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AN EXPLORATION OF THE EMOTION
MANAGEMENT OF FACULTY STAFF AT
A SWISS PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION
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An Exploration of the Emotion Management of Faculty Staff
at a Swiss Private Higher Education Institute

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This work is submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) at the University of Derby. I declare that the work presented is to the best of my knowledge, original, except where acknowledged in the script. The material contained in it has not been submitted, either whole or in part at this or any other educational institution.

Signed:

Date:

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ABBREVIATIONS

DA	Deep Acting
EL	Emotional Labour
EM	Emotion Management
FE	Further Education
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institutes
HR	Human Resources
NFE	Naturally Felt Emotions
SA	Surface Acting
SPHE	Swiss Private Higher Education
SPHEI	Swiss Private Higher Education Institute
SPHES	Swiss Private Higher Education Sector
TOWE	Typology of Workplace Emotion
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

ABSTRACT

The principal aim of this study was to obtain an understanding of the relative importance of emotion management for the Swiss private higher education sector, and for the lecturing profession in general. Extant literature has focused on the emotion management of teachers and lecturers working in the public sector but has somewhat overlooked the private higher education sector.

A single case study design was selected for this research, which consisted of a well-established and highly regarded Swiss private higher education institute. Focus groups were conducted with three groups of faculty staff at the case institute. This was followed up by eleven individual interviews. Thematic analysis was then used to analyse the data, resulting in the identification of several core themes. The findings show that emotion management is an essential element of the lecturing profession within the Swiss private higher education sector. There was evidence of emotional labour in action, with participants enacting the various emotion regulation strategies as espoused throughout the literature. This study identified that ‘naturally felt emotions’ and ‘deep acting’ were the preferred emotion regulation strategies. The prescriptive and philanthropic categories of the typology of workplace emotion were found to be the primary motivators behind the faculty performance.

This thesis has made strides in expanding the field by providing new insights into the relevance of emotion management for professional occupations, specifically those of faculty staff. Overall, participants reported more positive than negative outcomes associated with emotion management, suggesting less of a dichotomy of outcomes in comparison to previous studies. The findings show that a number of contextual factors also have an influence on the emotion management of individual lecturers. Backstage areas and humour were found to be the most common coping strategies which participants used to detach from the job. Unexpectedly, cultural diversity was considered as having implications for the emotion management of lecturers. The research findings represent a further step towards developing an understanding of emotions and their management in a private higher education setting.

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CHAPTER 1: THE OPENING ACT

1.0 Introduction

This introductory chapter justifies the professional and personal rationale for the chosen research area and provides a broad theoretical overview and sense of direction for the thesis. The focus of this research is on the emotion management (EM) of faculty staff employed in the Swiss private higher education sector (SPHES). This chapter will discuss the origins of emotion management and introduce the shortfall of research exploring EM within higher education (HE). The contribution of this thesis to existing knowledge will be presented, followed by an overview of the single descriptive case study which was employed. The key motivations for this research are discussed and the chapter concludes by signposting the structure and core content for the remainder of the thesis.

The management of emotions has been widely recognised as a valuable resource which organizations can use to secure employee engagement and achieve competitive advantage (Bolton, 2005; Fineman, 2008). This thesis seeks to develop professional practice by identifying the significance of emotions and their management for faculty staff in the SPHES and the HE in general. Emotions more than ever before are now firmly on the organizational agenda. This can be evidenced by the growing body of literature on emotions and the recognition that they play a pivotal role in organizational life (Bolton, 2005; Kupers and Weibler, 2008; Grandey, Diefendorff and Rupp, 2013). Putnam and Mumby (1993: 471) define work-related emotions as ‘feelings, sensations, and affective responses to organizational situations’.

The workplace is an emotionally charged melting pot and no matter how hard we may try to separate them, it can be argued that our personal life and our working life are inextricably intertwined (Wharton and Erickson, 1993; Fineman, 2008). Employees throughout the world spend countless hours, days, months and years of their lives at work. For many of us, the need and subsequent motivation to work fulfils our basic requirement to belong and for some of us, work itself may be the most compelling reason for our existence. Despite the fact that organizations are sometimes portrayed as ‘bland’, the reality is that they are ‘emotional arenas’ (Fineman, 2003; 2008), ‘sites of everyday healing and pain’ (Frost, Dutton, Worline and Wilson, 2000: 25). Employees have been known to fall in love, express anger, joy,

frustration, sadness and an infinite number of other emotions at work. The knock-on effect is that ultimately the management of emotions within the workplace cannot be ignored.

Numerous authors have confirmed the importance of emotion management within the workplace (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Bolton, 2000a; 2005; 2007; Guy, Newman and Mastracci, 2008; Wharton, 2009; Grandey *et al.*, 2013). Grandey (2000) argues that not only is the presence of emotions in the workplace a reality, but that emotions themselves have a significant effect on both the organization and the individual. Bolton (2005) draws attention to the importance of emotions in both public and private organizations. This is even more prevalent in the services sector where the end product or service which is exchanged may require a considerable emotional investment on the part of the employee. According to Ashkanasay and Daus (2002: 82):

[The] management of emotions in organizations must now be seen as an important tool in every manager's kit, one to which managers will increasingly need to pay attention in the future.

The origins of emotion management can be traced back to Hochschild's (1983) concept of emotional labour (EL), which identifies employees as managing their emotions to present a socially desirable performance in return for commercial gain. The pursuit of customer satisfaction may come at an expense, in that employees may be required to express and suppress emotions that are not true to their actual feelings. The following section briefly introduces Hochschild's (1983) work, which incidentally will form the foundation for this thesis.

1.1 Emotional Labour

The concept of 'emotional labour' was coined by Arlie Hochschild in her book, *The Managed Heart* (1983). This 'social theory' of emotions provided an insight into the world of flight attendants and bill collectors and critically exposed how organizations seek to manage the emotions and behaviour of their employees to 'manufacture the profitable product of customer contentment' (1983: 8). Hochschild (1983: 7) argued that service employees contributed to commercial gain beyond their physical and mental labouring, which she defined as 'emotional labour' – 'the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display'. She revealed how flight attendants practiced 'service

with a smile' and openly displayed positive body language towards their customers in order to create the impression of authentic care. According to Hochschild (1983) jobs which demand EL have the following three characteristics: firstly they require face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public. Secondly they require the employee to stimulate an emotional state in another person. Last but not least, they enable the employer to influence the emotional performance of the employees. This is achieved by policies and procedures, training programmes, as well as direct supervision. Consequently, employees are required to manage their emotions during interpersonal interactions and produce an emotional state in another person(s) for the benefit of the organization.

Displaying the expected emotions towards the customer is a critical factor in the service industry. Customers have certain expectations as to how service employees should behave, whether it is in the form of politeness in a food and beverage attendant, the caring and professionalism of a nurse or college lecturer, or the polished customer service skills of a high-end car salesman. In contrast, funeral directors may be expected to be sombre and bouncers in night clubs to be somewhat intimidating (Hochschild, 2003). Emotional Labour has been referred to as a form of 'commercial love' (Hochschild, 1983; 2003), 'emotion management with a profit motive slipped under it' (Bolton, 2000a: 163). Over the past three decades the services sector has experienced unprecedented growth which, in line with mounting competition, has increased the demand for EL (Grandey *et al.*, 2013). Today's services sector corporations actively attempt to influence the emotions of their employees for the greater good – the 'profit motive' (Kruml and Geddes, 2000; Hochschild, 2003; Constanti, 2008). Bolton and Boyd (2003: 290) maintain that the 'management and manipulation of employees' feelings is securely tied to the idea of competitive advantage'. Companies are choosing to adopt a different approach and human resource (HR) departments are paying more attention to the softer side of the job, when it comes to recruiting, selecting and training their employees.

More recently it has been argued that emotions are rife throughout organizations and that the regulation of one's emotions may extend to interactions with a broader range of stakeholders than those identified by Hochschild (Bolton, 2005; Sloan, 2008). New conceptualisations such as Bolton's (2005) typology of workplace emotion (TOWE) have made notable contributions to the literature. Bolton's (2005) typology has expanded upon Hochschild's

(1983) original work and provided a multi-dimensional insight into emotion management. The typology portrays employees as skilled emotion managers who control and enact the performance according to a diverse range of motives. Bolton (2005) argues that employers have less power and influence than originally hypothesised by Hochschild (1983). The work of Hochschild (1983) and Bolton (2005) among others will be discussed and critiqued in greater detail in the comprehensive literature review presented in the second chapter. Having provided a brief narrative of the key literature, the next section further justifies the significance of this topic and identifies the research gaps within the HE field.

1.2 Emotion Management and Lecturing

Despite the growing interest in the area of organizational emotions, the research field has historically placed emphasis on entry level or shop floor employees (Wharton, 2009). However the research pendulum has now started to change direction, with more recent studies focusing on a diverse range of professional level occupations from barristers (Harris, 2002) and solicitors (Westaby, 2010), to nurses (James, 1989; Bolton, 2000b; Lewis, 2005; Cooke, 2007), and paramedics (Filstad, 2010), as well as call centre workers (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002; Korczynski, 2003) and counsellors (Mann, 2004). These studies have proved invaluable in highlighting the relevance of EM and its associated challenges across different work settings. While Hochschild (1983; 2003) identifies college and university lecturing as occupations involving significant levels of EL (247, Appendix C), her research offers no more than ‘lip service’ in terms of examining the plight of workers within the HE sector.

Extant literature has examined EM amongst teachers in primary education (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000; Hebson, Earnshaw and Marchington, 2007; Isenbarger and Zembylas, 2006; Kitching, 2009) and some studies have focused on public sector further education (FE) and HE lecturers (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Constanti, 2008; Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner and Doverspike, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). However, when considering the work of lecturers within the private HE sector, which is the focus of the current study, existing research is scant. It is evident that minimum focus has been given to the softer side of the lecturing profession, in particular its predisposition for EL. There have been numerous calls for further research into EM within the lecturing profession. Ogbonna and Harris (2004: 1186) argue that the concept of EL among academics ‘remains

woefully under examined’ and call for a more in-depth study of the academic labour process. More recently, reference has been made to the ‘unexplored terrain’ (Zhang and Zhu, 2008) and ‘paucity of empirical work’ in HE settings (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014; Meier 2009; Constanti, 2008), with some authors suggesting that the concept of EL is crucial to understanding the new academic workplace (Koster, 2011). Mahoney *et al.* (2011: 407) emphasize the apparent irony in the research field, stating that although academics are ‘the primary proponents of EL, few studies examine college professors’. Hagenauer and Volet (2014) concur and recommend that lecturer emotions should be further investigated in a broader range of settings, such as private universities and diverse cultural-educational surroundings.

Unquestionably, lecturers are on the front line when it comes to the delivery of education: they are effectively immersed in the emotional cauldron of the classroom or lecture hall. As per Hochschild’s (1983; 2003) original definition of EL, lecturing involves regular face-to-face and or voice-to-voice contact with the public (the students). Moreover, lecturers seek to modify the emotional state of their students in a bid to instil learning, while simultaneously achieving organizational objectives. These objectives may come in the form of mandates from senior management, who in turn seek to manage the emotional mind-set and behaviour of their employees. This description of the construct depicts EM as productive, tiresome and arduous work. Whether public or private, it can be argued that the education sector is a service industry, and therefore lecturers are, to a certain extent, at the mercy of their ‘customers’ – the students (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004). Lecturers are at the ‘coal face’, interacting with their students on a daily basis, in a bid to deliver quality education which meets the expectations of various stakeholders.

The social nature of emotion work demands that lecturers must invoke varied performances and act as a chameleon to appease the commercial, professional and social expectations placed upon them. Moreover, the complexity and unpredictability of human behaviour ensures that we can always expect the unexpected where people are concerned. Lecturing is inherently an interactive profession – one which is filled with a range of positive emotions from excitement, wonder to happiness, and undeniably darker emotions like anxiety, frustration and anger. One would expect a lecturer to have a pleasant demeanour, to be open-minded and, where appropriate, to adopt the role of devil’s advocate. While a sombre and

intimidating persona does not necessarily enhance the student learning experience, there is a need for control, respect and discipline within the classroom. The means by which this is achieved may vary dramatically from one lecturer to another. For example, lecturer X, by her very reputation, may exude respect and discipline, whereas lecturer Y may need to raise his voice to gain control. Either situation demands an emotional investment on behalf of the lecturer. Regardless of the context, the moulding and masking of emotions is the essence of the profession. Ultimately, the classroom or lecture hall may be viewed as a soap opera with the plot emerging and evolving on a continual basis. The contributions of this thesis to the literature are discussed below.

1.3 The Contribution of the Thesis to Existing Knowledge

I maintain that this thesis makes a noteworthy contribution to the literature on emotions and their management within the workplace. The context of the research itself is unique, in that to date no empirical research has examined the emotion management of lecturers in a Swiss private higher education setting. Previous research has placed emphasis on the public sector and has also favoured primary and secondary education as the research setting. This thesis has made strides in expanding the field by providing new insights into the relevance of emotion management for professional occupations, specifically those of faculty staff. Another notable contribution has been the empirical application and validation of Bolton's (2005) typology of workplace emotion (TOWE). While the TOWE has been utilised in prior research, this thesis stands as one of the first to apply the framework to a private HE setting. Moreover it has provided a valuable insight into the motivations behind the emotion management of academics, which have been somewhat overlooked in the literature. These contributions to existing knowledge, as well as others, will be revisited later in the thesis (please see p.161). The section which follows serves to introduce the context for this research.

1.4 Setting the Context

A single descriptive case study design was chosen for this thesis which consisted of a well-established and highly regarded Swiss private higher education institute (SPHEI). The case study institute is located in the western part of Switzerland, approximately one hour drive from the city of Geneva. It was founded in the mid 1980's, and has since established itself as one of the leading hotel management colleges in the country. The institute prides itself on

offering innovative educational programs which combine renowned Swiss hospitality practices with international management expertise. It is a member of a group of hotel management colleges which attract more than 6,500 students per year across its various campuses. These campuses are geographically dispersed throughout Switzerland and have a global alumni network of over 20,000 graduates.

While the Swiss government has no direct influence over the curriculum or the classroom materials used by lecturers, the institution sets clear guidelines and teaching standards for the faculty to follow. The educational programmes that are offered are also accredited by several different international universities. As a result there are numerous policies and procedures related to the curriculum and learning that need to be strictly adhered to. In that respect the institution is in some ways similar to what Bento (2011:20) refers to as ‘bureaucratic’ in that it is:

...characterised by regulation, rules, and consistency with standards related to regulatory bodies and external references such as institutional quality assurance procedures.

The pedagogical strategy that is encouraged is a student centred approach to learning, as opposed to purely information transmission. The class sizes are relatively small with numbers ranging from 15 to 25 students per class. The institution has four intakes per year, with an average of around 550 students enrolling each term. The culture at the institution is very open and inclusive, with an emphasis on a familial atmosphere. The students and faculty at the institute come from all over the world and consequently add to an already fertile research environment. Lecturers at the institute allocate the majority of their time teaching students and minimal time engaging in research. They focus on achieving module learning objectives, while simultaneously seeking to deliver on the marketer’s promise of customer satisfaction.

Competition for students among private higher education institutions (HEI) in Switzerland has increased dramatically over the past two decades. As a result, SPHEI’s are continually seeking ways to differentiate themselves in order to recruit new students. Marketing has become paramount in pursuit of this objective, whereby service quality and individual attention are strongly emphasised. This has clear connotations for the role of lecturers, as students spend the majority of their week within the classroom. In the quest for student

satisfaction, the Swiss private higher education sector (SPHES) places considerable demands upon lecturers to don the invisible cloak that is ‘emotional labour’ (Hochschild, 1983). Even though dramatic changes have taken place in the way that SPHEI’s are marketed, nominal research has examined the complex role lecturers must adopt to fulfil their role in this new service offering. Yeo (2008: 158) argues that a ‘strong mindset to serve rather than to instruct is fundamental to the acceleration of service standards in educational settings’. The drive towards efficiency and customer (student) satisfaction across the education sector has resulted in more managerial surveillance and control, with lecturers being held more accountable for their performance (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). This has resulted in what has been referred to as the ‘corporate college’, where the voice of the customer has become louder and more weight is placed on evaluation tools, as well as student satisfaction and retention levels (Constanti, 2008; Robson and Bailey, 2009).

It would appear that when looking through the lens of academics working in the SPHES, lecturers similar to seasoned actors are at the mercy of the audience, who are the *raison d’être* for the performance. Lecturers take to the stage on a daily basis performing, in some cases, not to the rapture of applause but to the mere grumblings of the critics (students). Guy *et al.* (2008: 13) state that, ‘it is the lived experience of workers that reveals the nature of emotion work and what it takes to do it well’. Consequently, this research seeks to expose the day-to-day EM performance of lecturers working at a SPHEI. While this is a complex social and cultural issue which is somewhat ethereal in its nature, the management of one’s emotions is a competence that is invaluable to the lecturing profession and in light of this its study cannot be neglected.

1.4.1 Motivation for the Research

I first read about the area of EL and EM (Hochschild, 1983, 2003; Bolton, 2000a, 2005; Bolton and Boyd, 2003) while studying for a Masters in Corporate Strategy and People Management in 2005. It resonated with me as I had previously spent several years working in the services sector and felt as if these readings were about my working life. I made a conscious decision thereafter that I would like to conduct some empirical research related to EM. Shortly afterwards, I embarked on my teaching career in Switzerland and began to experience first-hand the demands for EL within the profession. The challenges of the job were further intensified by the culturally diverse student body composed of over 50 different

nationalities, each with their own set of needs and expectations. The academic department was equally diverse with a broad range of countries represented among the faculty. Through casual conversations with colleagues, I realised that I was not alone in recognising the importance and complexity of emotions, albeit they were not formally acknowledged or rewarded as a facet of the job. From my informal discussions with other lecturers both within and beyond the institution, it appeared that the emotional environment of the academic workplace was ‘a site of both pleasure and pain’ (Bolton, 2003: 4). When I decided to pursue a professional Doctorate it was apparent that the choice of research topic was closer to my heart than ever before.

Having worked as a lecturer in the SPHES for ten years thus far, I am all too aware of the professional and personal importance of emotions both within and beyond the classroom. An examination of EM at the case institution will help to instigate positive change and continuous improvement for both students and staff alike. This research provides a snapshot of the EM climate within the institution, and offers an insight into how lecturers feel about, as well as manage, the emotional component of their job. This information could prove invaluable for HE institutions to develop and implement strategies to reap the benefits of EM and minimise any negative impacts upon the relevant stakeholders. The next section provides an overview of the ensuing chapters.

1.4.2 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 2

Hochschild’s (1983) work, *The Managed Heart*, can be attributed as the specific origin of the EL construct. This chapter introduces an array of contrasting definitions which have since emerged. The evolution and contemporary importance of EM is explored and justified through various streams of literature. The shift in research focus from ‘shop floor’ employees to professional level occupations is made apparent, with the centre of attention then moving to the HE sector. The discussion then chronologically charts the research to date addressing EM and lecturing and presents the potential implications of EL for both employees and multiple stakeholders. The chapter concludes by defining the central aim of this research and introducing a conceptual framework.

Chapter 3

This serves to explain the methodology and provide a research trail for others to follow. It defines the main aim of the thesis and introduces the specific research questions which emerged from the conceptual framework. This is followed by an overview of the adopted philosophy and research design, which was that of a single descriptive case study. Potential issues related to research quality are explored and a detailed description of the chosen data collection methods (focus groups and individual interviews) is provided. Ethical considerations were paramount throughout this research process.

Chapter 4

The aim of this chapter is to present the empirical findings derived from the focus groups and individual interviews. Thematic analysis was chosen as the means to analyse the qualitative data and to present the main findings which emerged from the three focus groups and eleven individual interviews. This resulted in the identification of six overarching themes which are listed below. This chapter provides the framework for the discussion of findings and the conclusions and recommendations.

1. EL and Lecturing;
2. Motives for engaging in EM;
3. EM Outcomes;
4. Contextual Factors;
5. Coping Strategies;
6. New Findings.

Chapter 5

This chapter discusses the research findings and links them back to the relevant literature on EM and lecturing (Chapter 2). The discussion seeks to answer the research questions and is purposively framed around the six themes as identified in the findings chapter. This consists of identifying where the findings both correspond with and contradict extant literature. The implications of these findings for policy and practice are addressed and seven recommendations are presented for the case institution and the HE sector in general.

Chapter 6

The concluding chapter serves to reflect on the original aims and objectives of this thesis, as well as the research process. The findings and recommendations are highlighted and their implications reviewed. The original contribution of the current study is identified and the potential limitations are discussed. This is followed by suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter familiarises the reader with the core concepts related to EL and EM, as espoused throughout the literature. It serves to define the key terms, introduce multifaceted approaches to exploring workplace emotions and presents the rationale for this research. In doing so, the discussion compares and contrasts arguments, themes and findings, as well as developing questions and establishing the theoretical context. The theoretical stances which are discussed extend from Hochschild's (1983) research and emphasise different elements such as behaviour, interactions, emotion regulation, EM and control, as well as relational considerations. Having explored the evolution of the concept, the discussion then examines professional occupations, which have only recently attracted the attention of EM researchers. The imperative of exploring emotions within the HE sector is further justified against current deficiencies in the literature. This places specific attention on the importance of EM for lecturers employed both in public and private higher level education, and identifies how this thesis bridges the research gap. Reference is made to the positive and negative outcomes associated with emotion work for employees, from across a broad range of industries, including the education sector. The chapter concludes by identifying the research aim and presenting a conceptual framework.

2.1 Definitions of Emotional Labour

Notwithstanding any apparent limitations, Hochschild's (1983) seminal work has paved the way for all ensuing EM research. Our understanding of the construct has been expanded by a new generation of researchers from across a range of disciplines such as sociology, psychology and organizational behaviour, who have picked up the EM torch. The intricacy and skill involved in performing EM is highlighted by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987: 33), who maintain that 'emotions are displayed through a complex combination of facial expression, body language, spoken words and tone of voice'. Departing from Hochschild's focus on internal processes, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 90) define EL as 'the act of displaying the appropriate emotion'. They emphasise outward behaviour or emotional expression as opposed to underlying feelings or emotions. Morris and Feldman (1996: 987) draw attention to the interactive nature of EL and the importance of the social context. They define it as 'the effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions'.

Similar to Hochschild (1983) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), the management of both internal feelings and outward behaviour is accentuated by Grandey (2000: 97) who defines EL as ‘the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals’. In referring specifically to the HE sector, Ogbonna and Harris (2004: 1192) define EL as ‘the effort which is required to display that which are perceived to be expected emotions’. This definition may also infer an expectation on the part of the customers (students) to encounter certain emotional displays throughout their learning experience. A more recent definition from Guy *et al.* (2008: 5) identifies EL as:

a component of the dynamic relationship between two people: worker and citizen or worker and worker. Emotional Labour shares similarities as well as differences with physical labour – both require skill and experience and are subject to external controls and divisions of labour.

In contrast to Hochschild (1983), this description proposes that EL can extend beyond interactions with customers to include colleagues. Guy *et al.* (2008) emphasise the hard work and level of skill that is required to perform EL and recognise the influence of external controls.

The above definitions offer insight into how EL has evolved since its inception, and demonstrate the multitude of perspectives that co-exist. While there is a relative consensus that EL requires managing emotions while interacting with others in line with work obligations, there is still an element of confusion around the concept and its application as well as a blurring of the boundaries between some of its constructs (Harris, 2002; Grandey, *et al.*, 2013). The approaches identified thus far, vary from a focus on internal states to internal processes, to that of external displays. Bolton (2005) critiques Hochschild’s (1983) conceptualization of EL and objects to the ensuing emotional labour ‘bandwagon’ (Bolton, 2005: 53) whereby the concept ‘is used (and equally often misused) in a myriad of ways’ (2005: 55). Unlike Hochschild’s assertions, the argument put forward by Bolton (2005: 103) is that employees are skilled emotion managers who are capable of ‘mixing and managing all forms of emotion management according to “rules” other than those solely controlled by the organization’. Consequently, she cautions against the usage of the construct as an analytical device, arguing that it does not acknowledge all forms of EL.

Other authors such as Callaghan and Thompson, (2002), Lewis (2005), and Kupers and Weibler (2008) concur, and question the usage of one lens to explore work related emotions. Bolton's (2005) premise is that EL should be regarded as one dimension of a typology of workplace emotion (TOWE). She categorises it (2005: 554) as 'pecuniary emotion management', carried out according to commercial feeling rules'. The other three dimensions of the typology are prescriptive EM, which relates to professional/organizational feeling rules; and presentational and philanthropic, which are both in line with social feeling rules. This perspective arguably advances our understanding of emotions within organizations, in that it recognises alternative motives beyond financial reward and illuminates the unique personal elements of EM.

Prior to embarking on this research journey I reflected on Fineman's (2004: 721) assertions that 'Emotion's potential multifacetedness suggests that any one approach to understanding 'it' will be just that – one approach'. The current research favours the objections raised by Bolton (2005), and thus categorizes EL as one element of EM, a component (pecuniary EL) in the TOWE. Moreover, this research adopts the definition given by Guy *et al.* (2008: 5) of EL (cited above). As previously identified, this definition acknowledges that EL goes beyond interactions with customers to include other constituents. The connotations are that employees are required to manage their own emotions and those of others, in line with organizational goals. While this definition does not distinguish between the requirement to regulate internal emotions or external displays, it addresses the skill and experience that is fundamental to the professions. When combined with Bolton's TOWE, it provides a much broader approach to studying organizational emotions. The next section examines Hochschild's work in greater detail.

2.2 The Opening Act: 'The Managed Heart'

Hochschild's (1983) pioneering research adopts a North American perspective and further extends upon the concept of impression management (Goffman, 1959) by embracing a dramaturgical metaphor. The theatre's stage is replaced by the workplace context, where the customer adopts the role of the audience and the employee that of the actor. Hochschild (1983) argues that the script takes the form of 'feeling rules' which are created by companies to guide the performance of their employees. These organizational feeling rules or policies and procedures seek to ensure that employees display the appropriate emotions. The

objective is for employees to surpass behavioural compliance and become more engaged with their job. When the feelings required for the performance are not synchronised with those of the employees, EL is required. This is performed by using two distinct strategies; 'Surface Acting' (SA) and 'Deep Acting' (DA). The common attribute to both modes of acting is a conscious effort to control one's emotion. The extent to which the feelings displayed by the employee are authentic is contingent on the type of acting which they engage in.

SA occurs when emotions are faked by employees, in that they outwardly display the emotions required for the situation but do not internalise or attempt to feel these emotions. This apparent deception results in employees faking their authentic emotions and replacing emotions such as anger or frustration with those of joy or empathy. The deception results in outer emotions conforming to the required performance but the internal feelings experienced by the employee may be radically different. The fake smile is an example of SA, where the employee overtly displays happiness in a bid to make a good impression and impact positively upon the customer experience. The use of verbal and non-verbal communication, from body language to tone of voice, all play a part in the deception. In essence the employee is required to present a facade in order to direct their outward behaviour and display the emotions required for the situation.

One of the unique elements of Hochschild's (1983: 218) 'new social theory of emotion' was that she identified EM as being more than just a visible performance. She argued (1983: 33) that 'we are capable of disguising what we feel and of pretending to feel what we do not'. Hochschild (2003: 37-8) proposed that when employees attempt to genuinely feel the displayed emotions they engage in what is called DA, whereby they internalize the role or try to 'deceive themselves as to how they feel'. Managerial prescribed displays may require the employee to evoke the actual emotions or feelings internally, similar to an actor deeply engaged in a predefined role. The employee attempts to view the situation from the customer's perspective and empathise accordingly. From an organizational standpoint, the optimal behaviour is for employees to internalise the emotion. In doing so, DA demands that employees display the required emotions, whether they are genuine or not. The knock-on effect is that employees suppress their true emotions and express those that are not necessarily in sync with how they are feeling. The rationale behind the employee

performance is to ensure that the customer has the best possible experience. As a result, the balance of power may appear to be in favour of the customer. These fundamental EL strategies may also be practiced by lecturers in the SPHES, particularly when considering the aforementioned student as customer debate.

Hochschild (1983) uses the phrases ‘emotion work’ which she refers to as EM conducted in one’s own private sphere, and secondly ‘emotional labour’ which she distinguishes as EM, which is carried out in the workplace for compensation. The basic difference lies in who is directing the emotional performance or what is the underlying motivation behind the actor’s EM. Hochschild infers that the private act of managing one’s emotions has fallen under managerial control and become part of the capitalist labour process. Employees are subject to exploitation and run the risk of their feelings becoming transmuted by the organization, whereby private emotions become intertwined with the requirements of the job. As a result of engaging in SA and DA, employees may experience ‘emotive dissonance’, the difference between felt and manufactured emotions. True feelings are masked and suppressed in order to deliver the required performance resulting in a disconnection of emotions. Thus, the emotional performance, ‘comes to belong more to the organization and less to the self’ (Hochschild, 1983: 198).

EL can lead to negative psychological outcomes for employees such as depression, anxiety and self-alienation (separation from one’s own emotions and a loss of self), as well as absenteeism and excessive drinking. The implications of increased competition on the emotional demands of the job were evident for the flight attendants presented in Hochschild’s (1983) study. The question that emerges from this literature is whether or not this is equally relevant for the lecturing profession. Undoubtedly, the education sector throughout the world has not escaped unscathed from the economic recession of recent years. The subsequent cutbacks and intensification of workloads was widespread across many professions, including teaching and lecturing. Have these economic factors and increased competition had an impact on the demands for EM amongst lecturers? The workplace reality for lecturers working within the SPHE is put under the spotlight throughout this thesis.

While Hochschild’s (1983) research has been hugely influential, it is not without its faults and valid criticisms which, according to Brook (2009a: 10), can be attributed to a

‘combination of under-theorisation and theoretical gaps’. Hochschild implies that a clear dichotomy exists between public and private life in respect of how employees choose to enact their emotions. There is no distinction made between the emotional requirements of the job, the professional codes of conduct and the day-to-day social interaction that occurs within the work place (Bolton, 2005; Lewis, 2005). This has also been contested by other researchers (Callaghan and Mc Collum, 2002; Mc Clure and Murphy, 2007), who argue that the implications of such a dichotomy are that there is no scope or alternative motive for employees to engage in EL other than monetary gain. Such an approach has been identified as over simplistic and contributes to portraying a one dimensional view of EM (Bolton, 2005). While Hochschild (1983) recognises that emotion work can be enacted as a gift, she suggests that this predominantly occurs in the private spheres of one’s life. Lewis (2005) argues that Hochschild overemphasises management’s ability to control employee’s emotions, and in doing so (as argued by Bolton and Boyd, 2003: 290) portrays employees as ‘emotionally crippled actors’.

It would appear that Hochschild (1983) gives minimal credence to the innate employee resistance that exists within every workplace. Bolton (2005: 90) points out that Hochschild ‘does not make any distinction between feeling rules in the workplace that are not commercially motivated’. This perspective suggests that the organization controls employees to the extent that they are robbed of the free will to use their emotions for anything other than organizational objectives. Pugliesi (1999) argues that all emotion work is not necessarily governed by employers, and that it can manifest itself in various spheres. Similarly, Theodosius (2006: 901) questions why Hochschild depicts the individual and his/her emotions as being somewhat isolated from the rest of the world; and in doing so, represents customers as ‘passive participants’, and omits any interaction between individual employees and their co-workers. This leaves little or no recognition for the social aspects which exist in the today’s workplace. Moreover, Hochschild emphasises the negative implications of EL and overestimates the incursion of management (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). What about the rewarding elements associated with EL, particularly for those involved in the teaching and lecturing profession? Is joy, satisfaction or humour ever present in the work place or, as the literature suggests, do all employees simply experience and hold onto the darker emotions?

Additionally, the context and propositions of Hochschild's (1983) thesis adopts a predominantly feminine perspective which offers a narrow understanding of EM. In a way, she is proposing that the plight of the male emotional labourer is non-existent, due to the supposed power and status afforded to him. Are these gendered stereotypes as relevant in today's society? This offers little insight into EM among male employees in professions that can be considered to have rich feminine components, such as nursing or teaching and lecturing. Are men as robotic and tentative with their emotional displays as we are lead to believe? If so, what are the implications of this when it comes to the EM performance? In this respect, lecturing may prove a fertile research landscape, in that it may be more gender balanced in comparison to other professions (such as the cabin crew featured in Hochschild's research).

In defence of Hochschild's thesis, Brook (2009b: 533) acknowledges that it is not without its shortcomings and adds that it:

...inadequately captures the complex and contradictory nature of emotion work; and over-focuses on individual experiences at the cost of workplace social relations'.

Hochschild's greatest contribution may be the identification that the management of emotions '...can just as physical labour, entail conscious effort and hard work' (Bolton and Boyd, 2003: 291).

The next section serves to introduce the most pertinent literature which has emerged since the publication of Hochschild's *The Managed Heart*. It provides a chronological overview and dissects the main themes from the works of Rafaeli and Sutton (1987; 1989); Ashforth and Humphrey (1993); Morris and Feldman (1996); Grandey (2000); Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003); Diefendorff, Croyle and Gosserand (2005); Bolton (2005) and Guy *et al.* (2008).

2.3 From the Managed Heart to Emotional Liberty

Having been somewhat inspired by Hochschild's work (1983), Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) put forward a conceptual framework which attempted to capture the emotional expression of employees within their day-to-day organizational life. It examines sources of role

expectations about emotional expression, the range of expressed emotions and their subsequent outcomes for the organization and the individual. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) identify recruitment and selection, socialization and rewards and punishments as drivers in influencing employee's emotional displays. These factors were also considered important by Delta airlines, in Hochschild's (1983) study, in that their recruitment efforts, socialization process and training programmes placed an emphasis on employee's empathetic ability and aptitude for EM. This raises the question as to whether these factors have any relevance for the SPHES.

Similar to Hochschild (1983), Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) refer to 'service with a smile' and the experiences of front-line employees. However, the sincerity of the 'friendly smile' may not be quite what we imagined it to be, as it can in effect be devoid of any real emotion. In an important departure from Hochschild's (1983) portrayal of an almost unskilled workforce, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) emphasise the skilful element of performing EL. They add to Hochschild's (1983) emotional dissonance construct, and in doing so distinguish between 'faking in bad faith' and 'faking in good faith'. They identify faking in bad faith as occasions when employees display fake emotions 'yet believe that such acting should not be part of the job' (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987: 32). In contrast, faking in good faith is when employees display fake emotions and 'believe that such expressions should be part of the job' (1987: 32). They argue that the sense of the 'true self' can become entangled in the emotional display and the actor can become embedded in the role. In a later piece of research, Rafaeli and Sutton (1989) fine-tune their framework and refer to the determinants of emotional expression at work. In doing so, they suggest that employee expression is driven by three key factors which are: societal, occupational and organizational. The first relates to the expected emotional display for specific situations, as per the established societal norms of that country or culture. The second refers to the individual employees and their characteristics. This includes demographics (for example age or gender), their disposition and their emotions relative to the situation. The final factor is contingent on the actual interaction, the work setting and the customer characteristics.

In direct contrast to Hochschild's portrayal of predominantly negative outcomes, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) identify several positive outcomes associated with EL for employees. They report that financial wellbeing was evident in the form of increased tips for food and

beverage attendants whom they had studied. Increased mental and physical wellbeing was also identified as a result of repetitive smiling, which was reported to increase natural endorphins. While these factors may not be applicable to the lecturing profession, they offer some hope for other such positive outcomes. Another important contribution by Rafaeli and Sutton (1989) was that they advanced Hochschild's (1983) concept of 'feeling rules', which she identified as guidelines for employee feelings, as dictated through the policies and procedures of organizations. Rafaeli and Sutton (1989) argued that as well as employees having to adjust their internal feelings, they would have to direct their outer displays. They referred to this as 'display rules', which are taken to include both internal and external considerations. Display rules are inherently 'behavioural expectations about which emotions ought to be expressed and which ought to be hidden' (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989: 8). These display rules serve to guide the employee in the most appropriate emotional expression, which in turn will be publicly observed.

The work of Rafaeli and Sutton (1987; 1989) is noteworthy in that it provided a framework to build upon in order to capture the determinants, emotional expression and outcomes for both organizations and individuals. Their emphasis on external display assisted other researchers in capturing the EL of employees.

2.3.1 Behaviour Focused Approach

Following on from Rafaeli and Sutton's (1987; 1989) conceptual framework, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) focus on outward behaviour or emotional expression as opposed to internally experienced feelings or emotions. The behaviour enacted by the employee is reflective of the display rules in question. They use the term 'display rules' in lieu of 'feeling rules', which concurs with Rafaeli and Sutton's (1987, 1989) assertions. This approach places an emphasis on 'behaviour rather than on the presumed emotions underlying behaviour' (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 90). The implications are that the behavioural element of performing EL is given priority over the internal feeling elements. It is argued that these publicly observable behaviours are easier for management and researchers to observe, as opposed to internal feelings. This may also be the case in the lecturing profession. These display rules are driven by expectations which are tied to societal, occupational and organizational norms. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) similar to

Hochschild (1983), chime in with Goffman's (1959) dramaturgical metaphor and consider EL to be a form of impression management.

Their research acknowledges SA and DA as identified by Hochschild (1983) but critique this narrow conceptualization, arguing that employees can offer their emotions in a genuine and spontaneous manner, as a third method of accomplishing EL. The display of natural emotions as an EL strategy is a very significant addition to Hochschild's theory, in that while she identified the possibility of employees giving their emotion as a 'gift', she failed to expand on the concept. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 94) provide the example of a nurse and refer to what she may naturally feel in doing her job, stating that 'a nurse who feels sympathy at the sight of an injured child has no need to "act"'. Nevertheless, they report that genuine emotional responses may still require the employee to engage in EL, even if the response is in accord with organizational display rules. Even though their research identifies natural emotion as a potential EL strategy, its application is quite limited. They discuss mostly situations where there is a natural harmony between the required display and the experienced emotions. Do naturally felt emotions (NFE) have a part to play in the EM of lecturers?

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) employ social identity theory to address the positive and negative impacts of EL. This refers to how well the individual employee's social and personal identity fits with the role. They state that (100-101):

if emotional labour is consistent with a central, salient, and valued social and or personal identity (or identities), it will lead to enhanced psychological wellbeing

In line with Hochschild (1983), they claim that if the opposite is the case, then it can result in emotive dissonance. They further identify this emotional dissonance as having the most harmful impact upon employees, as they are obliged to behave inauthentically. This can lead to employee depression, lower self-esteem, cynicism and self-alienation. However, they argue that with repetition, SA and DA could become routine tasks as opposed to stressful ones. The individual outcomes are thus contingent on how well the person relates to the assigned role. In this regard, the practice of EL can be viewed as 'a double edged sword' (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 96).

In contrast to Hochschild's (1983) predominantly negative emphasis, Ashforth and Humphrey argue that when perceived as being sincere, EL can improve task effectiveness and have a positive impact on the quality of service transactions and the bottom line. Their research builds further on the construct, in that they emphasise the observable behaviour of employee's actions when practicing EL. In addition, when considering the relative outcomes of EL, they place primary emphasis on task effectiveness or end performance, as opposed to the psychological impacts on the individual and their associated impact on organizations as identified by Hochschild (1983). Another unique element of their research is that the literature to this point had mainly focused on the plight of entry-level employees, while they provide an example of the emotional labouring of a nurse. However, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) make an apparent trade-off and fail to examine the significance of the internal components of the actor's performance. While the actual expression of emotion is noteworthy, the capturing of the internal process is imperative as it also has a significant role in the enactment of EM.

2.3.2 Interactionist Approach

Morris and Feldman (1996) adopt an interactionist approach which emphasises the importance of contextual social factors in shaping one's own experience and expression of emotion. In doing so, they argue that emotions are to an extent socially constructed by individuals. The characteristics of the job are a key factor identified in their research. There are some similarities here with the work of Hochschild (1983), as well as Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), in that Morris and Feldman (1996) recognise SA and DA and employees' ability to control their emotions. However, they regard the social environment as having a much greater influence on how individuals experience and express their emotions. Morris and Feldman (1996) further acknowledge Hochschild's (1983) assertions that the management and expression of emotion, which was once perceived to be a personal act, has become a marketable commodity. They maintain that today's organizations are even more conscious about customer needs and are therefore increasingly attempting to control employee performance. Consequently, they set out to expand the EL concept by investigating its dimensions, antecedents and consequences. They provide a more complex model and suggest that there a number of factors which direct EL. Rather than viewing SA and DA at the nucleus of the EL process, their model identifies EL as being composed of four interrelated dimensions:

1. Frequency of interaction;

2. Attentiveness to required display rules (duration of interaction, intensity of emotion);
3. Variety of emotions required;
4. Emotional dissonance.

The first dimension 'frequency of interactions', is concerned with how often EL is demanded by the job.

The second dimension 'attentiveness to required display rules' considers the duration of the interaction and the intensity of the required emotions. According to Morris and Feldman (1996), if the interaction is for a sustained period of time, the effort and subsequent EL required is greater. Furthermore, the intensity of the required emotions can influence whether the employee needs to engage in SA and DA (as identified by Hochschild, 1983, and previously discussed by Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). However, Morris and Feldman (1996) only give minor focus to these constructs, as they consider an individual's social environment as the most important factor in enacting EL.

The third dimension of the model refers to the 'variety of emotions required', and suggests that an increased demand in the variety of required emotional displays will prove more onerous for the emotional labourer. Essentially, increased emotional display results in increased EL.

The final dimension of the model 'emotional dissonance' corresponds to Hochschild's (1983) 'emotive dissonance' and relates to the variance and potential conflict between expressed and felt emotions. Morris and Feldman (1996) refer to this conflict occurring between the 'display rules' (as identified by Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; 1999) and employees' internal feelings. They argue that, as opposed to emotional dissonance being regarded as a consequence, it should be seen as the fourth dimension of EL.

Similar to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996) associate emotional dissonance with the intensification of the EL process, arguing that employees are required to work harder to display the required emotion. Their findings identify all the dimensions of the model as contributing to emotional exhaustion amongst employees. In addition, they

recognize job dissatisfaction as an added outcome of the emotional dissonance dimension. Morris and Feldman (1996) state that there is a need for EL research to go beyond front-line employees – a matter briefly explored by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), in their discussion of the emotional labouring of nurses. Although Morris and Feldman (1996) highlight the need to investigate the positive outcomes associated with EL, for the most part they emphasise only negative outcomes. Moreover, Grandey (2000) argues that Morris and Feldman do not clearly demonstrate how these outcomes would occur. Kruml and Geddes (2000), in a similar tone, suggest that while the dimension of ‘frequency and duration of service encounter’ is a relevant component in an EL model, this dimension is more about job characteristics that may influence EL. Consequently, the validity of Morris and Feldman’s (1996) four dimensions in capturing the entire EL process has been called into question (Grandey, 2000).

In a later piece of research Morris and Feldman (1997) attempt to empirically test their model, but fail to employ all of its dimensions. Instead, they place the spotlight on emotional dissonance and attentiveness to display rules. This research exposed that emotional dissonance had the greatest negative impact on employee job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. As a result of their findings, Morris and Feldman (1997) express a more optimistic view as to the potential for EL to also result in positive outcomes. Kruml and Geddes (2000) acknowledge Morris and Feldman’s (1997) first steps to describe and quantitatively measure the dimensions of EL. However, they raise some conceptual concerns about the dimensions, and express uncertainty regarding the methodological robustness of Morris and Feldman’s (1997) research.

2.3.3 Emotion Regulation Approach

Recognising the limitations of the work to date, Grandey (2000) integrates various strands of research, including Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) and Morris and Feldman (1996), to examine EL from a broader perspective. Grandey identifies that the underlying themes of the prior research streams are comparable, in that they focus on individuals having to regulate their emotional expressions while engaged in work-related activities. Grandey (2000: 97) defines EL as ‘the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals’. This definition incorporates the management of both the internal feelings and the outward behaviour or emotional expression, and thus

incorporates the concepts of SA and DA (Hochschild, 1983). Having redefined EL, Grandey (2000) develops a conceptual model and aligns it with emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998), which has been researched extensively to date. Gross (1988) (as cited in Grandey, 2000: 275) defines emotion regulation theory as ‘the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, and how they experience and express these emotions’. This theory suggests that emotion regulation occurs at two points: antecedent-focused emotion regulation and response-focused emotion regulation. Antecedent-focused emotion regulation consists of the employee altering his/her perception of the service encounter before engaging in the situation. Such situational modification involves modifying one’s internal emotions to match the service encounter. This is very much in keeping with Hochschild’s (1983) concept of DA. Response-focused emotion regulation, which is the second process of the theory, is also similar to Hochschild’s SA, in that it requires an outward modification of emotional display or behaviour, as opposed to an internal alteration of feelings. Grandey (2000) reports that employees’ previous experience with emotionally charged situations, whether it be from work or their private life, has a direct impact on their ability to comply with the display rules. Her model encompasses previous research on EL and illustrates how situational cues interact with the emotion regulation process impacting both the individual’s and the organization’s wellbeing.

Grandey (2000) employs numerous antecedents from the literature, such as frequency, duration, variety and display rules, which she then refers to as situational cues. These antecedents have a part to play in the emotion regulation process, and the employee’s subsequent enactment of SA or DA. Furthermore, she identifies individual and organizational factors as being powerful and influential factors in the EL process. Individual factors are identified as gender, emotional expressivity, emotional intelligence and affectivity, whereas organizational factors are job autonomy, supervisor support and co-worker support. According to Grandey (2000), the long-term wellbeing of the employee and the organization is influenced by the enactment of EL and the relative influence of the above factors.

Similar to Hochschild (1983) and Morris and Feldman (1996), Grandey is somewhat inclined to focus on the negative outcomes of EL. While it may be argued that her conceptual model offers nothing new to the field, it provides useful groundwork for future research. In doing

so, it offers a broader perspective which combines various research strands and identifies some important variables to consider when investigating the EM of lecturers. However, when compared with Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) model, it is evident that Grandey fails to acknowledge the significance of social and personal identity, and makes no attempt to consider NFE as a potential EL strategy.

2.3.4 Control Theory Approach

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) suggest that while Grandey's (2000) conceptual model acknowledges the process-based nature of EL, its shortcomings, along with other EL models, is that in practice it does not explain how the process works. With this omission in mind, they present a more dynamic model which they argue builds on the somewhat static models offered to date. Diefendorff and Gosserand employ and adapt control theory to assist in understanding the EL process. Control theory is hierarchical in nature and includes a number of variables (perceptual input, standard/goal, comparator and output) that seek to demonstrate how people perceive, control, evaluate and adopt their behaviour in the pursuit of goals. Diefendorff and Gosserand's (2003) model portrays employees fluidly engaged in EL, whereby they constantly assess and modify their behaviour in line with organizational goals and changing circumstances. They suggest that employees self-perceive their emotional display; evaluate it against the display rule and attempt to reduce any discrepancy, while displaying the required emotion. Any apparent discrepancy can be reduced by one of two methods: altering one's behaviour to match the display rule, or alternatively, replacing the display rule.

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) incorporate Hochschild's SA and DA, as potential emotion regulation strategies, and propose that NFE may also serve as an EM strategy. They argue that as each and every one of us has a wealth of experience with managing our emotions, the EL process can become automated. Despite the fact that each of us may engage in EL almost subconsciously, there are still occasions when considerable effort is needed: for example, when the required emotional display involves dealing with discrepancies. In addition to this, if the required emotional investment involves dealing with discrepancies over a sustained period of time, it can lead to negative outcomes for both the employee and the organization. These negative outcomes can materialise in the form of reduced organizational performance, lower job satisfaction and potential for employee

‘burnout’. According to Malsach and Jackson (1981: 99), ‘Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do “people work”’.

One of Diefendorff and Gosserand’s (2003) important contributions is the emphasis they place on employees’ self-perception when enacting EL. This provides a valuable insight into the construct and reveals it to be a dynamic and ever-changing process which is experienced uniquely by each employee. Nevertheless, their model has its limitations and also includes compromises and omissions. Even though they refer to Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1993) recognition of NFE as a potential EL strategy, they do little more than pay the concept lip service. However, in a later piece of research Diefendorff *et al.* (2005) recognise that the expression of NFE at work has been given minimum focus. With a view to addressing this, they conduct quantitative research to validate the display of natural emotions as a distinct EL strategy. Their findings demonstrate that the participants favoured display of NFE over that of SA and DA. It should be noted that their research sample is limited to one demographic – 270 undergraduate students working part time in the services sector. This sample composed of a student population, may in itself be inherently unique and by default impact the transferability of their findings. Moreover, it can be argued that a sample made up of students is limited in terms of its contribution to the understanding of EM amongst professional level occupations, particularly lecturers working in SPHE.

2.3.5 Emotion Management Approach

In adopting a European perspective, the work of Bolton (2000a; 2003; 2005), who is frequently cited throughout the literature, is particularly noteworthy. Bolton (2005) maintains that EL is just one of the many research fields which fall under the broader area of emotion research. She argues that Hochschild (1983; 2003) has defined EL too broadly, and that the research to date presents a ‘neglect of complexity in the use of emotion’ (2005: 54). This has resulted in EL being touted as a panacea for examining all types of organizational emotion.

Bolton (2003; 2005) presents a multidimensional TOWE which recognises the workplace as being both a ‘social arena and goal seeking entity’ (2000a: 168) and ‘a site of both pleasure and pain’ (2003: 4). The typology depicts employees as skilled social actors, actively engaged with managing their emotions as opposed to androids, completing pre-programmed

tasks. Bolton develops on the human element of emotion work and critically explores how NFE can be used as an alternative to SA or DA. Her research challenges the status quo and advances the field by merging previous research and presenting a streamlined model of EM within the workplace.

Bolton (2005: 20) states that ‘emotion work can be viewed as a distinctive form of skilled work and employees as skilled emotion managers’. Essentially, her ensuing TOWE recognises that there may be various motives directing the EM of employees. Bolton suggests that the issue of power is more divergent than Hochschild’s (1983) assertions, and that employees, not their organizations, control the emotional performance. This offers the potential for greater insights into the emotional fabric of contemporary organizations, particularly in the context of professional level occupations, such as lecturing. To date, the research comparing the motives for engaging in EL is limited (Grandey, *et al.*, 2013). Bolton (2005) argues that management cannot fully control the emotional practice of the workforce and that ‘the individual actor retains a sense of him or herself as being in control of emotion’ (2005: 91). There are endless areas of the emotional self and the management of emotions, where policies and procedures dictated by management cannot penetrate.

In contrast to Hochschild (1983), Bolton (2005) depicts front line employees as having the potential to be expert emotion managers, who rarely have static moments, but instead alternate between different EM strategies contingent on the required performance. The level of fluidity amid the EM typology may be dependent on the requirements of the job and the individual motives of the employee. The common characteristic is that of an employee, who is viewed as ‘a skilled social actor and one...who might actually resist management’s manipulative practices’ (Bolton, 2005: 91). This is an important contribution, which places the focus on the issue of power within the workplace. On that basis, it can be argued that it would be an organizational oversight to view employees as a homogeneous resource that enacts the emotional performance in a consistent and predictable manner. This advances Hochschild’s thesis, which has its drawbacks when it comes to understanding employee motivations beyond that of remuneration.

Bolton (2000: 156) argues that:

...throughout a working day it is possible, using emotion management skills learnt throughout a lifetime's social training, to present a variety of faces.

This resonated with me as a lecturer, as I reflected on the diverse interactions that I engage in, both with students and colleagues. The typology provides a social view of EM, which recognises the existence of four distinctive modes:

1. Pecuniary: EM for commercial gain.
2. Prescriptive: EM influenced by organizational or professional rules of conduct and not necessarily for commercial gain.
3. Presentational: EM according to social rules.
4. Philanthropic: EM given as 'a gift' by employees (Bolton, 2003).

The various elements of the typology are simultaneously existent within the emotional cauldron of the workplace. Organizational actors draw upon these broadly defined categories and their associated feeling rules, motivations and sense of self to deliver the required performance (Bolton, 2005). This effectively rewrites the rules of the game, in that the EM divide between the private and public sphere of one's life is not as robust as per Hochschild's (1983) original thesis. In essence, it recognises that we bring our whole selves to work, the good and the bad parts. The four distinct types of EM (pecuniary, prescriptive, presentational, and philanthropic) are the tools on hand which the organizational actor can employ to deliver the required performance. The typology isolates the key drivers and sets the context behind each mode of EM, demonstrating how employees are capable of possessing 'multiple selves' (Goffman, 1967). Despite the fact that the model uses the term 'rules', Bolton (2005) emphasise that rules are not set in stone and are constantly being renegotiated by employees. This may reflect Goffman's (1961: 139) views that employees are skilled emotion managers fulfilling diverse roles similar to:

...a juggler and a synthesizer, an accommodator and appeaser, who fulfils one function while he is apparently engaged in another; he stands guard at the door of the tent but lets all his friends and relatives crawl in under the flap.

The following section discusses in greater detail the four types of EM as proposed by the TOWE: pecuniary, prescriptive, presentational and philanthropic.

Pecuniary Emotion Management

Pecuniary EM supports Hochschild's (1983) thesis on EL and her concept of SA, whereby service employees are effectively on stage playing a role predetermined by management in a bid to create profit. Commercial feeling rules provided via training, policies and procedures as well as the norms of conduct, influence the employee performance when interacting with the customer. Material reward is the employee's motive and thus the resulting performance may be a cynical one, in that he/she is somewhat detached from the encounter. The long-term consequences for the employee can be a loss of identity and a void in terms of a true sense of 'self'. Bolton (2005: 94) suggests that numerous occupations requiring pecuniary EM:

demand routine compliance with display, rather than feelings, rules and that... interaction with customers is so brief and the business at hand so tedious that investment in the performance is hardly necessary'.

Nevertheless, the success of the service encounter is contingent upon the emotional display or demeanour of the employee. This has been referred to as the 'moment of truth' (Carlzon, 1987: 3), the most critical interaction between the front line employee and the customer. Bolton (2005) argues that companies invest considerable resources to ensure that the employee performance meets customer expectations, and espouses the 'corporate image'. From an organizational standpoint, the true measure of success may be evidenced through customer satisfaction and repeat business, or from an education perspective, through student satisfaction and increased retention and recruitment rates.

Prescriptive Emotion Management

Prescriptive emotions on the other hand are those rules of conduct which are associated with a given profession such as lecturing, and may come with an expected behaviour and a sense of status. They are linked predominantly to professionals (not just in the public sector) and include the same materialistic motivations as pecuniary emotion motivation, but are inherently more complex (Bolton, 2005). The social status and expected behaviour associated with the profession is maintained on a daily basis through the emotional enactment of predefined roles. This in itself increases the pressure on said employees to engage in the desired emotional performance. Employees are required to regulate their emotions in line with the associated behaviours/displays of their profession. However, there can be an inherent conflict in balancing the 'feeling rules' of the profession with those

relating to public policy, and the (potentially restrictive) organizational policies and financial controls (Bolton, 2005). In addition, the driving force behind the display of prescriptive emotions in the work place may not necessarily be that of remuneration, cost efficiency or even predefined professional expectations. Bolton (2005) states that, as well as the relevant professional codes of conduct, the taken-for-granted assumptions or the culture of a company may also have a direct bearing on how employees behave and enact their emotions. Both Hochschild (1983) and Bolton (2005) refer to a potential conflict emerging between organizational policies and the professional or occupational expectations of the job. This struggle may be commonplace in the SPHE, where lecturers are required to meet the needs of multiple stakeholders.

Presentational Emotion Management

Presentational EM refers to the rules of the game for social interaction, and in effect represents the ‘basic socialized self’ (Bolton, 2005: 133). Employees behave in a socially desirable manner according to the particular situation that they are in. The basic socialized self is the end product of years of social interaction, and provides the employee with an understanding of the ‘rules of the game’. Presentational as well as philanthropic EM (to follow) extends beyond the prescribed rules of an organization, and can result in the creation of peripheral areas of ‘unmanaged space’ (Bolton, 2005: 134). While such social areas may be more informal than the aforementioned types of EM, they account for a large proportion of daily interactions among employees within the workplace. It appears that employee actions are not completely governed by organizational, financial or professional policies. Bolton (2005) refers to the ‘underlives’ which develop within organizations, where various kinds of resistance and misbehaviour can occur in the interactions between subcultures, cliques and the like. Bolton (2000a: 160) claims that ‘without recognition of the emotional activity which occurs within these “unmanaged spaces” it is impossible to fully understand the emotional organization’. These ‘unmanaged spaces’ can occur at any time over a coffee or cigarette break, and take place in an infinite number of arenas from staff/faculty lounges and toilets to restaurant kitchens and many other informal arenas. Furthermore, they do not necessitate a physical area, as they can even occur in fleeting moments, be it ‘an exchanged smile or a small nudge’ (Bolton and Boyd, 2003: 297). It is important to note that such interactions are not necessarily negative or a source of resistance, as they can offer an

opportunity for employees to breathe more easily, potentially take a 'time out' and vent with colleagues amidst the stresses and strains of the job (Bolton, 2005).

Philanthropic Emotion Management

Philanthropic EM relates to an employee's 'free will' to offer emotion as a gift. It is not necessarily within the remit of the job, but rather is an example of an employee going the 'extra mile' and displaying genuine emotion towards a customer without the underlying financial or corporate motives. This brings to light the human side of service work and the fact that employees are not puppets at the mercy of their master's actions. In some situations, the enactment of this type of EM can also be offered to colleagues. At times the practice of philanthropic EM may result in an inherent struggle between the employee prerogative and management-imposed restrictions. Bolton (2005: 159) argues that restrictive policies and procedures have led to a decline in authentic caring within certain professions. She states that:

Nurses, teachers and social workers find themselves unable to offer what they see as a truly quality service. The time available when they could offer their true authentic self to patients, pupils and clients has been restricted.

This argument has clear implications for the role of lecturers, and raises the question as to whether a potential power struggle exists within the job. Is the 'authentic self' displayed by lecturers in SPHE, or has the incursion of management minimised the scope for participants to practice this form of EM? While previous studies of EL have drawn attention to the significance of autonomy, Bolton provides a new lens by introducing the issue of power within the workplace.

2.3.6 Relational Approach

More recently, Guy *et al.* (2008) argued that rather than viewing emotion work as uniform, we should recognise that it is idiosyncratic to individuals and organizations. They are in agreement with Bolton (2005), in that it is over simplistic and simultaneously fraught with danger to label all EM within organizations as being the same. Guy *et al.* (2008) focus their attention on public service work in the United States of America (USA), and examine the necessity of performing EL in jobs that require both positive and negative interactions, including those carried out by police officers and 911 emergency telephone operators. Their

research findings revealed that two-thirds of the employees surveyed identified EM as a critical element of their job. Guy *et al.* (2008: 10) reported that employees:

whose jobs require emotional skills must perform each day as if on stage, gauging the emotional response of citizens and shaping their own behaviour so as to elicit the desired response.

This description reflects Hochschild's (1983; 2003) original thesis, but offers more in that, similar to Bolton (2005), it describes employees as being the masters of their own EM.

The next section charts EL and its development within professional occupations. Empirical research from different industry contexts, which has adopted the TOWE (Bolton, 2005), are reviewed and specific emphasis is then placed on the lecturing profession.

2.4. Emotion Management within Professional Occupations

EM research in professional-level occupations has gained momentum (Lewis, 2005; Guy *et al.*, 2008; Robson and Bailey, 2009; Westaby, 2010) over the past four decades and has advanced from a focus on front-line employees to what Orzechowicz (2008: 143) refers to as 'privileged emotion managers'. In contrast to routine service work, professions can be characterised by the greater level of autonomy, expertise and power afforded to them (Wharton, 2009). The research has now begun to acknowledge the importance of emotions across a range of professions such as barristers (Harris, 2002), solicitors (Westaby, 2010), Nurses (James, 1989; Bolton, 2000; Lewis, 2005; Cooke, 2007), paramedics (Filstad, 2010), call centre workers (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002; Korczynski, 2003), counsellors (Mann, 2004), police officers, emergency phone operators (Schuler and Sypher, 2000; Guy *et al.*, 2008) and teachers (Hargreaves, 1998; 2000; Price, 2001; Isenbarger and Zembylas, 2006; Hebson, Earnshaw and Marchington, 2007; Kitching, 2009; Trentini, 2012).

Harris (2002) sets out to address the imbalance in the empirical research by exploring EL among barristers. His research findings confirmed the relevance of EM to the legal profession, with barristers enacting both SA and DA to manage their emotions. The choice of emotion regulation strategy was contingent on whether the interaction was public or private. During private interactions, participants favoured the usage of SA, whereas during public interactions both SA and DA were utilised. In the context of the study, public interactions

were regarded as those in court and private interactions consisted of shorter-term interactions with colleagues or legal-sector workers. This reflects Morris and Feldman (1996), assertions that emotional displays are contingent on duration and intensity. Natural emotions were not expressed by the barristers during their interactions, as it was considered to be unprofessional. The suppression of inappropriate emotions was found to be an important element of barristers' EM. Harris (2002) identifies several negative outcomes associated with EM, such as physical and mental tiredness, as well as stress. While these outcomes substantiate Hochschild's (1983) work, the findings also revealed numerous positives for barristers, such as a sense of sincerity and professionalism.

A more recent study of the legal profession by Westaby (2010) unveiled the intense and specialised EL that is performed by solicitors during their interactions with asylum seekers. In comparison to Harris's (2002) study of barristers, the solicitors in Westaby's (2010) research did not suppress all natural emotions, but used them during client interactions as a means of building mutual trust and confidence. However, this was also viewed with caution, as there was a risk of becoming too emotionally attached to clients. Therefore, client interactions sometimes required an EM performance which focused on the facts of the case and presented a form of 'detached concern', whereby the solicitors appeared concerned, while at the same time remained somewhat aloof (Mann, 2004: 210). The negative outcomes of not detaching from the performance were identified as a risk of burnout, depression and decreased efficiency in the job. This also reflects research into the counselling and guidance profession, in that EL and EM were deemed vital due to the length of time and emotional nature of the face-to-face client interactions. Moreover, the potential repercussions of exposing genuine emotions to clients further influence the need for EM (Mann, 2004). However, some of the more seasoned solicitors in Westaby's (2010) research reported that the level of stress diminished over time, in line with their on-the-job experience.

A number of empirical studies have adapted Bolton's TOWE (2003; 2005) as a conceptual device to explore EM in a variety of professions, from cabin crew, call centre employees to teachers and neonatal nurses (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002; Bolton and Boyd, 2003; Lewis, 2005; Hebson *et al.*, 2007). Bolton and Boyd (2003) first used the TOWE to analyse the emotional labouring of UK (United Kingdom) cabin crew. They maintained that their analysis of workplace emotion illustrates the uniqueness of individual encounters, and

demonstrates that ‘it is not always the organization that defines the emotional agenda’ (Bolton and Boyd, 2003: 291). They emphasise the conflict that can occur between prescriptive and pecuniary EM and suggest that in some industries ‘a dual consciousness’ may exist. They argue that rather than duplicating Hochschild’s (1983: 304) error of viewing EL only through one lens, ‘the typology should be used to display how there are multi-situated systems of activity’. Research conducted by Callaghan and Thompson (2002) adopted the pecuniary and philanthropic categories of Bolton’s (2005) typology to examine EM among call centre employees. Their empirical findings also contradicted Hochschild’s (1983) one-dimensional portrayal of EL, and further validated the TOWE. Callaghan and Thompson (2002: 248) argue that, ‘far from being passive providers of emotional labour, employees are active and skilled emotion managers in their own right’.

In a study examining neonatal nurses and their suppression/expression of emotions, Lewis (2005) conducted interviews with 13 nurses working at a baby care unit of a hospital in southern England. Similar to Callaghan and Thompson (2002), her findings revealed the conflict that can arise for employees when enacting different types of EM. Lewis (2005) draws on the prescriptive and philanthropic elements of the typology (Bolton, 2005) and identifies the ‘arena of emotion management as likely to be a contested terrain’ (2005: 567). The nurses participating in her study offer an insight into the challenges of being seen to be professional and simultaneously suppressing personal involvement. The ‘dual consciousness’, as identified by Bolton and Boyd (2003), also emerged as a day-to-day reality in the working lives of the nurses. At times they struggled to suppress their personal emotions when confronted with emotionally-charged situations such as sick babies in the intensive care units. Nevertheless, as per Harris’s (2002) study of barristers, the suppression of certain emotions was considered as fundamental to being a professional nurse. Lewis (2005) makes an important contribution by identifying the conflict that can emerge in working relationships between colleagues. Conflict surfaced due to differences of opinions about the required medical care for babies, with the nurses demonstrating a more philanthropic approach than the doctors. This further validates Bolton’s (2005) thesis on the management of emotion, in that it reveals the requirement to engage in EM with multiple stakeholders. In her research, Lewis (2005) refers to ‘off stage’ areas similar to Bolton’s ‘unmanaged spaces’ (2005) and Goffman’s (1961) ‘backstage’ areas. In these areas the neo-

natal nurses experience 'private spaces for caring, in the form of informal communities of coping' similar to what Bolton (2005) identifies as emotional 'under lives'.

More recently, Hebson *et al.* (2007) adapted Bolton's TOWE to explore the changing roles of public sector teachers in the UK. Their qualitative research focused predominantly on the primary sector, and consisted of a sample of 26 teachers. Hebson *et al.* (2007) argue that even though the emotional aspects of teaching are an important part of the profession, the scope for teachers to engage in meaningful interactions has gradually been in decline. This, in conjunction with the increased emphasis on pecuniary EM, has altered the perceived role of teachers, which has historically been regarded as one of caring and nurturing. This shift from philanthropic to pecuniary EM echoes the views of other authors such as Bolton (2005) and Day (2004), and may reflect the incursion of management (Hochschild, 1983). Hebson *et al.* (2007: 687) address the strengths of Bolton's (2005) typology and draw particular attention to the philanthropic mode of EM, which they strongly relate to the teaching profession. However, the teachers in their research:

...felt that their commitment to their pupils and the emotional investments they made in them were not valued and felt constantly judged upon the technical aspects of their teaching (particularly setting objectives and measuring pupils performance in a systematic way).

Their findings also revealed that while management was putting increasing pressure on teachers and prescribing a 'standardised approach' for pupil interaction, the teachers themselves were embracing a more 'embodied approach' – one in which they treated each pupil as an individual. This leads to an apparent contradiction and potential conflict in understanding and measuring what it is that defines 'capable teaching'. The teachers in question felt that philanthropic EM was a critical component in being a capable teacher. However, this was not reflected in the performance measures and the standardised school inspections. In addition, the teachers expressed concern that this 'marginalisation' of philanthropic EM was becoming increasingly evident through the prescription and monitoring of new standardised interactions. Hebson *et al.* (2007) provide a useful application of the TOWE and in doing so shed light on the contradictions that exist for teachers. It remains to be seen as to whether or not these contradictions and potential conflicts apply in the lecturing profession.

2.4.1 Emotion Management and Lecturing

While research related to EM and primary/secondary school teachers is on the rise, the literature exploring the significance of emotions for lecturers working in the HE sector is limited (Constanti, 2008; Trigwell, 2012; Hagenauer and Volet 2014). Sutton (2004) points out that expectations regarding desired emotional display will vary across different educational settings, for example a primary/secondary school and a public/private university. Consequently, a research gap is apparent when framed against the study of emotions and lecturing in SPHE. The following section introduces the most relevant literature to date which has focused on EM and lecturing.

Bellas (1999) can be attributed with one of the first pieces of work specifically addressing EL and lecturing. She adopts Hochschild's (1983) perspective to assist in mapping the core activities of the profession, and categorizes them as follows: teaching, service, research, and administration. She argues that teaching and service involve significant levels of EL and are gender-defined as predominantly feminine. In contrast, she classifies research and administration as more masculine activities which demand less EL. Bellas (1999: 108) states that female faculty are naturally drawn to fields where emotion labour is intense such as the 'humanities, social work and education'. On the other hand, male faculty are 'concentrated in presumably unemotional fields such as engineering and physics'. The feminist element of her argument is enforced and she argues that the rewards for these academic tasks are unequal, with male lecturers receiving greater benefits. This makes me reflect on the SPHEI selected for this research, where the faculty spend minimum time on research. Bellas adds a noteworthy argument that lecturers have a part to play in assisting students emotionally as well as intellectually, and presents this as a motherly and nurturing role.

Bellas (1999) acknowledges Hochschild's (1983) 'feeling rules' within the academic workplace in the form of organizational and occupational codes of behaviour. Similar to Hochschild's (1983) concepts of SA and DA, there is an onus on lecturers, while on stage, to display positive emotions and suppress negative emotions such as frustration or anger. Furthermore, lecturers must ensure that they also control the negative emotions of their students, be it as a result of receiving poor exam results, or a heated outburst during class discussions. Non-compliance with these rules can result in negative outcomes, such as poor evaluations or, in exceptional cases, being fired. As well as having a negative effect on the

learning environment, an outburst of anger or frustration can also have an adverse impact on student evaluations of lecturers. While Bellas (1999) puts forward a reasoned argument in an attempt to align EL and the lecturing profession, it ultimately lacks in its delivery. Her work relies heavily on Hochschild's (1983) thesis, and similarly depicts EL from a predominantly feminist perspective. Most notably, Bellas (1999) fails to contribute anything in the form of empirical research. Nevertheless, she raises some interesting questions and draws attention to the EM of lecturers within HE.

Pugliesi (1999) provides one of the first empirical studies of EL conducted in an academic setting. This consists of an analysis of survey data derived from 1,114 employees at a public university in the USA. She distinguishes between EL and emotion work, identifying that EL can be seen as the performance of different types of EM for remuneration in a work setting, whereas emotion work can occur in any sphere and is not controlled by employers. Pugliesi (1999) challenges Hochschild's (1983) narrow conceptualization of EL, arguing that its definition and empirical application needs to extend beyond service jobs. Pugliesi (1999) makes an important contribution to the literature, in drawing attention to the consequences of EL and separating the construct into two distinct forms: other-focused and self-focused. While she concludes that EL has both positive and negative consequences for employees, she chooses to emphasise the negatives outcomes (the outcomes of EL are addressed later in this chapter, p.45). Similar to Bellas (1999), her research adopts an American perspective and consists of a sample which, can be argued, is over representative of women. Another shortcoming is that while the figures provided show that 368 participants are made up of faculty, academic professionals, and faculty administrators, Pugliesi (1999), does not discern the exact number of lecturers who participated in the study. This is also reflected in the reporting of the findings.

Empirical research by Gates (2000) further validates the presence of EL in the working lives of lecturers. This qualitative research examined the EM of nine Faculty members at a state college in the USA, through classroom observations and interviews. Gates (2000) provides insight into the pervasiveness of emotions in the profession, with participants identifying a range of negative emotions they encountered, such as anger and frustration. The main causes were students talking to one another during lectures as well as complaining about grades. The findings revealed that participants used both SA and DA as emotion regulation

strategies. Moreover, the expression of positive emotions was favoured by all, with the majority of participants feeling that it was not appropriate to express negative emotions. This mirrors other research findings such as Harris's (2002) study of barristers and Lewis's (2005) study of neonatal nurses, whereby the suppression of emotion was linked to professionalism. An important finding to draw from Gates's (2000) research is that EM was considered an essential ingredient for effective student learning and had a direct impact on the level of job satisfaction experienced by the faculty. Lecturers consciously used emotional expression and suppression to enhance teaching effectiveness, be it the expression of enthusiasm for the topic or the suppression of frustration felt towards certain students. It can be argued that there are a number of limitations with Gates's work, such as an overemphasis on the negative outcomes of EM, a relatively small sample size of nine participants, and a limited transferability of the findings to other educational contexts.

Ogbonna and Harris (2004) present compelling qualitative evidence confirming the EM of lecturers. This frequently-cited exploratory study consisted of interviews with 54 participants from six universities in the UK, and was one of the first empirical studies of EL and lecturing to adopt a European perspective. Ogbonna and Harris (2004) argue that the increasing demands of the academic labour process in conjunction with evolving stakeholder expectations has resulted in lecturers having to engage more in EL. They underline the changing expectations of students and the 'McDonaldisation' of education (Parker and Jary, 1995). In addition, they argue that management tools such as performance evaluations are being used as a means of intensifying EL among academics. This may be evidence of increased control in the form of emotion work prescribed by management. Their findings provide support for the work of Hochschild (1983; 2003) as well as Bellas (1999), Bolton (2003) and Gates (2000), and identify EL as being 'perceived by university lecturers to be an everyday occurrence in their labour process' (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004: 1192). In contrast to Pugliesi (1999) and Gates (2000), they offer convincing evidence addressing the positive outcomes of EM. However, one of the drawbacks of their findings is that they are bound by confidentiality agreements and thus provide minimal information about the research participants. This offers little insight into any possible link between faculty age, gender, experience, subject specialization and that of the EM performance.

Constanti and Gibbs (2004) echo the views of Ogbonna and Harris (2004) and suggest that the performance of EL within HE is critical to satisfying the ‘customers’ who, they argue, are the students. Their qualitative research consisted of focus groups with students and interviews with lecturers and management at a HEI in Cyprus. The pursuit of student satisfaction and institutional profits resulted in faculty enacting emotional labour to ensure effective service delivery. Constanti and Gibbs (2004) argue that the performance of EL within HE is pervasive, yet taken for granted and unrewarded. The job requirement to suppress negative emotions was evident in their research, with participants referring to concealing emotions such as frustration for the greater good of the students and management. Similar to other studies (Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004), it would appear that increased competition and the intensification of the labour process has somewhat negated the emotional freedom of lecturers. Constanti and Gibbs (2004) and in a later paper Constanti (2008) highlight the new discourse within HE and present compelling arguments suggesting that an unequal distribution of power within the academic workplace can lead to stress, tension and potentially the exploitation of lecturers. The ‘student as customer’ debate exists within most academic institutions, but to what extent does it impact upon the EM of lecturers within SPHE?

Empirical research conducted by Zhang and Zhu (2008) examined EL and its impact on burnout and satisfaction among college instructors at ten mainland Chinese universities. Their questionnaire findings confirmed that Chinese college instructors perform EL and actively engaged in SA and DA. Similar to previous research (Gates, 2000), DA and natural emotions were favoured over that of SA. However, DA or faking in good faith (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987), was a preferred strategy over that of natural emotions. Some of the Chinese instructors consciously chose to hide their negative emotions and expressed enthusiasm and humour rather than their genuine emotions. DA and the expression of authentic emotions were associated with positive employee outcomes, and appeared to mitigate any negatives. In contrast, the usage of SA was found to have a negative impact on satisfaction levels and lead to an increased risk of Chinese instructors experiencing burnout. Zhang and Zhu (2008) refer to the elements of acting, which are present in the lecturing profession. Despite achieving an impressive 90% response rate to the 164 questionnaires distributed, their research sample has limitations, in that the majority of the participants were junior English lecturers without a postgraduate degree. Secondly, in terms of gender, the sample was made up of 37 male, 123

female and four unidentified participants. This heavily-loaded female percentage reflects previous research into EM and offers little insight into the experiences of male participants. The questionnaire utilised constructs which were previously developed and empirically tested in the West, and therefore may also be culturally loaded. This could result in very different interpretations being made by a research sample made up of Eastern participants. Furthermore, due to the uniqueness of the Chinese culture/work environment, the transferability of Zhang and Zhu's (2008) findings to a Western education setting may be questionable. Regardless of these limitations, the relevance of EL and its susceptibility to lead to burnout among lecturers has since been confirmed by other researchers.

Meier (2009) found correlations between EL and burnout, based on an online survey instrument completed by 184 full time faculty members at six liberal arts colleges in the Midwest USA. Her findings substantiate Hochschild's (1983) concepts of SA and DA and provide further evidence highlighting the invisibility of EL within the lecturing profession. However, Meier (2009) makes a compromise by choosing not to explore NFE as an EL strategy, as put forward by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) and Diefendorff *et al.* (2005). Meier's (2009) work draws attention to the lack of rewards and recognition associated with EL for lecturers, which reflects Constanti and Gibbs (2004) and Guy and Newman's (2004) assertions that EL is not valued by organizations. This lack of reward and recognition may further enforce what Robson and Bailey (2009) define as the 'command and control' culture that has evolved in FE. From a UK perspective, they argue that this has resulted in a loss of autonomy for participants who are subject to stringent measurement and control. They refer to the emotional investment that is demanded from learning support workers and teachers in FE. This consists of managing classroom discipline as well as controlling or covering up one's own stress. The onus is on FE teachers to manage their own negative emotions, as well as police the classroom to ensure that any negative emotions expressed by students are managed accordingly. In contrast to other research, Robson and Bailey (2009) identify positive outcomes for employees engaging in EM. The participants in their study frequently referred to the simple pleasure they derived from helping others. Overall, their portrayal of teaching is similar to Zhang and Zhou (2008), whereby they use the analogy of an actor on stage delivering the performance.

Mahoney *et al.* (2011) sought to examine the effects of various EL strategies on emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and affective commitment. Their empirical research consisted of an online survey with 598 university and college faculty members from across the USA. The findings replicate other research (Zhang and Zhou, 2008) in that the individual EL strategies had varying influence over employee outcomes. Interestingly the findings of Mahoney *et al.* (2011) revealed that the expression of genuine positive emotions lead to an increase in job satisfaction and commitment, as well as less emotional exhaustion. In contrast, the expression of genuine negative emotions at work resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction and commitment and greater levels of emotional exhaustion among the participants. This extends the work of Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) and Diefendorff *et al.* (2005) in validating and highlighting the importance of NFE as an EL strategy. The nature of the lecturing profession may by default demand the usage of natural emotions, as it can be argued that the requirement to interact with students for longer periods of time is greater than in other service-oriented professions (e.g. food and beverage attendants, call centre workers). The applicability of Mahoney *et al.*'s (2011) findings to other educational settings needs to be explored, as their research is based on self-report data and relies exclusively on a sample of American professors. Additionally, no information is provided regarding the disciplines that the faculty teach. Moreover, they do not distinguish or explore the contextual characteristics of the institutions where the faculty were based. This leaves unanswered questions regarding whether the size of a college/university is a relevant factor and if there are differences between public and private institutions.

Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) present a European perspective with their research, which explores the role of emotions and confidence in HE. Their qualitative interviews with lecturers at two universities in Finland contribute some important findings to the field. Unlike other research (e.g. Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011), their research sample included a broad spectrum of faculty from different disciplines, both soft and hard sciences (e.g. education and chemistry) and provided evidence of both positive and negative emotions related to the lecturing profession. Interestingly, the negative emotions were referred to less frequently by the participants than the positive. Previous research (Bellas, 1999) has argued that the teaching component of the job is the most susceptible to EL. A related finding to emerge from Postareff and Lindblom-Ylännes (2011) work was that one's identification with the job was deemed a key factor in experiencing positive emotions. In that

respect, regardless of the discipline (soft or hard sciences), when participants identified with being a teacher, they embraced the role with more enthusiasm and experienced more positive emotions. However, faculty members with a strong commitment to research appeared to struggle to identify themselves as teachers. It should also be noted that the participants with a strong teaching self-identity adopted a more student-centred approach to their teaching, as opposed to an information-transmission approach. Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes's (2011) findings also revealed that low levels of confidence amongst participants were linked to teaching skills, rather than to mastery of the content. However, it can be argued that the two are symbiotic as an element of expertise is required to become a lecturer in the first place. This may also be evidenced in that some of the participants reported only being enthusiastic about teaching courses related to their own research area. Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes' (2011) research emphasises the centrality of emotions to the lecturing profession but is not framed against any of the literature on EM, thus it provides minimal insight into the role and management of emotions.

Koster (2011) presents a personal account of her experience performing EL as a lecturer over a 17-year period at a HEI in the UK. She frames her reflective work as a feminist sociologist against the backdrop of teaching gender and sexuality. Koster employs Hochschild's (1983) original work to argue that teaching these sensitive subjects demands EL, which is essentially self-managed and unrecognised by the institution. Koster (2011) argues that Hochschild's (1983) definition of EL is too narrow and needs to recognise that the requirement to manage one's own emotions and other peoples is an important component of the concept. Koster's reflections reinforce the lack of visibility, recognition and support that has been associated with EL in HE (Meier, 2009). Similar to Constanti and Gibbs (2004); Ogbonna and Harris (2004) and Constanti, (2008), Koster (2011) emphasises the control and surveillance that exists within the HE sector, be it the government, academic institutions, internal or external peers. While EL may be invisible when it comes to recognising and rewarding via performance assessment tools (Meier, 2009), the outcomes are captured by means of module feedback questionnaires, institutional and national satisfaction surveys, and social networking sites. Koster offers a first-hand account of EL and provides insight into resistance and coping strategies that lecturers employ. While her writing critiques and extends the work of Hochschild (1983), Koster (2011: 72) aligns herself with a familiar feminist position stating that '...students have a variety of issues and emotions which need

“mopping up” and women usually become the “emotional moppers”. It would appear that the voice of the male emotional labourer is still silent.

Trigwell’s (2012) quantitative research, which utilises an online questionnaire to explore emotions and approaches to teaching among full-time lecturers at an Australian university, shares some similarities with the findings of Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes’s (2011) Finnish study. In particular, participants’ teaching styles were regarded as an influencing factor in whether they experienced positive or negative emotions. Participants with a student-centred approach experienced greater levels of positive emotions, such as motivation and pride, where as those who adopted a more information-transmission approach experienced more negative emotions, such as anxiety and embarrassment. Similar to other research findings, participants referred more frequently to positive than negative emotional outcomes (Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes, 2011). Additionally, participants favoured DA and NFE over that of SA, which was also linked to more positive outcomes (Zhang and Zhu, 2008). Trigwell (2012) makes an important contribution in highlighting the potential correlation between teaching approach and emotional outcomes, which has been overlooked in previous research (Gates, 2000; Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Mahoney *et al.* 2011). While Trigwell (2012) gives consideration to the work of Dieffendorff *et al.* (2005) in developing the online questionnaire, the incorporation of EM theory and its measurement is in some ways disjointed.

Hagenauer and Volet (2014) provide further insight into the emotions evoked during teaching and teacher-student interactions. They frame their research against a social-psychological perspective which asserts that emotions, their stimulation and outcomes are influenced by the social setting and the relationships that are established in that context. This reflects earlier theoretical perspectives regarding EM, such as an interactionist approach (Morris and Feldman, 1996), and more recently a relational approach (Guy *et al.*, 2008). Hagenauer and Volet (2014: 244) employ a qualitative approach in order to ‘elicit the emotional experiences and reflections’ that are required to understand the complex nature of emotions. This consisted of in-depth semi-structured interviews with 15 lecturers from two public Australian universities. Their findings validate the hypothesis that teaching is experienced emotionally at the HE level (Gates, 2000; Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Constanti, 2008; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes, 2011) and that lecturing

is inherently a social profession. While Hagenauer and Volet's (2014) research makes a positive contribution to the field, it has its limitations, such as the fact that it focused solely on lecturers' emotional experiences when teaching first-year students in pre-service education. Similar to Trigwell (2012), their research is conducted in an Australian HE setting and has a relatively small sample, which is deemed to be representative of those institutions.

Having provided an overview of the EM of various professions, including lecturing, it is now time to examine the connotations of the construct. The following section introduces the main outcomes as identified throughout the literature, and places particular emphasis on teaching and lecturing.

2.5 The Consequences of Emotional Labour

Throughout the literature, the practice of EL is frequently noted as having negative psychological impacts upon employee health (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1990; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Mann, 1999; Pugliesi, 1999; Wharton, 1999; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Fineman, 2003; Glomb and Tews, 2004; Mann, 2004; Fineman, 2008; Westaby, 2010). According to Wharton (2009), the psychological consequences of EM account for the majority of EL research. Hochschild's (1983) qualitative research revealed stark evidence related to the emotional demands of the job, and the subsequent feelings of stress, burnout, emotional numbness and sense of inauthenticity endured by cabin crew. Numerous negative outcomes have been associated with EM across a range of professions (those of barristers, solicitors, nurses, police officers, teachers and lecturers), ranging from emotional exploitation, depression, alienation, poor self-esteem, loss of identity, emotional exhaustion/burnout, increased levels of stress, to reduced levels of job satisfaction (Mann, 1999; Pugliesi, 1999; Harris, 2002; Mann, 2004; Constanti, 2008; Fineman, 2008; Wharton, 2009).

According to Ashkanasay and Daus, (2002: 79):

Emotional labor can be particularly detrimental to the employee performing the labor and can take its toll both psychologically and physically.

As a result of repeatedly engaging in EL, there is a danger that employees may suffer a transmutation of their emotions and estrangement from themselves (Hochschild, 1983). In some cases, the resulting psychological distress can be severe, with continued exposure to emotional pressures associated with substance abuse, illness and absenteeism (Hochschild, 1983). To a certain extent, occupations which demand EL already bring with them a source of job-related stress (Wharton, 1993; 1999). EM within academia, similar to other professions, has also been linked with negative employee outcomes, such as stress and emotional exhaustion (Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Constanti, 2008; Jephcote, Salisbury and Rees, 2008). Constanti and Gibbs (2004) refer to the deceit involved in delivering EL in higher level education, and the fact that this may ultimately result in the lecturer 'being susceptible to personal guilt, dysfunctional images of self, exploitable and prone to role ambiguity' (246). Guilt was also one of the negative emotions experienced by the participants in Ogbonna and Harris's (2004: 1198) research:

I feel guilty about each aspect of my work. I'm not enthusiastic enough to publish enough, I'm too hassled to care genuinely about the quality of my teaching and I'm too stressed to get my admin done on time. I just want a job where I can be me without feeling like a complete fraud.

Research has shown that the expression of genuine negative emotions at work can result in a reduction in job commitment and satisfaction, as well as increased levels of emotional exhaustion among lecturers (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). Kitching (2009) found that with teachers, the choice to enact authentic or inauthentic emotions was influenced by the age of the students, with older students being wiser to a deceitful performance. It has also been suggested that non-compliance with the emotional policies or expectations of the lecturing profession can result in negative outcomes for the employee – be it in the form of missed promotions or poor performance reviews (Bellas, 1999; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). From an employee perspective, monetary rewards and opportunities for career progression are one thing, but is that it? Are there any non-monetary, intangible benefits or positive outcomes associated with EM? Surely the monetary rewards within the lecturing profession are not the primary drivers of the performance? The literature prompts some interesting questions for this research.

Numerous authors disagree with Hochschild's emphasis on the negative, and maintain that EM can have positive outcomes for the employee, the customer and the organization

(Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Callaghan and Thompson, 2002; Bolton, 2005; Wharton, 2009). Wouters (1989) argues that the very definition developed by Hochschild inhibits us from recognising the joyful aspects of EL. However, Hochschild (1983; 2003) does suggest that EL can prove beneficial to the employee, contingent on the way that it is enacted. Mann (2004: 210) reports that EL:

provides the actor with a prescribed set of responses and patterns of behaviour that can guide them through the dynamic and emergent encounter as well as protect them.

Westaby's (2010) findings revealed that solicitors used EM as a means of building mutual trust with their clients, which ultimately enabled them to do their job. As previously identified, the pleasure derived from helping others was a positive outcome referred to by FE lecturers in Robson and Bailey's (2009) research. A similar finding emerged from Schuler and Sypher's (2000) study of 911 dispatchers, whereby participants appeared to derive great satisfaction from going above and beyond the call of duty. These findings may reflect Bolton's (2005) category of philanthropic EM and offer an alternative motive behind the performance. While Wharton (1993) also identifies the potential pitfalls of EL, she maintains that jobs requiring EM may ultimately be more satisfying than those without. Miller (2002), in her auto-ethnographic account of lecturing at a university, suggests that emotions in the workplace contribute to a feeling of community spirit. In interviews conducted by Ogbonna and Harris (2004: 1197), one participant revealed another benefit of EM:

If you can create an image of yourself as a brilliant teacher – you've got it made. I have no problem with faking concern about students if it gets me another increment.

In this respect, it can be argued that the enactment of the required emotional display can also result in positive outcomes for lecturers. Ogbonna and Harris (2004), in accord with Mann (2004), report that EM can also serve as a defence mechanism for lecturers, enabling them to cope with intensified job demands. For example, one of the participants in their study (1194) stated:

When they start getting arsey with me I just switch off and think of fishing. I've never fished but I've always fantasized that it must be the most relaxing thing ever. Just sitting there watching the world go by – it works every time.

Similar findings emerged from a study examining FE teachers in Wales (Jephcote *et al.*, 2008), whereby there was evidence of teachers enacting EL as a coping strategy to deal with the stress and pressure arising from both internal and external stakeholders. Other researchers have identified additional positive outcomes (across a range of professions), such as increased self-esteem and job satisfaction (Strickland, 1992; Tolich, 1993; Bolton, 2005), enhanced sense of community (Shuler and Sypher, 2000), increased task effectiveness, self-efficacy, psychological wellbeing and a reduction in stress (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Callaghan and Thompson, 2002).

It has been professed that performing EL in a supportive working environment, where ‘backstage’ communication is possible, can result in greater employee satisfaction (Shuler and Sypher, 2000; Lewis, 2005; Cowie, 2011) and that the performance itself can also contribute to pride in one’s work (Guy *et al.*, 2008). Hochschild (2003) suggests that coping strategies such as finding a private space away from customers are essential for employees in dealing with any emotional strain. This was evident in Ogbonna and Harris’s (2004) research, where faculty offices were identified as ‘sanctuaries’, a place to decompress and escape.

In addition to having some ‘time out’ or ‘alone time’, research by Korczynski (2003) suggests that ‘communities of coping’ (informal groups within a company) may help with reducing the negative impacts of EM through mutual support and cooperation. These findings have been further substantiated in other contexts (Lewis, 2005; Filstad, 2010). It is also worth recalling Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1993) assertions that EM outcomes may be contingent on how well the individual relates to the job at hand. Empirical research has shown that the more genuine the employee’s performance, the greater the sense of job commitment and satisfaction (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). Ashforth and Tomiuk (2000) and Wharton (1993) report that the outcomes may also be influenced by the level of job autonomy, while Grandey (2000) suggests that employee and customer characteristics and the required emotional display play an important role. It has also been suggested that power relationships within organizations may influence the emotion management requirements of the job, as well as the associated employee outcomes (Bolton, 2005). The following section provides an overview of power relations within the higher education sector.

2.5.1 Power relations within Higher Education

While the traditional global model of university governance has been one which is collegial and consultative in nature (Deem, 2004), financial pressures and a greater demand for accountability has seen a managerial approach take hold (Klemencic, 2014; Mitchell and Moore, 2012). Governing boards which were previously dominated by academic interests are now more influenced by external stakeholders and outside interests (Botas and Huisman, 2012). Bento (2011: 20) argues that recent changes in university governance such as an increase in regulation, control and hard management practices have lead to ‘a loss of collegiality’ among academics. The landscape of higher education has evolved and the sector has witnessed a surge in the development of ‘for-profit’, corporate owned institutions (Berry and Worthen, 2012). This has created tensions, intensified workloads and reduced job security, as well as faculty power; through the casualisation of the workforce (increasingly part-time as opposed to full-time contracts are offered to faculty). It would appear that the commercialisation of HE has lead to the politics of knowledge becoming intertwined with the politics of production and profit (Weiler, 2011).

As a result of globalisation, increased competition and extensive international marketing, significant emphasis is now being placed on viewing the ‘student as customer’. Despite the fact that HE institutes around the world (both public and private) actively engage in marketing, many academics are still reluctant to regard their students as customers (Guilbault, 2016). While this resistance may be tied to concerns related to upholding academic rigor, embracing the student as customer may also have implications for power relations within the classroom. Adversarial relationships and a resulting management bias towards students have been flagged as potential negative outcomes for faculty staff (Clayson and Hayley, 2005). Numerous authors emphasise the increased monitoring and control of lecturers’ performance within HE in Europe, as well as a perceived loss of their professional autonomy (Carvalho *et al.*, 2016; Kogan and Teichler, 2007). The acquired status of ‘student as customer’ has lead to the increased usage of evaluation tools among HE institutions, with particular emphasis placed on student satisfaction surveys and module evaluations (Brennan, 2007). Kreisberg (1992: 9) states that even though faculty:

are central figures of authority and control in the classroom, in the larger hierarchy of educational bureaucracy they are remarkably isolated and often strikingly powerless.

While managerialism is now acknowledged as the dominant global discourse in academia, differences in power relationships are evident between countries and HE institutions (Carvalho *et al.*, 2016). Foucault (1978: 93) maintains that ‘power is everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere’. According to Foucault (1980: 52) ‘the exercise of power perpetually creates knowledge and, conversely, knowledge constantly induces effects’. Power manifests itself within HE institutes in the form of hierarchies, for example between academic director and staff, lecturer and student, or even between administrators and faculty (Weiler, 2011). Al-Harhi and Ginsburg (2003: 7) refer to the various instruments of disciplinary control used by lecturers, such as ‘observing behaviour and performance, establishing regulations and evaluation procedures (e.g., examinations) to stratify and label students’. Within the classroom, lecturer-student power relations can include a combination of both confrontation and power-sharing. The lecturer may exercise his or her power in controlling the students, but may also choose to share power in working with a class (Wong, 2016). This in turn will have a knock on effect on the emotion management strategies employed.

Winograd (2002) argues that the power dynamics between a teacher and his or her students are directly influenced by the classroom micro-culture, for example students’ personality traits, and macro-structural factors such as assessment structures and class size. This in turn may be influenced by how an institution regards its students, According to Pitman (2000: 166) the way ‘...the consumer of the service is defined partly determines the view the university takes of the consumer and thus the service they provide them’. Undoubtedly adopting a ‘student as customer’ mindset will have implications for the policies and procedures enacted throughout an institution and the required emotional display. Lecturers may be expected to be increasingly accessible to their students and provide more of a holistic service, ensuring that the students are satisfied both within and beyond the lecture hall. Ultimately this may disrupt the balance of power in favour of the student, and require faculty members to engage more in the practice of emotion management. According to Hochschild (1983: 86):

Where the customer is king, unequal exchanges are normal, and from the beginning, customer and client assume different rights to feeling and display. The ledger is supposedly evened by a wage.

This reflects the findings of previous research examining EL among academics, such as Constanti and Gibbs (2004), who reported that increased competition and the pursuit of corporate profits lead to a focus on student satisfaction, as well as increased managerial control and the prescribing of emotions. Non-compliance with the expectations of either the customer or employer can result in negative outcomes for faculty, such as poor performance evaluations and lack of promotion opportunities (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). This suggests that the contrasting demands of multiple stakeholders have the potential to create conflict between the various components of the typology of workplace emotion. The question that emerges from this literature is whether the student as customer discourse has altered the distribution of power within academia and somewhat restricted the emotional freedom of lecturers.

2.6 Conclusion to the Literature Review

This literature review has sought to introduce the key terms and critically evaluate the diverse theoretical approaches related to EL and EM. The most pertinent research was chronologically reviewed starting from the origins of the construct in the 1980s, to current thinking about the field. This included an examination of EL definitions, ranging from those that emphasise internal processes to external displays. In doing so, the author selected the preferred definition for EL and chose the theoretical approach which will underpin this empirical research.

The choice of topic was justified through identifying a gap in the research to date, namely lecturers working in SPHE. While the exploration of EM among teachers (Hebson *et al.*, 2007) is on the rise, the work roles of teachers and lecturers are different, as well as the characteristics of the education setting (Sutton, 2004; Mahoney, *et al.*, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). The majority of the research conducted to date has favoured public HE settings such as universities over private institutions when examining EM and lecturing (e.g. Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes, 2011; Trigwell, 2012; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). Furthermore, extant literature has not always clearly distinguished between the roles of the research participants (lecturers), specifically whether they teach or engage in research (e.g. Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). This may be an important omission, as it has been argued that teaching requires a greater emotional investment in comparison to other academic duties,

such as conducting research (Bellas 1999). The literature has also revealed mixed and somewhat contradictory findings when it comes to the outcomes associated with EM. Evidently, the jury is still out and the findings to date present a dichotomy, with some authors citing positive and others citing negative outcomes. In closing out this chapter, the next section identifies the research aim and presents a conceptual framework.

2.7 Research Aim and Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this research is to examine the EM of faculty staff in a SPHE setting. Having reviewed the literature to date, the principal aim of this research is:

To obtain an understanding of the relative importance of EM for the SPHES and the lecturing profession in general.

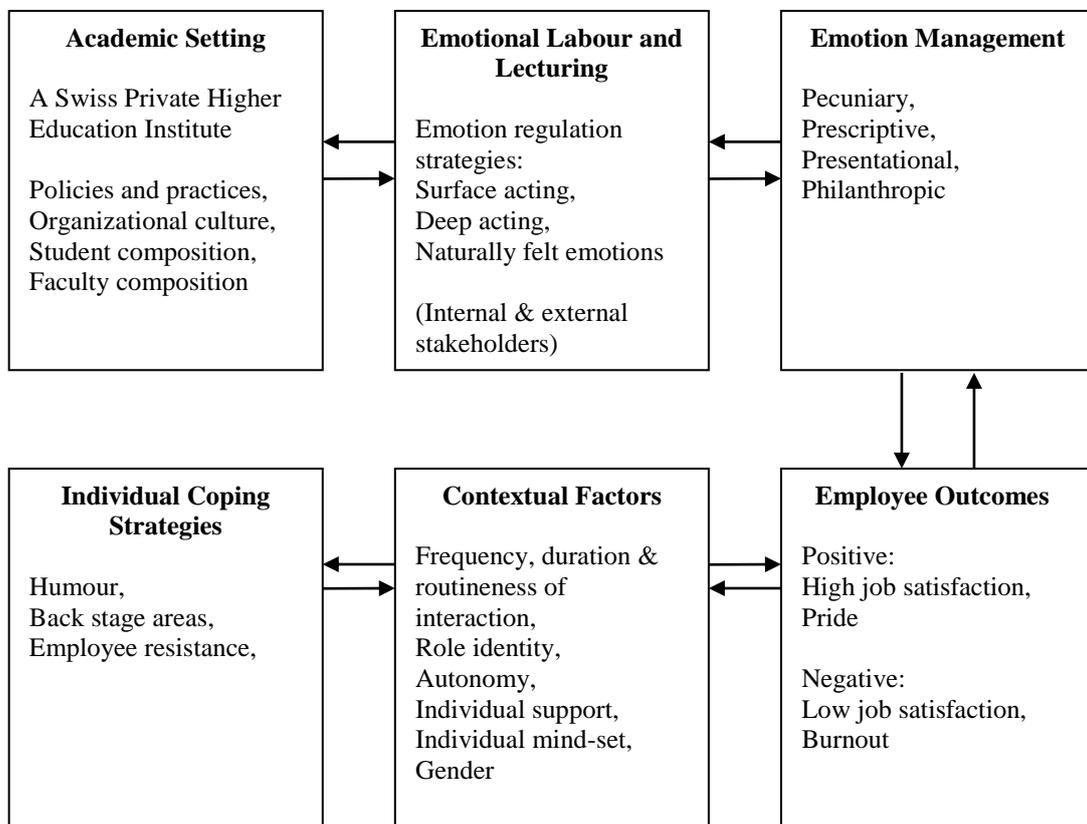
This is achieved by examining the emotion work that is performed by lecturers in SPHE, and establishing the fundamental drivers behind the EM performance. This includes an exploration of the potential outcomes associated with EM, as well as identifying important contextual factors for the profession. Individual coping strategies which lecturers adopt to deal with the emotional component of the job are also examined.

Following the identification of the research aim, a conceptual framework (Figure #1, p.53) was developed to assist with linking the theory and constructs relevant to this thesis. It draws on, and integrates, extant literature in a bid to direct the research process and achieve the research aim. The conceptual framework presents six interconnecting pillars which impact upon the EM of faculty staff. It incorporates concepts and ideas from the work of Ashforth and Humphrey (1993); Morris and Feldman (1996); Grandey (2000) and Guy *et al.* (2008) as well as elements of Bolton's (2005) TOWE.

The framework proposes that the academic setting (Pillar 1) could be an important determinant in the enactment of EM. Participant interactions with internal and external stakeholders can lead to EL and the enactment of emotion regulation strategies (Pillar 2). The framework recognises that the EM of participants extends beyond EL and therefore integrates components of the TOWE (Pillar 3). The EM of faculty staff in SPHE can result in both positive and negative outcomes which are identified (Pillar 4). One of the drawbacks of the TOWE (Pillar 3) is that it fails to give due consideration or incorporate any variables,

which may impact upon the individual EM of participants. With that in mind, the conceptual framework identifies a number of contextual factors (Pillar 5). The potential outcomes associated with EM may be influenced by these variables: for example, frequency, duration and routineness of interaction, individual support and gender. At an individual level, employees use different coping strategies to deal with the EM challenges of the job (Pillar 6). This conceptual framework which follows served to organize the ideas which underpinned this thesis, and acted as a reference point for the development of the research questions (p.54).

Figure #1 Conceptual Framework for the EM of Faculty Staff



Source:
Based on: Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 2000; Bolton, 2005; Guy, *et al.*, 2008.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter examines the most pertinent issues related to the research methodology and how it was implemented throughout this thesis. From the outset, the research aim is restated and the research questions which emerged from the conceptual model are identified. This is followed by a discussion of the underpinning philosophy and the chosen research strategy, which was that of a single descriptive case study. Issues related to research quality are emphasised and the discussion then focuses on the chosen data collection methods. The chapter concludes by exploring ethical considerations and providing an overview of the thematic analysis process which was conducted to analyse and present the research findings.

3.1 The Research Questions

The area that this thesis explores is related to the educational provision and EM of lecturers within SPHE. A critical examination of the literature established that EM is a latent norm in the lecturing profession. However, in terms of the SPHES, the research addressing EM and lecturing is limited. As previously identified the central aim of this research is:

To obtain an understanding of the relative importance of EM for the SPHES and the lecturing profession in general.

The previously identified conceptual framework, which was devised from extant literature, served as a foundation from which to operationalize this research aim. As a result, five specific questions were developed, which would guide this empirical investigation. These questions, in turn, influenced the research design and choice of most appropriate data collection methods and also acted as a linchpin for the presentation and interpretation of the research findings:

1. How is EL manifested at the case institution and which EM strategies are utilised by participants on a daily basis?
2. What are the motives behind the EM performance as per Bolton's (2005) TOWE?
3. How does the requirement to engage in EM affect lecturers working in SPHE?
4. What contextual factors impact upon the EM of lecturers?
5. How do participants cope with the EM component of the job?

3.2 The Research Process

By default, researchers bring their basic philosophical assumptions or way of viewing the world to any given study (Creswell, 2008). The adopted paradigm or philosophy has a considerable influence on the decisions taken throughout the research process (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012). Bazeley (2013: 19) maintains that a research paradigm:

provides a basis for understanding the nature of reality and provides guidance on how that reality can be known and understood... by extension a paradigm also describes shared beliefs deriving from a common disciplinary tradition and literature among a community of scholars that provide a basis for determining what are seen as appropriate questions and strategies within that community.

The two main paradigms are known as positivism and interpretivism. The positivistic paradigm 'seeks the facts or causes of social phenomena with little regard to the subjective state of the individual' (Collis and Hussey, 2003: 52). This philosophy emphasises measuring variables using scientific techniques, with the aim of inferring from a sample to population (Bryman and Bell, 2003). In contrast, interpretivism or the phenomenological paradigm is concerned with:

the question of how individuals make sense of the world around them and how, in particular, the philosopher should bracket out preconceptions in his or her grasp of that world (Bryman and Bell, 2003: 16).

The context and purpose of this research fits with the latter, in that it is exploratory in nature and seeks to understand a complex social phenomenon that is EM. Advocates of the interpretive paradigm argue that social phenomena should be understood in the social contexts from which they are constructed and replicated through their activities. According to Bassegy (1999: 43):

the interpretive researcher cannot accept the idea of there being a reality 'out there' which exists irrespective of people, for reality is seen as a construct of the human mind.

This research adopted the interpretive philosophy due to the fact that its objective was to examine a phenomenon that is not well understood, and whose context in itself is multifaceted and diverse. The paradigm in turn served as a framework and influenced the researcher with respect to the questions asked, as well as their interpretation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012). An inductive approach was used which was exploratory in nature and

persistently probed in order to understand the subjective nature of the research participants – the faculty staff. This enabled me to obtain an insight into the idiosyncrasies of the chosen educational institution and examine the complex issue of the faculty experience of EM. This inductive approach fits with the interpretive paradigm and consisted of collating and analysing data in a bid to develop theory (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003; Patton, 2015).

3.2.1 The Quantitative vs. Qualitative Debate

A key consideration for every researcher is whether to employ quantitative or qualitative research methods. It has been argued that one of the fundamental ingredients of a successful research strategy is observing an object of study from a number of different angles (Creswell, 2008). Quantitative research positions the researcher as an objective observer with primary emphasis placed on the ‘quantification in the collection and analysis of data’ (Bryman and Bell, 2003: 25). The researcher neither participates in, nor influences, the subject of the research, instead choosing to focus on objective hard data which is based predominantly on closed questions. While this makes quantitative methods a natural choice for some research, it can be argued that the voice of the participants is muted, and may only feature as an emotionless statistic in a finished report. As noted by Bryman (1998: 12):

Quantitative research is... a genre which uses a special language... (similar) to the ways in which scientists talk about how they investigate the natural order – variables, control, measurement, experiment.

In the case of the research problem presented in this thesis, a quantitative approach was deemed insufficient to understand the ‘social and cultural construction of the variables which quantitative research seeks to correlate’ (Silverman, 2014: 27).

In contrast, a qualitative approach positions the researcher in the centre of the research, examining:

...things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012: 3).

The richness of the data can be identified in ‘...the precise particulars of such matters as peoples understanding and interactions’ (Silverman, 2005: 5). In that regard, the collection

and analysis of data places emphasis on words as opposed to numbers (Bryman and Bell, 2003). According to Troyna (1995, cited in Bassey, 1999: 90):

all research, from its conception through to the production of data, its interpretation and dissemination reflects a partisanship which derives from the social identity and values of the researcher.

As previously identified throughout the literature review, the exploration of EM among lecturers working in the private HE sector, particularly within Switzerland, is negligible. This is an intricate issue which calls for a qualitative approach to obtain the rich data that is required to provide a deeper understanding of EM and lecturing. Middlewood, Coleman and Lumby (1999) suggest that through a diverse range of qualitative methods, it is possible to develop a picture of social reality. Researchers embarking on qualitative methods ‘...seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning’ (Denzin and Lincoln, 2012: 14). Moreover, Silverman (1998: 7) argues that:

to understand the logic behind qualitative research, we need to recognize its points of continuity, as well as difference, with more quantitative or ‘positivistic’ studies’.

The key consideration is to ensure that the research question and the subsequent methods are robustly aligned. Creswell (2008) and Punch (2000), among others, argue that rather than thinking about the superiority of one approach over another, the researcher should be concerned with how the methods and data used follow from, and fit in with, the questions being asked. With this in mind, the data collection methods were selected based on their fit with this research. They were conducted sequentially with the findings, in turn influencing the development and implementation of the subsequent methods. A notable benefit of using qualitative methods for this research was that it enabled me to:

empower individuals to share their stories, hear their voices, and minimize the power relationships that often exist between a researcher and the participants in a study’ (Creswell, 2013: 48).

The following section offers an insight into the rationale for choosing a single descriptive case study as the strategy for this research.

3.3 Case Study Research Strategy

Yin (2009: 18) defines a case study as:

an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

Yin (2009) is regarded as an authority on case study research and is a key advocate for its usage in the social sciences. Yin (2009: 13) maintains that the case study strategy is ideal for answering ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions about ‘a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control’. The case study strategy is suitable when analysing events that have not been given extensive focus in the past, and for ‘appreciating the complexity of organizational phenomena’ (Yin, 1994, xv). Adopting an interpretive viewpoint, Stake (1995, xi) defines this research strategy as ‘the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances’. According to Robson (2002: 178), this entails examining a ‘phenomenon in its real life context, usually employing many types of data’. Numerous researchers advocate the suitability of the case study strategy in educational settings (Stenhouse, 1985; Bassey, 1999; Simons, 2009). The story-telling aspect of case studies enables researchers to adopt a narrative approach while offering a valued insight into theory in practice (Bassey, 1999). Fineman (2000:14) states that ‘contextually rich, “real time” emotion studies of organizational life are still relatively rare...’ Therefore, this research is contributing to the field by illuminating EM among professional level employees in a unique organizational setting, i.e. participants working in SPHE. Additionally, it will be one of the first empirical studies to utilise Bolton’s (2005) typology to examine the motivations behind the EM of participants in a Swiss HE setting.

Flyvbjerg (2011: 314) reports that case studies can achieve depth and assist in understanding context, process and gaining an insight into ‘...what causes a phenomenon, linking causes and outcomes’. This is echoed in the work of Stake (2000: 20), who suggests that ‘case studies are useful in the study of human affairs because they are down-to-earth and attention holding’. The rationale for choosing the case study strategy was that it would allow me to examine the concept through the eyes of the research participants and expose what happens in ‘naturally occurring settings’ (Silverman, 2014: 27). In doing so, it would also enable me to thoroughly dissect the idiosyncrasies of the chosen SPHEI. The flexibility of the case study

method allowed for the integration of multiple streams of data resulting in vast amounts of qualitative data. I argue that such data is invaluable in understanding EM and the personal experiences of lecturers (Yin, 2009). Day and Leitch (2001: 407) state that:

If the experience of teaching can only be truly known through stories of real events in which teachers, students and curricula interact... then to neglect the stories of teaching and the narratives of teachers' experiences may be to collude in oversimplification or distortion.

This statement is in accord with previous research on EM, such as Bolton (2005) and Guy *et al.* (2008: 13), who state that 'it is the lived experience of workers that reveals the nature of emotion work and what it takes to do it well'. This necessitates a qualitative approach that can probe and illuminate individual participants' experiences, thus revealing the organization 'underlife' (Bolton, 2005). From a teaching perspective, Hargreaves (2000, 824) states that 'emotions are located not just in the individual mind: they are embedded and expressed in human interactions and relationships'. Therefore, the case study research strategy offers the ideal framework to capture and understand the human interactions and relationships that are at the heart of EM. Furthermore, previous empirical research into EL has adopted a case study approach, including Hochschild's (1983) original work.

Yin (2009: 2) advocates gathering an array of data, stating that an essential tactic in case study research is 'to use multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion'. Triangulation seeks to provide greater insight by using numerous methods of enquiry to substantiate the same phenomenon. Therefore, I used multiple data collection methods to support the case study methodology, and to add to the robustness, credibility and depth of the findings (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The data collection methods on which I drew were focus groups and semi-structured interviews. The usage of multiple data sources in researching EM is advocated by Guy *et al.* (2008: 14), who state that interviews and focus groups allowed them to:

discern patterns and make fine distinctions between meanings – distinctions that are not possible with the blunder instrument of survey data.

Focus groups were used at the first stage of my process, with the findings, in turn, feeding into and guiding the semi-structured interview questions. A similar approach was also used

by Hochschild (1983), with the first phase of her research consisting of questionnaires. She then progressed to conducting group interviews and finally individual interviews. The cross comparison of multiple sources of data also contributed towards saturation. Strauss and Corbin (1998: 143) identify data saturation as being achieved:

when no new data is emerging but more than a matter of no new data. It also denotes the development of categories in terms of their properties and dimension including variation, and if theory building the delineating of relationships between concepts.

Yin (1994: 31) recommends using theory to analytically generalise, stating that ‘a previously developed theory is used as a template with which to compare the empirical results of the case study’. The research questions which were developed for this thesis were mapped against a conceptual model based on extant literature. The empirical findings, in turn, were contrasted with these research questions. With respect to previous theoretical propositions, the findings were also mapped against an empirically tested model: Bolton’s (2005) TOWE. This model has different pillars which served to present the data and ascertain the motivations behind the EM of the participants.

Yin (2009) also highlights the choice the researcher has to make between single and multiple designs for the case study strategy. It has been argued that the single case design uses only one core unit of analysis and runs the risk of presenting purely abstract data. To counteract this, a single embedded case can be used to allow for the creation of multiple subunits which ‘add significant opportunities for extensive analysis, enhancing the insights into the single case’ (Yin, 2009: 52). Merriam (1998: 27) maintains that the ‘single most defining characteristic of case study research lies in delimiting the object of study: the case’. Stake (1995: 2) refers to a case as having a ‘boundary and working parts’ and can be regarded as ‘an integrated system’. This research sought to examine multiple subunits and therefore I selected a more complex, single embedded case study as the best fit. This approach can be identified as a descriptive case study, which Yin (1994: 5) defines as presenting ‘a complete description of a phenomenon within its context’. This is akin to what Stake (1995: 3) defines as an intrinsic case, whereby the objective is to ‘research a particular situation for its own sake and irrespective of outside concerns’.

The potential danger of adopting a single embedded case with multiple subunits is that the researcher could ignore the holistic nature of the case in favour of the subunits (Yin, 2009). However, this did not pose a problem, as the research design was framed against a conceptual model and incorporated Bolton's (2005) TOWE. Moreover, the subunits were selected on the basis of their relevance to answering the research questions. Yin (2009) states that a single case can test, confirm, challenge or extend a theory. This research sought to build on existing empirical research and explore, in depth, the EM of participants at the case institution. The rationale for choosing a single case study was further justified by the fact that this research empirically tested and thus served to critically evaluate Bolton's (2005) typology in a HE context. Previous research by Callaghan and Thompson (2002) combined the single case design with Bolton's model to examine emotional labouring in a call centre setting. Callaghan and Thompson (2002) reported that the choice of a qualitative case study strategy resulted in a better understanding of both EL and call centre work. Similarly, the single case study design adopted for this research sought to expand the knowledge base by providing an in-depth analysis of lecturing and EM in a specific SPHEI.

By default, the choice of a single case design (one HE institution) left me in a position where a cross comparison between colleges could not be conducted. However, I argue that the wealth of data obtained from the chosen HE institution has resulted in an in-depth and unique case study which will assist in implementing change at the institution. It can also be argued that the level of depth, data saturation and analysis required would have been diluted had multiple cases been used (Creswell, 2013). Additionally, the idiosyncratic culture of each college would make generalization difficult to achieve. While the choice of a single case design placed increased pressure on maximising access and data collection (Yin, 2009) at the case institution, this research encountered no restrictions in terms of access, and buy-in was secured from both the management and employees at the SPHEI. Nevertheless, it must be noted that case studies are not exempt from criticism. Concerns regarding generalizations have been at the forefront of this (Hargreaves, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 2000). It has also been argued that case studies may be prone to researcher bias, and that ultimately the results may not be transferable. These issues, as well as concerns regarding credibility and dependability, are discussed in the following section.

3.3.1 Research Quality

Hammersley (1992: 182) argues that:

The process of inquiry in science is the same whatever method is used, and the retreat into paradigms effectively stultifies debate and hampers progress.

This suggests that, regardless of the choice of methodology or underlying paradigm, quality and the establishment of ‘trustworthiness’ (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) should be at the forefront of the researcher’s mind. Patton (2015: 707) states that because the researcher is essentially the instrument in qualitative research ‘the credibility of the inquirer is central to the credibility of the study’. As per Patton’s (2015) assertions, I have sought to enhance my credibility as a researcher by means of providing an overview of my professional and academic experience and ensuring that the research process has been logical, traceable, and documented.

I have done my utmost to leave an evidence trail in the form of a research blue print whereby the data collection procedures and the research process can be repeated. From the outset, the constructs of EL and EM have been defined and operational measures have been identified. Having reviewed the most pertinent literature, a conceptual framework was proposed which incorporated established constructs. This was followed by the development of the research questions which were mapped against the conceptual framework. Guy *et al.* (2008: 186) argued that:

Because there is such a broad range of definitions and understanding as to what constitutes Emotional Labour... investigating it requires multiple forms of inquiry.

Consequently, this empirical research used multiple data collection methods which assisted in corroboration and interpretation of the data. The findings which flowed from the data were, in turn, analysed and discussed using the original research questions. I maintain that this further enhances the ‘truth value’ of the findings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), as well as making the research more transparent and replicable. In addition, having an assistant moderator examine the data offered a second perspective in the form of a critical peer (please see Appendix #1, p.178, for a copy of the guidelines provided to the assistant moderator).

Moreover, my supervisors played a key role in critically reviewing my writing and offering invaluable advice throughout the research process.

Addressing concerns about generalization or transferability, Yin (2009) states that case studies 'rely on analytic generalization', and Stake (1995: 7-8) argues that 'the real business of case study is particularization'. I have endeavoured to ensure that the empirical data presented accurately reflects the views of the research participants and is not modified in line with a personal bias or agenda. In that respect, this research seeks to demonstrate:

a sort of internal reliability in which the findings of an investigation reflect, to the best of the researcher's ability, the data collected' (Merriam, 1998: 57).

The objective of increasing dependability has been enhanced by implementing case study protocol and maintaining a case study database (Yin, 2009). The context of the study has been explained and the research aim and related questions clearly defined. Ultimately, the:

purpose of case study is not to represent the world, but to represent the case... the utility of case research to practitioners and policy makers is in its extension of experience' (Stake, 1995: 245).

Reference has previously been made to researcher bias and its implications for this research. However, it should be noted that the interpretive nature of the case study as a research strategy and its potential for bias is not unique. Stake (1995: 2) argues that:

conflicting precedents exist for any label. It is important for us to recognize that others will not use the words or methods as we do.

Despite these various efforts at ensuring quality, it cannot but be acknowledged that case studies and qualitative research in general have been criticised for 'the issue of consistency... and the problem of anecdotalism' (Silverman, 2014: 21). Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel (2003) argue that in many instances the researcher must employ his/her own subjective opinion to unlock the sometimes blurred meaning of qualitative data. The researcher undoubtedly has a significant influence on each component of the research process, from the topic chosen, to the methods selected to collate and analyse the data, and ultimately upon the write up and display of findings. The purity of the research can be

diluted by assumptions, subjectivity and the insider's perspective. The challenges of insider research are discussed in more detail in the following section.

3.3.2 Insider Research

Throughout this research project, I adopted the role of an insider, whereby I collated data within my own place of work. It can be argued that insider researchers may be tempted to present their workplace and colleagues in the best possible light, thus providing a superficial insight into practice. Despite any potential partisanship derived from my social identity and values (Troyna, 1995), the merits of insider knowledge and the researcher's perspective should not be dismissed but embraced and acknowledged. I was at the core of this research and regard my presence and interaction with participants as critical to the process, and in many ways inseparable. The calibre and depth of the collated data is a direct result of those interactions. Lincoln and Guba (1985: 208) suggest that:

admitting tacit knowledge not only widens the investigator's ability to apprehend and adjust to phenomenon in context, it also enables the emergence of theory that could otherwise have been articulated.

The potential sensitivity of this research increased the importance of establishing a strong researcher-participant rapport. Being an insider researcher afforded me a pre-existing level of trust and goodwill, which otherwise would have been impossible to develop. This trust was enhanced by making participants aware of the research objectives, and ensuring that their identities would remain anonymous. Adopting an empathetic approach towards participants while collating the data, and guaranteeing that any sensitive information unearthed would remain confidential, underpinned the process. I maintain that this resulted in a more open and genuine interaction with participants, and simultaneously adhered to ethical research principles. I have identified and accepted that an inherent bias may be present in this research, as my role was central to the process. Nevertheless, I have endeavoured to present the facts of the case unblemished, warts and all. This has been enhanced by working in conjunction with an assistant moderator, who embraced the role of a critical friend.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

The usage of multiple methods was chosen as the 'best fit' to gather data for the single case study design. The individual data collection tools selected were that of focus groups and

semi-structured interviews. The individual data collection methods are now explained in greater detail.

3.4.1 Focus Groups

Numerous authors identify the usage of focus groups within academia to be a contemporary and an ever-increasing trend (Ashar and Lane, 1993; Morgan 1997; Bloor, Frankland, Thomas and Robson, 2001). Krueger and Casey (2009: 2) define focus groups as a:

carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment.

The use of focus groups involves moderating a group discussion in a bid to solicit group norms and understandings of a particular topic. Their origins can be traced back to the 1940s, when they were predominantly used in broadcasting, marketing and research into public opinion (Barbour, 2013). The usage of focus groups within the business world continued into the 1970s, especially for the purposes of market research. Academic researchers adopted them as a qualitative tool for the social sciences in the 1980s. One of the earliest examples of their academic evolution from the group interview can be seen in Hochschild's (1983) original work on EL and her interviews with Delta cabin crew (Morgan, 1997).

Krueger and Casey (2009: 7) state that focus groups offer:

a more natural environment than that of an individual interview because participants are influencing and influenced by others – just as they are in life.

Therefore, focus groups provided the opportunity for participants to elaborate on and validate collective norms and understanding regarding EM in the SPHEI. They also served as a means of supporting and the other data collection methods, thus strengthening the methodological rigor of this research. Ultimately, the focus groups findings would be contrasted and analysed with the semi-structured interview data to enhance the findings. I envisaged that the synergy that could be created in the focus group discussions would enhance data saturation by capturing rich, in-depth qualitative data. A further strength of focus groups is the relative speed and ease in which qualitative data can be secured (Morgan, 1997). Bloor *et al.* (2001: 6) maintain that focus groups provide:

...concentrated and detailed information on an area of group life which is only occasionally, briefly, and allusively available to the ethnographer over months and years of fieldwork.

The benefits of the focus group discussions were that participants could compare and discuss one another's experiences and opinions, resulting in even more valuable data (Morgan and Krueger, 1998; Barbour, 2013). Wilkinson (1999: 225) argues that during such discussions, 'collective sense is made, meanings negotiated, and identities elaborated through the processes of social interaction between people'. While the world of emotions is not openly discussed by faculty on a daily basis, the platform of focus groups made that possible. I argue that the almost therapeutic nature of focus group discussions made them the ideal choice for exploring the somewhat sensitive area of emotions. According to Crabtree, Yanoshik, Miller and O'Connor (1993: 146):

people can recognize previously hidden parts of themselves in others. They can also reconstruct their own life narrative from others stories.

With this in mind, I believed that the focus groups for this research project had great potential to draw in the participants and to reveal unique data.

3.4.2 Focus Group Size and Participants

The selection and quantity of participants, as well as the number of focus groups utilized, is of prime importance (Morgan, 1997). Clearly one focus group would be inadequate as it offers a narrow view point. Bloor, *et al.* (2001: 91) advocate keeping the number of focus groups to a minimum, 'consistent with covering the range of the study population'. I conducted and moderated three focus groups, each composed of five faculty members, which, according to Krueger and Casey (2009), is considered the ideal size for researching non-commercial issues. I argue that smaller focus groups were more appropriate for the current research as the area of EM is quite complex and warranted intimate discussion. While smaller groups may have fewer experiences to draw upon, they enabled greater depth and insights to be captured. Moreover, as this was my first time using focus groups, and while I had some initial reservations, I was more comfortable working with smaller numbers of participants.

When it came to selecting the participants for the focus groups Saunders *et al.* (2003) recommend using a ‘horizontal slice’ through an organization to identify a participant sample with similar job status and experience (271). In the context of this research, purposive sampling was used to ensure the diversity required (Barbour, 2013). Table #1 below provides an overview of the focus group participants.

Table #1 – Characteristics of the Focus Group Participants

Age profile	Gender	Contract status
20-29: 0	Male: 9	Full-time: 7
30-39: 5	Female: 6	Part-time: 8
40-49: 2		
50 or over: 8		

(Total number of participants: 15)

3.4.3 Focus Group Procedures

The focus groups were conducted two weeks apart for timing considerations, and to enable me to analyse the data. From a timing perspective, the majority of full-time lecturers at the case institution take their holidays during the months of July and August. Additionally, part-time lecturers do not start teaching after the summer break until the start of October. Therefore, October 2013 was chosen as the most suitable period to conduct the focus groups. In keeping with best practice, an assistant moderator was identified to help out with conducting the focus groups, and to act as another set of eyes (Morgan, 1997). The focus groups were tape recorded so that the data could be captured accurately, resulting in a detailed transcript which would enable rigorous analysis at a later date. From an ethical standpoint, participant consent was a prerequisite. Accordingly, all of the participants were emailed an invitation to participate and a consent form which they were asked to sign (Appendix #2, p.179). They were also given a document explaining the purpose and format of the focus group discussions. This included some quotations and reflections on EM, which they were asked to read (Appendix #3, p.180). A debriefing was conducted following each focus group and participants were given my contact details. In addition, a typed copy of the focus group data was made available for the participants to review. Participant anonymity was guaranteed for several reasons, including the potential sensitive nature of the topic. Other ethical considerations are addressed at the end of this chapter. The final focus group

questions were developed around the conceptual model and Bolton's (2005) TOWE (a copy of the database of questions for the focus groups is provided in Appendix #4, p.182).

At this juncture, it should be noted that similar to any other data collection method, focus groups also have their limitations. Krueger and Casey (2009) highlight several criticisms that have been directed at focus groups, such as:

1. *Focus group participants tend to intellectualize*: this relates to the tendency for participants to 'portray themselves as thoughtful, rational and reflective individuals' (13) when discussing past actions. However, the reality is that a lot of human behaviour is inherently unconscious. This problem can be reduced by using multiple methods of enquiry as was the case with this research.
2. *Focus groups produce trivial results*: trivial comments to some extent may be inevitable. Nevertheless, superficial comments are more likely to materialise when the focus group is too large and if the topic is too complicated. To counteract this, the focus groups for this research were smaller in size (five participants) and the discussion questions were succinct, with jargon omitted. Additionally, each participant was provided with an overview of the concepts and a broad outline of the research objectives.
3. *Dominant individuals can influence results*: this can occur in any group discussion, where one individual wants to be heard over everyone else. Undoubtedly, a skilled moderator is required to temper any dominant individuals. My lecturing experience to date includes several years facilitating a 'case study' course, which was largely student driven. To prepare for the focus groups, I read extensively about moderator skills and as a result felt confident about using the method. Furthermore, an assistant moderator was recruited, and the fact that the participants were my colleagues eased the burden. However, there was a danger that with the research objectives in mind, I might over influence the group interactions and stifle the natural flow of the discussions (Morgan, 1997). I was conscious of this and controlled any temptation to become embroiled in the discussions, thus ensuring my role as facilitator.

The nature of the comments made throughout the focus group discussions was considered and these were not presented out of context. From the outset, the diversity of the participants was explained, and where appropriate, was used for intra-group comparisons (Barbour,

2013). Ultimately, focus groups were not used to control and predict, but as a means of providing insight and understanding (Krueger and Casey, 2009). The next section introduces the semi-structured interviews which were conducted in November and December 2013, following the analysis of the focus group data.

3.4.4 Semi-structured Interviews

Yin (2009) identifies interviews as ‘one of the most important sources of case study information’ (106). The researcher is positioned to get close to the case study topic and despite the consistent line of inquiry, the flow of questions can remain quite fluid (Yin, 2009). Moreover, they enable the interviewer to probe topics for greater detail, while simultaneously providing a framework to follow (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Barbour (2013) suggests that one-to-one interviews harvest data that is different in content from focus groups. Whether used as preliminary or follow-up tools, interviews and focus groups are complementary (Morgan, 1997). In that respect, I decided to use semi-structured interviews to follow on from the focus group discussions, and as a means of probing participants about the emerging themes.

The interviews were conducted with eleven different lecturers at the case institution during the months of November and December 2013. The purposive sample consisted of six interviewees who had previously taken part in the focus group discussions and five interviewees who had not participated in any focus group. The primary objective was to further explore the themes unearthed by the focus group discussions. Consequently, the decision was taken to interview some focus group participants as well as lecturers who had no prior involvement in the focus groups. Table #2 below provides an overview of the interview participants.

Table #2 – Characteristics of the Interview Participants

Age profile	Gender	Contract status
20-29: 0	Male: 8	Full-time: 8
30-39: 0	Female: 3	Part-time: 3
40-49: 7		
50 or over: 4		

(Total number of participants: 11*)

* Six of these lecturers had participated in the focus groups and the other five had not.

The interview questions were developed in line with the original research aim, as well as the elements of Bolton's (2005) TOWE. The findings from the focus groups were also incorporated to increase in the cross comparison of data. Two sets of interview questions were developed: one tailored for focus group participants (Appendix #5, p.183) and the other for non-focus group participants (Appendix #6, p.184). The rationale behind this was to further assist in interpreting the data, as well as clarifying or identifying potential themes. 'How' and 'why' questions were used to probe the interviewees to elicit the desired response. Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the best fit for this research, as they offer both structure and flexibility and can result in vast amounts of data. This approach allowed for deviations based on the interviewee responses, which added to the richness and authenticity of the data. Each of the interviews was recorded, with the prior consent of the participants. One of the drawbacks of the interview method is that it can be very time consuming, particularly when it comes to transcribing the information. Moreover, it has been argued that it is not easy to quantify the results. However, the semi-structured interviews conducted for this research were not the sole data collection method used, and therefore the data could be merged with focus group findings.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical guidelines were considered throughout this research project from the initial conception of the research question, to the collation and analysis of data, to the writing and dissemination of the research. From the outset, I was committed to the University of Derby ethical framework for research, as well as the overarching British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004) guidelines. Nevertheless, there was always the possibility that unforeseen ethical dilemmas would appear during the research process (Silverman, 2014).

Written consent for this research was secured from the senior management of the SPHEI. The research participants agreed to participate voluntarily. Prior to embarking on the research, I also received written consent from each participant, approximately one month in advance. The consent form stated that the participants had the right to withdraw from the research at any stage (Appendix #4, p.182). Additionally, each participant was given an overview of the purpose of this research. This consisted of an explanation of the research aims and objectives, as well as information related to the data collection methods and the

research process employed (Appendix #7, p.186). The benefits of the research were highlighted so that participants would realise how valued their input would be.

Throughout the process, I endeavoured to respect the 'rights, needs, values, and desires of the informant(s)' (Creswell, 2003: 201). This was particularly relevant when using focus groups and interviews. As explained to the participants, their anonymity was guaranteed and achieved by employing a coding process that permeated the entire research process, from data collation to write up. It would also apply to any future dissemination of the research, whereby the participants would be pre-informed. Provisional dissemination strategies were also discussed with the management of the HE institution. There was a possibility that sensitive data may have been gathered concerning the participants as well as their interactions with their employer. It was therefore of the utmost importance for me as the researcher to guarantee that the participants were protected. I ensured that the data was collected in a professional and tactful fashion, and that the names/identities of research participants were not revealed. The collated data served only to inform the intended aims and objectives of this research, and was therefore in harmony with the original participant consent. In that regard, no covert research took place.

If any changes occurred as to how the research methods would be employed, the research participants would be fully informed. The principles of respect and due care were the foundations of this research. The issues of participant consent and the right to withdraw from the project were also stated verbally before I began to employ the data collection methods. The focus groups and semi-structured interviews were recorded with a Dictaphone, which I then transferred onto my home computer and secured throughout the process. The participants were safeguarded by several means. Firstly, as previously stated, the transcripts were coded to ensure anonymity and secondly, the original recordings were destroyed approximately one month after the data was typed up.

Upon completion of the semi-structured interviews and focus groups, participants were verbally debriefed. In addition, they were provided with a copy of the relevant transcript for their perusal. This was to ensure that if a participant wished to retract any of the statements, he/she had the opportunity to do so. Retraction of data would not be possible upon analysis and dissemination. Participants were provided with my contact details and were told that if

they should wish to withdraw from the process, they could do so in person or by email. Throughout the entire process, I was and still am open to any questions that the participants may have about this research. The next section introduces thematic analysis and explains the process which was used to analyse the qualitative evidence captured from the focus groups and semi-structured interviews.

3.6 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is a recursive process that seeks to categorise both large and small amounts of qualitative data into a concise number of themes which are, in turn, reflective of the phenomenon in question (Weber, 1990), making it particularly appropriate for this research. It can be regarded as a recursive process in that while it provides a systematic approach to analysis, it also offers the researcher flexibility to engage with the data in a fluid manner, moving forwards and backwards with the various stages of analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). It is an extensively used method within and beyond the realm of psychological research (Roulston, 2001), and requires the researcher to actively engage with the data, critically interpret it and ensure that the findings are represented in their true light (Patton, 2015).

Guest, MacQueen and Narney (2012: 11) maintain that thematic analysis is ‘still the most useful in capturing the complexities of meaning within a textual data set’. Nevertheless, it has only recently begun to achieve the ‘brand recognition’ held by other methodologies (Braun and Clarke, 2013: 120) and extant literature presents conflicting viewpoints as to how and what it should be used for (Boyatzis, 1998; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Tuckett, 2005). For example, Boyatzis (1998) does not recognise it as a specific method, but rather as a process which can be employed across a range of methods. In contrast, Braun and Clarke (2006) advocate it as a stand-alone method for conducting qualitative analysis and draw attention to its unique advantages. They define it as a ‘method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 79).

The chameleon-like characteristics of thematic analysis is evident in its openness to adopting various epistemological approaches. For example, it can be used for both inductive and deductive methodologies and can also combine them in a hybrid approach (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Moreover, its flexibility enables it to be framed against a broad range

of research questions, from those examining how a particular phenomenon manifests itself in diverse contexts, to those exploring individuals' perceptions and experiences (Braun and Clarke, 2013: 120). This, in turn, made it an ideal strategy to analyse the 'how' and 'why' questions of the case study approach employed for this research. The decision to use thematic analysis as the primary means of interpreting the data was further influenced by the exploratory nature of this research and the questions it sought to answer.

The process of thematic analysis requires the researcher to develop codes as a means of isolating important elements within the data, prior to interpreting the evidence. Boyatzis (1998: 1) identifies a 'good code' as one that captures the richness of the qualitative data and assists in organizing the data with the intention of developing themes. The key themes are those patterns that emerge which are most relevant to the research question. Braun and Clarke (2013: 121) state that 'if the codes are the bricks and tiles in a brick-and-tile house, then themes are the walls and roof panels'. The following section provides an overview of the analysis process that was used for this research.

3.6.1 Overview of Analysis

Attride-Stirling (2001) argue that even though academic literature more often than not presents an outline of the methodology employed, it frequently offers minimal guidance as to how to action the analysis. This is particularly relevant when it comes to this research, as Yin (2009: 127) states that the analysis of case study evidence '...is one of the least developed and most difficult aspects of doing case studies'. I have been mindful throughout this process to illuminate an evidence trail and provide a blue print for the analysis. The data used for this analysis was drawn from the three focus groups and the 11 individual interviews conducted afterwards. Thematic analysis enabled me to analyse all of the collated data, as opposed to just an individual interview or focus group, and this further assisted in the interpretation of the research topic itself (Boyatzis, 1998). Nevertheless, individual comments were deemed as relevant as those that had overall group consensus, or those that were repeated on numerous occasions.

Ultimately, the objective of my analysis was to present the subjective views of the lecturers who participated in the focus groups and individual interviews. The participants' own words and perceptions about EM are critical to this research and, as such, contribute to its

dependability and credibility (Patton, 2015). Miles and Huberman (1994) maintain that the analysis and reduction of the data involves continually ‘focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data’ (10). This is an iterative process which requires a complete immersion in the data in order to distinguish patterns (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). In keeping with Patton’s (2015) advice on the purity of the data, I have been mindful to ensure that theoretical concepts did not restrict or limit the analysis, and that emergent themes were not discounted on the basis of non-compatibility with the pre-determined theoretical stance.

Most notably, the flexibility of thematic analysis presents the researcher with a choice: essentially whether to produce data-driven or theory-driven analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Nevertheless, the use of a theoretical or conceptual framework is one of the most preferred strategies in analysing case study (Yin, 2009). This helps the researcher to focus on the core data as well as assisting in organizing the analysis. According to Braun and Clarke (2006: 86) the theoretical approach requires significant ‘engagement with the literature prior to analysis’. This resonated with me, as I had already composed several drafts of the literature review prior to collating and analysing the data. Upon completion of the final literature review, a conceptual model was developed which helped distinguish between concepts and in organizing ideas. Consequently, the template for coding which was used to classify and analyse the empirical data was structured around the research questions and the theoretical concepts which were linked to the conceptual model.

The interpretation of the evidence was an iterative process, whereby the data was interrelated with the theory. Nevertheless, while the theory-driven approach may have been the primary focus of the analysis, I was conscious of the potential for themes to emerge as a result of my interaction with the data. As per Fereday and Muir-Cochrane’s (2006) ‘hybrid approach’, I endeavoured to incorporate a second strand of analysis which was data-driven. This allowed me to capture new insights and build upon extant literature on EM and lecturing.

3.7 Identification of Themes

Braun and Clarke (2006: 79) provide a beacon in the form of specific guidelines which aid in navigating the numerous phases of thematic analysis. They present a ‘recipe’ for undertaking thematic analysis and offer insight into potential research pitfalls such as the ‘failure to actually analyse the data’ (2006: 94). This advice served me well, and I found myself

proactively engaging with the analysis process. An example of this would be my decision to personally transcribe all of the qualitative data. Braun and Clarke (2006: 87) identify five phases of analysis (excluding producing the report) which are as follows: (1) Familiarization with the data; (2) Generating initial codes; (3) Searching for themes; (4) Reviewing themes; and (5) Defining and naming themes.

As previously stated, from the outset I was immersed in the data and committed to manually transcribing each of the focus groups and individual interviews. Furthermore, I read and reread the transcripts several times and listened to the original audio recordings on more than one occasion. This served as a means of checking the accuracy of the transcripts, and enhancing my familiarity with the data which, according to Braun and Clarke (2006: 87), would provide the ‘bedrock for the rest of the analysis’. The rereading of the transcripts became increasingly purposeful, as I adopted a more analytical perspective, actively coding and seeking for themes. Participant phrases were highlighted and coded manually against the theoretical constructs and the research questions. I used different coloured highlighters and Post-it Notes throughout the transcripts to track potential patterns, and then matched statements and phrases of interest with the codes. In addition, I wrote notes on the side of each page summarising the main points related to the respective code (Braun and Clarke, 2006). A ‘miscellaneous’ code was created to classify statements that went beyond the original theoretical constructs. The process resulted in the identification of five themes and their respective sub themes. The miscellaneous code was later renamed and categorised as a sixth theme, due to its potential significance.

3.7.1 The Themes

The six themes that emerged are as follows; EL and lecturing; Motives for engaging in EM; EM outcomes; Contextual factors; Coping strategies; and New findings. Patton (2015: 522) maintains that throughout the analysis and subsequent deduction, the researcher has to do his/her utmost ‘to fairly represent the data and communicate what the data reveal given the purpose of the study’. The focus group and individual interview findings were presented in the form of verbatim quotations, the exception being where certain words or comments had been removed to ensure participant anonymity (participant coding is explained in the next section). Throughout this process, I endeavoured to select the most compelling quotations which illuminated and justified the identified themes. Nevertheless, I was conscious that:

a pattern in data is rarely, if ever, going to be 100% complete and non-contradicted, so an analysis which suggests that it is, without a thorough explanation, is open to suspicion (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 95).

Despite the potential limitations of the sample size, and uniqueness of the research setting, I am confident that the identified themes have significance to the SPHES.

3.7.2 Participant Coding

In line with the previously identified ethical guidelines, I have ensured that the anonymity of the participants is upheld. A total of 20 lecturers (13 males and 7 females) contributed to the collated data. Participants were assigned a gender specific pseudonym instead of their actual name. They were also identified by their working status, i.e. whether they were employed on a part-time or full-time basis (9 part-time lecturers and 11 full-time lecturers participated). The decision to make a distinction for gender and working status was taken to assess the potential relevance of both variables when it comes to the enactment of EM (please see Table #3, below).

Table #3 – Participant Coding

Part-time lecturer	Full-time lecturer
Karl	Susan
Alex	Clare
Connor	Alan
Declan	George
Karen	Ben
Samantha	Niall
Rachel	Tony
Amanda	Peter
Jill	Jack
	Hugo
	Paul

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter served to highlight the chosen methodology and chart its implementation throughout the research process. The central aim of the research was stated followed by the identification of five specific research questions. The discussion then provided an overview of the interpretive philosophy which underpinned this research. A single descriptive case study design was chosen as the best fit for this research. The selected data collation methods were focus groups and semi-structured interviews. Every effort was made to uphold the highest ethical standards and enhance the quality of this research. Purposive sampling was used in selecting the participants and the option to withdraw from the study at any stage of the process was emphasised throughout. I ensured that the participants' views were upheld and the information collected was not presented out of context. Furthermore, the protection of participant's anonymity was fundamental in the write up of the data. Thematic analysis was chosen to analyse the empirical data and detect patterns. This resulted in the identification of six themes, which are presented in the next chapter; EL and lecturing; Motives for engaging in EM; EM outcomes; Contextual factors; Coping strategies; New findings.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the most notable findings captured from the three focus groups and 11 semi-structured interviews. The primary themes and subthemes which emerged from the thematic analysis are then introduced. The findings are categorised and presented according to the six themes identified and correspond with the original research questions; EL and lecturing; Motives for engaging in EM; EM outcomes; Contextual factors; Coping strategies; and New findings. Numerous participant statements are provided verbatim throughout the text. This chapter paves the way for the discussion of key findings and the formulation of conclusions and recommendations.

4.1 Emotional Labour and Lecturing

As per the first research question, the following section explores the emotional labouring of lecturers in the SPHEI. The majority of the focus group and individual interview participants stated that they regularly engage in EL:

You have to manage your emotions every day... I think while you are in class you have to keep a certain emotional state from the beginning to the end and that affects and is effected by other people's emotional state.

Jill (part-time lecturer)

Another participant referred to the requirement to manage 'one's emotions' as a fundamental component of classroom management: 'You have a class; you have a group so you have emotions and you need to manage them': Connor (part-time lecturer). This job requirement to engage in emotion management was something that lecturers were conscious of and able to rationalise, with one interview participant drawing parallels to the world of entertainment: 'Lecturing is some kind of show business': Niall (full-time lecturer).

4.1.1 Perspectives on Good Lecturing

When asked to describe a range of personal characteristics that an effective lecturer would possess, all three focus groups identified common traits. The most cited characteristics were as follows: passionate, friendly, approachable, trustworthy, patient, empathetic, understanding, helpful, positive attitude, adaptive, knowledgeable and the requirement to be a good communicator. The importance of soft skills and good communication reverberated

throughout the discussions, and all of the participants were in agreement that emotions are an integral component of the job. Furthermore, EM was viewed as having a significant impact on student learning, with participants referring to the necessity of connecting with students and managing emotions as part of enhancing the learning process.

4.1.2 Emotional Labour Strategies

This component of the research question sought to offer an insight into how participants utilise the various EL strategies in doing their job.

Surface Acting

The majority of participants stated that they had experienced occasions where the job required them to put on a mask. Participants identified the negative outcomes of SA and its potential to influence job satisfaction. While SA was not favoured as an EL strategy, participants seemed to be aware of both its potential benefits and drawbacks. One participant addressed the importance of context and the suitability of SA as a primarily short-term strategy:

The problem with a mask is that it works for the short term... but if you have to put this mask on every time then you should think is this the right job for you?

Connor (part-time lecturer)

This theme was echoed by a focus group participant who questioned the appropriateness of SA as a viable long term strategy:

You need to be able to manage your emotions and even more so to balance them. I think students would feel it if it does not match. Unless you are a very good actor and you can play it for a very long time, but it is difficult. I think you cannot fake on the long run.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

Another participant gave an example of suppressing felt emotions, but was adamant that the deception was not in line with how she was feeling in that moment. The impact of SA was also evident in the form of emotional dissonance, which was experienced by some of the lecturers. There appeared to be an innate conflict between their inner feelings and the external display shown to students.

Deep Acting

Participants also utilised DA as an EL strategy, with lecturers referring to occasions where they motivated and psyched themselves up in order to experience the required emotional display. One participant described his efforts to overcome feelings of frustration as a result of students being lethargic and uninterested in class: ‘I am always trying to push my level of feelings to the highest, even though I have frustration there but it goes away’: George (full-time lecturer). Another lecturer spoke of the challenges with experiencing negative emotions in class, and the efforts he took to reshape his emotions:

If I am having a certain emotional state which is negative, I focus and try and have a positive attitude from the beginning and take fun from the teaching experience that I am having in class.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

There were numerous other occasions where participants referred to deliberately focusing on positive thoughts to invoke a happier mood. In some instances, this was done in a conscious attempt to diffuse negative emotions, control their temper and balance feelings of anger and frustration that were being felt in the given moment. The primary concern that participants expressed related to delivering the class in the most professional manner and ensuring that emotions did not interfere with that objective:

I think in some kind of way, of course you have to suppress certain emotions; feelings to a certain level which are not directly related to a student which are more personal should be put aside... my opinion is that you are sort of an actor, a play that you do in front of class, of course that is also a part of your role.

Hugo (full-time lecturer)

Another interview participant viewed having to deal with negative emotions in the classroom as a positive challenge. The necessity for self-regulation and EM was reiterated by another lecturer, who advocated the importance of being mindful in class, as well as being conscious of one’s emotions and the triggers that may ignite them;

It is very easy to have a negative emotion come out and the thing to do is to be aware of the light starting to go on. I was friendly with a psychologist and he saw this anger in us in terms of lights: you got the green light, the orange light and then the red light. And the thing is once it goes into red, Boom! You have Mount Vesuvius erupt! And the time to stop is somewhere between green and orange and orange and red.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

In addition to intentionally invoking certain emotions to experience the desired emotional display, several participants gave examples of using their imagination as a mechanism to alleviate negative emotions. For example, in a bid to diffuse feelings of frustration and anger, a female participant imagined her daughter and compared her shortcomings with that of the students she was teaching. This immediately made her feel more relaxed and patient when it came to interacting with difficult students.

Naturally Felt Emotions

A consistent finding was that participants valued the opportunity to be authentic and express their genuine emotions. This was considered to be an important element of the job:

Personally, I think it is very important especially as a lecturer that you should be honest, open and just be yourself and not play a role.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

Several participants also referred to the fact that they felt that students would detect an inauthentic performance which would impact the effectiveness of their teaching:

I think you need to be yourself... you should be natural. It needs to be in harmony and I think that students feel it if you are in a totally different mood than what your body expresses.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

The expression of NFE as an EL strategy was viewed as an enabler in doing the job, with several participants expressing that it also had the potential to enhance the professional relationship they had with their students. The viability of NFE as the most suitable long-term EL strategy was evident throughout the findings, with participants emphasising the need for sincerity in the job:

It would be too exhausting to put on a show that's not natural. If it is not natural, then I think it would be more exhausting than anything else so I try just to be myself.

Samantha (part-time lecturer)

4.1.3 Co-workers and Supervisors

When discussing interactions with colleagues at the institution, it became apparent that this was not always seen as a routine interaction. Several participants voiced the opinion that they occasionally felt uncomfortable when engaging in EM with colleagues, and institution management as opposed to similar interactions with their students. In an effort to alleviate frustration during an academic meeting, a participant gave the example of imagining how his students must feel when they are forced to adopt a passive role in their lectures and listen to uninteresting information. The emotional wellbeing of each individual lecturer was also considered as having a significant impact on the working atmosphere for everyone. One interview participant viewed it as follows:

If you are showing any kind of emotion, it will flow; it will continue and go on. Whether it is good or bad it doesn't matter, it will go on.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

Participants spoke of assessing their interactions with colleagues and gauging the most appropriate response based on the individual and the context:

I would say that you constantly check yourself, when you decide to say something or not. It depends on how well you know the person, how confrontational can you be and will this person take it personally? Or will they understand that you just try to push them in a positive way?

Connor (part-time lecturer)

4.2 Motives for Engaging in Emotion Management

Having confirmed the presence of EL in the working life's of lecturers, this theme sought to examine the driving force behind the enactment of EM. As per the research question, this section utilises the following categories of Bolton's (2005) TOWE to present the core findings which emerged: pecuniary, prescriptive and philanthropic.

4.2.1 Pecuniary Emotion Management

All of the focus group and interview participants were conscious of the commercial element associated with their job, be it in the form of student satisfaction figures or retention rates. This was considered as having a strong influence on the enactment of EL. The concept of the 'student as customer' emerged in the focus group discussions and stimulated a lot of debate. One focus group participant summed it up as follows:

We are a private institution, we are a for-profit institution and I think it is made quite clear to us what our job is: part of our objective is to make them feel good, make them feel secure.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

The potential drawbacks associated with this dynamic and its implications for the job were voiced by other participants:

We must do everything in our power to satisfy the students: that is what the management want... we must satisfy. We have a role, I don't know, like an actor, like a clown. You go out on the stage and you must satisfy.

Ben (full-time lecturer)

One participant linked the problems that she was having with a particular class to the power and influence that this relationship afforded her students:

If a student doesn't like something, they can go to administration and complain and action is taken, usually requesting the lecturer to change their strategy. I don't think this is the way that it should work... The students go and leverage their power with the administration.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

Additionally, the size of the college was considered as having an impact on the demand for student interaction and its associated EM. The pecuniary nature of the job was a recurring theme, with participants emphasising the underlying financial drivers of the private education sector versus that of the public sector;

I think in the public sector there is probably less stress in teaching than in the private sector, where there is emphasis on profits and meeting goals and stuff like that.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

This was considered by all the participants as having an impact on the expectations placed upon lecturers. According to several participants, this also had the potential to influence student perceptions with respect to learning and the perceived work requirements of their course. Some participants argued that the private education sector focused predominantly on profits over people. As a result, management decisions were taken with a view to maximising profits, which had the knock-on effect of intensifying the job of a lecturer.

4.2.2 Prescriptive Emotion Management

The motives behind the enactment of prescriptive EM went beyond that of commercial gain and appeared to be closely aligned with perceptions of professional conduct and organizational expectations. Many of the participants emphasised the need for professionalism, and expressed a natural harmony with any espoused organizational expectations:

There are certain values that one should have and those are also professional values and the expectations of the company and I think expectations of other people.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

Motivations regarding anticipated role display appeared to go beyond any contractual obligations, and seemed almost innate to each of the interview participants:

As a lecturer, as a professional, we should control our emotions... so even though there is nothing that is written in my contract stating that I should manage my emotions, I think that as a professional you should gauge how you speak to people, how you receive things and how you interact with people.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

Several of the participants referred to the expression of positive emotions and its direct impact on student learning:

I think you need to show students positive emotions to encourage them. It is not about making students feel good... but I think the learning environment should be positive.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

Professional conduct emerged as the driving force behind the control of negative emotions. In one of the focus groups, a participant gave the example of how he consciously controlled his negative emotions and aligned them with professional expectations:

You cannot go to work and show that you are in a bad mood. If you are in a bad mood, that is your issue to solve. The students are here and they want to have a good learning experience.

Jill (part-time lecturer)

While most of the participants emphasised adherence with professional expectations over any espoused organizational display rules, one lecturer referred to the example of peer reviews as a tool which the institution used to guide employee behaviour. Another participant argued that significant pressure came from the institution in the form of student and peer evaluations, as well as performance appraisals:

We have a certain pressure, of course, because we have a role we show them and it's not every day we can smile, but we must. We have the student evaluations, we have peer reviews and we have appraisals... It is a kind of pressure, to be honest.

Ben (full-time lecturer)

4.2.3 Performance Evaluations

Having identified the potential significance of organizational evaluations as a result of the first focus group discussion, I began to probe the participants further to obtain greater insight. The responses appeared to suggest that participants had mixed views regarding performance evaluations. Some considered it to be a good indicator of what the organization wanted from them, with one lecturer stating:

I think it raises our level of consciousness as to what is expected, and does that meet the expectations of the institution and of the students themselves?

Clare (full-time lecturer)

The constructive elements of evaluations were mentioned by other participants, who addressed the positive emotions derived from them:

Well, I think for everyone it's the same case, if we get some positive feedback from the students we are very encouraged.

Alex (part-time lecturer)

However, several participants identified a number of negatives associated with evaluations, for example the stress they caused some lecturers, particularly those who were new to the job:

For new lecturers, maybe it is more pressure because they are judged upon it. They take this as a control, rather than being an evaluation as a form of feedback.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

Other participants were more upbeat regarding the use of evaluations, but were simultaneously mindful that they could cause upset. One participant stated they he avoided reading his evaluations because he did not trust the content as they were anonymous. This sentiment was echoed by another lecturer, who had read hurtful statements about himself in previous evaluations and as a result was more guarded, stating: ‘You have to stay distanced from it’: George (full-time lecturer). The context of the evaluation and the personal characteristics of each individual lecturer in question were seen as important: ‘I think with evaluations especially, it depends what age you are and which sort of culture you grew up with’: Hugo (full-time lecturer). As well as being formally evaluated by the institution, another participant referred to the pressure he felt ensuring that he delivered his classes in an effective manner, and how he constantly perceived being judged by his peers. He maintained that the thought of being evaluated negatively caused him stress, and this gave him a sense of fear.

4.2.4 Philanthropic Emotion Management

All of the research participants demonstrated a genuine, caring and empathetic attitude towards their students. Whenever the possibility arose within the institution, lecturers went that extra mile for their students and colleagues: ‘A lecturer always should be approachable by students, not only during lectures but also after or before lectures’: Hugo (full-time lecturer). In each of the focus group discussions, the topic of philanthropic EM arose naturally, with participants offering diverse examples of going beyond the remit of their job description. One lecturer highlighted the dual role that he felt his job included:

Role number one of course is as the teacher, but role number two is also the friend and I always try to make a difference between these two roles.

Alex (part-time lecturer)

Another focus group participant gave an example of a student who was going through a traumatic time and how he adopted a caring approach in order to help him. This generated agreement among participants, with another lecturer providing an example of the level of trust that his students had placed in him, and how he made himself available to listen to their problems:

I have always had students come to me with very personal problems. I’m not going to solve their problems, but they know that I can listen to them.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

Participants displayed a strong sense of caring and empathy towards their students, and were actively sought out to resolve any issues that they were dealing with. One participant drew attention to the fact that the students encounter a diverse range of teaching styles, and showed empathy for students, highlighting the challenges that this must present for them. The findings revealed numerous other situations where lecturers were consciously giving of themselves and engaging in philanthropic EM. However, the organizational remit was mentioned by one participant, who stated:

I think sometimes our students expect this, being a private institution, to have the opportunity to speak with us and engage with us on a more personal basis.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

Philanthropic EM went beyond interactions with students, with the majority of lecturers making frequent reference to their colleagues. Participants displayed genuine compassion and a caring attitude towards their peers, acting at times as an emotional support:

I think we inject each other with energy at this institution. There is a good ambience and we care about each other a lot and we look at each other's eyes and we say is everything ok? Are you ok?

George (full-time lecturer)

The next section focuses on the EM outcomes experienced by the lecturers who participated in this research. This objective was in line with the research question, which sought to examine EM and its potential for both positive and negative employee outcomes.

4.3 Emotion Management Outcomes

All of the lecturers who participated agreed that they regularly experienced an array of both positive and negative emotions while doing the job. The regulation of these emotions was considered necessary in order to teach effectively and achieve the desired learning outcomes. The following section explores that area of the research question, and seeks to provide tangible evidence addressing both the positive and negative outcomes experienced by the lecturers.

4.3.1 Positive Outcomes

The most frequently-cited positive emotions that emerged from the three focus group discussions were pride, happiness, satisfaction, excitement, amusement and pleasure. It was evident that teaching was the part of the job that participants enjoyed the most. The positive emotions associated with the job appeared to energise participants and provided them with an outcome that went beyond any financial gain. One lecturer summed it up very succinctly:

I feel a certain amount of gratitude to be able to open their eyes to something new. It's exciting to watch them grow and learn new things at such a pivotal point in their lives.

Karen (part-time lecturer)

The diversity of the interactions with students, as well as witnessing their progress throughout the semester, was considered an enriching experience by all of the participants: 'It is always nice to see, from week 1, day 1, until the end of the semester, how they change. This is the most rewarding thing': Jack (full-time lecturer). The development and achievement of learning outcomes via assignments and exercises energised participants to continuously improve and to do more:

I have inspiration here, for me it is the main emotion when I see the results of my efforts, it inspires me.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

Several participants specifically referred to using EM to assist with their teaching: 'I use emotions, to assist in getting the learning across': Niall (full-time lecturer). As well as enhancing teaching, focus group participants spoke of the value of using emotions as a means of connecting with a class. In one of the focus groups, a participant who had been frustrated by her students using his/her mobile phones and not paying attention in class, gave the example of how she expressed her naturally-felt emotions as a means of connecting with the students. She spoke directly and stated her frustrations. On occasions, when participants referred to negative encounters in class, they appeared to embrace it, framing it as a learning experience:

I feel the situations which are disturbing you, are situations that you are not mastering, that you do not understand what happens. And so you get challenged because there are things you have not understood and why are

they behaving like that? Why did this happen and why this and that? So it's a learning session for me.

Declan (part-time lecturer)

4.3.2 Negative Outcomes

Most of the participants were content with discussing the positive side of their job. However, as the discussions developed, and trust was established amongst the participants, the darker side of the job was explored. The most frequently-identified negative emotions were anger, embarrassment, frustration, disappointment, anxiety and fear. The topic of class discipline and respect was emphasised, with some participants talking about moments where things escalated and they had lost their temper:

I have let things get to me to the point that I have yelled at students. It is a hard thing to recover from.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

In the third focus group, a participant spoke about the unexpected situations that can arise in class, and how unsettling they can be:

Sometimes you have to face situations that you have never faced and you don't know how to react because you have never faced a situation like this.

Amanda (part-time lecturer)

Impromptu heated moments, as well as troublesome students, were a source of stress for some participants leaving them drained:

There are some lectures that I am dying when I go out... they took all the energy out of me and that stressed me.

George (full-time lecturer)

Other participants reported feeling anxious about the thought of being questioned by their students, particularly in classes where the dynamic was challenging. This left them feeling as though their capabilities were being questioned. The topic was also discussed in depth, in the first focus group, with a participant stating that:

If you say that you don't know, maybe they are stripping something away or you are allowing yourself to be stripped away. That will show your

vulnerability or inability, and that's something I dealt with in my first year when I began to teach.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

Further insight into this theme was provided during the individual interviews, with several participants discussing the negative impacts that it had on them:

I take everything personally, because it is my position in front of the students; it is my reputation; it is my knowledge; it is everything about me; and if there is this clash in the relationship, I take it right into myself, deep into my heart.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

Another interview participant highlighted how he occasionally found himself dwelling on the issues he experienced in class, taking them beyond the workplace: 'Sometimes I come home and I am still thinking what should I do?': Peter (full-time lecturer).

4.3.3 Stress/Potential for Burnout

In an individual interview a participant drew attention to the fact that burnout among teachers is common and gave his rationale as to why this was the case:

Very often it comes from the stress in class, you know you are not able to manage your class; you are frustrated because you were not able to deliver as well as you wanted, you were not able to bring the students to the point that you wanted and these are also things that stress me.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

This perspective was echoed by another interviewee, who also expressed genuine concern in reaching all of his students and achieving the learning outcomes of his course. The impact of a strained student/lecturer relationship was viewed by another interview participant as devastating, ultimately affecting the ability to teach. This participant gave an example of a class where the dynamic had broken down and the atmosphere was heavy and somewhat confrontational: 'The relationship is fractured and this emotional conflict, these barriers I feel them': Rachel (part-time lecturer). Besides the stress which was linked to the teaching component of the job, reference was also made to the intensification of the job and the pressures that it placed upon lecturers. Several participants were of the opinion that the institution was not providing sufficient support, and that lecturers were undervalued. One

participant stated how he had accepted it as the reality of the workplace, rather than letting it impact him negatively in the long run:

If you have anger towards the college or the company, you won't last long... If you are frustrated, it won't work: there will be a certain moment when you will stand up in class and feel like having a chair in your hand, waving it towards students.

Hugo (full-time lecturer)

4.3.4 Taking the Emotional Baggage Home

The extremes in terms of the negative impacts of engaging in emotion work were evident throughout the findings. All the participants were aware of the repercussions upon one's home life, and a number of them specifically addressed the long-term implications of experiencing negative emotions on the job:

I think if the negative emotions are strong enough definitely it can affect the rest of your life and the life outside... there is something there that makes you have less tolerance for whatever happens outside, have less patience with even more frustration and anxiety.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

The impact of a particularly stressful day upon one's personal life was a theme that repeated itself throughout the interviews. These negative emotions were regarded by many participants as difficult to shake off, ultimately returning home in the form of emotional baggage and a negative mind-set:

If I have been facing anger, embarrassment and anxiety, I need an outlet and probably that outlet is not where I faced it: I will take it home to my wife or my kids or my friends.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

Several participants spoke of the difficulty they sometimes faced in disconnecting between their work and home life. As a result, they had first-hand experience of the negative impacts upon their personal life 'It completely boils inside of me so I need to let it out': Rachel (part-time lecturer). Individual responsibilities did not cease to exist beyond the workplace:

Sometimes you come from the job and come directly home, you have to cook for the kids and you have to do this and that. There is no break in between. It just continues and that is not always suitable just to switch over rapidly without any break.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

4.3.5 Physical Problems

These negative impacts also resulted in an array of physical problems, with one participant stating that he had trouble sleeping:

I had some very stressful times where I knew I had a lot of work. I went to sleep in the evening; I put my alarm clock at 6:30am to be here at around 7:30am. Suddenly, I woke up at around 5:00am and could not sleep anymore. I was subconsciously thinking about work and that has happened three or four times.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

Several participants also spoke of having difficulty relaxing due to job-related stress, with one individual stating that persistent exposure to negative emotions could result in: ‘a sense of self worthlessness and affect your self-esteem’: Tony (full-time lecturer).

4.3.6 Role Conflict

Participants offered insight into the inherent contradictions they sometimes faced when enacting EM. Lecturers gave examples of where they were torn between the rules of the institution and their own personal or professional values:

I think that as a lecturer in a private institution we have a double challenge. The first one to get the message across and make the students understand what it is that we are saying... we want them to learn but our way... because we are conditioned from private institutions as well.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

Another participant was conflicted by having to enforce the institution rules, even though he didn't agree with them. Upon reflection he did not feel good about doing it:

I felt unhappy, maybe I did a lot of wrong things to the students, I have forced them to follow the institution's rule.

Alex (part-time lecturer)

4.3.7 Rebellion

Despite any influence that the organizational rules may have had on ‘participants’ behaviour’, there were several lecturers who provided clear examples of subverting, ignoring or reinterpreting the rules:

Honestly, I don’t care about the rules and regulations and schedules. I am on time, of course: it is very important for me not to be late, but it has nothing to do with regulations because for me it’s a value. So I don’t care very much about that.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

4.4 Contextual Factors

The findings revealed a number of individual and organizational factors that influenced the enactment of EM. These were identified as follows; Subject area; Frequency and duration/routineness of interaction; Contract type; Gender; Age and experience; Peer support; and Individual mind-set.

4.4.1 Subject Area

The subject area that a lecturer taught, and how confident he/she was with the material, was perceived as having a notable impact upon the level of emotion management required: ‘I think it’s very important how comfortable you are with your subject or with teaching as a whole’: Alan (full-time lecturer). Furthermore, some subject areas were considered by the students as irrelevant or boring, and therefore required greater emotional investment on the part of the lecturer, in order to stimulate interest: ‘I had to convince them that what I was teaching was also something good for them’: Karl (part-time lecturer). On a similar note, one of the focus group participants gave an example of a subject that required a large investment of energy and EM to get student buy-in:

My first concern is how I can get these students to actually like my subject because I know that in their mind they are thinking ‘I don’t like this’... At the beginning, I feel a bit disadvantaged because of the subject that I teach.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

4.4.2 Frequency and Duration/Routineness of Interactions

There was a consensus among the participants with regard to the frequency of interactions with students, and the associated requirement to engage in emotion management:

You are dealing with more people at one time frequently during the day, 25 students in a classroom; and you are dealing with 25 different personalities. You multiply that by maybe four classes a day that is 100 people that you have to somehow weave together and deliver a lesson.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

According to one participant, this direct contact with students influenced the demands for EM. Moreover, establishing a positive relationship within a class was considered a fundamental step towards achieving the learning outcomes. This consisted of forming both individual and group relationships with students:

Of course the relationship is critical, because unless there is a relationship, the message will not get through; there will be no bridge for things to pass on.

Declan (part-time lecturer)

4.4.3 Contract Type

The focus groups and individual interviews revealed contrasting views with respect to working contracts and their relative demands for EM. All of the full-time lecturers who were interviewed had a common view of the difference between the contracts: 'Full-time, I think you are more emotionally involved and engaged because you know it is your full-time job': Jack (full-time lecturer). Another full-time lecturer expressed feeling more exposed to the students:

What I think that is different is that maybe we see the students more often. We go for lunch and we see them there; we go to the classroom; we cross them on the street.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

These additional interactions had the potential to demand more EM: 'Well you face the crisis point more often as a full-time lecturer': Tony (full-time lecturer). A similar outlook was shared by part-time lecturers, with some participants stating that EM afforded the students more opportunity to interact with the faculty:

I think it makes a difference because they know lecturers are always somewhere in the institution, so they have more contact with them: more face time even if it is not in class.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

However, the emotion management demands of the job within the classroom were viewed as equal, regardless of the contract type: ‘I think that in the class room the various stressors for full-time and part-time lecturers are the same’: Paul (full-time lecturer). Additionally, in terms of administrative tasks and deadlines, there did not seem to be any difference. The flexibility that part-timers had in terms of coming and going from the institution was viewed as a positive, but part-timers were also exposed to other challenges, such as whether or not they had enough hours and a sufficient wage. One full-time lecturer offered a different perspective about part-time lecturing, stating that:

If you are working part-time in another institution as well, this may also be emotionally stressful. The environment [is] different, the colleagues [are] different, expectations different, standards different, the policies different, time management, rushing from A to B.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

Part-time lecturers were quite aware of the potential stressors of the job, with some participants highlighting the demands of the job that went beyond the office: ‘Lecturing is a job that you may be only part-time here, but you have to put at least the same number of hours at home to prepare’: Connor (part-time lecturer). In the final focus group, a part-time lecturer expressed feeling disadvantaged by not having the opportunity to interact with students informally, as opposed to full-timers, who were afforded numerous opportunities throughout the term.

4.4.4 Gender

The impact of gender on the EM of participants was explored throughout the focus groups and interviews. This topic generated lots of interest from both male and female participants. According to one male participant, women were more open with their emotional displays:

I think women might be more forthcoming and more expressive of their emotions... women, by nature; they have more of a nurturing element.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

The differences between men and women, when it comes to managing their emotions, were addressed by another male participant, who stated that:

They have a tendency of taking things personally. It has happened a couple of times here, you know female colleagues running around, coming to me... do you know what happened to me?

Jack (full-time lecturer)

A male focus group participant stated that he felt that female lecturers were influenced more by their emotions than their male colleagues:

Generally speaking, women are more emotional and also more influenced by for example 'oh a very nice student', you know. I don't think I get influenced by a student who is nice, versus a student who is not so nice.

Alan (full-time lecturer)

A large number of male participants expressed the view that gender had an influence on the teaching approach employed, with women taking a more sensitive approach than men. One female participant identified how gender may be influencing her own approach to the job, and the level of care she invests in the students: 'Gender could be in a way a factor in the emotional side of the job, as women tend to be more caring': Jill (part-time lecturer). This also emerged in the focus group discussions, with a female participant stating: 'I think women are more patient... and teaching is a very nurturing job': Samantha (part-time lecturer). Another female participant argued that she had to work harder to prove herself to the students, which she felt was directly related to gender:

I have the feeling that I have to prove myself every time in class. Especially at the beginning, I have to gain their confidence:

Susan (full-time lecturer)

The conversation naturally migrated to the topic of age and experience, with another female participant debating that:

I think it's more a matter of age than a matter of gender. As a young teacher, it's true; you have to face that kind of mistrust. You have to prove yourself.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

4.4.5 Age and Experience

The diverse mix of faculty offered a rich insight into the relevance of age and experience with regard to EM and lecturing. All of the participants had vivid recollections about when they first started lecturing: 'When I just started, trying to pass on knowledge to students in my own way was a little bit strenuous': Paul (full-time lecturer). Confidence was considered

to be an important factor, and was something that developed with experience. Students were also conscious of this, and were constantly gauging lecturers' experience and the level of confidence level that they projected:

When I started first, I felt that the students were testing me. My second semester was different because they had seen me in the corridors and the ones that I had for the first semester talked to them.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

One of the new lecturers who participated in the interviews was really struggling with the demands of the job, and felt as though she was being tested by the students. Consequently, she was having mixed emotions about the job, and suffering a loss in confidence:

I analyse my emotions because sometimes I have too much of them, so I have to separate them to understand why my heart is like this and why I am sometimes scared to enter the college. I realise that I am not sure how long it will take to deliver certain material, or to do some exercises.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

4.4.6 Peer Support

The support of colleagues and supervisors was viewed as being an important job-related factor. This was highlighted by a participant who reflected on the challenges he experienced in a previous position. He compared it to his current position, where colleagues supported him from the start: 'I came here and talked to so many colleagues over lunches and they gave me so much advice': George (full-time lecturer). Being able to discuss matters with colleagues gave participants an opportunity to vent and share their job-related frustrations. When asked what they did to deal with frustration on the job, a female participant replied:

Frequently it is just talking to colleagues; just telling them what happened. That to me is a great therapy, just to talk about it. And when you say it out loud to somebody, you realise that it really is not that big of a deal.

Karen (part-time lecturer)

However, not all of the participants had the opportunity to regularly meet with their colleagues. The participants who were lacking the time to engage in this peer interaction were very conscious of it. One part-time lecturer recognising the value of peer support stated: 'My problem is that I don't see much of colleagues; we don't see each other too often': Rachel (part-time lecturer).

4.4.7 Individual Mind-set

The importance of having a positive outlook, particularly during stressful times, or after a difficult lecture, was emphasised by several participants: ‘I try to think that tomorrow will be a new day. It will be better. I try to think positive’: Amanda (part-time lecturer).

Adopting a positive mind-set also appeared to assist some participants in framing their emotions, and riding out any negative feelings that they were experiencing:

I try and realise that there will be a tomorrow if you are lucky, and this is just a momentary thing.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

Another participant spoke of investing time and energy into harnessing a positive outlook:

I work outside my job with a lot of courses with mindfulness: different kinds of self-development course in all areas. Now I have my own politic and it helps me a lot, not to get any negativity coming into my life.

George (full-time lecturer)

4.5 Coping Strategies

The following section focuses on the coping strategies that participants enacted to deal with the EM elements of the job.

4.5.1 Creation of Boundaries

Participants emphasised the importance of setting clear boundaries in their interactions with students. The extent of these boundaries was unique to each participant, with some viewing it more robustly than others:

There is a fine line between having a student-lecturer relationship and it becoming too personal maybe... and we need to follow that line and stay on the tight rope and not fall off.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

Another focus group participant drew attention to the establishment of boundaries as a precursor to trust:

For me it’s absolutely essential to trust the students, and essential for me to know that they trust me... and it is possible only if we have clear boundaries.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

4.5.2 Backstage Areas

The faculty office was considered a backstage area where participants could switch off. Several of the participants affectionately referred to it as their ‘haven’: ‘I really find sanctuary in the lecturers’ office’: Tony (full-time lecturer). The office was a place where the mask could be taken off and participants could unwind:

What I do very often in my office, I have classical music or ambient music playing, calming and that helps a lot.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

Nevertheless, it was evident that while some lecturers used the office as a place to relax and talk with colleagues, others regarded it as a place to gather their thoughts and be in solitude. On some occasions, this was a source of tension among participants. In the individual interviews, one of the full-time lecturers offered an insight into the office culture:

Some people sit in a corner at their desk and you don’t hear from them, if there is too much noise, some people block it out or go to the library. I respect that but not everybody is respecting that.

Hugo (full-time lecturer)

Another backstage area that the faculty had been using to unwind from the stresses and strains of the job was the staff coffee room. However, it had recently been closed and the participants expressed disappointment over not having somewhere within the workplace where they could be themselves: ‘The staff room was some little escape and a place for interaction and now we don’t have it as much anymore’: Jack (full-time lecturer). These backstage areas were valued by the participants, who very aware of the drawbacks of having their lounge area close down: ‘In the past at least there was somewhere that we could go and sit for a minute, switch off and have a chat’: Clare (full-time lecturer).

4.5.3 Humour

The use of humour within the workplace was recognised as a positive, with participants giving examples of using humour in their interactions with both students and colleagues. According to one participant:

Humour and jokes relieve the anger, the frustration, disappointment and sometimes the embarrassment that goes along with the job.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

This use of humour as a means to decompress from the job, and recharge the batteries, was paramount. Interactions which were peppered with humour were deemed equally important among colleagues, as well as with students:

As soon as I meet my colleagues from any department, even just for a few minutes, I disconnect because of their humour because of the amusement, their jokes.

Peter (full-time lecturer)

Lecturers used humour for a variety of reasons within their classes. One participant stated that he used humour as a means of enhancing the recall of his students, and changing the pace of the class:

I tend to use humour in class but with another idea in mind, just to make it stick to the students, because sometimes they remember the joke, which means they also remember the thing that went before and after.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

Other participants referred to using humour as a mechanism for dealing within difficult situation within the class:

When I feel it gets into certain situations that I don't want it to go, then humour can help a lot. Difficult situations between students or a cultural kind of a cluster here and there, so I use it just to brighten it up.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

Humour was perceived as having the ability to break the ice and move on:

Sometimes when you crack a joke you restart differently and it makes all the difference because they laugh for 30 seconds.

Declan (part-time lecturer)

Despite the numerous positive examples regarding the usage of humour, some participants were cautious about its usage within the classroom, preferring, instead, to use it when interacting with colleagues. The potential pitfalls associated with using humour in class were flagged by one participant:

I find humour in the class a real double-edged sword. I [would] rather not go there too much, because people take humour in different ways: some

like it and some don't, and are offended by it because they take it personally.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

4.5.4 Strategies for Unwinding

Having the opportunity to vent and discuss the challenges of the job was something that participants found beneficial. Several participants referred to regularly discussing work-related issues with their immediate families. A female participant in one of the focus groups stated that she spoke regularly to her mother and husband. Similarly, a male participant stated that he occasionally discussed work-related problems with his wife: 'I talk things over with my wife and she is really a great sounding board': Alex (part-time lecturer). This comment was expanded on by another male participant, who stated that while he also found talking about this job helpful, he used exercise as a mechanism to unwind:

One way is to speak out and another one is sport. You need to have you know, one point where you can push some energy out.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

A female participant in another focus group expressed the same sentiment stating:

It's probably the first thing that I do as well. Talk to somebody and then go to the gym to work out a little bit.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

Whatever the chosen activity, having the time and opportunity to switch off was viewed as a necessity:

You need some platform to express your emotions, to vent and then you need to be Zen in class.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

Participants referred to other outlets, such as getting an early night's sleep, meditation, swimming, playing with their kids, riding their motorbike, yoga and even acupuncture as methods of unwinding. In addition, a theme that constantly surfaced during the focus group discussions was the benefits derived from talking with colleagues informally, over a beer: 'Talking with colleagues sometimes even over a beer helps': Niall (full-time lecturer). 'I agree that when we have a drink together, that kind of helps decompress': Alan (full-time lecturer).

4.5.5 Taking Time Out

During heated moments within the class, participants spoke of consciously taking time out to gather their thoughts and regain their composure: ‘By giving them an exercise, it allows me not to feel worse because standing up there lecturing takes a lot of energy’: Clare (full-time lecturer). Similar strategies mentioned by other participants consisted of walking around the class and trying to control breathing, in order to refocus:

It calms me down to just leave where I am so that they cannot see me for a second. I can take a few breaths, stand at the back of the class.

Samantha (part-time lecturer)

The use of breathing was also mentioned by one of the interview participants:

I change my breathing and by changing your breathing you change your mood at the moment and just focus on ok what is next, try to make it work.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

4.6 Unexpected Findings – Cultural Diversity

The focus group and interview protocol did not include any questions exploring cultural diversity and EM. However, substantial data emerged resulting in the identification of this theme. A number of participants identified the additional challenges that cultural diversity brought to the job:

In a cross-cultural setting, it makes it a little bit more challenging, more emotionally challenging, because you are dealing with ways of conduct that you don’t know how to process.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

Moreover, the diversity of the student body indirectly made the faculty more sensitive about what they said (and how they said it) during their lectures. This also had implications regarding the appropriateness of humour with the class: ‘We are from different cultures so you have to be careful also that the humour is not offensive to anybody’: Clare (full-time lecturer). Despite any potential negatives, cultural diversity was viewed by most of the participants as a positive challenge but one which demanded greater EM:

When we have this kind of an international institution, it is expected that you are even better or even more open to other cultures and to emotions... you always have to be aware that what you think they are thinking might not be the reality because of their cultural viewpoint and also just because

of their life experience... it makes it more complex to handle the emotions that is for sure.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

4.6.1 Cultural Diversity and Gender

In the first focus group, which coincidentally was composed of only male participants, the relevance of gender and cultural diversity emerged. The students' diverse cultural backgrounds were viewed as an additional challenge for female participants:

We can't forget the origin of our students: some students come from places where men and women are not considered the same.

George (full-time lecturer)

This, in turn, impacted the job, with numerous reports of female lecturers sharing such problems with their male colleagues:

I frequently had feedback from female lecturers, that they don't have the same authority in front of class because they are not respected as much from some of the students as their male colleagues.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

This theme also surfaced in the individual interviews particularly among the male participants:

I think the female faculty are more exposed than their male counterparts because of the diversity of the student body... I think to be a female lecturer in this institution is more difficult, emotionally speaking, than for a male.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

Another male participant offered his insight into this challenge:

Some Asian students, mainly Indian students and also those from Arab countries don't like that a woman is teaching something to them because of their cultural background.

Peter (full-time lecturer)

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter set out to present the findings derived from the three focus groups and 11 semi-structured interviews. It then focused on thematic analysis which was chosen as the primary means of analysing the qualitative data. The rationale behind using thematic analysis was presented and then the main themes derived from the analysis were introduced.

The findings revealed that EL and the management of emotions play a key role in the lecturing profession. The prescriptive and philanthropic categories of the TOWE were the primary motivators behind the faculty performance. Participants reported more positive than negative outcomes with respect to the emotional component of the job. A number of contextual factors were identified as having an influence on the EM performance. The current study also found that the most prominent coping strategies used by participants were backstage areas and humour. Additionally, cultural diversity was an unexpected finding, which the participants felt, made the job more emotionally challenging.

These findings were categorised under the following six themes: EL and lecturing; Motives for engaging in EM; EM outcomes; Contextual factors; Coping strategies; and Cultural diversity. The next chapter focuses on discussing these findings, linking them back to extant literature, and appraising the implications for the case organization, and the lecturing profession.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

The aim of this empirical research was to obtain an understanding of the relative importance of EM for the SPHES and the lecturing profession in general. This chapter serves to combine the collated data, interpret the research findings and link them back to the relevant literature on EM, as well as to the lecturing profession. The discussion focuses around the themes which emerged from the analysis of the empirical data as presented in the previous chapter. The main themes were as follows: EL and lecturing; Motives for engaging in EM; EM outcomes; Contextual factors; Coping strategies; and New findings. Consequently, this chapter addresses the research questions which are restated below.

1. How is EL manifested at the case institution and which EM strategies are utilised by participants on a daily basis?
2. What are the motives behind the EM performance as per Bolton's (2005) TOWE?
3. How does the requirement to engage in EM affect lecturers working in SPHE?
4. What contextual factors impact upon the EM of lecturers?
5. How do participants cope with the EM component of the job?

Table #4, which follows (p.107), provides an overview of the research findings. This research confirms that emotions and their management are an essential element of the lecturing profession within SPHE. There was evidence of EL in action, with participants referring to enacting the various emotion regulation strategies. The current study found that participants also enacted emotion regulation strategies beyond their interactions with their students. This included exchanges with colleagues, management and occasionally external stakeholders (Theme #1). NFE and DA emerged as the preferred regulation strategies. In contrast, SA was not favoured by the participants, who were conscious of its drawbacks. NFE, on the other hand, were considered an enabler, which had the potential to enhance student and faculty relationships. The prescriptive and philanthropic categories of the TOWE were found to be the primary motivators behind the faculty performance (Theme #2).

Participants reported experiencing both positive and negative emotions while doing their job. However, overall there were more positive than negative outcomes associated with the management of emotions (Theme #3). The study has shown that the following contextual factors have an influence on the individual EM of participants: subject area, age and experience, frequency and duration/routineness of interactions, contract type, gender, peer support and individual mind-set (Theme #4). The use of backstage areas and humour were identified as the most important coping strategies used by participants to detach from the job. Surprisingly, these coping strategies also enhanced the level of trust among the faculty and assisted in developing communities of coping (Theme #5). Cultural diversity was regarded as having implications for the EM of participants. This unexpected finding was considered to make the job more challenging (Theme #6).

The significance of these findings, and how they support and contradict the literature, is discussed in greater detail later in this chapter (please see p.140). This is followed by a section addressing the potential implications of the findings for policy and practice. Some recommendations for the case institution and the HE sector in general are presented. The chapter concludes by highlighting the intended dissemination strategy.

Table #4 – Support for the Literature and New Findings

Support for the Literature	New Findings
The current study has confirmed that lecturers engage in EL.	SPHE lecturers actively engage in EM with both internal and external stakeholders.
The emotion regulation strategies of SA, DA and NFE are enacted by lecturers.	NFE was the emotion regulation strategy of choice.
Organizational expectations and the performance management system influenced the EM of faculty.	Prescriptive and philanthropic EM were the main drivers behind the faculty performance.
NFE followed by DA resulted in the most positive outcomes for faculty. SA resulted in predominantly negative outcomes.	EM was linked to more positive than negative outcomes. Teaching effectiveness may be linked to individual proficiency at EM.
Age and experience, frequency and duration/routineness of interactions, gender, individual mind-set has an influence on EM.	Subject area, peer support and contract type also influenced the EM of faculty. In contrast to extant literature, male lecturers actively engaged in philanthropic EM.
The new performance culture within the academic workplace has impacted the EM of faculty. This in turn has restricted the ability for lecturers to enact philanthropic EM.	Backstage areas and humour were the main coping strategies used by the faculty. These in turn appeared to increase the levels of trust among the faculty and fostered the development of communities of coping.
EL is a double-edged sword resulting in both positive and negative outcomes.	Cultural diversity had an impact upon the EM of faculty. Cultural differences had implications for student expectations with regard to their lecturers.
Autonomy and job identity can reduce the negative impacts of EM	The current study validated the TOWE within SPHE and identified that it fails to specify contextual factors and their relevance to EM.
Lecturers use emotions to facilitate learning and to deal with the demands of the job.	The relational component of the lecturing profession within SPHE places significant demands on lecturers to engage in EM.

5.1 Theme #1: Emotional Labour and Lecturing

How is EL manifested at the case institution and which EM strategies are utilised by participants on a daily basis?

The pervasiveness of emotions in the working lives of lecturers was evident throughout the focus group and individual interview data. When asked to identify the characteristics of an effective lecturer, all participants referred to the importance of emotions and the necessity of developing professional social relationships with their students.

The findings confirmed that lecturing within the context of SPHE meets the three criteria for work which demands EL (Hochschild 1983; 2003). Firstly, lecturing at the case institution requires regular, face-to-face contact with the public (students). Moreover, while a significant amount of their time was spent with students, participants also interacted frequently with a variety of other stakeholders, such as colleagues, institution management and occasionally external groups. This suggests that EL within SPHE extends beyond interactions with students and includes interactions with multiple internal and external stakeholders. Secondly, in doing their job, participants are required to stimulate some sort of emotional state (be it positive or negative) in their students, as well as in other stakeholders. This also required self-management of one's own emotions. All of the participants emphasised the necessity of connecting with their students in order to facilitate learning. Commentating on work related emotions, one of the interviewees said:

You have to manage your emotions every day... I think while you are in class you have to keep a certain emotional state from the beginning to the end and that affects and is affected by other people's emotional state.

Jill (part-time lecturer)

Thirdly, the presence of some external controls enabled institutional management to influence the emotional performance of the participants. These were evident in the form of the dominant workplace culture and the various academic policies and procedures. This suggests that power relationships may have an influence on the job requirement to engage in emotion management.

Feelings and emotions appeared to have a notable impact on the perceptions, interactions and sense of identity experienced by the faculty. As well as being conscious of the emotional component of the job, participants used EL to facilitate learning and to cope with work related demands. The three EL strategies as identified throughout the literature, namely SA, DA and NFE, were used to regulate interactions with students and support task performance. There was also evidence of participants enacting emotion regulation strategies beyond their interactions with the public (students). This included exchanges with colleagues, management and external stakeholders. Emotions were regarded as an essential component of the job, and having the potential to impact upon the student learning experience. These findings confirm that emotions and their management are an integral component of lecturing within the SPHEs.

Theme #1 Findings: EL and Lecturing

- Participants working within SPHE engage in EL while interacting with multiple stakeholders.
- SA, DA and NFE are used by faculty to regulate their emotions during these interactions.

In the section that follows, Bolton's (2005) TOWE is used to map the findings and uncover the motives behind the participants' EM. In doing so the three EL strategies as previously identified are examined in greater detail. This will provide an insight into how and when lecturers enact EL, as per the original research questions.

5.2 Theme #2: Motives for Engaging in Emotion Management

What are the motives behind the EM performance as per Bolton's (2005) TOWE?

The most prominent types of EM which emerged from the findings can be framed against the prescriptive and philanthropic categories of Bolton's typology. While the category of pecuniary EM was also evident, at times there was minimal difference between this and prescriptive EM. A possible explanation for this may be the nature of private sector work, which places emphasis on customer satisfaction, resulting in organizations prescribing EM. Nevertheless, the pecuniary category is discussed in its own right.

5.2.1 Pecuniary Emotion Management

This category of the typology refers to EM which is performed primarily for commercial gain. While such commercial feeling rules were not explicit at the case institution, the participants were conscious of occasions when they had to stage the performance and engage in cynical compliance. The pursuit of profit by the SPHEI and the perpetual quest for organizational efficiency, has a knock-on effect for lecturers. It can be argued that the participants at the case institution are indirectly working towards the achievement of commercial goals, be they in the form of positive module evaluations or securing higher student retention rates. Moreover, it is probable that the increasingly competitive nature of the SPHES and the proliferation of more informed and demanding global students have increased the requirement for EM. The current study found that the majority of participants

felt part of their remit was also to help sell the institution. Talking about this issue one focus group participants said:

I think sometimes our students expect this being a private institution to have the opportunity to speak with us and engage with us on a more personal basis.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

Another important finding was that the glitz of marketing materials with promises of high quality interactions between students and faculty set expectations regarding one-to-one contact with lecturers within the SPHES. Surprisingly, there appears to be very little published research exploring student expectations and their impact on the EM of lecturers. Existing accounts fail to emphasise variations in the service expectations of customers within industries, for example, economy versus business class passengers in the airline sector (Hochschild, 1983; Bolton and Boyd, 2003). Undoubtedly, the expectations of economy passengers with any given airline will be dramatically different than those of passengers flying business or first class. The current study found that the marketers' promise combined with the significant financial and emotional investment made by students, set the precedent for high expectations within the SPHES. This in turn may lead to a change in dynamics, whereby the power relationship is in favour of the student. As a result, it is possible that lecturers may be required to engage in SA or DA, to bridge any gap between desired and experienced feelings and emotions.

SA was a strategy that all of the participants at the case institution were aware of. Participants recalled individual classes where their own enthusiasm for the topic may have been low and thus they intentionally used SA to shield that negative emotional display, instead choosing to display passion and energy. However, participants displayed a high level of autonomy and a sense of control regarding any decision taken to 'act in bad faith'. The requirement for any insincere display resulted on some occasions in resistance from the participants, particularly if there were internal conflicts with their values. Such performances were considered to be emotionally exhausting. This result may be partly explained by the fact that SA has been previously linked to dissatisfaction, and to be an underlying cause of 'burnout' in lecturers (Meier, 1999; Zhang and Zhu, 2008). It appeared that the participants from the case institution were neither willing to deceive others nor themselves (Hochschild,

2003). Another possible explanation for this might come from looking at the age of the students, in that older students are more conscious of the ‘politics of the performance’ (Kitching, 2009: 150) and can distinguish between real and inauthentic emotions (Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000). Commenting on faking emotions, one of the focus group participants stated:

I think students would feel it if it does not match. Unless you are a very good actor and you can play it for a very long time but it is difficult. I think you cannot fake in the long run.

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

The ‘customer’ or student demanded an authentic performance, which in itself had connotations for SA. The faking of emotions was also considered as having the potential to negatively impact student evaluations of lecturers’ performance.

As per the extant literature, there was evidence of a tension between categories of the TOWE within the academic workplace, exposing ‘a contested terrain between workers and managers’ (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002: 248; Bolton, 2005). A possible explanation for this might be that the commercialisation of HE has lead to increased measurement and control, and a loss of power among academics. Furthermore, the amount of time that participants spent with their students had an influence on their emotional investment, as it was not considered to be a routine or fleeting encounter (this is discussed under contextual factors, p.127). Participants clearly did not favour using SA as an emotion- regulation strategy. Several examples also emerged where participants described occasionally enacting SA with their peers. The need for self-awareness and regulation of emotions when interacting with colleagues was referred to by some of interviewees: ‘I find it more difficult in terms of emotion management with colleagues’: Hugo (full-time lecturer). There was evidence of participants enacting EL as a result of conflicting perspectives and demands between colleagues. Each of these interactions had been brief and occurred predominantly in formal work settings:

Dealing with colleagues and dealing with students is the same kind of thing... I go to meetings and I get frustrated because of the way people just talk out of context.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

This finding suggests that the requirement to engage in SA may also arise during interactions with internal stakeholders.

Let us now turn to DA which was more frequently enacted by all of the participants. The modification, internalisation and alignment of emotions occurred with the underlying motive being that of 'acting in good faith'. Numerous examples emerged where participants consciously sought to internally experience the desired emotions and control the exterior display to students. Participants were conscious of occasions where they deliberately focused on positive thoughts in order to invoke a positive mood:

Imagine there is a student that failed your exam or assignment, the student is very sad and disappointed. Maybe you also feel a little bit sad – 'oh the poor student'. But expressing this emotion will not help the student, so we should remain positive and tell the student you really need to sit down and study. Being rather positive in spite of thinking 'oh my god this one will never make it.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

In this example, the expression of authentic emotions was deemed unsuitable. The performance of EL was rationalised as being more beneficial for both the student and lecturer. In general, negative emotions were suppressed and positive ones were evoked for a variety of reasons, such as mitigating any negative impact arising from frustration, anger or potential loss of temper. The use of DA as opposed to SA enabled participants to recharge their emotional resources, partially as a result of positive reactions from students. Consequently participants expressed a sense of satisfaction having successfully psyched themselves up and acted in good faith. While it has been argued that most front line employees engage in impression management (Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000), a few of the participants reacted negatively to the analogy of being an actor. The reason for this could be attributed to individual participants not identifying with the role, or a mismatch with the organizational culture (incidentally a number of lecturers have left the case institution since this empirical research was conducted). The next section describes prescriptive EM, which appeared to be more influential than pecuniary EM.

5.2.2 Prescriptive Emotion Management

This category of EM relates to professional codes of conduct and inferred organizational feeling rules. The workplace culture at the case institute and the professional expectations participants placed upon themselves emerged as latent drivers of EM. All of the participants referred to the importance of professionalism and organizational expectations when enacting EM. This outcome is contrary to other research examining lecturers working in the public sector, such as Mahoney *et al.* (2011), who maintained that the EM guidelines that exist for faculty are vague. A common view amongst participants in the current study was that:

There are certain values that one should have and those are also professional values and the expectations of the company and I think expectations of other people.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

This level of professionalism ensured that clear boundaries were developed and that norms were established regarding the lecturer and student dynamic. Prior studies of nurses have shown where professional norms dictate the expressed emotions and ensure distance between patients and the nurses (see literature review pp.35-36, cf. Lewis, 2005). The motivation behind the enactment of these feeling rules and norms, in the current study, was linked to participants' professional identity and the dominant corporate culture, as opposed to any financial reward. Professional conduct and the display of positive emotions were considered as an enabler in doing the job, in that they enhanced student learning and increased levels of trust.

In addition, some participants spoke of a higher cause and displayed a real sense of purpose in what they were doing. Such a viewpoint espoused professional expectations and a strong role identity:

Teaching is a noble profession... we might sometimes not even imagine how important we are and how much influence we have on these young people.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

This strong sense of role identity has been shown to mitigate any negatives associated with EM, particularly that of EL (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). Additionally, there was extensive evidence of participants expressing and suppressing their emotions, in line with

what they viewed as professional expectations. Consistent with the literature on professional occupations (Harris, 2002; Lewis, 2005; Filstad, 2010), the suppression of inappropriate emotions was taken to be the professional norm, even without the presence of a direct supervisor. The expression of inappropriate emotions was considered as having the potential to hinder student learning:

You have a responsibility towards the students to deliver the material in a professional way with good relations. Emotions should not interfere with that transaction.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

It has been argued that lecturers cannot be professional without EL, and therefore EL could be regarded as a basic characteristic of professionals working lives (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). In the current study, the professional identity of the participants was intertwined with the taken-for-granted assumptions regarding the ‘the way we do things around here’. Incidentally, all of the lecturers and students at the institution were expected to wear formal business attire while on campus. This had symbolic connotations regarding the espoused professional image of the institution, both internally and externally. While the presence of organizational guidelines or rewards related to EM was not overtly evident, there did appear to be latent norms in place, which the majority of participants were conscious of. Further reading suggests that the expression of negative emotions can be regarded by employees themselves as unprofessional. A study of student nurses by Bolton (2000b: 583) revealed that ‘to show feelings of anger, distaste, or sorrow’ was perceived to be unprofessional. The findings reported here suggest that letting the mask slip can have implications for lecturers’ professionalism and could negatively impact student learning.

Another aspect of the performance culture at the case institution was the introduction of a formal performance management system which served to influence and guide employee behaviour. This consisted of a version of 360-degree feedback, whereby lecturers were evaluated by their students, their peers and line manager, as well as completing a self-evaluation. This process was met with disdain by some participants, who viewed it cynically, arguing that management used it coercively as a tool to intensify the job and add to their already burgeoning workload. Student evaluations were also contested by some participants, particularly because they had the potential to influence career opportunities and progression:

We do not know what is at the end of these evaluations if we have good evaluations and good observations in class. Thank you very much, everything is super, great, thank you, this is your average and that is it.

Hugo (full-time lecturer)

The use of management tools to create performance measures have been identified not just as a source of stress for lecturers but also as an indicator of the EL required by institutions who seek to make the capture and control the academic labour process (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Constanti, 2008).

The emergence of such a performance culture within the SPHES can be viewed as both positive and negative. While it can increase performance and ensure consistency, it also has the potential to dilute the softer or more emotional side of the lecturing profession. Undoubtedly, the increasing prescription and control of on-the-job behaviours by institution management limit the autonomy of lecturers. In addition this could also lead to a greater demand for SA and EL. The data gathered for the current study suggests that the enforcement of stifling performance measures and institutional policies in the quest for standardization increases the likelihood of emotional dissonance and increased stress. It also runs the risk of eroding the uniqueness, individuality and spontaneity of each lecturer's teaching style. The setting of benchmarks and standards for performance is important, but when such standards impede the natural emotional climate of the classroom, are they really doing a service to the lecturers and the students whom they seek to benefit? Some participants were particularly critical of the performance management system and had concerns about the pressure that it placed on new lecturers:

For new lecturers' maybe it is more pressure because they are judged upon it, they take this as a control rather than being an evaluation as a form of feedback

Jack (full-time lecturer)

It has been suggested that the influence of such formal evaluation systems can diminish over time, as employees become more experienced on the job (Bolton, 2005). The present study raises the possibility that lecturers within the case institution develop EM skills with practice and on-the-job experience. For long service employees, the seemingly effortless behaviour of enacting organizational feeling rules may become a reflex action. The findings also revealed instances where participants blatantly ignored or reinterpreted the institution guidelines if

they did not fit with their own values/belief systems, particularly when related to student learning. It can be argued that management and labour power relationships may not be as one-sided as the literature suggests. The challenge for lecturers is to balance the potential conflict between the pecuniary and prescriptive components of their job in order to ensure high student satisfaction and retention figures, as well as job security.

The EL strategy of choice enacted by all of the participants was authenticity or NFE. This is an important finding, which implies that commercial criteria are not the main driver behind the EM performance, and that lecturers consciously give their emotions as a gift. In the next section, the enactment of NFE is described, using Bolton's category of philanthropic EM. As is explained, the rationale for participants choosing to engage in this form of EM rarely derived from any underlying financial motive.

5.2.3 Philanthropic Emotion Management

When does a lecturer choose to go beyond the organizational and professional rules of conduct and give something more? All of the lecturers who participated in the interviews and focus groups emphasised a philanthropic approach towards the job. They demonstrated empathetic behaviour, showing compassion, sympathy and a genuine caring attitude towards their students. According to one participant, being accessible to students was paramount:

A lecturer always should be approachable by students, not only during lectures but also after or before lectures.

Hugo (full-time lecturer)

This statement demonstrates how participants viewed their job as having a nurturing component similar to studies of other caring professions, such as nursing and care workers (Lewis, 2005; Lopez, 2006). While the day-to-day classroom activities may have relied on prescriptive and professional feeling rules, most of the participants working at the case institution regularly went beyond any espoused organizational or professional expectations and gave that little bit more. This occurred spontaneously, principally on a one-to-one basis with students, and took precedent over any organizational or professional rules. This finding confirms NFE as a viable EL strategy (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005) and thus offers a new insight into the EM of lecturers in the SPHES.

The current study found that participants favoured using this strategy, instinctively displaying NFE to counsel and comfort, as well as offering individual advice to students. This discretion, combined with high levels of trust, meant that students felt secure confiding in their lecturers on a broad spectrum of personal issues, from the break-up of relationships, family bereavements, to struggles related to adapting to life in Switzerland. It appeared that the emotional availability of lecturers was vital and surpassed any contractual obligations, arising instead from an innate desire to assist and nurture students through a bespoke, professional friendship.

One unanticipated finding was that when it came to the counselling and mentoring of students, there were no apparent differences between the genders. Unlike previous studies of male lecturers (further reading: Statham, Richardson, and Cook, 1991), the male participants in this study went beyond the prescriptive norms and were open to engaging with students on personal matters:

I have always had students come to me with very personal problems. I'm not going to solve their problems, but they know that I can listen to them.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

The findings reported here suggest that, to a certain extent, lecturers at the case institution adopted the role of a surrogate parent or relative. Some participants explicitly referred to identifying with the parental role, and expressed a strong desire to engage in this form of EM. One male focus group participant said:

Students tell me, ah 'Mr. Lec3 you are like my father, so strict or so nice'... They approach you with certain problems as well... I am like a father role and students say this to me... Each student has different problems that matter, 'can I talk with you about this and that?'

Ben (full-time lecturer)

In addition, a small number of participants referred to the challenges that their own children encountered, and were acutely aware of the culture shock faced by some students when they came to study in Switzerland.

Despite this familial approach, all of the participants were conscious of the professional boundaries that were fundamental to doing the job, and therefore ensured that a critical

distance was maintained. One participant made the distinction between the dual roles that he felt were part of the job, and stated that at times he struggled to reconcile them:

Role number one of course is as the teacher but role number two is also the friend and I always try to make a difference between these two roles.

Alex (part-time lecturer)

This finding suggests the presence of ‘a dual consciousness’ (Collinson, 1992, cited in Lewis, 2005) within the lecturing profession, where at times participants struggle to balance professional and organizational values. It is possible that this inherent conflict between organizational values and professional expectations is intensified by having to cater for the demands of multiple stakeholders within SPHE. However, there was an overriding sense of control, on the part of the participants, related to the enactment of philanthropic EM. Participants displayed the ability to flex their style, switching from one type of EM to another, depending on the situation. These findings enhance our understanding of the vast array of complex individual choices made by lecturers on a daily basis, regarding feeling rules and the appropriate emotional display. This lends further support to the idea that lecturers are multi-skilled emotion managers who have multiple work related identities which enable them to respond to the diverse emotional state of students.

The majority of lecturers who participated in this research stated that the display of NFE was fundamental to being genuine and true to one’s values:

Personally I think it is very important, especially as a lecturer, that you should be honest, open and just be yourself and not play a role.

Jack (full-time lecturer)

This is in contrast to research conducted into staff from other professions, such as barristers (Harris, 2002), where the expression of authentic emotions was considered to be unprofessional. The participants in this research were more at ease expressing their natural emotions, and were also of the belief that students would detect any inauthentic display:

I think you need to be yourself... you should be natural. It needs to be in harmony and I think that students feel it if you are in a totally different mood than what your body expresses.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

It has been argued that organizations prefer the enactment of authentic emotions over SA and DA, because customers (including students) can tell the difference between real and inauthentic emotions (Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000; Kitching, 2009). The sense of authenticity expressed by the participants had a knock-on effect on their openness and enthusiasm to engage in philanthropic EM. If the required performance was in sync with their own values, this fuelled their desire to engage in philanthropic EM, and gave them a greater sense of satisfaction and fulfilment.

The performance culture at the case institution seemed at times to restrict participants' ability to perform philanthropic EM. A number of participants were of the opinion that the intensification of the job impeded their time, and thus limited their capacity to engage in this form of EM. This corroborates the findings of previous work on a range of professions, such as cabin crew, teaching and call centre workers, which showed that job related demands can marginalise employees' ability to engage in philanthropic EM (Callaghan and Thomson, 2002; Bolton and Boyd, 2003; Hebson *et al.*, 2007). The performance management system at the case study institution focused on hard data in a bid to capture percentages, indicating overall student satisfaction. The softer side of the job, and the individual relationships which lecturers developed with their students, were not emphasised. As a result, this emerged as a source of stress for some participants (this is discussed later in the chapter under the theme of 'Negative Outcomes', p.123). Further reading suggests that a lack of recognition and appreciation of emotion work as a potential organization asset is not uncommon within the workplace (Steinberg and Figart, 1999). Guy and Newman (2004: 289) argue that:

Acts that grease the wheels so that people cooperate, stay on task, and work well together are essential for job completion, but they are rewarded more with a pat on the back than with money.

While philanthropic EM may not be directly emphasised or overtly valued by the institution management, it has significant potential to enhance student/lecturer relations, which can, in turn, positively influence student satisfaction and retention rates. Moreover, the findings suggest that the capacity to connect with students is at the core of effective lecturing. Being able to foster a relationship with students, where there is an exchange of emotions based on trust, can have a positive impact on the reputation and effectiveness of a lecturer. Furthermore, it has been suggested in studies of public sector universities that encouraging lecturers to express genuine positive emotions can result in greater levels of employee

attachment (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). It is plausible that such connections also exist within the SPHES.

Despite the organizational neglect of philanthropic EM in the current study, participants valued the opportunity to engage in sincere interactions. Moreover, they derived job satisfaction and fulfilment from spontaneously engaging in philanthropic EM, and were at ease in expressing their NFE. This also extended to some interactions among colleagues, whereby there was evidence of participants going the extra mile during social exchanges. There was a sense of community among the faculty, with common challenges and objectives being identified by the majority of the participants. This was instrumental in the development of the supportive working atmosphere:

It is like we know we have to work hard, we know that we have to deliver; we know we have stressful moments... but everybody is in the same boat and we are going to the same point.

George (full-time lecturer)

Participants demonstrated a philanthropic attitude towards their peers, offering emotional support to one another whenever required. This was evidenced in the creation of informal ‘communities of coping’ (Korczynski, 2003), where participants voluntarily gave of themselves, enacting philanthropic EM in a bid to assist their colleagues. These interactions occurred in offstage areas, and were not formally recognised by management. (This is discussed in greater detail under the theme of ‘Coping Strategies’, p.145).

Theme #2 Findings: Motives for Engaging in EM

- SA and its associated category of pecuniary EM were not favoured by the participants.
- While DA was the preferred emotion regulation strategy, NFE was the participants’ strategy of choice.
- Prescriptive and philanthropic EM emerged as the primary motivators behind the performance.

5.3 Theme #3: Emotion Management Outcomes

How does the requirement to engage in EM affect lecturers working in SPHE?

The findings revealed that participants experienced both positive and negative emotions while doing their job. This suggests that EM within the lecturing profession can result in both pleasure and pain. While it was not unusual for participants to voice both positive and negative comments, overall the outcomes associated with the management of emotions were viewed more favourably.

5.3.1 Positive Outcomes

The majority of lecturers who participated in this study experienced job satisfaction from the social interaction with students and colleagues, as well as the emotional component associated with the profession. Reference was frequently made to the excitement, enthusiasm and passion which were intertwined with lecturing. One interview participant remarked:

I have inspiration here, for me it is the main emotion when I see the results of my efforts; it inspires me

Rachel (part-time lecturer)

The findings consistently confirmed a highly committed faculty who were actively engaged and enjoyed the social aspect of their job. Another recurrent discussion point revolved around the joy associated with the learning and development of students, and the sense of fun associated with teaching. One focus group participant emphasised the satisfaction he derived from witnessing student progress:

I feel a certain amount of gratitude to be able to open their eyes to something new. It's exciting to watch them grow and learn new things at such a pivotal point in their lives.

Karen (part-time lecturer)

In the current study, the level of satisfaction experienced by the participants increased when they interacted with enthusiastic classes that were composed of cooperative and participative students. This finding correlates with research into customer service agents, which found a greater sense of authenticity among employees when they interacted with upbeat, open, cooperative and friendly customers (Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000). The sense of authenticity expressed by the participants in this research positively impacted their job satisfaction.

It has been suggested that lecturers who flourish with the teaching component of the job may be oblivious to any demands for a performance (Bellas, 1999). For these lecturers, teaching could very well be a means of replenishment and a source of wealth, in terms of the positive emotions experienced. The faculty at the case institution engaged predominantly in teaching activities (with the exception of administrative duties), with research activities playing a minor role. This nominal focus on research appears to have contributed to an organizational culture that emphasises good teaching. This, in turn, has implications for the motivations of faculty staff that choose to work there. It is possible, therefore, that strong identification with the role of being a teacher has led to the experience of more positive emotions among the faculty.

The participants at the case institution consciously used emotions to assist them in doing their job and in facilitating learning. This entailed appropriate levels of emotional expression and suppression, dependent on the situation. Some participants spoke of concealing negative emotions to ensure that they conformed to expected role displays, particularly when classes lacked interest and enthusiasm:

I think it is always about adapting to reality, what is the best way to deliver your content in a given time, given your mood and the mood and situation of the students as well.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

The expression of NFE and positive emotions was regarded as critical when it came to motivating students and enhancing learning. The practice of EL was used as a means of successful service delivery, and to ensure that the mask did not slip. Incidentally, it has been argued that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction rely more on authentic emotions and avoid SA (Grandey, 2003). Furthermore, in the current study, the ability to effectively manage their emotions had positive outcomes for both lecturers and students.

Interestingly, teaching effectiveness at the case institution appeared to be contingent on participants' emotions and the rapport that was established with their students, which, in turn, impacted these emotions. Time invested in informal student mentoring, be it in the form of career advice or philanthropic EM, was viewed favourably by all of the participants, who considered it empowering. They displayed a sense of concern and empathy towards their students and expressed gratification at having being able to assist students in matters not only

related to academic work. Similar to studies of FE teachers (Robson and Bailey, 2009), participants in the current study derived satisfaction from establishing these professional relationships, and engaging in one-to-one mentoring. Nurturing and caring were considered as fundamental to the job, but also innate to the individual and professional identities of the participants.

The faculty exuded a sense of pride and excitement when reminiscing about former students and their subsequent success in the workplace. The vast majority of the participants had at one point been contacted by former students who had updated them on their lives and career progression. These stories were a source of heartfelt pride and satisfaction, with several participants voicing that they felt in some way they had a part to play in that success. This seems to be consistent with research into public sector workers, which reported that pride in one's work was a positive outcome linked to EL (Guy *et al.*, 2008).

The expression of genuine positive emotions was related to the greatest sense of satisfaction, with some participants reporting that they were energised by their job, despite the fact that there was no associated financial reward. It is possible, therefore, that when lecturers bring their authentic identities to the job, any requirement to engage in EL is easier. This, in turn, could lead to emotional equilibrium, whereby the expression of genuine positive emotions is aligned with the perceived display rules. From an organizational standpoint, the optimum outcome is that of increased student satisfaction and higher levels of student retention. Overall, these findings make an important contribution by validating NFE (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005) as an EL strategy within the lecturing profession.

5.3.2 Negative Outcomes

The negative emotions reported by the participants corroborate some of the findings of previous research into lecturing (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). Participants reported feeling anxious, frustrated, angry, fearful, and disappointed, and were conscious of the stress, risk of burnout and the psychic costs associated with teaching. A common view among participants was that at times there was a propensity to take work-related issues home. This further emphasises the necessity for lecturers to manage both their own emotions and those of others. Work-related issues and emotions occasionally infiltrated

the home environment in the guise of anxiety, stress, loss of temper and even lack of sleep.

One interview participant felt that:

If the negative emotions are strong enough, definitely it can affect the rest of your life and the life outside... there is something there that makes you have less tolerance for whatever happens outside, have less patience with even more frustration and anxiety.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

In addition, on occasions the intensification of the job had an impact on the amount of time some lecturers spent with their families and engaged in social activities. Feelings of frustration were expressed by all of the participants, particularly when discussing unmotivated students and misbehaviour. This resulted in one or two incidents, where participants expressed authentic negative emotions and let their frustration get the better of them. The impact of expressing authentic negative emotions was clear to see. For example, one focus group participant commented:

I have let things get to me to the point that I have yelled at students. It is a hard thing to recover from.

Karen (part-time lecturer)

The majority of the participants felt that any apparent lapse in self-control, or the use of an inappropriate emotional tone, could lead to students punishing them through negative module evaluations. This suggests that maintaining expectations regarding professionalism is in itself an emotionally demanding task. Frustration was also on occasion triggered by passive or unmotivated students, students talking together during class, and the unsanctioned use of technology:

What makes me the most stressed or to have the worst day is when the class is passive, not active. When I ask questions for example... it's not about getting the right answers, it's a matter of participation.

George (full-time lecturer)

These negative experiences left participants drained, which implies that for lecturers, these elements of EL are as tiring as physical work. Despite this, all of the participants regarded these interactions as a learning experience and a job-related challenge.

Surprisingly, frustration was also experienced when dealing with students who gave too much in class: the relentless questioners. This, at times, caused the lecture to digress and required more energy and self-control from the participants to get the class back on track. However, in contrast to previous studies of front line employees (Korczyński, 2003), the participants in the study reported feeling angry only a handful of times. They were drawn to discussing the positives associated with the job, regarding any negative forces as a counterbalance. Issues related to discipline were considered as minimal in comparison to other colleges. One interviewee attributed this to the fact that the institution was private:

Because we are in a private college, I think for me personally students have good respect for lecturers, and it probably has something to do with their socioeconomic background.

Jill (part-time lecturer)

Interestingly strong levels of cooperation and engagement among customers and students have been associated with an array of positive emotions and have the potential to increase job satisfaction (Ashforth and Tomiuk, 2000; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014).

Another important EM challenge which emerged from the data was that of class dynamics. Each class was unpredictable, therefore participants could never tell what emotions might arise and have to be suppressed or expressed. It made no difference whether the same material was delivered, or if the style of teaching was consistent. Each class was like a new audience, with variables such as the group of students, the class time, and the allocated room having a part to play in the dynamic and the types of emotions encountered. This further reflects the social nature of lecturing within SPHE, and confirms the requirement for lecturers to be skilled at flexing their emotions.

Concerns were also expressed regarding the learning and development of students. Participants stated that at times they felt anxious about whether or not their students would be capable of passing exams, assignments or completing their thesis. In the current study, the thought of students failing their course left participants with feelings of disappointment and sadness, and at times caused them to question their professional capacity to deliver the material effectively. Even though some personal factors were out of their control, and limited the assistance they could provide, this did little to alleviate the sense of concern and worry experienced by the participants. For the faculty in this research, their relationships with

students were equally important as achieving their educational goals. This was central to their sense of personal identity and professionalism.

As previously mentioned, the performance evaluation system was a source of stress for some of the faculty, who felt that their capability was being challenged and that their autonomy had been diminished by the process. A number of participants spoke of their discomfort at being appraised by their students via a module feedback questionnaire. They were critical of the process, and argued that such surveillance mechanisms resulted in an unequal distribution of power. A possible explanation for this might be the recent paradigm shift from student to customer, particularly in the context of private education. Moreover, the ability for students to negatively rate their lecturers has been identified throughout the literature as a potential source of pressure for lecturers (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). It is possible that as management attempts to exert control over the EM process, the balance of power is disrupted in the 'emotional labour triangle' (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004),

It appeared that the underlying profit motive of the case institution placed value on numeric measurement and the conformity of the performance with the espoused institutional values. This caused some participants to engage in SA, whereby they attempted to present a uniform performance, devoid of any spontaneity, in order to meet the requirements of the evaluation system and achieve any associated rewards. The suppression of negative feelings and emotions has been previously identified as causing frustration among lecturers (Constanti and Gibbs, 2004). The EL demands of the job seemed at times to be a source of stress for the participants. One unanticipated finding was there was little or no reference made to any positive evaluations received as a result of participants engaging in philanthropic EM. This caring, nurturing and individualised approach to lecturing appeared to be undervalued and invisible, in terms of the performance measures and associated rewards.

The majority of the lecturers who participated in this study were aware of the negative connotations of SA and the risk of 'burnout'. As a result, they regarded SA only as a viable short-term strategy, but one which all of them had used. There were instances where participants struggled to uphold their demeanour, but demonstrated restraint and regulated their emotions by redefining the situation:

From time to time we do have that moment of disrespect. What do you do about that? Because that's where your buttons are being pushed and that's where you have to take the breath and master the moment and not lose it.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

This use of breathing, as described above, is evidence of DA in action, and provides some insight into individual coping strategies. Overall, participants engaged more frequently in DA than SA, and showed a clear preference for the display of authentic positive emotions. The enactment of these two EL strategies, in conjunction with their level of job autonomy and sense of role identity, helped to alleviate the negative outcomes, resulting in greater levels of job satisfaction.

Theme #3 Findings: EM Outcomes

- EM was linked to more positive than negative outcomes for the participants.
- The display of NFE, followed by DA, resulted in the most favourable outcomes for participants. SA was predominantly linked to negative outcomes.
- This study raises the possibility that EM could be an important factor in teaching effectiveness.

5.4 Theme # 4: Contextual Factors

What contextual factors impact upon the EM of lecturers?

The research findings confirmed that the following contextual factors need to be considered when examining the EM of lecturers: Subject area; Frequency and duration/routineness of interactions; Contract type; Gender; Age and experience; Peer support; and Individual mind-set. While it may be argued that these factors are unique to the institution in question, I maintain that they have a fundamental significance for the education sector at large. The generic nature of these factors implies that they may be applicable to faculty staff in a broad range of academic institutions. Additionally, these variables may strengthen Bolton's (2005) TOWE, which fails to address the importance of such contextual factors.

5.4.1 The Subject Area

An unanticipated finding was that the subject area in which a lecturer specialised impacted the level of emotional display required to connect with the students. Certain disciplines were

considered as demanding a greater emotional investment to teach, with some participants referring to students who were intimidated by their subject area and had established a mental learning block. Learner resistance among students was thought to be more prevalent in subjects related to numbers, for example statistics, finance and accounting. As a result, teaching these subjects demanded more positive emotional display and a greater investment of energy, in order to get the students on side and be more open to learning. One focus group participant emphasised that:

My first concern is how can I get these students to actually like my subject because I know that in their mind they are thinking ‘I don’t like this’... at the beginning I feel a bit disadvantaged because of the subject that I teach.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

Being proficient in one’s subject area was no guarantee to conducting a successful lecture, as the main challenge was to transmit that knowledge by ensuring that students were interested and motivated accordingly. The level of emotional engagement required varied on a class-by-class basis and was contingent on the subject area and the individual lecturer’s experience. This finding offers an important insight into the significance of teaching specialisations, when it comes to the performance of EM. So far, however, there has been minimal discussion about this within the literature on EM and lecturing.

5.4.2 Frequency and Duration/Routineness of Interactions

While the participants at the case institution interacted with students in class on average four hours per day, class time was not the only occasion where participants encountered their students. In contrast to research conducted in public university settings (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), the current study found longer and more frequent periods of interaction between lecturers and students. This included a greater requirement to engage in EM beyond the traditional lecture hall or classroom exchange. The size of the college and the relatively small classes (approximately 20-25) was influential in enriching the relationship between students and their lecturers. The lecturers got to know their students quite well and would regularly meet them in the corridors, the cafeteria and even the faculty office.

The literature suggests that interactions of significant time duration demand greater investment in EL (Morris and Feldman, 1996) and, in turn, that longer, less routine interactions can result in employees attempting to feel the required emotion (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005). The findings reported here suggest that the development of longer-term relationships with students influenced participants' propensity to engage in DA and express NFE, as opposed to SA. Another possible explanation for this was that the students got to know their lecturers quite well over the term, and therefore were more adept at detecting insincere performances. What is curious about this finding is that participants believed that DA and NFE positively impacted the level of trust that students placed in them. This simultaneously increased the openness of the faculty to engage in philanthropic EM.

5.4.3 Contract Type

Another moderator of EM emerging from the data was contract type, as in whether a participant was employed on a full- or part-time basis. This was deemed to impact the requirement and frequency to engage in EM. Full-time participants maintained that they interacted with their students on a more frequent basis and had less opportunity to detach from the job:

Of course as a full-time lecturer you are here the whole day on campus, you are in the office, you are here at lunchtime and on the breaks and you have more possibilities to interact with the students outside the class.

George (full-time lecturer)

Hence, it could conceivably be hypothesised that full-time lecturers are required to invest greater effort and enact EL on a more regular basis, as they have more frequent and intense interactions with students. According to one interviewee, in comparison to their part-time colleagues, full-time lecturers '...face the crisis point more often': Tony (full-time lecturer). However part-time faculty had greater flexibility in coming and going from the institution, as they had set teaching hours. Commenting on this issue, one focus group participant said:

I believe that working part-time makes a big difference and reduces emotional stress considerably. It gives me time to breathe and makes teaching much more enjoyable.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

This was not the case for full-time participants, who were expected to be at the institution from 8:00am until 5:00pm. Despite this, there was a consensus that when it came to

classroom management, administrative duties and correction deadlines, the EM requirement of the job was the same.

Being a part-time lecturer also came with its own set of challenges, such as financial concerns regarding sufficient hours, the pressure associated with teaching at multiple institutions and the reality of having to take work home in the evening and weekends. Part-time participants regarded not having regular informal interactions with students as a disadvantage, as to do so would enable them to strengthen the student/lecturer relationship. They were also disappointed at not having sufficient opportunities to socialise with their colleagues and, at times, felt a sense of isolation on the job. This highlights the importance of social interactions, as well as peer support within the lecturing profession.

5.4.4 Gender

Consistent with the literature on gender and EL, the participants felt that female lecturers at the case institution were more open and expressive with their emotions than their male counterparts. The caring element of the job resonated with all the female participants, with statements such as ‘...teaching is a very nurturing job’: Samantha (part-time lecturer) and ‘gender could be in a way a factor in the emotional side of the job, as women tend to be more caring’: Jill (part-time lecturer). In addition, the female participants were considered to be more susceptible to the negative consequences of EL than their male colleagues. One male interviewee remarked that women have ‘a tendency of taking things personally’: Jack (full-time lecturer). This may reflect what Bolton (2007: 19-20) refers to as the paradox of the professionalization process, in that:

The accepted masculine codes that make up the ‘competent’ and ‘professional’ teacher contradict the profession’s reliance on emotion codes such as nursing, caring and so on.

The gendered codes of the profession had implications for the expected professionalism of the performance and, according to one male participant, impacted levels of authority within the classroom:

I have frequently had feedback from female lecturers that they don’t have the same authority in front of class because they are not as much respected [by] some of the students [as] their male colleagues.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

One female participant explicitly referred to constantly having to work hard in order to win over a class and demonstrate her capabilities to the students:

I have the feeling that I have to prove myself every time in class.
Especially at the beginning, I have to gain their confidence.

Susan (full-time lecturer)

It has been suggested that women are the main ‘emotional labour specialists’ (Hochschild, 1983; 2003). This does not appear to be exclusively the case in the current study, as male participants proactively engaged in EM and openly dealt with the personal issues of students. There were numerous examples where male participants exceeded the gendered expectations of the profession and went the extra mile to offer advice, assist or comfort their students. For example, one male focus group participant emphasised the *caritas* component of the job, stating:

I have always had students come to me with very personal problems. I’m not going to solve their problems but they know that I can listen to them.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

Another male participant remarked:

I am like a father role and students say this to me... Each student has different problems that matter.

Ben (full-time lecturer)

The majority of male participants openly displayed NFE, adopting a nurturing discourse towards their students. Similar to the findings of previous research into the teaching profession (Hebson *et al.*, 2007), male lecturers went beyond the masculine ‘goal oriented’ code of lecturing in favour of the more feminine code of ‘caring’, choosing to enact philanthropic EM. This finding is contrary to previous studies, which have suggested that female lecturers are the ‘emotional moppers’ in HE (Koster, 2011: 72). This challenges the gendered stereotypes of women and men within the literature, and suggests that the impact of gender is not as clear cut when it comes to the EM of faculty within SPHE.

5.4.5 Age and Experience

Lecturing experience was considered an advantage, particularly when it came to dealing with the challenges of the job, such as teaching subjects that were regarded as demanding. Confidence was developed with on-the-job experience and was thought to be an important facet of being a competent lecturer. Confidence levels were also enhanced by a participant's relative comfort with the material being taught. Participants were in agreement that the students had the ability to detect any lack of confidence and, as such, were quick to notice any signs of weakness:

When I started first I felt that the students were testing me. My second semester was different because they had seen me in the corridors and the ones that I had for the first semester talked to them.

Tony (full-time lecturer)

Almost all of the participants in this study referred to the nerves and anxiety associated with lecturing, particularly at the start of their career. Insecurity, anxiety and nerves were a day-to-day reality for the newcomers to the profession:

... as a young teacher... you have to face a kind of mistrust. You have to prove yourself.

Clare (full-time lecturer)

While this was thought to decrease with on-the-job experience and age, nerves to a certain extent were always present. For example, the start of a new term was associated with a sense of anxiety and excitement among participants. The challenges of connecting with a new group of students and meeting learning objectives triggered nerves and anxiety amongst most of the participants. This illustrates both the social nature and emotional practice of the lecturing profession. It also suggests that new faculty at the case institution would benefit from having support in dealing with the emotional component of the job. Interestingly, research into other professional occupations, for example solicitors (Westaby, 2010), also found that on-the-job experience was an influencing factor in the EM performance.

5.4.6 Peer Support

Peer support provided participants with an opportunity to defuse and share their feelings and emotions. Backstage areas fostered the establishment of informal 'communities of coping' (Korczynski, 2003), where faculty acted as willing participants offering emotional support to

one another. These informal group interactions are believed to reduce the negative effects of EM, alleviate job-related stress and positively impact staff retention (Lewis, 2005). The benefit of talking through issues with colleagues was identified by all of the participants in this empirical research. For example, one participant said:

That to me is a great therapy, just to talk about it. And when you say it out loud to somebody, you realise that it really is not that big of a deal.

Karen (part-time lecturer)

This collegial support was the bedrock of the informal culture which consisted of a sense of friendship, community, common objectives and challenges. In addition, there was evidence of a positive emotional contagion (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995) associated with these familial relationships.

In comparison to front line employees featured in other research (Hochschild, 1983; Korczynski, 2003), the faculty at the case institution experienced minimal anger, aggression or abuse from customers (students). Nevertheless, participants appeared to take satisfaction from ‘getting things off their chest’ and were energised by discussing their frustrations and the negative elements associated with the job. The discussions varied from complaining about the conflicting demands of EM, the curriculum, burgeoning workloads, institution management, to bad class experiences and even individual students. These ‘offstage’ discussions enabled the mask to be removed and the professional rules to be temporarily cast aside. This, in turn, enhanced the participants’ ability to maintain their professional identity ‘when on stage’. What is surprising is that these informal discussions also provided an opportunity for the faculty to learn from one another, and develop a sense of best practice regarding an array of topics, from dealing with disruptive students, individual teaching strategies, to how to deal with difficult emotions. This finding broadly supports studies on nurses and paramedics (Lewis, 2005; Filstad, 2010), in that informal learning and sharing of knowledge was contingent on the development of open and trusting relationships.

The current study revealed a real sense of camaraderie among the faculty, who considered their fellow lecturers as friends. Colleagues were considered to experience similar feelings and emotions, and share the same highs and lows associated with the job ‘...everybody is in the same boat and we are going to the same point’: George (full-time lecturer). This finding

is contrary to previous studies of lecturers employed at large public universities, which found that lack of teamwork and social isolation were common (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). The current study highlights the importance of collegial relationships when it comes to the management of emotions. Furthermore, it raises the possibility that communities of coping at the case institution are in fact examples of philanthropic EM, whereby emotional support is offered freely as a reciprocal ‘gift’ to colleagues.

5.4.7 Individual Mind-set

All of the participants recognised the importance of an individual mind-set and the need for a positive outlook. This was considered to be important in dealing with both the short- and long-term emotional demands of the job. As one participant put it, ‘I try to think that tomorrow will be a new day. It will be better. I try to think positive’: Amanda (part-time lecturer). On an individual level, a number of participants referred to using humour as a means of detaching and reenergising, as well as stimulating a positive mind-set.

One unanticipated finding was that the majority of the participants stated that they found the interview and focus group discussions very beneficial. Several participants specifically referred to them as ‘therapeutic’. Numerous other benefits were associated with faculty sharing their personal experiences, from an enhanced sense of community, to more effective teaching through the informal sharing of best practice. Overall, the focus group discussions had a positive impact on the individual mind-set of participants, who sought to replicate the process in the future.

Theme #4 Findings: Contextual Factors

The following seven factors were identified as important moderators in the EM of faculty staff;

1. Subject area.
2. Age and experience.
3. Frequency and duration/routineness of interactions.
4. Contract type.
5. Gender.
6. Peer support.
7. Individual mind-set.

5.5 Theme #5: Coping Strategies

How do participants cope with the EM component of the job?

The findings challenge the belief that organizations have the ability to appropriate and control employees' emotions, and suggest that unmanaged spaces occur within the academic workplace. On numerous occasions, participants at the case institution resisted the requirement to engage in EL. They consciously rebelled against the organization, choosing to subvert or reinterpret the rules:

Honestly, I don't care about the rules and regulations and schedules. I am on time, of course, it is very important for me not to be late but it has nothing to do with regulations because for me it's a value. So I don't care very much about that.

Karl (part-time lecturer)

This finding may be explained as a conscious effort made by participants to protect themselves from the negative impacts of EL. The majority of participants mainly used the following strategies to detach and deal with the EM challenges of the job: backstage areas and the use of humour. These techniques served as an emotional shield to reduce stress and make the job more enjoyable.

5.5.1 Backstage Areas

The absence of formal support mechanisms resulted in backstage areas being the main place where faculty switched off, vented to one another and expressed emotions that would normally be considered unprofessional. Informal discussions took place in a variety of settings, from the faculty office, the lunch table to the local bar. All of the participants considered the faculty office to be an important backstage area where they could switch off. Several of the participants affectionately referred to it as their 'haven': 'I really find sanctuary in the lecturers' office': Tony (part-time lecturer). These backstage areas offered a safe environment where the participants could reveal their true selves, take some time out and 'blow off some steam', thereby releasing any pent up anger, frustration or resentment. This enabled participants to recharge their emotional batteries before venturing back on stage. According to one interviewee:

You need some platform to express your emotions, to vent and then you need to be Zen in class.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

Several of the participants also referred to the use of breathing as a means of recalibrating and managing their feelings: ‘I change my breathing and by changing your breathing you change your mood at the moment’: Tony (full-time lecturer). This strategy reflects a form of DA, whereby participants consciously used breathing to relax, and appraise their feelings and emotions, while taking a time out. Taking some downtime to get away from students, even if it was just being ‘off stage’ for a few moments, was used to evoke calm:

It calms me down just to leave where I am so that they cannot see me for a second. I can take a few breaths, stand at the back of the class.

Samantha (part-time lecturer)

One unexpected finding was how strongly faculty felt about having formal backstage areas. During the individual interviews, it emerged that a staff coffee lounge had recently been closed. This was a cause for genuine disappointment among the participants, who regarded it as ‘a little escape and a place for interaction’: Jack (full-time lecturer) and ‘somewhere that we could go and sit for a minute, switch off and have a chat’ Clare (full-time lecturer). The closure of the staff lounge had reduced the opportunity to spontaneously engage in informal social interaction with colleagues.

5.5.2 Humour

The use of humour was commonly referred to during the focus groups and individual interviews. It was recognised as a positive force within the workplace and was used predominantly as an individual strategy for coping with the EM component of the job. Participants used humour as a means of gaining student interest, improving knowledge retention, dealing with heated moments in class and defusing student aggression. According to one participant;

Humour and jokes relieve the anger, the frustration, disappointment and sometimes the embarrassment that go along with the job.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

Humour and having a laugh were perceived as having the ability to neutralize awkward situations and release the tension, allowing the participants to move on. For example, one focus group participant said:

Sometimes when you crack a joke you restart differently and it makes all the difference because they laugh for 30 seconds.

Declan (part-time lecturer)

Participants consciously used humour to mask their emotions and change student behaviour, as opposed to expressing anger or irritation, which may have resulted in escalating a negative situation. In addition, they used humour as a means of individually decompressing from the job, recharging their batteries and prompting a positive mind-set. Interactions with colleagues which were peppered with humour were deemed to be equally important. The almost therapeutic nature of such interactions was something that most of the participants revelled in. An example of this was provided by one interviewee:

As soon as I meet my colleagues from any department, even just for a few minutes, I disconnect because of their humour because of the amusement, their jokes.

Peter (full-time lecturer)

Humour was dished out among friends and enabled a momentary escape and a means of coping with the emotional challenges of the job. Previous research has revealed a similar usage of humour among staff in other caring professions, such as nurses (Bolton, 2000b; Lewis, 2005) and paramedics (Filstad, 2010). The underlying motive behind the use of humour was to create a sense of wellbeing among colleagues and themselves. In the current study, these interactions were associated with several other benefits, such as contributing to a sense of community and cooperation among colleagues, and increasing performance. An important related finding was that the discussions that occurred in the backstage areas and the use of humour contributed to developing the trusting environment at the case institution. This, in turn, fostered the development and embedding of communities of coping.

Theme #5 Findings: Coping Strategies

- The main coping strategies used by the participants were backstage areas and humour.
- These coping strategies enhanced the level of trust among colleagues and fostered the development of communities of coping.

5.6 Theme #6: New findings which Add to Existing Knowledge – Cultural Diversity

The focus group and interview protocol did not include any questions exploring the relevance of cultural diversity and the management of emotions. However, this theme was identified as data emerged from the focus groups and individual interviews, suggesting that the cultural diversity of students had an influence on the EM of the participants. The diversity of the faculty and students at the case institution provided a rich insight into the relevance of national culture and its implications for EM. According to one participant:

In a cross-cultural setting, it makes it a little bit more challenging, more emotionally challenging because you are dealing with ways of conduct that you don't know how to process.

Niall (full-time lecturer)

The majority of participants confirmed the association between culture diversity and the enactment of EM. Talking specifically about this issue one interviewee stated:

You always have to be aware that what you think they are thinking might not be the reality because of their cultural viewpoint... it makes it more complex to handle the emotions that is for sure

Connor (part-time lecturer)

This finding suggests that 'the rules of the game' may be altered by the fact that participants are interacting with a culturally diverse student body. Based upon the focus group and interview data, it appeared that cultural differences demanded a greater emotional investment from the faculty. This is an important finding and one which had further implications for the female participants at the case institution.

5.6.1 Cultural Diversity and Gender

According to the participants, these cultural differences had connotations for some students' views, particularly in terms of the gendered expectations of male and female lecturers. One participant commented:

We can't forget the origin of our students; some students come from places where men and women are not considered the same.

George (full-time lecturer)

Another male participant explicitly referred to the challenges that this created for female lecturers:

Some Asian students, mainly Indian students and also those from Arab countries, don't like that a woman is teaching something to them because of their cultural background.

Peter (full-time lecturer)

Consequently, this was a cause of insecurity for some female participants, who felt that they did not have the same authority in class, and were not respected as much as their male colleagues. While this is an interesting finding, a note of caution is due here, since this issue was raised predominantly by the male participants:

I think the female faculty are more exposed than their male counterparts because of the diversity of the student body... I think to be a female lecturer in this institution is more difficult, emotionally speaking, than for a male.

Paul (full-time lecturer)

These cultural nuances may have repercussions for student satisfaction and the demands for EM, given that lecturers may be unable to meet expectations.

If we now turn to the topic of faculty diversity, previous research into public sector universities has suggested that international lecturers can experience high levels of uncertainty (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). However, this did not appear to be the case in the current study. Despite the fact that the participants in this research originated from diverse international backgrounds, there was little or no reference made to individual challenges assimilating into Swiss culture. Instead, it appeared that the dominant culture was that of the workplace culture, which emphasised inclusion and equality, and served as an EM compass guiding the faculty performance. However, more research on this topic needs to be undertaken before the association between cultural diversity (of both students and faculty) and EM is more clearly understood.

Theme #6 Findings: Cultural Diversity

- The cultural diversity of both the students and lecturers had a knock-on effect on the required EM performance.
- Cultural differences had implications for student expectations with respect to the gender of their lecturers. This, in turn, had an impact on the EM of female faculty members.

5.7 Support for the Literature and Significance of the Findings

While previous research has confirmed the emotional labouring of public sector lecturers (Meier, 1999; Constanti and Gibbs 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), the current study provides the first empirical evidence of EL among academics in SPHE. As such, this research makes an important contribution to the literature on professional-level occupations and addresses the shortfall of research examining lecturer emotions, particularly within private HE institutions (Hagenauer and Volet, 2014). The following section highlights the broad significance of the findings and identifies how they support and contradict the literature.

5.7.1 Emotional Labour and Lecturing

The current study confirmed that faculty in SPHE engage in EL with the public (students), as well as with co-workers. In contrast to earlier studies (Hochschild, 1983), the findings reported here suggest that EM within SPHE extends to interactions with a broader group of stakeholders, such as co-workers, supervisors and external constituents. It can thus be suggested that the work environment and individual job characteristics are an important consideration in understanding EM. This study offers support for previous studies of EM in HE in confirming the enactment of SA and DA among lecturers (Gates, 2000; Meier, 2009). Furthermore, it validates NFE as a viable emotion-regulation strategy (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005) within a private HE setting. In contrast to some previous studies of lecturers (Zhang and Zhu, 2008), these findings suggest that the expression of NFE is fundamental to the lecturing profession. Up to now, few published qualitative studies have sought to examine the significance of NFE and the EM of lecturers. However, there are some quantitative studies which have confirmed the usage of NFE among faculty staff at public universities (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011; Trigwell, 2012).

5.7.2 Motives for Engaging in Emotion Management

Contrary to prior research, which has reported that EM guidelines for faculty are vague (Mahoney *et al.*, 2011), the workplace culture and service ethos at the case institution were hugely influential in the creation of informal expectations. In accord with extant literature on professional occupations (Bolton, 2000; Harris, 2002; Lewis, 2005; Filstad, 2010), there was also evidence of participants expressing and suppressing their emotions based on what they perceived as professional expectations. Additionally, the performance management system at

the institution guided participants' emotional displays, resulting in EL (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Grandey, 2000). Interestingly, the extent of its influence was dependent on a number of individual variables. Participants also enacted philanthropic EM on a regular basis, offering their emotions as a gift to both students and colleagues. This reflects other studies of caring occupations (Lewis, 2005; Filstad, 2010), suggesting that duty of care is an important part of the lecturing profession and that communities of coping (Korczynski, 2003) thrive within the SPHEI. However, consistent with the literature (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Hebson *et al.*, 2007; Meier, 2009), it emerged that the new performance culture within the academic workplace has restricted the time available for philanthropic EM. Overall, these findings imply that lecturers working in SPHE are 'multi-skilled emotion managers' (Bolton, 2005). Moreover, it seems that an inherent skill and flexibility (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Diefendorff and Gosserand, 2003) are required when dealing with the ever-changing dynamics of the lecture hall and educational institutions.

While the TOWE served as an efficient framework to investigate the motivations behind the faculty performance, as well as organizing and presenting the findings, it is not without its shortcomings. As previously mentioned, the typology does not take into account any potential variables and how these, in turn, may impact upon the EM of employees. The findings of this research provide an important insight into how contextual factors may influence individual EM. The following were identified as important contextual factors in the SPHEI: subject area, age and experience, frequency and duration/routineness of interactions, contract type, gender, peer support, and individual mind-set.

5.7.3 Emotion Management Outcomes

This research identified a range of positive (pride, happiness, satisfaction, excitement, amusement and pleasure) and negative emotions (anger, embarrassment, frustration, disappointment, anxiety and fear) experienced by the participants. These findings are similar to studies of public sector lecturers (Meier, 1999; Gates, 2000; Constanti and Gibbs 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011) and imply that the performance of EL may be a double-edged sword (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Wharton, 1993; 2009). However, the present study found more favourable than negative outcomes for faculty, which lends support to Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) and Trigwell's (2012) studies on public sector lecturers. There are several possible explanations for this, such as the

autonomy of the participants, as well as their strong sense of role identity as teachers (as opposed to researchers). Extant literature has identified strong levels of autonomy among professional occupations and, as a consequence, a reduction in the negative outcomes associated with EL (Wharton, 1993; Morris and Feldman, 1996). Participants in the current research were unanimous that SA resulted in negative outcomes (Zhang and Zhu, 2008), and favoured the use of authentic emotions. This, in turn, resulted in the participants being more energised by the teaching component of the job. Overall, DA and the display of NFE were deemed to have the most favourable outcomes for participants. These results match those observed in earlier studies on lecturers in the public sector (Robson and Bailey, 2009; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011).

However, previously-published research addressing the EM of lecturers suffers from a number of drawbacks. These range from a lack of detail regarding the background (Constanti and Gibbs 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011), and the exact number of participants (Pugliesi, 1999), to relatively small sample sizes (Gates, 2000; Trigwell, 2012). Moreover, a number of studies have adopted a feminist perspective (Bellasi, 1999; Koster, 2011) and involved samples which were unbalanced in terms of gender, thus offering a predominantly female perspective (Constanti, 2008). Other apparent trade-offs are an overemphasis on the negative outcomes of EM (Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004) and a failure to consider NFE as a potential emotion regulation strategy (Meier, 2009).

The current study endeavoured to give sufficient consideration to the aforementioned limitations. The purposive sample sought to be representative of the faculty at the case institution in terms of gender, age and contract type (full- or part-time). Additionally, precise information was provided regarding the number and background of participants who took part in each stage of the research process. It was also identified that the participants engaged predominantly in teaching duties, as opposed to research. Previous studies have argued that teaching responsibilities are more susceptible to EL than researching (Bellasi, 1999). Furthermore, it has been reported that identification with the role of teacher as opposed to researcher can result in more positive emotions when teaching (Postareff and Lindblom-Ylannes, 2011). Moreover, this research sought to strike a balance in examining both the positive and negative outcomes associated with EM.

5.7.4 Contextual Factors

The empirical findings identified a number of variables which had an impact on the EM of the participants. As previously identified, the TOWE (2005) does not give sufficient consideration to contextual factors. This is also reflected in existing accounts of EM in HE (Pugliesi, 1999; Gates, 2000; Constanti and Gibbs 2004; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011). The current study identified the following as being important moderators of EM: Subject area; Age and experience; Frequency and duration/routineness of interactions; Contract type; Gender; Peer support; and Individual mind-set. These findings extend our understanding of the complexity of EM and suggest that individual employee characteristics should be taken into account.

While this study supports the relevance of the work setting and customer characteristics (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987), it also suggests that teaching specialisations may be important. An implication of this is the possibility that certain subject areas may demand a greater emotional investment in order to get students on side and be open to learning. The EM requirement of the job appeared to become more natural for those participants with significant on-the-job experience. This may reflect the view that previous experience with emotionally-charged situations impacts the ability to comply with the display rules (Grandey, 2000), suggesting that skill and experience are fundamental to the performance (Guy, Newman and Mastracci, 2008). Furthermore, it has been argued that with repetition, any requirement to engage in EL could become a routine task (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). In contrast, the findings reported in the current study, suggest that lecturers who are new to the job and are of a younger age may struggle with the emotional requirements of the job. This implies that personal and demographic factors may have an underlying influence on EM.

In comparison to previous studies of lecturers (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), the participants had more frequent and less routine interactions with their students. This finding provides support for the literature, suggesting that the requirement to interact with customers for longer periods of time leads to employees regulating their emotions (Grandey, 2000). Another important related finding was that these interactions went beyond the classroom and included social exchanges throughout the campus. This reflects the social nature of lecturing and furthers our understanding of the

academic labour process. However, to date the literature has made little reference to the relevance of EM encounters that occur beyond the lecture hall. In the current study, these interactions had further implications for the choice of emotion regulation strategy. The participants were more at ease engaging in DA and expressing their NFE, suggesting that longer and less routine interactions (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005) can result in faculty staff attempting to feel the required emotion. In general, therefore, it seems that when compared to studies of public sector lecturers (Ogbonna and Harris, 2004; Mahoney *et al.*, 2011; Hagenauer and Volet, 2014), the relational aspects of the job within the SPHES place greater demands on lecturers to engage in EM. Additionally, the contract type of individual faculty members also had an influence on the frequency of their interactions, which, in turn, impacted the EM requirement of the job. While full-time lecturers were believed to ‘face the crisis point more often’: Tony (full-time lecturer), part-time lecturers also had their own set of challenges. It would seem that the characteristics of the job and work setting all have a part to play.

The opinions and experience of the participants suggest that gender is also an important moderator of EM. While it has been argued that women are the main ‘emotional labour specialists’ (Hochschild, 1983; 2003), the findings of this research suggest that male lecturers may be equally as versatile and open to engaging in EM. However, the findings also raise the possibility that female lecturers are more susceptible to any negative outcomes associated with the management of emotions (Koster, 2011). It should be noted that with a small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be representative of the entire female faculty. Despite any such limitations, this study suggests that gender may be an important moderator in the performance of EM (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989; Grandey, 2000).

Peer support was regarded as paramount in enabling participants to vent and share their frustrations about the stresses and strains of the job. This materialised itself predominantly in the form of informal ‘communities of coping’, where faculty openly engaged in philanthropic EM. The findings reported here raise the possibility that the individual mind-set and wellbeing of the participants were enhanced by peer support. While the literature refers to the benefits of co-worker support in customer service settings (Grandey, 2000), the research to date within private HE is limited.

5.7.5 Coping Strategies

In addition to the previously mentioned peer support, the following strategies were considered important in helping participants to cope with the EM demands of the job; the use of backstage areas and humour. The faculty office was viewed as an important backstage area, where participants could momentarily unwind and take a breath. This finding is consistent with research into public sector professors (Gates, 2000; Ogbonna and Harris, 2004). Surprisingly, the closure of a staff coffee lounge was a real cause for concern among the participants, who had used it to escape from the pressures of the job in an informal setting. The current study found that the EM of lecturers can be as tiring as physical work, and that consequently periods of rest or downtime rest are necessary (James, 1989; Mann, 2004). This requirement for offstage areas has been strongly associated with jobs demanding face-to-face service interaction (Korczynski, 2003). Similar processes have been identified as occurring in restaurant kitchens, police cars, the backs of shops, and hospital toilets (Bolton, 2005; Finemen, 2008).

This research offers an interesting insight into the way humour is used by participants in SPHE. The majority of participants regarded it as a means of switching off from the job and helping to adopt a positive mind-set, as well as being a useful tool in the classroom. This finding is contrary to previous studies (Zhang and Zhu, 2008), where lecturers chose to use humour predominantly to conceal emotions rather, than expressing their genuine ones. Similar to studies of other professions, such as cabin crew (Bolton and Boyd, 2003), the current study also found evidence of participants resisting the requirement to engage in EL. These findings challenge the portrayal of employees as silent participants, whose emotions are divorced from external influences in their lives, be they positive or negative, such as a birth or a death; a marriage or a divorce; a promotion or a job loss, etc. Overall, these findings offer some support for the interactionist approach (Morris and Feldman, 1996), which suggests that contextual factors such as job characteristics and social factors play a part in shaping one's own experience and expression of emotion.

5.7.6 Cultural Diversity

The findings revealed that the diversity of the faculty and in particular the students made the EM component of the job more challenging. Cultural differences also had implications for student expectations, with respect to the gender of their lecturers. On some occasions, male

students from certain nationalities expressed their discomfort at being taught by female lecturers. This, in turn, had an impact on the EM requirement for the female members of the faculty. These results reflect those of Hagenauer and Volet (2014), who found that cultural-educational background was a relevant factor for both students and lecturers at two Australian public universities.

The identification of cultural diversity and its potential implications on the EM of lecturers is an important finding which warrants further investigation. Globalization and the perpetual movement of students and faculty from around the world have undoubtedly resulted in a cultural melting pot within the classroom, particularly in the context of SPHE:

When we have this kind of an international institution, it is expected that you are even better or even more open to other cultures and to emotions... you always have to be aware that what you think they are thinking might not be the reality because of their cultural viewpoint, and also just because of their life experience... it makes it more complex to handle the emotions that is for sure.

Connor (part-time lecturer)

The culturally-loaded element of EM may be further evidenced by comparing the findings of this research with previous studies. For example, Zhang and Zhu's (2008) study of Chinese lecturers reported that DA emerged as a preferred regulation strategy over authentic emotions. It is possible that this could be attributed to the Chinese mentality regarding appropriate emotional display. This finding is contrary to the current study which identified that participants preferred the use of authentic emotions as an emotion regulation strategy over that of DA. However, this should be interpreted with caution, as the current research did not seek to make a comparison between cultures.

Further reading suggests that the ethnic background of faculty and the social and cultural expectations of students can impact a variety of factors (Harlow, 2003). More recently, it has been argued that the regulation of emotions can really only be understood when framed against its cultural context (Mesquita and Delvaux, 2013). While this theme was not investigated extensively in the current study, these findings may be taken to indicate that cultural diversity is an important factor in the enactment of EM.

The following section knits together the main findings of this thesis and addresses the potential implications for the research field and professional practice. The discussion presents some broad recommendations for the HE sector. The chapter then concludes by providing an overview of the intended dissemination strategy.

5.8 Implications for Policy and Practice

From the outset, this thesis has sought to achieve transferability so that the research findings and recommendations are applicable to the professional field. While it must be acknowledged that the findings are derived from a relatively small scale study conducted at a SPHEI, this research has made some notable contributions to the literature on EM and lecturing. The following section presents seven overarching recommendations for the SPHE case institution and the HE sector in general. While these recommendations are not presented as a panacea, it is hoped that they will provide some grounds for constructive dialogue among HR managers, policy makers and institution management. These recommendations are based around the core findings, as previously discussed.

(1) This empirical research has highlighted the importance of emotions in the lecturing profession and, in doing so, has argued that the onus is on HE institutions to acknowledge this tacit component of the job. Extant literature has acknowledged the importance of recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance management, when it comes to the emotional engagement of employees (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Meier, 1999). The first step forward may be moving on from the status quo, which is somewhat emotionally arid, and incorporating the terms EL and EM into teaching/lecturing job descriptions. This could be implemented in tandem with the redesign of recruitment and selection, training and development efforts, as well as performance management systems, to ensure that faculty are hired, trained, recognised and rewarded accordingly. Faculty could be invited to participate in the hiring process, whereby they could actively contribute (for example, by serving on interview panels, or attending mock lectures given by candidates) to ensure that the most suitable lecturer(s) are selected, in terms of cultural fit/EM competence. Incidentally, turnover of lecturers within the SPHES occurs frequently for a number of reasons (e.g. new job/opportunity, better conditions, poached by the competition, retirement, and moving country). Exit interviews should be conducted with departing lecturers to understand their views regarding the institution, its culture and EM climate. From a training

and development perspective, it is best practice for most universities to request new staff to complete teacher training courses within a certain timeframe after being hired (for example a postgraduate certificate in education). In that regard, HE institutions need to ensure that pedagogical training courses, whether provided in-house or outsourced, do more than just pay lip service and offer modules related to emotions and their management. The aforementioned initiatives may also necessitate the training of academic deans and department heads, so that they fully understand, and are able to assess, the EM of incumbents and new recruits.

(2) A potential link was also identified between teaching effectiveness and EM skills. With this in mind, all lecturers could be offered bespoke in-house training related to EM. This could be provided in the form of a seminar or a round-table session which would address the importance of EM and include an overview of the core concepts. EL and the associated strategies of SA, DA and NFE could be explained, with practical examples taken from the current study. Finally, both the positive and negative outcomes of EM could be emphasised, and participants could self-assess their current frame of reference by means of a questionnaire. The aforementioned training courses could be made mandatory for new lecturers, and similar to best practice for first aid training courses in the medical sector, lecturers should be required to attend refresher courses.

(3) An important related finding was that both new and seasoned faculty appeared to derive great benefit from peer support. The lecturers who participated in the focus group discussions for this study stated that they found them to be ‘therapeutic’ and ‘a kind of self-help group’: Connor (part-time lecturer), enabling them to vent and share their frustrations about the job. On that basis, new lecturers at HE institutions should be assigned a mentor who could encourage informal exchange and stress the importance of open dialogue and venting frustrations. Furthermore, in-house focus groups could be established for all lecturers to meet and discuss the EM challenges of their job. This may require identifying a faculty member to champion the initiative and to establish a steering committee with the objective of developing a group mandate, code of conduct and confidentiality agreement. These groups could be set up following completion of an EM training course, as previously identified. In addition, informal team-building days could be scheduled into the academic calendar to assist both part-time and full-time staff in bonding. Both of these initiatives could further

stimulate the development of informal ‘communities of coping’, and serve as an emotional contagion towards creating a more positive EM work culture.

(4) Another key finding which emerged was the benefits that faculty drew from the pastoral element of the job and from engaging in philanthropic EM. These positive outcomes impacted not only the faculty involved, but extended to students, co-workers and the institution itself. While it may be common practice for faculty at some HE institutions to have time allocated for research interests, student interaction beyond the classroom may be non-existent for some lecturers. This could be enhanced through the development of student mentoring schemes, and by ensuring that they are formalised on faculty timetables, and rewarded accordingly. While it could be argued that this may reduce the spontaneity of such interactions, the current challenge for both full- and part-time lecturers at the case institution is having the time to engage in such an activity, due to the prolific intensification of the job. Putting such a structure in place could further germinate the seeds of *caritas* throughout the institution. A key consideration is to ensure that lecturers are empowered to engage in this form of EM without the incursion of management.

(5) While the current study has identified predominantly positive outcomes for lecturers engaging in EM, there were also some potential negative outcomes. These were identified as increased stress, demotivation, low energy levels, irritability and increased risk of burnout. In that respect, proactive mental health strategies should be embraced by HR departments at HE institutions. This could include raising awareness of the symptoms associated with burnout, as well as promoting any counselling services available for employees. HE institutions could also offer complementary or subsidised courses in mindfulness, yoga or meditation, and foster the development of sports and social clubs for all lecturers, including those who work part-time. The coping strategies employed by the participants in the current research provide some direction for other institutions to follow. Additionally, anonymous organizational engagement surveys could be used to gauge the levels of job satisfaction and assess the EM climate. This could result in HR departments proactively detecting any potential cases of burnout and re-evaluating any policies and procedures that are misaligned with lecturers’ experiences/values.

(6) The findings of this research have highlighted the importance of having a means for lecturers to detach from the job. The participants in this study emphasised the benefit of backstage areas, where they could momentarily escape from the pressures of the job and relax in an informal setting. In that regard, the faculty office at the case institution was deemed inappropriate due to the heavy footfall of students seeking advice, as well as other lecturers meeting to discuss work-related matters. While it may seem a somewhat trivial matter, the evidence derived from the focus groups and individual interviews suggests that it is an important consideration for faculty. HE institutions need to ensure that they provide suitable areas for staff to unwind – ‘student free zones’, whether in the form of coffee lounges or reading rooms.

(7) Cultural diversity management was an unexpected theme to emerge from this research. While this area clearly warrants further investigation, the findings suggest that the cultural diversity of both lecturers and students can have an impact on EM. With that in mind, all faculty and students should be provided with cultural diversity sensitivity training.

5.8.1 Dissemination Strategy

From the outset, the purpose of this research has been not to just add to the existing knowledge bank, but to contribute in such a manner that could result in changing professional practice and, ultimately, enhancing the working lives of lecturers. Harmsworth and Turpin (2000) advocate viewing dissemination in three different ways: awareness, understanding and action. The objective of the current study is to achieve each of these levels of dissemination, whereby the research findings will stimulate the interest of the key stakeholders, enhance their understanding, and serve as a call to action. The stakeholders for this research include both internal and external audiences, as well as a core group of connected stakeholders (Harmsworth and Turpin, 2000). At the case institution, the key internal stakeholders can be identified as the senior management, the academic director, the faculty, as well as the HR manager. The students are a connected stakeholder, in that they are the recipients of the EM enacted by the faculty. Internal dissemination of this research has been an ongoing informal process throughout the study, as it was deemed an important element in securing and maintaining buy in from the institution.

The desired result of dissemination is that the research findings and recommendations are utilized (Keen and Todres, 2007), particularly within the case institution. The channels employed for the dissemination strategy should therefore be a best fit with that of the target audience. With this in mind, the researcher is conscious that educational practitioners, whether internal or external, do not have endless hours to search for information, and thus may be selective in what they review. Mosteller, Nave and Miech (2004: 29) emphasise that:

Research findings are not self-disseminating, and one cannot assume that important research studies and findings automatically make their way into the world of educational practice of their own accord.

This further emphasizes the importance of the choice of channels for dissemination. Once this thesis has been defended, dissemination will continue, both formally and informally, at a local level to the internal stakeholders. The senior management, academic director and HR manager at the case institution will be provided with a copy of the thesis, with the findings and recommendations then further emphasized by means of a formal presentation. This will be followed up by a series of interactive workshops with the faculty. It is very important to ensure that the original research participants have an overall sense of the completed study and are aware of its prospective power as a call to action. Therefore, the objective of the internal dissemination strategy is to enhance awareness, obtain further feedback, and serve as a catalyst for change at the case institution by lobbying both faculty and management. The format and delivery of the research findings may have to be modified for external channels of communication.

The external stakeholders can be identified as senior management, academic directors, lecturing staff and HR managers from other institutions, as well as professional education bodies and associations. Regrettably, the external dissemination strategy did not gain any momentum during the research process. This was due to the demands of full-time work, family life, and ensuring that the doctorate was completed. However, upon completion of this thesis, a wide audience will be targeted for external dissemination, by means of multiple communication tools. The following section introduces two options for dissemination currently under consideration.

5.8.2 Academic Journals

Publication of this research would act as another litmus test for its relevance to professional practice. This would validate the research and afford the opportunity to inform and receive feedback from practitioners and the academic community. However, it should be noted that there are other rationales for seeking to get the work published. According to Rowley and Slack (2000), publication may bring about certain benefits, such as a sense of accomplishment and recognition in one's work going to print. It can also be a critical step in achieving a voice within the academic and professional realm, which may further add to one's academic career. In addition, publication may be an important step in creating the momentum to bring about any change in professional practice. According to Zinsser (1998: 172):

Research is incomplete if it remains unpublished. People who have slaved away for months or years on a project that never finds its way into print might just as well have dug their gardens.

The challenge of using academic journals as a vehicle for dissemination is that most will require the researcher to adjust his/her work to suit the rules of the game, which includes abiding by the chosen journal's format and advised word count. In the case of qualitative research, this can entail the researcher making a trade-off as to what to include and what to omit, which may result in a mere snapshot of the rich qualitative data being provided (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010). It can be argued that the publication of research in a respected journal may work wonders in furthering one's academic career, but the fundamental question for any dissemination strategy is whether it is the most effective channel for reaching the target audience, which in this case is the practitioner community.

Upon completion of this thesis, I envisage using electronic publishing as part of my initial dissemination strategy, and will seek out those open access journals and electronic resources that are focused at disseminating research to the practitioner community. However, I will be conscious of preventing preclusion from publication in printed journals, by being selective about where and when I disseminate it. To further enhance the credibility and strength of my academic voice, I will also pursue publication in the traditional printed word in education-focused publications, such as the *Journal of Philosophy and Education*, *Research in Education* or the *British Journal of Educational Studies*. I may also target specific emotion-related journals, such as the *International Journal of Work Organization and Emotion*. Any

publication of the current study will endeavor to portray the data accurately, and in its original context, seeking to achieve non-maleficence to all the stakeholders involved. Furthermore, the dissemination strategy will ensure the anonymity of the institution and the research participants.

5.8.3 Conferences, Seminars and Workshops

Foray and Hargreaves (2003: 16) advocate a dissemination strategy which enables ‘face-to-face interaction between researcher and practitioner’. It has been suggested that the uptake of research findings could be enhanced by more one-on-one contact between academics and practitioners through vehicles such as joint workshops, seminars and conferences (Harmsworth and Turpin, 2000). By participating in conferences, workshops and seminars, I would be afforded the opportunity to engage both academics and practitioners as sounding boards for my research ideas, and thus disseminate my research more quickly than with the printed word. Furthermore, I could develop contacts within the academic and practitioner conferencing realm, which could prove beneficial to disseminating my research. I have never spoken at a conference before, so it could be an invaluable experience that would also provide me with an effective means of feedback, further enabling me to refine my future research efforts. Incidentally one of the seven SPHEI’s where I distributed my questionnaire holds an annual research conference which could serve as a perfect platform to begin. However, I am contemplating attending some conferences as a delegate before formalizing any dates to present my research. It may also be worthwhile joining a national education network or organization to keep up to date with the latest conferences and developments. On that note I have been conducting some research into emotion-related networks and have come across two research groups which are particularly noteworthy: EMONET – Emotions Network and secondly the Emotions Research Network. I am currently in the process of applying for membership with the intention of gaining access to like-minded researchers. Furthermore, both of these research networks hold regular conferences – EMONET holds a bi-annual international conference on emotions and work-life, and the Emotions Research Network holds an annual conference related to the sociology of emotions.

5.9 Conclusion

This thesis has confirmed the importance of emotions and their management within the SPHES and the lecturing profession in general. The empirical findings from the focus groups and individual interviews revealed that EL is a tacit component of the job. Faculty at the case institution occasionally engaged in SA but demonstrated a preference for DA. Moreover, all of the participants were in agreement that their EL strategy of choice was that of NFE. The confirmation of NFE as a viable strategy confirms the arguments of Diefendorff *et al.* (2005) and extends Hochschild's (1983) original work.

The findings revealed an overlap between the pecuniary and prescriptive EM categories of the TOWE (Bolton, 2005). From an individual lecturer's perspective, the perceived organizational/professional expectations regarding appropriate display, as well as individual identity with the job, were the primary motives behind EM. A duty of care emerged which was aligned with the category of philanthropic EM. The entire faculty at the case institution demonstrated going the extra mile for their students, and frequently revealed their authentic emotions, giving sincere emotion as a 'gift'.

While the management of emotions in the current study was considered to have both positive and negative outcomes for participants, the positives appeared to outweigh any negatives. In fact, the research findings seem to suggest that teaching effectiveness could be related to EM skills. Several coping strategies were identified which participants used to deal with the emotional demands of the job. Of primary importance was the existence of informal 'communities of coping', which enabled the faculty to decompress and vent to one another regarding a plethora of issues, both work related and personal. The apparent lack of institutional recognition, support or rewards linked to the management of emotions, has resulted in it being almost ethereal in nature. This presents the lecturers with a reality where their emotions must be 'self-managed' and quietly aligned with the organizational agenda.

These empirical findings have expanded the field by providing insight into the motives behind the EM performance of faculty. In doing so, the data derived from the focus groups and individual interviews suggests that lecturers are not slaves to EL at the mercy of institution management, but instead can be regarded as 'multi-skilled emotion managers' (Bolton, 2005: 89). This thesis has provided a unique insight into the emotion landscape of

the academic world, and appears to be one of the first pieces of empirical research to examine EM in an SPHE setting.

The final chapter revisits the core objectives of this thesis and highlights the main findings which emerged. The original contribution of this research, as well as its limitations, is discussed. This is followed by suggestions for future research in the area of EM and lecturing.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.0 Introduction

This thesis has both achieved its aims and provided a broad insight into the EM of faculty employed at a SPHEI. The findings revealed that the demands for EM within the SPHES have increased due to changes in the competitive landscape, the increased commercialization of education and the knock-on effect on customer expectations (students). In exploring these elements, this research has established the contemporary importance of EM to the lecturing field. This chapter sets out to reflect on the original aims and objectives of this research and illuminate what has been achieved. It reviews the research strategy employed and the results which were derived from it. In doing so, this chapter summarises the main arguments and findings and restates the implications for professional practice. The discussion highlights the originality of this thesis, and how it has sought to (a) provide new insights into EM within the lecturing profession and (b) close the research gap. In addition, the limitations of the study are addressed and directions for future research explored.

6.1 Aims and Objectives of this Research

From the outset, the purpose of this research was to unveil the importance of emotions within the lecturing profession. The central aim which was identified was:

To obtain an understanding of the relative importance of EM for the SPHES and the lecturing profession in general.

Following a critical review of the literature, a conceptual framework was developed which assisted in linking the literature and organizing the ideas related to this research aim. Using extant literature the framework outlined six interconnecting pillars, which could impact upon the EM of faculty staff (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 2000; Bolton, 2005; Guy, *et al.*, 2008). The first pillar proposed that the academic setting is an important determinant in the performance of EL. The second pillar maintained that interactions with internal and external stakeholders can lead to EL and the enactment of emotion regulation strategies. Having recognised EL as one element in the management of emotions, pillar number three integrated components of the TOWE to identify the motives behind the faculty performance. Pillar four suggested that EM within SPHE can result in both positive and negative outcomes for employees.

During the literature review, some drawbacks were identified related to the TOWE, specifically that it does not give due consideration or integrate any variables, which may impact upon the individual EM of employees. Consequently, pillar five proposed a range of contextual factors that may influence the potential outcomes associated with EM: for example, frequency, duration and routineness of interaction, individual support, and gender. The final pillar suggested that individual employees use coping strategies to deal with the EM challenges of the job. Overall, the conceptual framework served as a reference point for the development of the research questions. The five questions which follow were used to direct the research and sought to understand the following:

1. How is EL manifested at the case institution, and which EM strategies are utilised by participants on a daily basis?
2. What are the motives behind the EM performance, as per Bolton's (2005) TOWE?
3. How does the requirement to engage in EM affect lecturers working in SPHE?
4. What contextual factors impact upon the EM of lecturers?
5. How do participants cope with the EM component of the job?

6.2 The Research Process

The case study method was chosen as the best fit for this thesis, due to the fact that it is regarded as an ideal strategy for studying contemporary events which have not been the focus of extensive research in the past (Yin, 2009). This consisted of a single descriptive case study. The data collation methods which were chosen to answer the 'how', and 'why' questions of this research were focus groups and semi-structured interviews. A total of three focus groups and 11 individual interviews were conducted with lecturers at the case institution. Thematic analysis was chosen as the means to analyse and identify patterns from the collated qualitative data. This resulted in the identification of six main themes:

1. EL and lecturing
2. Motives for engaging in EM;
3. EM outcomes;
4. Contextual factors;
5. Coping strategies;
6. New findings.

6.3 Findings

1. Emotional Labour and Lecturing

The requirement for EM was evidenced throughout this empirical research, which also confirmed the interactionist nature of the lecturing profession. The findings confirmed that EL is a day-to-day reality for lecturers, and that the three strategies, as identified in the literature (SA, DA and NFE) are applicable to the academic work place. Participants also enacted EM when interacting with colleagues and external stakeholders.

2. Motives for Engaging in Emotion Management

Bolton's (2005) TOWE was used to explore the modes and underlying motives behind the EM performance. The findings demonstrated how participants used different modes of EM dependant on their motivation and the individual situation. EL was identified as one such mode within the typology. The participants in this study more frequently enacted the categories of prescriptive and philanthropic EM over that of pecuniary EM. Professional norms and organizational expectations indirectly influenced the performance. NFE was confirmed as a viable EL strategy (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005), and one which the participants preferred. The intensification of the job caused a source of tension between the categories of the typology and impacted the time available for faculty to enact philanthropic EM. Overall, these findings suggest that lecturers are 'multi-skilled emotion managers' (Bolton, 2005), who modify their EM to deal with the ever-changing dynamics of the lecture hall and educational institution.

3. Emotion Management Outcomes

The majority of the participants reported high levels of job satisfaction and appeared to derive enjoyment from the interactive element of the job. Lecturers voiced a preference for using NFE, and in doing so were energised by the teaching component of the job. DA and the display of NFE resulted in the most favourable outcomes for participants. The practice of SA over a sustained period of time was thought to result in negative outcomes for both students and lecturers. While more positive than negative outcomes were identified, the perpetual expression and suppression of negative emotions were linked to a variety of negatives, such as an increase in stress, demotivation and the potential for burnout.

4. Contextual Factors

This following were identified as having an impact on the requirement for EM: Subject area; Age and experience; Frequency and duration/routineness of interactions; Contract type; Gender; Peer support; and Individual mind-set. Some subjects demanded a greater emotional investment to get the students on side and interested. On-the-job experience also emerged as an enabler when enacting EM. Participants felt that contract type had an impact on how frequently a lecturer was exposed to EM encounters, with full-time lecturers deemed to be more exposed. This research revealed that male participants were as open to engaging in EM as their female colleagues. However, the evidence suggested that female participants were more susceptible to the potential negatives associated with EM.

5. Coping Strategies

Participants used a diverse range of coping strategies to deal with the EM component of the job: backstage areas; humour; and individual mind-set. The faculty office was identified as an important backstage area where participants could switch off. The presence and importance of peer support was evidenced through the informal ‘communities of coping,’ which enabled participants to vent and simultaneously engage in philanthropic EM. Humour was regarded as a useful tool to momentarily switch off from the job, as well as helping to adopt a positive mind-set. Participants also gave multiple examples of resisting the requirement to engage in EL, which further suggests that employees are not silent participants.

6. Cultural Diversity

The relevance of cultural diversity and the management of emotions was an unexpected finding of this research. It was considered to make the job more emotionally challenging, and consequently had an impact on the required EM performance. Student expectations were linked to their national and cultural norms and had a direct impact on the EM of some female participants, with some male students from certain countries voicing discomfort at being taught by female lecturers.

6.4 Recommendations

While the following seven recommendations are tailored towards the SPHES and the case institution, it is envisaged that they will resonate with faculty, management and administrators from a diverse range of HE institutions.

1. Recognise and incorporate the terms EL and EM into teaching/lecturing job descriptions, followed by redesigning recruitment and selection, training and development efforts, as well as performance management systems, to ensure that faculty are hired, trained, recognised and rewarded accordingly.
2. Provide bespoke in-house training related to EM. This could be offered in the form of a seminar/round-table session which would address the importance of EM, and include an overview of the core concepts.
3. In-house focus groups should be established for all lecturers to meet and discuss the EM challenges of their job. In addition, new lecturers should be assigned a mentor who could encourage informal exchange and stress the importance of open dialogue and venting frustrations.
4. Allocate lecturers time to engage in student mentoring and promote it by making it official on timetables and ensuring that faculty are rewarded for it.
5. HR departments should adopt proactive strategies with a view to raising awareness of positive mental health, and the symptoms associated with burnout, as well as promoting any counselling services. Organizational-wide engagement surveys should be administered to assess job satisfaction levels and the EM climate. Subsidised sports and social activities should be made available to all employees.
6. Establish 'student-free zones' throughout the campus, be they staff coffee lounges or reading rooms, with the objective of providing lecturers with the opportunity to unwind and go 'offstage' for a while, to escape from the emotional challenges of the job.
7. Faculty and students should be provided with cultural diversity sensitivity training to set expectations and increase levels of understanding.

6.5 Contribution to the Research Field

This thesis has presented one of the first pieces of empirical research specifically addressing the EM of faculty staff within SPHE. Additionally, it has provided greater insight into the emotion regulation of lecturers and extended our understanding of emotions within professional occupations. The findings confirmed that lecturers engage in EL and established that the emotion regulation strategies of SA and DA, as well as NFE (Diefendorff *et al.*, 2005) are applicable to a HE work setting.

It has been argued that to date there has been a relative paucity of empirical research exploring the motives behind EL (Grandey, *et al.*, 2013). This research has addressed this shortfall and provided a more in-depth insight into the drivers of EM within an HE setting, which has been somewhat overlooked in favour of the primary and secondary sector. Furthermore, it is one of comparatively few studies to utilise Bolton's (2005) TOWE to examine the motivations behind the EM of academics. In doing so, it has empirically tested and validated the typology in a SPHEI and confirmed the dynamic nature of EL (Guy *et al.*, 2008). The current research also identified some drawbacks to the typology, in particular its lack of emphasis on the contextual factors that can influence EM. The following factors were identified as having a significant impact upon the individual EM of the participants: subject area; age and experience; frequency and duration/routines of interactions; contract type; gender; peer support; and individual mind-set. These findings suggest that job and individual characteristics, as well as social factors, have an impact on the experience and expression of emotion (Morris and Feldman, 1996).

This research also sought to address other gaps as identified in the literature review. As previously mentioned, the public sector has served as the main backdrop for exploring the EM of lecturers. In that regard, the current study provides a unique insight into the world of SPHE faculty staff. While previous research has suffered from a lack of clarity in defining the roles of participants, the sample which was used for the current study was clearly defined. All of the participants engaged solely in teaching as opposed to researching which in itself made the sample invaluable and unique, in comparison to other studies. Additionally, previously samples were unbalanced in terms of gender, and were thus inadequate in terms of understanding the male perspective. In concluding this section, I

maintain that this research has made both a positive theoretical and practical contribution to the field.

6.6 Possible Research Limitations

It can be argued that the choice of a single case study and its focus on depth restricts the ability to generalise the findings. The use of multiple cases may have proved invaluable and offered a broader understanding of EM in the SPHE sector. Access could have been secured from the group of hotel management colleges with which the case study institute is affiliated. However due to the vast amounts of collated data and the obvious time and resource constraints, this was not possible. The transferability of the findings may also be questionable, due to the idiosyncratic nature of the case institution and the small scale of this study. Furthermore, the findings may not reflect the views of lecturers working in private HE beyond Switzerland.

The primary source of data for this research came from focus groups and qualitative interviews with lecturers. While power relationships emerged as having some influence upon the emotion management of lecturers, this was not investigated in detail. Further data collection is required to determine exactly how power relationships may affect EM within the SPHE sector. Future research could seek to expand these initial findings and incorporate multiple perspectives such as institution management and the students. The use of quantitative data collection methods, such as a questionnaire could enable a larger sample of Swiss private HE institutions to be targeted, which in turn could assess the power relations climate within the sector. This could then be followed up by a more observational approach to data collection, such as observing teaching and learning activities within the case institution. The following section will offer some other suggestions for future research.

6.7 Guidelines for Future Research

This research has revealed that national culture has potential implications for the EM of lecturers. With this in mind, a multi-cultural comparison could be made between lecturers from different backgrounds. This would provide an interesting opportunity to collaborate with an institution from another country. The research could also be extended to examine differences between private and public sector institutions. Furthermore, a cross-comparison could be made between the EM of lecturers and another profession, for example nursing.

While this research has sought to examine the EM of faculty, it has made an apparent trade-off and overlooked the student perspective. Obtaining an insight into the student perspective would provide a more holistic understanding of EM within HE. This would enable a cross-comparison to be made between the lecturers' perspective and that of their students. On a final note, the findings reported here suggest that certain subjects may demand a greater emotional investment in order to connect with the students. Future research could incorporate the variable of subject area to decipher its overall relevance for the EM of teaching faculty in HE.

6.8 Conclusion

The findings of this research can serve as a guide for management and practitioners to ensure that they understand and safely navigate the emotional terrain that is a fundamental component of the academic labour process. Institutional promises for faculty/student interaction have very clear connotations for the EM of lecturers. This research has demonstrated that the examination of emotions within the academic workplace is a valid and important pursuit. Even though academic institutions do not place great emphasis on EM, it is clear that teaching and student learning are inextricably linked to emotions. While a number of questions have been answered in completing this thesis, Pandora's Box has been opened, and a multitude of other questions have emerged.

On a personal level, this research has enhanced my appreciation regarding the complexity of emotions and their importance to the teaching and lecturing profession. In completing this research, I was presented with a constant stream of challenges which necessitated maintaining a balance between my thesis and my professional and personal life. I am genuinely proud of the work that I have achieved and am all too aware of the tunnel vision that I had to adopt and the numerous sacrifices that I had to endure to get there. As a result, I am even more confident about the strengths of practitioner research. The challenge is by no means over: I now need to invest significant time and energy in seizing the attention of policymakers and practitioners, with a view to getting EM placed firmly on the academic agenda. The potential scope to influence professional practice, and the countless opportunities for future research in this field, excite me immensely.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX #1

Guidelines provided to Assistant moderator

The role of the assistant moderator is to capture anything that the tape recorder cannot capture e.g. group dynamics, body language. Brownhill (2011: 347) suggests that assistant moderators may wish to consider the following:

Group dynamics: Are there any dominant characters? People who are reluctant to contribute? Why? Were there any arguments? Did the group interact with each other as a whole or was it just individuals who led the discussion? Did everyone say something in response to every question? Did the group 'gel'? Was there lots of interrupting one another?

The atmosphere of the focus group: short answers given? People listening to one another? Lots of 'umm'ing and 'argh'ing? Do people develop others' ideas or thoughts or is there just constant challenge and opposition to view points? Why so?

Body language of the group: relaxed? Tense? Bored? Facial expressions? Little eye contact with one another? Looking around the room? Yawning? Lots of hand/arm movement? Physical movement around the room?

Any extenuating circumstances affecting the group: time of day? Temperature in the room, Issues with getting there on time? Locating the meeting room? Have they been watered / fed?

Anything you feel is of value or worthy of comment?

APPENDIX #2

Ethical consent form

Research Title: Emotion Management and Lecturing in Swiss Private Higher Education

Researcher: David Mc Partland

Ethical Consent

This document relates to the focus group and or interview that you have volunteered to participate in. This research project has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee at the University of Derby, England. In line with best practice, the research process requires me to secure informed consent before starting the data collection. The purpose of this document is for you to provide your informed consent for this research. You have already been provided with background information about this project. Furthermore the focus group/interview will begin with an overview of the research and a brief discussion about the ethical procedures employed, including reference to the following:

- Voluntary nature of the study
- Right to withdraw
- Confidentiality and Anonymity
- Data Protection

Provision of Consent

1. I confirm that I have read the background documents provided and understand the research process and my role as a participant.
2. My participation is of my own free will and I am aware that I can withdraw from the study at any time.
3. I consent to the focus group/interview being recorded and understand that my anonymity will be maintained. My name will not feature in any reports, articles or presentations.
4. I am aware that the collated data will be used for a doctoral thesis and that it may also be used in future reports, articles or presentations by the researcher.
5. I understand that the data will be securely stored.
6. The researcher has explained the project to me and answered all of my questions. I agree to take part in this research.

Participant's name (please print) _____

Participant's signature _____

Date:

APPENDIX #3

Focus Groups explained

This phase of the research process consists of focus group discussions framed around a review of the literature and the research objectives. Krueger & Casey (2009) define focus groups as a 'carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment' (p.2).

Format: Your focus group will be composed of approximately four to five participants who will sit together in a meeting format and discuss the topic for one hour. The focus group will begin with a summary of this research project and a brief discussion about the ethical procedures employed. After that I will ask the group some questions and will highlight the significant concepts from the literature. It should be noted that free flowing interactions among the participants is one of the strengths of focus groups. Consequently my role will be as facilitator and therefore my involvement in the discussions will be minimal. Nevertheless I may ask individuals to contribute and will ensure that we explore all of the issues within the set time frame. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers and that the true value lies in your experience and opinions of the subject matter. The discussions will be conducted in a relaxed and non-threatening manner where each individual's contribution is critical. Refreshments will be provided upon completion of the focus group discussions.

Capturing the data: The focus group discussions will be tape recorded so that your views can be transcribed accurately. However your anonymity will be ensured through the usage of a coding process. In that regard, your name will not feature in the finished thesis or any reports, articles or presentations. This will be explained in further detail prior to conducting the focus group/interview. An assistant moderator will also be present during the discussions with the purpose of writing down details that the tape recorder cannot capture e.g. group dynamics, body language.

*In preparation for our focus group discussions please review the following statements:

Reflections on Emotion Management:

According to Hochschild (1983)

When the customer is king, unequal exchanges are normal and from the beginning, customer and client assume different rights to feeling and display. The ledger is supposedly evened by a wage (p.86)

From a teaching perspective Hargreaves (2000) maintains that

Creating and sustaining a dynamic, engaging lesson for example, requires hard emotional work, investment, or labour. So too does remaining calm and unruffled when confronted by threatening student behaviour (p.814)

In a study of University lecturers working in the United Kingdom, Ogbonna & Harris (2004) highlight the entertainment element associated with lecturing. According to one of their research participants

Teaching is like a pantomime. The audience don't give a s**t that you've got a hangover, your wife's left you and the dog's just puked on your best tie - they want entertainment. Students expect a well-staged and rehearsed performance that entertains. They want a comic not a teacher (Interview with lecturer, p.1192)

Nias (1997) offers some words of caution for teachers stating that

Teachers who wish to see themselves as 'caring' owe it to themselves as informed professionals to know what and who they care about; what are the practical consequences and costs for themselves and others of wanting to care... (p.21)

Nevertheless Ogbonna & Harris (2004) propose that the practice of Emotional Labour can serve as a defence mechanism for lecturers, helping them to cope with the intensified demands of the job

When they start getting arsey with me I just switch off and think of fishing. I've never fished but I've always fantasized that it must be the most relaxing thing ever. Just sitting there watching the world go by - it works every time (Interview with lecturer, p.1194)

On a closing note, I would like to thank you for taking the time to read the material provided and for volunteering to participate in a focus group/interview. If you have any questions please feel free to contact me.

Yours sincerely, David Mc Partland

APPENDIX #4

Focus Group Question Database

Introductory questions:

- Write down three characteristics of an effective lecturer (2-3 minutes).
- What makes a good lecturer? - refer to your list and pick what you consider to be your most important item.

Transition question

- How important do you believe the relational component of lecturing is?

Key Questions

- What is the first thing that you think of when you hear the term Emotion management?
- On that note, what emotions do you think are most prevalent in the day-to-day work of lecturers? (2-3 minutes). Take a few minutes to write down some ideas (Discuss).
- What guides/influences your emotion management in the classroom?

Display Rules

- Are there any other variables that you regard as influential? Take a few minutes to write down some ideas (Discuss). What about professional expectations?
- Do you feel that student evaluations, peer evaluations and performance appraisals have any influence on your own emotion management?
- Do you believe that the degree of emotion management amongst lecturers may vary depending on (a) Contract type- Full-time/part-time (b) Gender

Employee Outcomes

- What is the most rewarding thing about your job as a lecturer?
- What kinds of stressors do you encounter in your job as a lecturer?
- What types of emotions are required to handle those stressors?
- How do you feel at the end of your working day?
- What do you do to unwind/switch off?

Concluding Questions

- Of all the things discussed which one is most important for you?
- Suppose you had one minute to talk to the academic management on the topic of emotion management, what would you say?
- Have we missed anything?

APPENDIX #5

Interview Guideline Questions - Focus Group Participants

Q.1 The empirical evidence to date seems to suggest that lecturers working in this institution may engage in Emotion Management which means managing their own emotions as well as “taming” the emotions of others. How does that relate to your day-to-day interactions with your colleagues? Institution management? Other stakeholders?

Q.2 Do you believe that a lecturer’s job has more, less, or about the same level of stress and requirement for Emotion Management as other positions at this institution? Why or why not?

Q.3 What do you consider to be the most rewarding things about your job?

Q.4 What emotions do you associate with the stressful elements of your job?

Q.5 How do you prepare for job related stress?

Q.6 In what ways do you think the job related stress and any negative emotions that you may be exposed to as a lecturer impacts upon your personal life? From the focus group data it emerged that lecturers are occasionally exposed to a range of negative emotions such as anger, embarrassment, frustration, disappointment, anxiety and fear.

Q.7 Every occupation has its own humour - in the form of practical jokes, funny stories and so on which can serve to release tension. What does this mean to you, when you think of your job as a lecturer at this institution?

Q.8 How does this Institution assist you with the emotion management demands of your job? What else/could be done?

APPENDIX #6

Interview Guideline Questions - Non Focus Group Participants

Q.1 The empirical evidence to date seems to suggest that lecturers working in this institution may engage in Emotion Management which means managing their own emotions as well as “taming” the emotions of others. How does that relate to your day-to-day interactions with your colleagues? Institution management? And other stakeholders?

Q.2 *‘Being a lecturer is very rewarding but can also be very strenuous’*. What do you consider to be the most stressful elements of your job? Some of the following were identified in the focus group discussions; disrespectful students, students not engaged, reaching students effectively, cultural challenges, unauthorised used of technology in class.

Q.3 Do you believe that a lecturer’s job has more, less, or about the same level of stress and requirement for emotion management as other positions at this institution? Why or why not?

Q.4 What do you consider to be the most rewarding thing about your job?

Q.5 How do you prepare for job related stress?

Q.6 What emotions do you associate with the stressful elements of your job?

Q.7 In what ways do you think the job related stress and negative emotions that you are exposed to as a lecturer impacts upon your personal life? From the focus group data it emerged that lecturers are occasionally exposed to a range of negative emotions such as anger, embarrassment, frustration, disappointment, anxiety and fear.

Q.8 Every occupation has its own humour - in the form of practical jokes, funny stories and so on which can serve to release tension. What does this mean to you, when you think of your job as a lecturer at this institution?

Q.9 What guides your Emotion Management within the classroom? Organization rules, professional expectations, contractual obligations, student and peer evaluations were viewed as influential.

Q.10 Do you think this job would be as stressful in the public sector? Why or why not?

Q.11 How does this Institution assist you with the emotion management demands of your job? What else/could be done?

APPENDIX #7

Research Overview

My interests are in researching the ‘softer’ side of the lecturing profession namely the ‘emotional component’. Hochschild (2003) coined the term emotional labour which she defined as ‘the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value’ (p.7). Hochschild (2003) identifies college and university lecturing as occupations which involve substantial amounts of emotional labour.

Existing literature examines emotional labour amongst teachers and lecturers working predominantly in the public sector. I argue that while these accounts are invaluable, only nominal focus has been given to the experiences of lecturers within private higher level education. Despite the significant changes that have taken place in the way education is marketed and ultimately delivered, very little research has been written about the complex role a lecturer must play to fulfil their part in this new service offering. Yeo (2008) argues that a ‘strong mindset to serve rather than to instruct is fundamental to the acceleration of service standards in educational settings’ (158). Student interactions with lecturers are a critical component of the education packages that are marketed globally. The implications of this for lecturers is that their on stage performance is becoming more closely examined.

In that regard, this research seeks to provide an insight into your experience of lecturing and emotion management within Swiss private higher education. The first stage of the research process consists of focus group discussions centred on lecturing and emotion management. I anticipate that the research findings will be of practical usage to lecturers as well as being of significant interest to the wider research community.