subject to study even in the future. Questions such as how interaction process occurs, what are factors and actors that push and configure this process, what are customer expectations and how an employee should react are some of the common concerns that still have not adept answers. Accordingly, studying both concepts will remain a task for the researchers and further investigation will lead to identification and prediction of other phenomena connected to work processes.

Diefendorff, Croyle and Gosserand (2005: 354) indicated that the characteristics of interaction are difficult to be clearly and completely explained. Thier findings implied that routineness and duration of interaction can play a determinant role in the emotional labor process. Furthermore, they proposed that long interactions reduce routine interactions, which may cause employees to make more efforts to experience the desired emotions. They also believed that the change in emotions of the employee does not affect the nature of customer encounter. However, the frequency of interaction impact positively the expression of authentic and expected emotions. Meanwhile, Austin et al. (2008: 684) found acting was analogous with the magnitude of internal confidence of expression. Also, they noticed that there is no difference between genders on levels of acting and even with display rule perception scale.

Pugliesi (1999: 129) distinguished emotional labor into two distinct forms of emotions: self-focused and other-focused emotional labor. She added that management of emotions through emotional regulation forces the management of own emotions and the management of other people's emotions. Based on her research, she affirmed that self-focused emotional labor appears to have more



negative consequences than other-focused emotional labor. The typology of consequences seems to depend on job involvement and diversity of occupations.

A lot of jobs particularly in the service sector such as hostess, vendor, merchant, stewardess, nurse, lawyer, politician, and even statesman are professions which require high-level of interaction with others. The notion of “others” represents clients, patients, and in the case of politicians and statesman “others” refers to voters. In this study, the term “customer” summarize all other particular professions in one. Seen from this perspective, most of the jobs involve interaction between employee and customer. By analyzing emotional labor and work alienation importance, antecedents, constructs, circumstances, consequences, and the relationships, this research contributes to an understanding of the role and significance of these phenomena, and the relationships between them.

Prior discussion has led to an examination of the existing literature review and the development of the hypotheses in this research. The nine tested hypotheses are:

Hypothesis  $H_1$ : There is a positive relationship between emotional labor and work alienation.

Hypothesis  $H_2$ : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels.

Hypothesis  $H_3$ : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different age levels.

Hypothesis  $H_4$ : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different income levels.

Hypothesis  $H_5$ : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels.

Hypothesis  $H_6$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different education levels.

Hypothesis  $H_7$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age levels.

Hypothesis  $H_8$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different income levels.

Hypothesis  $H_9$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels.



### **PART III**

## **APPLICATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND WORK ALIENATION ON EMPLOYEES IN TOURISM AGENCIES IN KONYA, TURKEY**

### **3. Research Methodology**

This third part presents the methodology that was used in this study and discusses the results. The methodology plays a major role in completing this research study accordingly. The features of the methodology such as research, questionnaire, and sampling design, as well as pilot study and limitations of the study, are described in particular in the first section of this part. Furthermore, in the second section the researcher presented the necessary data of reliability analysis, demographic profiles of participants, correlation analysis, linear regression analysis, and One-way ANOVA analysis. Besides, the researcher analyzed and discussed the results in order to address the research objectives and questions. Lastly, the researcher made several suggestions and recommendations.

#### **3.1 Purpose of the Study**

The essential purpose of the investigation is to explain the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation of employees in the service sector and to identify the significance of the demographics in this relationship. The objective of this thesis is to identify whether work with emotions leads to employee work alienation and in the case of existing relationships to determine whether they are positively or negatively correlated and then draw conclusions. The conclusions of this investigation are likely to serve as a reference for the interested parties.

#### **3.2 Significance of the Study**

This study attempts to be helpful to stakeholders operating to both public and private sector, employers, employees, managers, and society, considering this study as full of practical information for individuals and organizations. Moreover, this research can be valuable for every individual who is enthusiastic to acquire more

information about emotional labor and work alienation concepts and gain deeper insight into the relationship between them. Such knowledge expansion it is necessary for both employers and employees since it is linked to their daily job routine and to the personal prosperity and so assisting them to cope with challenging situations and improve the quality of life.

### **3.3 Research Design**

In this research, the methodology is based on quantitative design and quantitative data which was collected by using questionnaires. The quantitative research that was adopted in this study permitted the researcher to search for the actualities of the observation by empirically testing the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation through the hypothetico-deductive method.

### **3.4 Questionnaire Design**

The questionnaire was divided into three (3) sections, namely Sections A, B, and C. The variables that appear in Section A include the demographic profiles, such as gender, marital status, education, age, monthly income, and experience. All the variables that measure the tested constructs were listed in Section B and C of the questionnaire. All the tested constructs were measured by 5-point Likert Scale (1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree).

Questions in English language measuring emotional labor were taken from 14-item “Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand, (2005), The Dimensionality and Antecedents of Emotional Labor Strategies” Article Questionnaire. Later, the 14-items emotional labor scale was translated into the Turkish language by Nejat Basım and Memduh Beğenirbaş in 2012 in their article “Çalışma Yaşamında Duygusal Emek: Bir Ölçek Uyarlama Çalışması”.

Besides, questions in English language measuring work alienation were taken from the 10-items “Hirschfeld and Feild, (2000), Work Centrality and Work Alienation: Distinct Aspects of a General Commitment to Work” Article Questionnaire. Following, 10-items work alienation scale was translated into the

Turkish language by Mehmet Ferhat Özbek in 2011 in his article “Örgüt İçerisindeki Güven ve İşe Yabancılaşma İlişkisinde Örgüte Uyum Sağlamanın Aracı Rolü”.

### **3.5 Sampling Design**

The study was focused on the employees who work in the tourism industry and more specifically on the employees working in tourism agencies which are located in Konya province, Turkey. A total of 183 sets of questionnaires were distributed and 169 questionnaires were collected. However, among these 169 questionnaires, 11 cases had high missing values or were considered not reliable by the author. As a result, only 158 respondents were set as the sample size in this study. Self-administered survey method in the form of drop-off surveys technique and the email deployment method was used to ensure the confidentiality and non-obligation aspects of participating in the survey. The survey was conducted in the workplace where respondents could return the questionnaires immediately to the researcher and reply via e-mail. The voluntary nature of the participation was explained verbally as well as being indicated in the survey questionnaire. Employees were invited to complete an anonymous survey questionnaire that took approximately 20 minutes of their time to complete.

### **3.6 Pilot Study**

A pilot study was conducted in order to test the emotional labor and work alienation scale recently adapted into the Turkish language. Emotional labor scale, along with work alienation scale, was delivered to a sample of employees in the tourism agencies located in Konya Selcuklu Municipality, Turkey.

The respondents were invited to express their view about the simplicity and understandability of the questions. Their answers were used to decide on the suitability of questions and method of analysis. After collecting the data from this sample was concluded that emotional labor 14-items scale and work alienation 10-items scale had acceptable psychometric properties and had supported the succinctness of the questionnaire. Then the questionnaires were given to a larger sample of employees working in tourism agencies located in Konya Karatay

Municipality and Konya Meram Municipality. Due to the very modest number of employees in tourism agencies in other districts of Konya and author's financial limitations the questionnaires were sent to them via e-mail.

In addition, the process of gathering the data followed the ethical rules. The questionnaires were given in envelopes. In accordance with the anonymity and confidentiality ethics participants were advised not to make any notes (name, surname, company's name).

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

The statistical program SPSS version 20.0 has been used in this study to perform the statistical analysis. Descriptive analysis, scale measurement (reliability test) and inferential analysis (correlation, regression analysis, One-way ANOVA) will be carried in the data analysis.

### **3.8 Limitations of the Research**

Although the research findings might give some insight to the researchers and these findings should be viewed in light of some limitations. This research was adopting judgemental sampling technique method and the result could not be generalizable. This research also was conducted in Konya, Turkey. Hence, the sample was limited to this region and cross-sectional study design has been used. In this context, the changes of the responders' experiential value over a period of time cannot be identified. Due to the limitations of this research which were mentioned above, it is recommended to adopt probability sampling method and longitudinal study for the future research.

## **4. Research Results**

### **4.1 Reliability and Validity**

A total of 158 valid surveys were analyzed in this research. One of the tests which can be used to ensure the stability and consistency of the measures is known as the reliability test.

**Table 1. Reliability and Validity**

	<b>N of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</b>
All Items	24	,945	,944
Emotional Labor	14	,922	,922
Surface Acting	7	,881	,881
Deep Acting	4	,801	,800
Expression of Naturally Felt Emotions	3	,859	,857
Work Alienation	10	,919	,918

Generally, the value of Cronbach's alpha with the range of greater than 0,60 is considered acceptable. The results from Table 1 indicated that the Cronbach alpha for all the constructs was quite above 0,60. Cronbach alpha for all items was  $\alpha=0,945$ , as shown in Table 1. The reliability result for Emotional Labor was  $\alpha=0,922$ . Based on findings, Cronbach's Alphas for the structures of Emotional Labor were  $\alpha=0,881$  for Surface Acting;  $\alpha=0,801$  for Deep Acting; and  $\alpha=0,859$  for Expression of Naturally Felt Emotions. Also, the results displayed that Cronbach Alpha for Work Alienation was  $\alpha=0,919$ . In conclusion, the result concluded that the measurement scales of the constructs were stable to measure the constructs and allowed the researcher to use the questionnaire to conduct the research.

## 4.2 Demographics

### 4.2.1 Respondents' Demographic Profiles Analysis

Table 2 depicts the results of the demographic findings and explained the results.

**Table 2. Demographic Results**

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
<b>Gender</b>					
Valid	Male	126	79,7	79,7	79,7

	Female	32	20,3	20,3	100,0
<b>Marital Status</b>					
Valid	Married	102	64,6	64,6	64,6
	Single	56	35,4	35,4	100,0
<b>Education</b>					
Valid	Primary School	0	0,0	0,0	0,0
	Secondary School	6	3,8	3,8	3,8
	High School	28	17,7	17,7	21,5
	Associate Degree	52	32,9	32,9	54,4
	Bachelor	64	40,5	40,5	94,9
	Master	8	5,1	5,1	100,0
	Ph.D.	0	0,0	0,0	100,0
<b>Age</b>					
Valid	18-29	63	39,9	39,9	39,9
	30-49	65	41,1	41,1	81,0
	50-65	28	17,7	17,7	98,7
	Older than 66	2	1,3	1,3	100,0
<b>Monthly Income</b>					
Valid	Up to 1225 TL	23	14,6	14,6	14,6
	1226-3990 TL	107	67,7	67,7	82,3
	More than 3991	28	17,7	17,7	100,0
<b>Work Experience</b>					
Valid	Up to 1 Year	17	10,8	10,8	10,8
	1-3 Years	42	26,6	26,6	37,3
	4-7 Years	47	29,7	29,7	67,1
	8-11 Years	31	19,6	19,6	86,7
	More than 12 Years	21	13,3	13,3	100,0
<b>Total</b>		158	100,0	100,0	



A total of 158 valid respondents were analyzed in this study. According to the survey, the gender distribution of the respondents consists of male (79,7%; 126 people) and female (20,3%; 32 people). Based on the findings, 64,6% (102 people) of the respondents are married and the rest of 35,4% (56 people) of the respondents are single. Most of the respondents possess Bachelor Degree diploma (40,5%; 64 people), followed by them with Associate Degree diploma (32,9%; 52 people), and High School Degree (17,7%; 28 people). In this study, 8 people (5,1%) possess Master Degree diploma; 6 people (3,8%) have finished Secondary School. As shown in Table none of the respondents is only with Primary School level of education as well as none of them possesses Ph.D. Degree diploma (0,0%; 0 people). The age group between 30 to 49 years old is the largest respondents' group (41,1%; 65 people); followed by the age group between 18 to 29 years old (39,9%; 63 people) and then by the age group between 50 to 65 years old (17,7%; 28 people), and the age group older than 66 years old (1,3%; 2 people). In terms of monthly income, most of the respondents have monthly income between 1226 to 3990 Turkish lira (67,7%; 107 people); followed by the group more than 3991 Turkish lira (17,7%; 28 people) and the rest of the respondents have up to 1225 Turkish lira monthly income (14,6%; 23 people). While work experience of respondents in tourism industry refers to the time spent in tourism job-related activities. Based on findings, the majority of respondents have worked in tourism industry 4-7 years (29,7%; 47 people); followed by the group whose working experience is 1-3 years (26,6%; 42 people); and then the group whose have worked in tourism industry 8-11 years (19,6%; 31 people). Also, the survey showed that 10,8% (17 people) are new to the industry whose working experience is up to 1 year, and 13,3% (21 people) have worked in tourism industry more than 12 years.

### **4.3 Correlation Analyses between the Variables**

#### **4.3.1 Correlation Analysis Results of Emotional Labor and Work Alienation**

Correlation analysis is commonly used to describe the effect that two or more phenomena occur synchronically and if they are connected. In this research, the

relationships between emotional labor and work alienation were questioned and the correlation analysis was utilized to investigate this relationships.

**Table 3. Correlation Results**

		Emotional Labor	Work Alienation
Emotional Labor	Pearson Correlation	1	,636**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	158	158
Work Alienation	Pearson Correlation	,636**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	158	158

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (2-tailed)

Based on findings shown in Table 3 the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation is moderately positively correlated (0,636). So, emotional labor moves in the same direction with work alienation, as emotional labor increases, work alienation increases as well. In other words, the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation is a positive relationship. Also, the results reveal the p-value for this test as being  $p=0,000$  and so less than alpha value 0.01. Therefore, it is acknowledged that there is evidence to suggest that linear correlation is present in the population. Hence, the independent variable (emotional labor) was significant to explain the variance in employee work alienation. In conclusion, the hypothesis was supported by the findings.

#### 4.4 Linear Regression Analyses between the Variables

Regression analysis is an essential statistical method for the examination of data. In this research, linear regression was utilized to investigate the linear relationship between the dependent variable Y (work alienation) and independent variable X (emotional labor).

#### 4.4.1 Linear Regression Analysis of Emotional Labor and Work Alienation

Regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. As can be seen in Table 4, the correlation coefficient and coefficient of determination for the regression model is  $r^2 = 0,404$ . The value of  $r^2 = 0,404$  suggests there is a moderate positive relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. Besides, the value of the coefficient of determination reveals that 40,4% of the variance of work alienation can be explained by emotional labor. In other words, the scale of employee's work alienation is predicted by 40,4% of employee emotional labor.

**Table 4. Emotional Labor and Work Alienation Linear Regression Results**

Dependent Variable	$R^2$	Independent Variable	B	Std. Error	t	p	F
Work Alienation	,404	(Constant)	3,305	2,373	7,710	,000	105,724
		Emotional Labor	,565	,055	2,829	,000	

a.Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Labor

b.Dependent Variable: Work Alienation

The significance level of  $p = 0.000$  ( $p < 0.000$ ) means that there is a less than 0.0005 possibility that this difference may have occurred purely due to sampling, so it is highly likely that the relationship exists in the population as a whole. The results of regression analysis indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between employee emotional labor and employee work alienation  $p < 0.05$ . Based on findings, hypothesis  $H_1$  it is supported and the null hypothesis is rejected.

#### 4.5 ANOVA Analyses

In this part, analysis of variance was used to find out any significant mean differences among levels on demographic' variables towards emotional labor and work alienation

#### 4.5.1 ANOVA Analysis Results between Emotional Labor and the Variables

##### 4.5.1.1 ANOVA Analysis Results between Emotional Labor and Education

One-way ANOVA analysis ought to be used to evaluate differences between data sets. Hence, One-way ANOVA was applied to figure out differences between data sets of this study.

**Table 5. Descriptives for Educations**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Secondary School	6	48,1071	7,87203	3,21374	39.8460	56.3683	35,21	56,36
High School	28	40,2934	11,75841	2,22213	35.7339	44.8528	20,07	58,29
Associate Degree	52	41,7898	10,49532	1,45544	38.8679	44.7118	13,07	58,29
Bachelor	64	41,7299	10,77669	1,34709	39.0380	44.4218	15,14	58,36
Master	8	44,2946	7,03670	2,48785	38.4118	50.1775	38,36	58,36
Total	158	41,8671	10,61050	,84413	40.1998	43.5344	13,07	58,36

$H_0$  : There is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels.

$H_1$  : There is significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels.

**Table 6. ANOVA Results for Education**

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	351,633	4	87,908	,776	,542

Within Groups	17323,851	153	113,228		
Total	17675,484	157			

Table 6 shows that  $\alpha = 0,542$  so  $\alpha > 0,05$ . As a result the null hypothesis  $H_0$  that there is no difference in the population means it is true, so  $H_1$  was rejected.

#### 4.5.1.2 ANOVA Analysis Results between Emotional Labor and Age

One-way ANOVA was used to compare differences of means among age groups.

**Table 7. Descriptives for Age**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
18-29	63	36,3163	10,45797	1,31758	33,6825	38,9501	13,07	57,36
30-49	65	44,0363	8,59956	1,06664	41,9054	46,1671	23,07	58,36
50-65	28	48,7857	9,23003	1,74431	45,2067	52,3647	16,21	58,29
More than 66	2	49,3571	12,72792	9,00000	64,9987	163,7130	40,36	58,36
Total	158	41,8671	10,61050	,84413	40,1998	43,5344	13,07	58,36

$H_0$  : There is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different age levels.

$H_1$  : There is significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different age levels.

**Table 8. ANOVA Results for Age**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3699,425	3	1233,142	13,588	,000
Within Groups	13976,060	154	90,754		

Total	17675,484	157			
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**Table 9. Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	9.865	3	4.890	.016
Brown-Forsythe	10.902	3	4.452	.017

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 8 indicates a value of  $\alpha = 0,000$  ( $\alpha < 0,05$ ), and Table 9 shows Welch sig. = 0,16, so  $\alpha < 0,05$ . Based on the findings the null hypothesis  $H_0$  that there is no difference in the population means it is not true, so  $H_1$  was accepted. In this context, Games-Howell post hoc test was provided in order to see mean differences.

**Table 10. Multiple Comparison for Age**

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-29	30-49	-7.71994	1.69521	.000	-12.1367	-3.3032
	50-65	-12.46939	2.18601	.000	-18.2507	-6.6881
	More than 66	-13.04082	9.09593	.644	-202.9970	176.9154
30-49	18-29	7.71994	1.69521	.000	3.3032	12.1367
	50-65	-4.74945	2.04459	.107	-10.1904	.6915
	More than 66	-5.32088	9.06299	.925	-201.4302	190.7885
50-65	18-29	12.46939	2.18601	.000	6.6881	18.2507
	30-49	4.74945	2.04459	.107	-.6915	10.1904
	More than 66	-.57143	9.16748	1.000	-178.2645	177.1217
More than 66	18-29	13.04082	9.09593	.644	-176.9154	202.9970
	30-49	5.32088	9.06299	.925	-190.7885	201.4302
	50-65	.57143	9.16748	1.000	-177.1217	178.2645

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 10 shows that there is a statistically significant difference between group age “18-29” and “30-49” ( $\alpha < 0,05$ ). The same results affirm a statistically significant difference between group age “18-29” and “50-65” ( $\alpha < 0,05$ ). Moreover, results show that group age “18-29” and “30-49” have a negative mean difference (-7,71994), while the group age “18-29” and “50-65” have a higher negative mean difference (-12,46939).

#### 4.5.1.3 ANOVA Analysis Results between Emotional Labor and Income

One-way ANOVA was used to test whether all population means are equal or at least one population mean is different from the rest.

**Table 11. Descriptives for Income**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Up to 1225 TL	23	37,4689	10,58484	2,20709	32,8917	42,0462	20,07	56,36
1226-3990 TL	107	41,7770	10,64743	1,02933	39,7363	43,8178	13,07	58,29
More than 3991 TL	28	45,8240	9,24859	1,74782	42,2377	49,4102	24,07	58,36
Total	158	41,8671	10,61050	,84413	40,1998	43,5344	13,07	58,36

**$H_0$**  : There is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different income levels.

**$H_1$**  : There is significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different income levels.

**Table 12. ANOVA Results for Income**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	884,168	2	442,084	4,081	,019
Within Groups	16791,317	155	108,331		

Total	17675,484	157			
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**Table 13. Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	4.456	2	46.493	.017
Brown-Forsythe	4.362	2	67.068	.017

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Based on Table 12 and Table 13, the results show that  $\alpha$  between groups = 0,019, Welch sig. = 0,017, so  $\alpha < 0,05$ . This result confirms that there is a difference at least between one population mean and the rest. The null hypothesis  $H_0$  it is not true, and so the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  is accepted. In order to see which mean differ from each other Games-Howell post hoc test was used.

**Table 14. Multiple Comparison for Income**

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Up to 1225 TL	1226-3990 TL	-4.30809	2.43532	.196	-10.2900	1.6738
	More than 3991 TL	-8.35504	2.81534	.013	-15.1830	-1.5271
1226-3990 TL	Up to 1225 TL	4.30809	2.43532	.196	-1.6738	10.2900
	More than 3991 TL	-4.04694	2.02839	.124	-8.9542	.8603
More than 3991 TL	Up to 1225 TL	8.35504	2.81534	.013	1.5271	15.1830
	1226-3990 TL	4.04694	2.02839	.124	-.8603	8.9542

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 14 shows that there is a statistically significant difference between “Up to 1225 TL” and “More than 3991 TL” ( $\alpha = 0,013$ , so  $\alpha < 0,05$ ). The difference mean between these two groups is = -8,35504.



#### 4.5.1.4 ANOVA Analysis Results between Emotional Labor and Experience

In this section, One-way ANOVA was used in this to test whether there is statistically significant mean difference for experience levels.

**Table 15. Descriptives for Experience**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	17	35,2773	8,29990	2,01302	31,0099	39,5447	20,07	48,21
1-3 years	42	32,3571	9,84951	1,51981	29,2878	35,4265	13,07	52,29
4-7 years	47	43,2325	3,29402	,48048	42,2654	44,1997	36,29	53,21
8-11 years	31	49,8548	9,29488	1,66941	46,4455	53,2642	25,14	57,36
More than 12 years	21	51,3741	7,08688	1,54648	48,1482	54,6001	38,36	58,36
Total	158	41,8671	10,61050	,84413	40,1998	43,5344	13,07	58,36

$H_0$  : There is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels.

$H_1$  : There is significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels.

**Table 16. ANOVA Results for Experience**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8500,293	4	2125,073	35,436	,000
Within Groups	9175,191	153	59,969		
Total	17675,484	157			

**Table 17. Robost Tests of Equality of Means**

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
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Welch	26.527	4	52.664	.000
Brown-Forsythe	33.556	4	104.040	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Results from Table 16 and Table 17 show a value of  $\alpha = 0,000$ , and Welch sig. = 0,000, so both values  $< 0,05$ . As a result, the null hypothesis  $H_0$  it is false, and the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  that there is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels it is true, so  $H_1$  is accepted. Games-Howell post hoc test was used to check which mean differ from each other.

**Table 18. Mutliple Comparison for Experience**

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 1 year	1-3 years	2.92017	2.52232	.775	-4.3316	10.1720
	4-7 years	-7.95521	2.06957	.009	-14.2185	-1.6919
	8-11 years	-14.57753	2.61518	.000	-22.0811	-7.0740
	More than 12 years	-16.09684	2.53848	.000	-23.4363	-8.7574
1-3 years	Less than 1 year	-2.92017	2.52232	.775	-10.1720	4.3316
	4-7 years	-10.87538	1.59396	.000	-15.3888	-6.3620
	8-11 years	-17.49770	2.25760	.000	-23.8274	-11.1680
	More than 12 years	-19.01701	2.16828	.000	-25.1395	-12.8945
4-7 years	Less than 1 year	7.95521	2.06957	.009	1.6919	14.2185
	1-3 years	10.87538	1.59396	.000	6.3620	15.3888
	8-11 years	-6.62232	1.73718	.005	-11.6167	-1.6280
	More than 12 years	-8.14163	1.61941	.000	-12.9132	-3.3700
8-11 years	Less than 1 year	14.57753	2.61518	.000	7.0740	22.0811
	1-3 years	17.49770	2.25760	.000	11.1680	23.8274
	4-7 years	6.62232	1.73718	.005	1.6280	11.6167

	More than 12 years	-1.51931	2.27564	.962	-7.9627	4.9241
More than 12 years	Less than 1 year	16.09684	2.53848	.000	8.7574	23.4363
	1-3 years	19.01701	2.16828	.000	12.8945	25.1395
	4-7 years	8.14163	1.61941	.000	3.3700	12.9132
	8-11 years	1.51931	2.27564	.962	-4.9241	7.9627

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 18 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the “Less than 1 year” and “4-7 years” ( $\alpha=0,009$ ), “Less than 1 year” and “8-11 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “Less than 1 year” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ). Also, the findings suggest statistically significant difference between “1-3 years” and “4-7 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “1-3 years” and “8-11 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “1-3 years” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “4-7 years” and “8-11 years” ( $\alpha=0,005$ ), “4-7 years” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ). The biggest mean difference is between the group who have work experience 1-3 years and the group who have more than 12 years of experience (-19,01701). While, the smallest mean difference is between employees who have 4-7 years of work experience and employees who have 8-11 years of work experience (-6,62232). The data indicates that more work experience more mean difference.

#### 4.5.2 ANOVA Analysis Results between Work Alienation and the Variables

##### 4.5.2.1 ANOVA Analysis Results between Work Alienation and Education

The same analysis was utilized to test whether there is significant difference of work alienation in different education level of employees.

**Table 19. Descriptives for Education**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Secondary School	6	27.6667	5.84249	2.38519	21.5354	33.7980	17,40	33.40
High	28	28.4000	9.46217	1.78818	24.7310	32.0690	11.10	39.40

School								
Associate Degree	52	27.1558	9.29091	1.28842	24.5692	29.7424	9.10	43.40
Bachelor	64	25.7234	9.97501	1.24688	23.2318	28.2151	9.10	39.40
Master	8	29.9750	8.22622	2.90841	23.0977	36.8523	17.40	40.50
Total	158	26.9582	9.43172	.75035	25.4761	28.4403	9.10	43.40

$H_0$  : There is no significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different education levels.

$H_1$  : There is significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different education levels.

**Table 20. ANOVA Results for Education**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	233.633	4	58.408	.651	.627
Within Groups	13732.671	153	89.756		
Total	13966.304	157			

Findings in Table 20 suggest that  $\alpha = 0,627$ , so  $\alpha > 0,05$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is true and alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  is rejected.

#### 4.5.2.2 ANOVA Analysis Results between Work Alienation and Age

One-way ANOVA was used in this to test whether there is statistically significant mean difference for age levels. The descriptives results for age are given in Table 21.

**Table 21. Descriptives for Age**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		

18-29	63	22.7825	9.37159	1.18071	20.4223	25.1427	9.10	39.40
30-49	65	28.5215	8.68808	1.07762	26.3687	30.6743	9.10	40.50
50-65	28	32.1857	7.50781	1.41884	29.2745	35.0969	14.40	43.40
More than 66	2	34.5000	5.65685	4.00000	-16.3248	85.3248	30.50	38.50
Total	158	26.9582	9.43172	.75035	25.4761	28.4403	9.10	43.40

**$H_0$**  : There is no significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age levels.

**$H_1$**  : There is significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age levels.

**Table 22. ANOVA Results for Age**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2136.249	3	712.083	9.270	.000
Within Groups	11830.055	154	76.819		
Total	13966.304	157			

**Table 23. Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	8.145	3	5.118	.022
Brown-Forsythe	12.193	3	26.608	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

As shown in Table 22 and Table 23, the value of sig. Between groups is = 0,000 and Welch sig. = 0,022, so < 0,05. Therefore, the null hypothesis  **$H_0$**  is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis  **$H_1$**  is accepted. In order to verify which levels differ Games-Howell post hoc test was utilized and the results are shown in Table 24.

**Table 24. Multiple Comparison for Age**

(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
18-29	30-49	-5.73900	1.59854	.003	-9.9017	-1.5763
	50-65	-9.40317	1.84586	.000	-14.2723	-4.5341
	More than 66	-11.71746	4.17062	.351	-77.4557	54.0208
30-49	18-29	5.73900	1.59854	.003	1.5763	9.9017
	50-65	-3.66418	1.78168	.180	-8.3749	1.0465
	More than 66	-5.97846	4.14262	.632	-75.1308	63.1739
50-65	18-29	9.40317	1.84586	.000	4.5341	14.2723
	30-49	3.66418	1.78168	.180	-1.0465	8.3749
	More than 66	-2.31429	4.24419	.938	-60.4715	55.8429
More than 66	18-29	11.71746	4.17062	.351	-54.0208	77.4557
	30-49	5.97846	4.14262	.632	-63.1739	75.1308
	50-65	2.31429	4.24419	.938	-55.8429	60.4715

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Looking at the data in Table 24, there is a statistically significant difference between work alienation of the employees in the group age “18-29” and “30-49” ( $\alpha=0,003$ ), “18-29” and “50-65” ( $\alpha= 0,000$ ). The mean difference is bigger between groups “18-29” and “50-65” by -9,40317, and less between groups “18-29” and “30-49” by -5,73900.

#### 4.5.2.3 ANOVA Analysis Results between Work Alienation and Income

One-way ANOVA was used to test whether all population means of income variable are equal or at least one population mean is different from the rest.

**Table 25. Descriptives for Income**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
up to 1225 TL	23	25.4348	9.20625	1.91964	21.4537	29.4159	12.20	39.40
1226-3990 TL	107	26.9710	9.34109	.90304	25.1807	28.7614	9.10	43.40
More than 3991 TL	28	28.1607	10.10806	1.91024	24.2412	32.0802	11.10	40.50
Total	158	26.9582	9.43172	.75035	25.4761	28.4403	9.10	43.40

**$H_0$**  : There is no significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different income levels.

**$H_1$**  : There is significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different income levels.

**Table 26. ANOVA Results for Income**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	93.885	2	46.943	.525	.593
Within Groups	13872.419	155	89.499		
Total	13966.304	157			

Findings in Table 26 indicate a value of  $\alpha = 0,593$ , so  $\alpha < 0,05$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis  **$H_0$**  is accepted, and the alternative hypothesis  **$H_1$**  is rejected.

#### 4.5.2.4 ANOVA Analysis Results between Work Alienation and Experience

In order to test whether there is statistically significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels One-way ANOVA was used. The descriptives for experience levels are given in Table 27.

**Table 27. Descriptives for Experience**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Less than 1 year	17	24.5765	9.59333	2.32672	19.6440	29.5089	12.20	39.40
1-3 years	42	22.1952	8.79451	1.35702	19.4547	24.9358	9.10	38.50
4-7 years	47	25.8426	8.41760	1.22783	23.3711	28.3141	11.30	43.40
8-11 years	31	31.9290	8.94529	1.60662	28.6479	35.2102	11.30	39.40
More than 12 years	21	33.5714	6.59789	1.43978	30.5681	36.5748	18.10	40.50
Total	158	26.9582	9.43172	.75035	25.4761	28.4403	9.10	43.40

$H_0$  : There is no significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels.

$H_1$  : There is significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels.

**Table 28. ANOVA Results for Experience**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2792.153	4	698.038	9.558	.000
Within Groups	11174.151	153	73.034		
Total	13966.304	157			

**Table 29. Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

	Statistic <sup>a</sup>	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	10.664	4	60.852	.000
Brown-Forsythe	9.603	4	110.766	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.



Table 28 and 29 indicate that the value of sig. Between groups is  $\alpha = 0,000$  and Welch's sig. = 0,000, so  $\alpha < 0,05$ . Hence, the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is considered not true and the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  is accepted. Games-Howell post hoc test was used to figure out where experience levels differ and the results were given in Table 30.

**Table 30. Multiple Comparison for Experience**

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Less than 1 year	1-3 years	2.38123	2.69354	.900	-5.4760	10.2384
	4-7 years	-1.26608	2.63082	.988	-8.9819	6.4498
	8-11 years	-7.35256	2.82752	.095	-15.5358	.8307
	More than 12 years	-8.99496	2.73617	.021	-16.9786	-1.0113
1-3 years	Less than 1 year	-2.38123	2.69354	.900	-10.2384	5.4760
	4-7 years	-3.64732	1.83005	.278	-8.7482	1.4535
	8-11 years	-9.73379	2.10303	.000	-15.6367	-3.8309
	More than 12 years	-11.37619	1.97850	.000	-16.9690	-5.7834
4-7 years	Less than 1 year	1.26608	2.63082	.988	-6.4498	8.9819
	1-3 years	3.64732	1.83005	.278	-1.4535	8.7482
	8-11 years	-6.08648	2.02208	.030	-11.7690	-.4039
	More than 12 years	-7.72888	1.89223	.001	-13.0896	-2.3682
8-11 years	Less than 1 year	7.35256	2.82752	.095	-.8307	15.5358
	1-3 years	9.73379	2.10303	.000	3.8309	15.6367
	4-7 years	6.08648	2.02208	.030	.4039	11.7690
	More than 12 years	-1.64240	2.15736	.940	-7.7492	4.4644
More than 12 years	Less than 1 year	8.99496	2.73617	.021	1.0113	16.9786

1-3 years	11.37619	1.97850	.000	5.7834	16.9690
4-7 years	7.72888	1.89223	.001	2.3682	13.0896
8-11 years	1.64240	2.15736	.940	-4.4644	7.7492

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Results given in Table 30 indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between “Less than 1 year” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,021$ ), “1-3 years” and “8-11 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “1-3 years” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,000$ ), “4-7 years” and “8-11 years” ( $\alpha=0,030$ ), “4-7 years” and “More than 12 years” ( $\alpha=0,001$ ). The bigger mean difference is between “1-3 years” and “More than 12 years” by -11,37619. While, the smallest mean difference is between “4-7 years” and “8-11 years” by -6,08648.

#### 4.6 Hypothesis Testing

The study conducted investigations with the purpose of proving the following hypotheses. A linear regression analysis was used to identify whether a significant relationship exists between emotional labor and employee work alienation. Moreover, one-way ANOVA analysis was used in order to figure out whether there is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education, age, income, and experience levels. The same analysis was applied to work alienation.

##### 4.6.1 Results for the Relationship between Emotional Labor and Work Alienation

According to results of the regression analyses, the p value of emotional labor was Sig. = 0.000 and smaller than alpha value 0.05. Therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. So, the null hypothesis  $H_0$  was rejected. Findings suggested that there was a moderate positive (0,636\*) and statistically significant relationship between emotional and work alienation. As a result, hypothesis  $H_1$  was accepted.

Hypothesis

Test Result

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<b><math>H_1</math></b> : There is a positive relationship between emotional labor and work alienation.	Accepted
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#### 4.6.2 Results for the Relationship between Emotional Labor and the Variables

The ANOVA analysis results for the relationship between emotional labor and education levels was  $\alpha = 0,542$  so alpha value  $> 0.05$ . Based on the findings, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels it is true. Therefore,  **$H_2$**  was rejected.

Hypothesis	Test Result
<b><math>H_2</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels.	Rejected

The data indicated  $\alpha = 0,000$  for the relationship between emotional labor and age levels, so alpha value  $< 0.05$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different age levels it was rejected. Hence,  **$H_3$**  was accepted.

Hypothesis	Test Result
<b><math>H_3</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different age levels	Accepted

Based on findings, a value of  $\alpha = 0,019$  ( alpha value smaller than 0.05) was given for the relationship between emotional labor and income levels. The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different income levels it was not true. Therefore,  **$H_4$**  was accepted.

Hypothesis	Test Result
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<b><math>H_4</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different income levels.	Accepted
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Looking at the data, a sig. = 0,000 was provided for the relationship between emotional labor and experience levels. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels it was false. Therefore,  **$H_5$**  was accepted.

Hypothesis	Test Result
<hr/>	
<b><math>H_5</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the emotional labor of the employees in different experience levels	Accepted

#### 4.6.3 Results for the Relationship between Work Alienation and the Variables

In this research, there was no statistically significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different education levels, because the value of sig. = 0.627, so sig. > 0.05. Hence, the null hypothesis  **$H_6$**  was accepted and alternative hypothesis was rejected. In conclusion,  **$H_6$**  was rejected.

Hypothesis	Test Result
<hr/>	
<b><math>H_6</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different education levels.	Rejected

Results indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age levels ( $\alpha = 0,000$ ). Therefore,  **$H_7$**  was accepted.

Hypothesis	Test Result
<hr/>	
<b><math>H_7</math></b> : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of	Accepted

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the employees in different age levels.

Based on data, the  $\alpha$  value for hypothesis 8 was = 0.593 ( sig. > 0,05). As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted and alternative hypothesis was rejected. So,  $H_8$  was rejected.

Hypothesis	Test Result
$H_8$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different income levels.	Rejected

This study found out that there is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels. This hypothesis was supported by the data (  $\alpha = 0,000$ ).

Hypothesis	Test Result
$H_9$ : There is a significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different experience levels	Accepted

## 5. Discussion

In this study, a conceptual framework of the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation was developed. Emotional labor was examined as the independent variable, while work alienation was examined as the dependent variable. Also, nine hypotheses were formulated on the basis of the literature review concerning to emotional labor and work alienation. Various analyses were performed in order to examine the relationships between variables. Regression analyses were conducted to test proposed hypothesis about the relationship between emotional labor and work alienation. Besides, eight hypotheses were tested by using One-way ANOVA analysis. The results of the analyses are presented and discussed in detail. Moreover, several implications, limitations, and future research suggestions were provided.

The results indicated a positive relationship and a moderate impact of emotional labor on work alienation ( $R^2 = 0,404$ ). So, hypothesis  $H_1$  ( $\alpha=0,000$ ) was accepted. Despite statistically significant differences between the emotional labor of the employees in different levels age, income, and experience levels, the findings indicated that there is no statistically significant differences between the emotional labor of the employees in different education levels. Accordingly, hypotheses  $H_3$  ( $\alpha=0,000$ ),  $H_4$  ( $\alpha=0,019$ ),  $H_5$  ( $\alpha=0,000$ ) were accepted and hypothesis  $H_2$  ( $\alpha=0,542$ ) was rejected. Furthermore, the results showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the work alienation of the employees in different age and experience levels. However, the same can not be said for different education and income levels. Therefore, hypotheses  $H_7$  ( $\alpha=0,000$ ) and  $H_9$  ( $\alpha=0,000$ ) were accepted and hypotheses  $H_6$  ( $\alpha=0,627$ ) and  $H_8$  ( $\alpha=0,593$ ) were rejected.

As it was expected in this thesis the relationship between the emotional labor and work alienation was found to be positively correlated. The positive relationship between emotional labor and work alienation, supported the approaches of the different researchers about the impact of different emotional regulation utilized by the employee (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Gross, 1998; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005) and the importance of emotional dissonance, frequency, attentiveness, and variety of emotions needed to be displayed (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Grandey (2000: 98) described emotional labor as a process where employees adjust their arousal and cognitions in favor of displaying the desired emotions. Also, the effect size of the regression by 40,2% showed a moderate effect size. Emotional regulation can be considered a concept which may explain why there was not a strong correlation between emotional labor and work alienation. Grandey, Fisk, and Steiner (2005) observed the relationship between employee and customer. They found that high individual control over job reduced the negative effects of emotional regulation. Larsen and Gshwandtner (1995) noticed that sellers used a variety of emotion regulation strategies, where most of them do not belong to emotional labor dimensions such as helping others, socializing, intellectualizing, realizing, relaxing, meditating, exercising, social comparisons, and daydreaming (Gosserand &


Diefendorff, 2005: 1258). So, emotional labor appears as a multidimensional and cross-linked construct which represents several distinct dimensions and may be significantly affected by them. In this context, the prediction of the relationships between emotional labor and work alienation it is important to be subject to further studies. Because of mentioned reasons, the future studies should focus on identifying the appropriate and inherent dimensions for their research.

The data in this study suggested that employees with more year of experience try to play more with emotional labor and experience more work alienation. Besides, different age levels appeared to have a significant difference on both emotional labor and work alienation. The results showed that employees with a higher income level tend to play more with emotions. In contrast, the findings indicated that there was no significant difference between the work alienation in different income levels. Differently from all other demographic variables, the education levels seems to not have significant difference nor on emotional labor neither on work alienation. Acknowledging the study's limitations, this research attempts to describe the tendency between variables.

An essential limitation of this study is its cross-sectional design. However hypotheses concerning the direction of the relationships among the variables were formed on the basis of the past research (Diefendorff et. al., 2005; Hirschfeld & Feild, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Ashforth, 1993; Hochschild, 1983), and causality can not be inferred.

As it was described in the theoretical part, there is no consensus among researchers concerning to the dimensions of emotional labor. Several researchers have diverse approaches to emotional labor concept. This study had adapted a three-dimensional (surface acting, deep acting, expression of naturally felt emotions) approach of emotional labor concept which was based on Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Kruml and Geddes (2000), and Grandey (2003) approaches. Therefore, future research should focus on identifying appropriate dimensions and inherent adaption.

The dependency on self-report data it is considered to be another limitation. All measures used in this study were self-reported measures which might cause common source bias and inflation of the correlations among the variables. Future studies might reduce such bias by referring to different sources such as executives and employees, particularly for emotional labor. A parallel dilemma with the use of self-reported measures is social desirability. Despite anonymity of the answers was ensured, participants might still be motivated to present themselves in a complimentary form and gave a socially desirable answer in their evaluations of emotional labor and work alienation. Future studies might apply social desirability scales to overcome this problem.





## CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the recent literature in several ways. First of all, although the view that emotional labor have impact on employees' work alienation was suggested by many researchers (Grandey, 2000; Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003) but none of the studies tested empirically the relationship between emotional labor as a three-dimensional construct (surface acting, deep acting, the expression of naturally felt emotions) and work alienation as a single construct. The majority of studies focused on emotional labor as a two-dimensional, three-dimensional or five-dimensional construct, and work alienation as a five-dimensional construct. By utilizing a particular form of alienation such as work alienation, as well as emotional labor this study contributes to literature. Moreover, by confirming the positive relationship between emotional labor and work alienation the present study may guide the future research.

This research helps employers and employees in the service industries to gain additional knowledge and better perception of the emotional labor impact on work alienation. By understanding the antecedents of emotional labor and work alienation, the research allows the players in the service industries to manage effectively employees emotional labor and alienation process. Moreover, a positive emotional well-being can be beneficial for any individual. Identifying and understanding the specific determinants that are associated with positive emotions, those factors could be improved, which would lead to developing of self and emotional well-being. Seen from this perspective, a broader knowledge of emotions and emotion labor process may help employees to engage better with their customers, prevent them from experiencing alienation and resulting in a positive work environment which leads to higher performance. The research study provides insights for the service industry to have an understanding towards the emotional labor and work alienation, as well as the effect of demographic characteristics in this relationship. Therefore, this understanding enables the owners, managers, supervisors, organizations, dealers, agents, agencies in identifying relevant approaches to develop a positive environment for their employees and build a strong relationship with their valued customers.

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## APPENDICES

### A. THE QUESTIONNAIRE (English Language)

#### QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire consist of 3 parts and its results will be used in the scientific research in order to examine the relationship between Emotional Labor and Work Alienation on the employees. Your answers will be treated in full confidence. Please, do not write your name or address anywhere on the questionnaire. We thank you in advance for taking the time and the sensitivity you have shown to complete this questionnaire.

*Assist. Prof. Dr. Burcu DOĞANALP - Orhan ZAGANJORI (Selcuk University)*

*zaganjori.orhan@gmail.com*

#### 1. PART (DEMOGRAPHIC)

1- Gender ? ( ) Male ( ) Female

2- Marital Status ? ( ) Married ( ) Single

3- Education Level ? (Your last diploma) ( ) Primary school ( ) Secondary School ( ) High School ( ) Associate Degree ( ) Bachelor ( ) Master ( ) PhD

4- Age ? ( ) 18 – 29 years ( ) 30 – 49 years ( ) 50 – 65 years ( ) more than 66 years

5- Monthly income level (net)? ( ) up to 1225 TL ( ) 1226 - 3990 TL ( ) More than 3990 TL

6- Work experience in tourism sector? ( ) less than 1 year ( ) 1-3 years ( ) 4-7 years ( ) 8-11 years ( ) more than 12 years

**Do you agree or disagree with the following phrases? Please tick the appropriate box.**

**1 = Strongly Disagree    2 = Disagree    3 = I don't know    4 = Agree    5 = Strongly Agree**

#### 2. PART (EMOTIONAL LABOR)

I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤

I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
The emotions I express to customers are genuine.	①	②	③	④	⑤
The emotions I show customers come naturally.	①	②	③	④	⑤
The emotions I show customers match what I spontaneously feel.	①	②	③	④	⑤
<b>3. PART (WORK ALIENATION)</b>					
Those who work for a living are manipulated by those who run things.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I wonder why I work at all.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Most of work life is wasted in meaningless activity.	①	②	③	④	⑤
No matter how hard you work, you never really seem to reach your goals.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I find it difficult to imagine enthusiasm concerning work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
It doesn't matter if people work hard at their jobs; only a few 'higher ups' really profit.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Ordinary work is too boring to be worth doing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I feel little need to try my best at work for it makes no difference anyway	①	②	③	④	⑤
I don't enjoy work; I just put in my time to get paid.	①	②	③	④	⑤
I find it hard to believe people who actually feel that the work they perform is of value to society.	①	②	③	④	⑤

**Thank you for your participation!**

## B. THE QUESTIONNAIRE (Turkish Language)

### ANKET

3 bölümden oluşan bu anket çalışması, çalışanların duygusal emek düzeyleriyle işe yabancılaşma düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek amacıyla bilimsel nitelikli bir çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Anketin üzerine kimliğinizi ifade eden herhangi bir bilgi (Adı, soyadı vb.) yazmayınız. Soruların cevaplanması hususunda gösterdiğiniz hassasiyetten dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

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### 1. BÖLÜM (DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLER)

- 1- Cinsiyetiniz? ( ) Bay ( ) Bayan
- 2- Medeni durumunuz? ( ) Evli ( ) Bekar
- 3- Eğitim durumunuz? (Aldığınız son diploma) ( ) İlköğretim ( ) Ortaöğretim ( ) Lise ( ) Önlisans ( ) Lisans ( ) Yüksek lisans ( ) Doktor
- 4- Yaşınız? ( ) 18 – 29 ( ) 30 – 49 ( ) 50 – 65 ( ) 66 ve üstü
- 5- Aylık gelir durumunuz (net)? ( ) 1225 TL ve altı ( ) 1226 - 3990 TL arası ( ) 3991 TL ve üstü
- 6- Sektördeki deneyiminiz? ( ) 1 yıldan az ( ) 1-3 yıl ( ) 4-7 yıl ( ) 8-11 yıl ( ) 12 yıl ve üstü

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelere ne düzeyde katılmaktasınız? Lütfen uygun kutucuğu işaretleyiniz.

1 = Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 2 = Katılmıyorum 3 = Kararsızım 4 = Katılıyorum 5 = Kesinlikle katılıyorum

### 2. BÖLÜM (DUYGUSAL EMEK)

Müşterilerle uygun şekilde ilgilenebilmek için rol yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilerle ilgilenirken iyi hissediyormuşum rolü yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilerle ilgilenirken bir şov yapar gibi ekstra performans sergilerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Mesleğimi yaparken hissetmediğim duyguları hissediyormuşum gibi davranırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Mesleğimin gerektirdiği duyguları sergileyebilmek için sanki bir maske takarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilerime, gerçek hissettiğim duygulardan farklı duygular sergilerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Müşterilerle ilgilenirken sahte duygular gösteririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere göstermek zorunda olduğum duyguları gerçekten yaşamaya çalışırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere sergilemem gereken duyguları içimde de hissedebilmek için yoğun çaba gösteririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Göstermem gereken duyguları gerçekte de hissetmek için çaba harcarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere göstermem gereken duyguları hissedebilmek için elimden geleni yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere sergilediğim duygular samimidir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere gösterdiğim duygular kendiliğinden ortaya çıkar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Müşterilere gösterdiğim duygular o an hissettiklerime aynıdır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
<b>3. BÖLÜM (İŞE YABANCILAŞMA)</b>					
Yaşamak için çalışan kişiler, idareciler tarafından çıkar amaçlı kullanılmaktadırlar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Çalışmanın ne işe yaradığını merak ediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İş yaşamının çoğu anlamsız aktivitelerle heba olmaktadır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Ne kadar sıkı çalıştığının bir önemi yok, nasıl olsa istediklerini elde edemeyeceksin.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İş ile ilgili büyük bir heves göstermeyi hayal etmek çok zor buluyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İnsanların sıkı çalışmasının bir önemi yok, sadece çok az bir kısmı gerçekten istediğini elde edebilir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Olağan çalışma çok gayret göstermek için oldukça sıkıcıdır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İşi elimden geldiğince en iyi şekilde yapmak için pek kendimi zorlamak istemiyorum, nasıl olsa bu bir şeyi değiştirmeyecek.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İşten keyif almıyorum, onu sadece verdiğim zaman karşılığında aldığım para olarak görüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
İnsanların çalışmalarının asıl nedeninin topluma faydalı bir iş yapma düşüncesinin olduğuna pek inanmıyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

**Anketimiz sona ermiştir. Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz!**