INVESTIGATION OF EMOTIONAL LABOR PRESENTATION STYLES AND SELF-ACCEPTANCE VALUES OF TOUR GUIDES

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Abstract
The present study investigates whether there is a relationship between emotional labor presentation styles and self-acceptance scores of tour guides. The research data were collected from 307 tour guides registered to 13 chambers of The Union of Tourist Guides using the questionnaire technique. The data were analysed with factor analysis and correlation analysis. According to the results of the analysis, tourist guides have two different emotional labor presentation styles, the first being deep acting and the second being surface acting, and their average self-acceptance score is approximately 38. Correlation analysis showed a significant relationship between emotional labor presentation styles and self-acceptance scores of tour guides.

Keywords: Emotional Labor, Deep Acting, Surface Acting, Self-Acceptance, Tour Guide.

Introduction
It is a well-known fact that the hospitality industry frequently faces with demanding customers. The hospitality industry requires treating customers with a smiling face (Kim, 2008: 151). Working life experience is full with emotions from frustration, joy, grief and fear to dissatisfaction and engagement. For this reason, emotions are a complementary and integral part of organisational life (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995: 98). In order to ensure customer satisfaction, business executives demand employees add emotional labor to their jobs (Bickes et al., 2014: 97). Service providers employ a variety of management strategies to ensure customer satisfaction and continuity. Managing emotional expressions is one of the strategies utilized to reach the target (Grandey et al., 2005: 38).

Emotional labor is defined as managing emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000), suppressing emotions (Hochschild, 2012: 7), appropriate behaviour (Ashford and Humphrey, 1993), exhibiting behaviour in order to show the emotional response demanded by the organisation (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 987; Chu, 2002) and an effort made through emotions as a part of paid work (Scott and Marshall, 2009: 214).

Emotional labor involves concepts such as dealing with other people’s emotions (James, 1989: 15; Lord et al., 2002: 416) and exaggeration, imitation and suppression attempted to change the emotional expression (Grandey, 2000: 95-97). In this context, emotions become commodities, so to say (Scott and Marshall, 2009: 214). Emotional labor requires interaction with individuals inside and outside the organisation (Steinberg and Figart, 1999: 8; Pratt and Doucet, 2006: 212). The service industry involves face-to-face or verbal (via speech) contact with customers (Steinberg and Figart, 1999: 8). Therefore, emotional labor is especially important for the service industry.

Emotional labor is essential for public services. Guy et al. (2008: 3) explains this requirement with the idiom “greasing the wheels” and notes that individuals do a good job in cooperation in this way and such a cooperation is a prerequisite for the completion of the job and a quality public service. Research conducted within the framework of this basic paradigm investigates two types of role: deep and surface (Grandey, 2000: 100).

Although expressing or presenting positive emotions is important for customer satisfaction, the employee may not always have positive emotions and he or she pretends (Hochschild, 2003: 35) or puts on an act (Grandey, 2003: 86) since he or she cannot avoid the rules. The employee puts on two types of acts to change how he or she appears. The first one is surface acting, also known as body language, which involves changing facial expressions (Grandey, 2000: 100; Grandey, 2003: 86; Hochschild, 2003: 35). Surface acting is exhibiting emotions that the individual does not really feel. It involves stimulating emotions displayed with presentation of verbal and non-verbal signs such as facial expressions, gestures and mimes (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 92; Chu and Murrmann, 2006: 1182). For example, a flight attendant uses surface acting to display the calmness that he or she does not genuinely feel (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 92).

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The second one is deep acting, in which genuine emotions are not expressed and intrinsic emotions can be changed (Grandey, 2000: 100; Grandey, 2003: 86; Hochschild, 2003: 35). Deep acting is the process of controlling emotions and thoughts expected from the employee to fall in line with the rules. Deep acting displayed by the employee may provide positive feedback from customers. This positive feedback may improve personal effectiveness in turn (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22). Deep acting does not occur only with the change in physical expressions, but also with recalling joyful experiences in the past and creating positive emotions using imagination (Chu and Murrmann, 2006: 1182).

The employee may control and change his or her emotional expressions using these acts. For example, when the employee faces with a difficult customer or feels a little under the weather, he or she may put on a fake smile (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 88) mentions a third emotional labor strategy in cases where emotions of the employee and behaviours required to be displayed in accordance with the rules of the organisation are in line with each other. This strategy is the expression of genuine emotion and requires less trouble. For example, a bartender may act with his genuine emotions when dealing with depressed customers (Chu and Murrmann, 2006: 1182).

Emotional labor may facilitate the ability of self-expression and effectiveness in working life (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 88) and increase job satisfaction (Chu, 2002: 7-8). However, it is considered as a source of problem since it sometimes leads to being estranged from emotions and may damage the employee both physically and psychologically (Adelm ann, 1989; Morris and Feldman, 1996: 1000; Kim, 2008: 151). These problems include self- alienation (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 88; Cropanzano et al., 2003: 45), emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction (Chu, 2002: 7-8; Pugh et al., 2010: 1), stress and low performance (Cropanzano et al., 2003: 45). One of the most discussed negative outcomes of emotional labor is emotional dissonance. Role conflict may occur when the behaviour displayed by the employee is different from what he or she actually feels and emotional labor may cause emotional dissonance (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 88; Abraham, 1998: 229; Pratt and Doucet, 2006: 212; Pugh et al., 2010: 2).

According to Pratt and Doucet (2006: 213), emotional labor may cause emotional dissonance in two ways. Firstly, obligation to suppress positive feelings may lead to awakening of negative emotions. Secondly, suppression of negative emotions such as anger may be a source of pride in professional life. Therefore, emotional labor may lead to presence of positive and negative feelings at the same time in both cases.

**Literature Review**

Studies on emotional labor cover several different areas. Labor is an emotional and physical component of interest (James, 1992: 488). Service personnel working in service businesses such as restaurants and bars may maintain their personalities, defend themselves and hide their true identities through emotional labor strategies (Seymour, 2000; Sandiford and Seymour, 2002). Guerrier and Adib (2003: 1399), who investigated emotional labor in representatives working for tour operators, note that representatives accept a certain part of disadvantages associated with their job and become more disciplined employees.

In his study on emotional labor in hospitality industry, Kim (2008: 151) concludes that surface acting is more exhausting and cynical than deep acting and also emotional labor’s intermediary effect between burnout, job properties and personality traits is weak.

In the study which they conducted with tour leaders, Wong and Wang (2009) addressed emotional labor strategies and premises and outcomes of emotional labor within the framework of the idea that tour leadership is a job that requires emotional labor. According to the results of this study, tour leaders had a consensus that it constitutes a failure if they do not act in accordance with expectations of tour participants and the researchers concluded that emotional labor was a part of their professional role. In addition, with regard to emotional labor strategies, tour leaders accepted that they suppressed inappropriate emotions or displayed fake emotions in order to cope with cases of emotional dissonance.

In the study that they conducted in order to investigate whether emotional labor differed for employees providing services for domestic customers and employees providing services for foreign customers, Avcı and Kılıç (2010) addressed the concept in two dimensions: “emotional dissonance” and “emotive effort”. Chu and Murrmann (2006) refers to the dimension which involves items related to surface acting and genuine behaviour as emotive dissonance and the dimension which involves items related to deep acting as emotive effort. In summary, emotive dissonance is the difference between emotions presented or displayed because they conform to representation rules and emotions genuinely felt, but thought to be inappropriate to display. Emotive effort refers to the struggle of employees in order to comply with the rules determined by the organisation (Avcı and Kılıç, 2010: 294).
In the study where they define emotional labor as the management of emotional expression in order to meet the expectations of the organisation, Van Dijk et al., (2011: 39) identified a significant relationship between emotional labor strategies of guides and perception of visitors.

Yürür and Ünlü (2011) performed a study with hotel employees and identified a significant relationship between surface acting and intention to quit, whereas the researchers were unable to identify a significant relationship between deep acting, intention to quit and emotional exhaustion.

In a study conducted in order to determine the relationship between emotional labor and burnout status of tour guides, Kaya and Özhan (2012) found that tour guides’ depersonalisation level, which is one of the dimensions of burnout, decreased as their deep and genuine acting levels and sense of personal achievement increased.

In a study conducted in order to determine emotional labor spent by professional tour guides and reveal its relationship with intention to quit, Güzel and Gök (2013) identified a statistically significant relationship between experience variable and deep acting dimension.

In a study performed in order to determine emotional labor levels and emotional labor dimensions of hotel employees and identify the effect of emotional labor on their attitudes, Pala and Tepeci (2014) found that job satisfaction and intention to stay on the job of hotel employees displaying deep acting increased, whereas job satisfaction of those displaying surface acting decreased.

In a study focusing on the analysis of emotional labor process and outcomes of employees working in tourism for handicapped, Baş and Kılıç (2014) found male employees’ emotional effort scores to be higher compared to female employees’ emotional effort scores. Emotional dissonance scores of employees in the 18-29 age group was found to be lower compared to emotional dissonance scores of employees in the 40 and over age group.

In a study performed in order to determine emotional labor levels and emotional labor dimensions of hotel employees and identify the effect of emotional labor on their attitudes, Pala and Tepeci (2014) found that job satisfaction and intention to stay on the job of hotel employees displaying deep acting increased, whereas job satisfaction of those displaying surface acting decreased.

In a study conducted in order to determine emotional labor behaviour of employees working at food and beverage businesses and investigate its effect on emotional exhaustion and intention to quit, Korkmaz et al., (2015) found that surface acting increased emotional exhaustion and intention to quit, whereas deep acting increased sense of personal achievement.

Self-Acceptance

Self-acceptance is one of the sub-dimensions of psychological well-being. Psychological well-being is the subject of positive psychology. Bradburn (1969: 4) was the first to use the concept within the scope of being happy and healthy and believed that it was necessary for mental health and joy of life. Ryff (1989: 1071) explained psychological well-being with six elements: self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth.

In her psychological well-being model, Ryff (1989: 1070) used Maslow’s idea of self-actualization, Roger’s idea of fully functioning person, Jung’s idea of individuation and Allport’s idea of maturity.

Ryff and Keyes (1995: 719) noted that psychological well-being had been discussed over two concepts for a long time. The first one is the balance between positive and negative effects, described as happiness, and the second one is life satisfaction, which is one of the key concepts of well-being.

Ryff (1989: 1071) referred to self-acceptance as the most prominent element of psychological well-being. A high self-acceptance score shows that the individual has a positive attitude toward himself or herself, thinks positively about his or her past and completely accepts himself or herself with positives and negatives, whereas a low self-acceptance score indicates that the individual is dissatisfied with himself or herself, thinks negatively about himself or herself, has problems with some of his or her qualities and desires to look different (Ryff, 1989: 1072).

In general, self-acceptance is associated with psychological well-being (MacInnes, 2006: 483) and positive emotions. A high level of positive emotion provides a high level of self-acceptance (Jimenez et al., 2010: 648). According to studies on self-acceptance, level of self-acceptance increases as prejudices are reduced (Rubin, 1967: 233) and self-esteem and awareness levels increase (Thompson and Waltz, 2008: 119). Those with low self-acceptance feel the need for making up for their shortcomings and praising themselves (Carson and Langer, 2006). A low self-acceptance may lead to depression (Flett et al., 2003; Carson and Langer, 2006). Also, the desire to get away from daily life and anxiety are associated with difficulties experienced in relation to self-acceptance (Mohr and Fassinger, 2003).

In working life, factors affecting employees’ social, emotional and psychological well-being are considered to be high work load and stress, constructive and destructive emotions and psychological capital (Rahimnia et al., 2013). Positive perfectionism affects employees’ work engagement and psychological well-being positively, whereas negative perfectionism has a negative effect (Kanten and Yeşiltaş, 2015: 1367).

The Purpose and the Importance of the Research
A literature review shows that almost all definitions of emotional labor focus on a single point. The consensus on this subject is “management of emotions”. Although there are studies on negative effects of emotional labor on employees’ psychology in the literature (Adelmann, 1989; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Chu, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2003; Pratt and Doucet, 2006; Kim, 2008; Pugh et al., 2010), there is a limited number of studies on emotional labor that mentions psychological well-being directly or indirectly (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Pugliesi, 1999; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Bono and Meredith, 2007; Gürsoy et al., 2011; Rahimnia et al., 2013; Kanten and Yeşiltaş, 2015).

Studies that mention similar concepts may be grouped as depersonalisation (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Lee and Ok, 2012), psychological distress and stress (Pugliesi, 1999; Gürsoy et al., 2011; Rahimnia et al., 2013), personality and self-control (Bono and Meredith, 2007), work engagement and perfectionism (Kanten and Yeşiltaş, 2015). From this point, this study investigates whether there is a relationship between emotional labor and self-acceptance, which is one of the sub-dimensions of psychological well-being.

The main purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between emotional labor presentation styles and self-acceptance scores of tour guides. The study conducted to this end is based on determination of self-acceptance scores and emotional labor presentation styles displayed by tour guides when interacting with tourists.

This study is believed to be important in that it investigates the relationship between emotional labor and self-acceptance scores and provides a different perspective to the topic by explaining the psychology of tour guides when doing their job through self-acceptance.

Population and Sample

The population of the study is made up of 9930 tour guides registered to chambers of The Union of Tourist Guides operating in Turkey (TUREB, 2016). It can be said that a sample size of 370 participants is sufficient for such as study in accordance with Sekaran scale (2003: 294). The sample was created using the convenience sampling, which is one of the non-probability sampling methods (Sekaran, 2003: 276).

The necessary permissions were obtained from relevant chambers and the tour guides were contacted via e-mail, telephone and social media. In addition to recommendations of relevant chambers, the researchers contacted with a total of 740 tour guides (twice the size of sample) via e-mail, telephone and social media in order to achieve the sufficient sample size. A total of 326 questionnaires were filled, which indicates a return rate of 44.1%. 19 questionnaires were excluded from analyses due to missing or repetitive information and analyses were performed with 307 questionnaires in total.

Measurement Tools

In order to determine emotional labor presentation styles of tour guides, we used “Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale (HELS)” developed by Chu and Morrow (2006) and adapted to Turkish and tested for validity and reliability by Pala (2008) and Avcı and Boylu (2010). The participants were asked to express their thoughts about each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

In order to determine self-acceptance levels of tour guides, we used the “Self-Acceptance” sub-scale of Psychological Well-Being Scale developed by Ryff (1989) and adapted to Turkish and tested for validity and reliability by Akin (2008). The participants were asked to express their thoughts about each item on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The maximum self-acceptance scale score was 70 (14*5=70) and the minimum scale score was 14 (14*1=14). In the self-acceptance scale, the 3rd, 4th, 7th, 9th, 10th, 11th and 14th questions were reverse scored.

The question form was administered to tour guides registered to chambers of The Union of Tourist Guides between November 2015 and January 2016.

We tried to measure the reliability of the question form in according to internal consistency analysis approach and used the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient, which is known as the most widely used method in this analysis. As a result the reliability analysis, the alpha coefficient of the 19-item Emotional Labor Scale was found to be 0.946 and the alpha coefficient of the 14-item Self-Acceptance Scale was found to be 0.925.

In this study, we used emotional labor presentation styles and average self-acceptance scores of tour guides. In this context, the hypotheses of the study were as follows:

H1: There is a relationship between surface acting, one of the emotional labor presentation styles, and average self-acceptance scores of tour guides.

H2: There is a relationship between deep acting, one of the emotional labor presentation styles, and average self-acceptance scores of tour guides.

Data Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

The distribution of 307 tour guides who participated in the study in terms of gender, age and marital status was as follows: 31.3% of the participants were female and 68.7% were male. 2% were under the age of 24, 42% were between the ages of 25-34, 28.3% were between the ages of 35-45, 16% were between the ages of
46-54, 7.2% were between the ages of 55-64 and 4.5% were over the age of 65. 58.6% of the participants were married and 41.4% were single. The distribution of the participants in terms of educational status and years of experience was as follows: 3.6% had a high school degree, 13.4% had an associate’s degree, 60.9% had a bachelor’s degree, 15% had a master’s degree and 7.1% had a doctoral degree. 9.1% of the participants had less than 1 year of experience, 19.5% had 2-5 years of experience, 27.4% had 6-10 years of experience, 13% had 11-15 years of experience, 8.8% had 16-20 years of experience and 22.2% had more than 21 years of experience.

### Emotional Labor Presentation Styles of Tour Guides

The Principal Components Analysis produced a Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) value of .886. The correlation was calculated according to answers given by the participants and the construct of the question form was evaluated with the factor analysis performed according to varimax rotation using the principal components technique and the number of items was reduced to 9 from 19.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>% of Variance</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Deep Acting</td>
<td>57.010</td>
<td>0.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Surface Acting</td>
<td>17.196</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variance explained % 74.206, Kaiser Meyer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy .886, The Bartlett’s test of sphericity (significant level).000

2 factors were found based on .50 load value on factors. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 1. The alpha value was found to be .904. The total explained variance was 74.206%. Inspired from the literature, the first dimension was named “deep acting” and the second dimension was named “surface acting”. As seen in Table 1, the total explained variance was 74.206%. The first dimension explained 57.010% of the variance, whereas the second dimension explained 17.196%.

### Average Self-Acceptance Scores of Tour Guides

The maximum self-acceptance scale score was 70 and the minimum scale score was 14. It was observed that self-acceptance scores of tour guides varied between 14 and 67. The average self-acceptance score of tour guides was approximately 38 (X̄=37.9544). 61.6% of the tour guides had a self-acceptance score between 14-40 and 38.4% had a self-acceptance score between 41-67.

### The Relationship Between Emotional Labor Presentation Styles and Self-Acceptance Scores of Tour Guides

Whether there is a relationship between emotional labor presentation styles and self-acceptance scores of tour guides was tested with Correlation Analysis. According to the results of the analysis, there was a positive correlation between tour guides’ self-acceptance levels and “deep acting” presentation style, one of the emotional labor strategies, and this correlation was statistically significant (Pearson’s r=0.765, p<0.01, r²=0.54). There was a strong relationship between the two variables. There was a positive correlation between tour guides’ self-acceptance levels and “surface acting” presentation style and this correlation was statistically significant (Pearson’s r=0.519, p<0.01, r²=0.27). There was a moderate relationship between the two variables.

### Conclusion

In this study conducted with tour guides, emotional labor presentation styles of tour guides were described as deep acting and surface acting. It can be said that tour guides use both the deep acting strategy and the surface acting strategy to display emotional labor. According to this result, tour guides seem to try to display what is expected from them by controlling their genuine emotions and thoughts using the deep acting strategy and also reflect emotions that they do not really feel using the surface acting strategy and communicate with tourists hiding their true identities under the tour guide mask.

Another notable point in the study is that tour guides obtained low self-acceptance scores in general. Based on Ryff’s (1989: 1071-1072) ideas on self-acceptance score, it seems that tour guides with low self-acceptance scores are not pleased with themselves, have negative thoughts about their past, have troubles with some of their qualities and want to look different.

As well as providing information and solving problems, tour guides represent their countries in the international arena. In this sense, they have a great responsibility. As a profession, tour guiding may cause the exercising person to sacrifice himself or herself. For this reason, expectations from tour guides to maintain a certain behaviour while practicing their job negatively affect their thoughts related to self-acceptance.

Therefore, tour guides’ job performance style and self-acceptance are related with each other. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 99) mentioned gains of emotional labor in relation to identity and inferred that when the person plays a role that is not so different from his or her identity, emotional labor should
have a very low impact on well-being. Based on this inference, we can say that a person who reflects emotions that are completely different from what he or she actually feels may hesitate over self-acceptance, which may have psychologically negative effects. In this context, self-control level will likely be higher. A high level of self-control is less stressful compared to a lower level of self-control and requires deep acting (Bono and Meredith, 2007).

Tour guides try to keep themselves under control in terms of emotions that they feel and behaviour that they display and hide emotions felt during job performance using deep acting and surface acting strategies. This psychological tension negatively affects tour guides’ self-satisfaction and manifests itself in working life. In cases where the difference between what is expected and what is felt, job satisfaction decreases and mental tension increases (Pugliesi, 1999; Gürsoy et al., 2011). This dissatisfaction and tension affect depersonalisation (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Lee and Ok, 2012).

We believe that addressing the topic solely from a negative perspective will lead to a deficient evaluation. It should be remembered that the deep acting strategy and the surface acting strategy have two different effects. From a positive perspective, the deep acting strategy may increase self-expression skill (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993) and job satisfaction (Chu, 2002) since it allows the employee to display what his or her genuine emotions. In such a case, the employee will be expected to have a high self-acceptance score. Although 61.6% of the tour guides had a self-acceptance score between 14-40, a considerable portion, 38.4% of the tour guides had an self-acceptance score between 41-67, which may be associated with the deep acting strategy.

This article prepared with the hope that it will partially close the gap in the literature regarding the relationship between emotional labor and well-being is limited to 307 tour guides participated in the study. As noted by Rahimnia et al., (2013: 923), the interest in emotional labor and well-being will increase in future. Findings of the present study will be compared with results of studies on other areas of the service industry and the relationship between self-acceptance and emotional labor will be interpreted with more clarity.

REFERENCES


