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**A RESEARCH ON TOUR GUIDES' USE OF
EMOTIONAL LABOR AND THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN THEIR JOB SATISFACTION AND
BURNOUT LEVELS: THE SAMPLE OF İZMİR**

Master Thesis

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İZMİR – 2015

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis titled as "A Research on Tour Guides' Use of Emotional Labor and the Relationship Between Their Job Satisfaction and Burnout Levels: The Sample of Izmir" has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honour.

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ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

**A Research On Tour Guides' Use Of Emotional Labor And The Relationship
Between Their Job Satisfaction And Burnout Levels: The Sample of Izmir**

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In today's highly competitive business environment, employees are expected to display positive attitudes and emotions as it affects the service quality and volume of business of a company. In hospitality industry, where customer employee encounter is occurred intensely, comprehension of emotional labor is significant as it is directly related with employees' well being and performance. Emotional labor is defined as employee's ability to conform their outward behavior to display the appropriate emotions for a wage and the job nature of tour leaders demand a high degree of emotional labor.

Tour guiding is considered to be one of the most attractive jobs by many people but it is not the case in real life for them being front-line employees who are in face-to-face interaction with customers all the time. Most of the time they have to examine the group's expectations and behave in a manner to match these expectations to complete the tour with satisfied guests. So they cannot always express their felt emotions with 'Customer is always right' rule in their minds.

Tour guiding as one component of the tourism product is subject to emotional labor and the purpose of this research is to identify the use of emotional labor and impact of it on tour guide's levels of job satisfaction and burnout. The research is carried out on tour guides who are active members of İZRO.

The study is divided into four sections. The first two sections are related to tour guiding and emotions and emotional labor. In the third section, the outcomes of the EL in terms of job satisfaction and burnout is explained and lastly the analysis of data is followed by a discussion of the findings and recommendations.

Keywords: Tour guide; Emotions; Emotional Labor; Job Satisfaction; Burnout

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Turist Rehberlerinin Duygusal Emek Kullanımı ile İş Doyumu ve Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişkiler Üzerine Bir Araştırma: İzmir İli Örneği

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Günümüzün yoğun rekabet gerektiren iş ortamında çalışanlardan, bir şirketin hizmet kalitesini ve iş hacmini etkilemesi bakımından, olumlu tavır ve duygular sergilemeleri beklenmektedir. Müşteri ilişkilerinin yoğun olarak gerçekleştiği turizm endüstrisinde duygusal emeği anlamak, çalışanların sağlığını ve performansını etkilemesi bakımından iyi anlaşılması gereken bir olgudur. Duygusal emek çalışanların aldıkları ücret karşılığında gözlemlenebilen davranışlarını çalıştıkları şirketin gösterim kuralları ile uyumlu hale getirebilmeleri olarak tanımlanmaktadır ve tur rehberliği işin doğası gereği yüksek oranda duygusal emek gerektirmektedir.

Tur rehberliği çoğu insan tarafından çekici bir meslek olarak algılsa da insanlarla yüz yüze iletişim gerektirmesi ve bire bir, sürekli ön planda olan çalışanlar olmayı gerektirmesi bakımından gerçekte durum farklıdır. Çoğu zaman, misafirlerin turu memnun bir şekilde tamamlayabilmeleri adına grup beklentilerini iyi değerlendirmeleri ve bu beklentileri karşılayacak şekilde davranmaları gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle de 'Müşteri her zaman haklıdır' kuralını düşünerek her zaman hissettikleri duyguları aynı şekilde yansıtamazlar.

Turizm ürününün bir halkası olan turist rehberliği duygusal emeğin konusudur ve bu araştırmanın amacı turist rehberlerinin duygusal emek kullanımı ile duygusal emek kullanımının iş doyumu ve mesleki tükenmişlik düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesidir. Araştırma, İZRO üyesi rehberler ile gerçekleştirilmiştir.

İlk iki bölümde tur rehberliği, duygu ve duygusal emek kavramları, üçüncü bölümde iş doyumu ve tükenmişlik kavramları ile bu kavramların duygusal emek ile olan ilişkileri, dördüncü bölümde ise araştırma sonuçlarının analizleri bulunmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Tur rehberi; Duygu; Duygusal Emek; İş Doyumu; Tükenmişlik

**A RESEARCH ON TOUR GUIDES' USE OF EMOTIONAL LABOR AND
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEIR JOB SATISFACTION AND
BURNOUT LEVELS: THE SAMPLE OF IZMIR**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|-------------------|------|
| DECLARATION | ii |
| ABSTRACT | iv |
| ÖZET | v |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | vi |
| LIST OF TABLES | xi |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xii |
| ABBREVIATIONS | xiii |
| APPENDIX | xiv |
| | |
| INTRODUCTION | 1 |

**PART I
INTRODUCTION TO TOUR GUIDING**

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| 1.1. The Concept of Tourist Guide | 3 |
| 1.2. Definition of Tourist Guide | 6 |
| 1.3. Types of Tourist Guides | 8 |
| 1.4. History and Evolution of Guided Tours | 9 |
| 1.5. Required Characteristics of a Professional Tourist Guide | 13 |
| 1.5.1. Knowledge | 15 |
| 1.5.1.1. Knowledge of a Foreign Language | 15 |
| 1.5.1.2. Knowledge of General Culture | 15 |
| 1.5.1.3. Knowledge about Other Cultures | 16 |
| 1.5.1.4. First-aid Knowledge | 17 |

| | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| 1.5.2. Skills and Abilities | 17 |
| 1.5.2.1. Narrative Skills | 18 |
| 1.5.2.2. Communication Skills | 18 |
| 1.5.2.3. Interpretation Skills | 20 |
| 1.5.2.4. Organization and Coordination Skills | 21 |
| 1.5.2.5. Ability to Deal with Questions | 22 |
| 1.5.2.6. Ability to Renew Themselves and Update Their Knowledge | 23 |
| 1.5.3. Personality Characteristics | 23 |
| 1.5.3.1. Leadership Spirit | 23 |
| 1.5.3.2. Extroverted Personality | 24 |
| 1.5.3.3. Hospitable Personality | 25 |
| 1.5.3.4. Sense of Humour | 25 |
| 1.5.3.5. Clothing Style | 26 |
| 1.5.3.6. Professional Ethics Concerns | 26 |

PART II

EMOTIONAL LABOR, ANTECEDENTS AND STRATEGIES

| | |
|------------------------------------------|----|
| 2.1. Emotion | 28 |
| 2.2. Expression of Emotions | 31 |
| 2.3. Emotional Labor | 32 |
| 2.4. Basic Approaches of Emotional Labor | 33 |
| 2.4.1. Hochschild's Approach | 33 |
| 2.4.2. Ashforth and Humphrey's Approach | 34 |
| 2.4.3. Morris and Feldman's Approach | 35 |
| 2.4.4. Grandey's Approach | 37 |
| 2.5. Emotional Labor Strategies | 40 |
| 2.5.1. Surface Acting | 40 |
| 2.5.2. Deep Acting | 41 |
| 2.5.3. Genuine Acting | 42 |
| 2.6. Antecedents of Emotional Labor | 43 |

| | |
|--------------------------------------------------|----|
| 2.6.1. Individualistic Factors | 43 |
| 2.6.1.1. Gender | 44 |
| 2.6.1.2. Age | 44 |
| 2.6.1.3. Marital Status | 45 |
| 2.6.1.4. Experience | 45 |
| 2.6.1.5. Empathy | 46 |
| 2.6.1.6. Affectivity | 47 |
| 2.6.1.7. Emotional Intelligence | 47 |
| 2.6.2. Organizational Factors | 48 |
| 2.6.2.1. Display Rules | 48 |
| 2.6.2.2. Autonomy | 50 |
| 2.6.2.3. Supervisor and coworker support | 51 |
| 2.6.3. Interaction Characteristics | 52 |
| 2.6.3.1. Frequency of Interaction | 52 |
| 2.6.3.2. Attentiveness to Required Display Rules | 53 |
| 2.6.3.2.1. Duration of Interaction | 53 |
| 2.6.3.2.2. Intensity | 54 |
| 2.6.3.3. Variety of Emotions | 55 |
| 2.7. Outcomes of Emotional Labor | 56 |
| 2.7.1. Positive Outcomes | 56 |
| 2.7.2. Negative Outcomes | 58 |

PART III

JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT

| | |
|--------------------------------------------------|----|
| 3.1. Job Satisfaction | 61 |
| 3.1.1. Theories of Motivation | 63 |
| 3.1.1.1. Content Theories | 63 |
| 3.1.1.1.1. Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs | 63 |
| 3.1.1.1.2. Two Factor Theory | 64 |
| 3.1.1.1.3. Theory of Need for Achievement | 64 |
| 3.1.1.1.4. ERG Theory | 65 |

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| 3.1.1.2. Process Theories of Motivation | 65 |
| 3.1.1.2.1. Goal-setting Theory | 66 |
| 3.1.1.2.2. Expectancy Theory | 66 |
| 3.1.1.2.3. Equity Theory | 67 |
| 3.1.1.2.4. Instrumental Conditioning Theory | 67 |
| 3.1.2. Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction | 68 |
| 3.1.2.1. Individualistic Factors | 68 |
| 3.1.2.1.1. Gender | 68 |
| 3.1.2.1.2. Age | 69 |
| 3.1.2.1.3. Education | 70 |
| 3.1.2.1.4. Personality Traits | 71 |
| 3.1.2.2. Organizational and Environmental Factors | 71 |
| 3.2. Burnout | 74 |
| 3.2.1. Theoretical Background of Burnout | 74 |
| 3.2.2. Components of Burnout | 76 |
| 3.2.3. Causes of Burnout | 77 |
| 3.2.4. Consequences of Burnout | 79 |
| 3.3. Relationship of Emotional Labor with Job Satisfaction and Burnout | 80 |
| 3.3.1. Emotional Labor and Burnout | 80 |
| 3.3.2. Emotional Labor and Job Satisfaction | 81 |
| 3.4. Studies related to the relationship of Emotional Labor on Job Satisfaction and Burnout | 82 |

PART IV

TOUR GUIDES' USE OF EMOTIONAL LABOR AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEIR JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT LEVELS

| | |
|---------------------------------|----|
| 4.1. Research Objectives | 84 |
| 4.2. Importance of the Research | 86 |
| 4.3. Research Method | 87 |
| 4.3.1. Research Content | 87 |
| 4.3.2. Scales used in Research | 88 |

| | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 4.3.2.1. Emotional Labor Scale | 88 |
| 4.3.2.2. Job Satisfaction Scale | 89 |
| 4.3.2.3. Burnout Scale | 91 |
| 4.3.3. Determination of Research Size and Sample | 92 |
| 4.3.4. Research Limitations | 93 |
| 4.3.5. Research Hypotheses | 93 |
| 4.4. Research Analyses and Results | 94 |
| 4.4.1. Demographic Characteristics and Experience of the Participants | 94 |
| 4.4.2. Scale Reliability and Validity | 95 |
| 4.4.3. Research Results | 96 |
| CONCLUSION | 106 |
| REFERENCES | 110 |
| APPENDIX | 129 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Table 1: Different Roles of Tourist Guides | 14 |
| Table 2: Basic Knowledge areas for a Tourist Guide | 16 |
| Table 3: Demographic Characteristics and Experience of the Participants | 95 |
| Table 4: Reliability Analysis of the Scales | 96 |
| Table 5: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of EL Dimensions and Gender | 97 |
| Table 6: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of EL Dimensions and Marital Status | 98 |
| Table 7: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of EL Dimensions and Age | 99 |
| Table 8: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of EL Dimensions and Experience | 100 |
| Table 9: Scale Correlations | 102 |
| Table 10: Evaluation of Hypotheses | 105 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Figure 1: Types of Tourist Guides | 9 |
| Figure 2: Wheel of Emotions | 29 |
| Figure 3: Overall Framework for the Structure of Affect | 30 |
| Figure 4: Morris and Feldman's Emotional Labor Model | 37 |
| Figure 5: Grandey's Conceptual Framework of Emotion Regulation | 39 |

ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| DA | Deep Acting |
| DEP. | Depersonalization |
| EL | Emotional Labor |
| EM. EX. | Emotional Exhaustion |
| GA | Genuine Acting |
| HEL | Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale |
| İZRO | İzmir Chamber of Tourist Guides |
| JOB SAT. | Job Satisfaction |
| JS | Job Satisfaction |
| MSQ | Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire |
| NA | Negative Affect |
| PA | Positive Affect |
| PERS. ACC. | Personal Accomplishment |
| SA | Surface Acting |
| WTO | World Tourism Organization |

APPENDICES

| | |
|------------------------------------------------|-----|
| APP. 1: Research Survey Form in Turkish | 129 |
| APP. 2: Research Survey Form in English | 138 |

INTRODUCTION

Tourist guiding has been described as " the 'Cinderella' of the tourism industry: attractive, useful, but often neglected" (Mak et al., 2011: 1442). Tourist guiding comprises complicated and multivariate roles composed of different kinds of unrelated roles and sub-roles (Rabotic, 2010: 3). Tour guides serve purposes such as educator, information giver, interpreter, leader, role model, cultural broker, facilitator of access to non-public areas, tour and group organiser and representative of tour companies (Black and Weiler, 2005: 26). The prime responsibility of a tour guide is to turn the tourists' experience into a most pleasurable while making the information available in an entertaining yet culturally acceptable manner (Boyle and Arnott, 2004: 75). Since the tour guide is in an incessant and maximal contact with the tour members throughout the tour's entire duration, the responsibility for achieving higher levels of customer satisfaction is mostly passed on to them (Geva and Goldman 1991: 178).

The tourist guide usually has frequent, extended, and mostly intensive encounters with people who participate in tours and is expected to display diverse emotions. They act the role of a characteristic emotional laborer in the tourism environment. In addition to this, she or he has extremely restricted space and time for himself or herself in which to discharge the emotional burden, as a result they're faced with a much more increased intensity of challenge (Wong and Wang, 2009: 250). Jobholders in the hospitality industry are exclusively susceptible to the requisitions of emotional labor since they are generally requested to maintain friendly manners and positive attitudes while doing their jobs even under the conditions that usually reveal unfavorable emotional reactions such as dealing with intolerant, difficult or irritating customers, incessant work cycle (Pizam, 2004: 315). At the same time expectations of quality from both tourism stakeholders and tourists are augmenting as the tourism market is expanding and competition is rising. All these factors contribute to emotional burden of tourist guides.

That was Arlie Hochschild (1979: 551, 1983: 7) who introduced the concept of emotional labor for the first time and it is defined as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display." Since the employees in the

tourism industry are exposed to high contact interactions and considerable amount of encounters with customers, it is particularly necessary for professionals in this industry to have the potential to regulate, manage and handle their emotions so as to communicate with others both constructively and successfully (Carvelzani et al., 2008: 1). If the actually felt emotions by the employee are not incompatible with the emotions that are displayed, various negative results ensue (Güngör, 2009: 168). In spite of its benefit to an organization's business flow, emotional labor can be deleterious not only psychologically but also physically to those who provides services. Most researches in this field in literature have demonstrated that emotional labor leads to negative results such as a rise in levels of employee burnout, a decrease in job satisfaction.

Since most studies published in hospitality and tourism journals rely on qualitative methods, there is a scarcity of quantitative research to empirically validate the use of emotional labor and consequences of emotional labor. Though there are several researches on emotional labor related to other occupational groups in Turkey, this research aims to make a contribution to a more nuanced understanding of the subject within the occupational context of tourism guidance.

Therefore, this study is designed to examine the use of emotional labor and outcomes of emotional labor here being job satisfaction and burnout, using a survey (quantitative) method, in the context of the tour guiding industry. The effect of demographic factors and emotional labor strategies are explained and the consequences of emotional labor focus on job satisfaction and burnout.

PART I

INTRODUCTION TO TOUR GUIDING

This part of the dissertation comprises information about tourist guiding, its definition; the emergence of the occupation and its development back in history as well as their roles, responsibilities and common characteristics as the profession stands out as a vital role in terms of tourists' guides potential in creating competitive advantage to other countries and attract more tourists.

1.1. The Concept of Tourist Guide

Tourist guiding, as one of the oldest professions in tourism industry, has a critical importance in terms of promoting the natural and historical wealth of a country effectively and efficiently. Guide is a term meaning someone who is leading and showing the way. Tourist guiding is perceived as a fun and easy occupation that offers many opportunities such as travelling, sightseeing, having fun, meeting new people and places from the outside but the reality is that it is a profession with many difficulties and problems (Batman et al., 2000: 24).

Tourist guides lead group of visitors on tours to places of their own interest. While some guides lead short term visits such as daily excursions which last a couple hours or sometimes a day, some guides lead groups of people on long term visits which may enclose a time duration of a week up to a month. They are not only expected to know everything and answer all the questions about history, geography, places of interest, architecture, museums, shopping districts, best restaurants and entertainment facilities but also pay attention to the route, speed limits, hotel locations, traffic hours, managing time as well as dealing with the driver, the tourists, safety issues and many more. Besides, they do this standing backward in a moving bus trying to entertain the tour participants with an imaginative and creative interpretation at the same time. Their prior responsibility is to ensure a safe and enjoyable trip (Ferguson, 2010: 109-111).

A tourist guide is a person, in most countries a licensed professional, who is assigned to accompany not only groups but also individual visitors or namely tourists in and around of natural settings, historic sites, and buildings and sceneries in the

preferred country, region or place and who also interprets natural and cultural heritage, both tangible and intangible, in an entertaining and inspiring way. For most guided tours, one guide is assigned per group; this way the guide has the opportunity to adapt the theme and style coherent with the group and also they are capable of interacting with them via reciprocal interaction or in other forms of communication with group members. This way, they are able to enhance the tourists' experience, improve visitor satisfaction, increase their awareness and understanding as well as shaping behaviors, attitudes and perceptions. They work either as self-employed or are employed by various touristic establishments such as travel agencies or tour operators, hotels, lodges, resorts, attraction and theme parks, public or private museums and visitor centers where they function a pivotale role as part of the tourism product or the experience of visitors. They make sure the tour runs smoothly and is safe using their mediatory and interpretive facets of guiding. These facets not only affect the ambiance of the tour and the experience of the tourists but also their perceptions of the visited area; hence shaping their post-visit attitudes and overall image about the destination in terms of repeat visits, word of mouth advertising to friends or purchase of another tour for a different region within the same country or another tour of the very same tour operator (Weiler and Black, 2015: 1-4).

Tourists expect to have unique experiences and look for variety along with a high quality service to be fully satisfied which is solely based on tourist guides' skills on interpretation and information as well as their expertise on managing of group dynamics as they act a vital role on influencing sensations and emotions adapted to clients' interests. It's in tourist guides' hands to make information more meaningful via creative interpretation by embedding humour to reality, telling stories and using wittiness. Thus, tourist guides should elaborate diverse professional and personal features to ensure high quality service. A solid education, continous training and real life experiences are essential elements of effective tourist guiding along with a deep knowledge of the destinations, communication skills, responsible and honest behaviors. As the tour guides' experience, creativity, background, and devoutness differs from each other, each tour is unique and personalized in nature. It's normal that tourists trust guide's commentaries on destination and local community as their stay or visit is usually not long enough to make observations and gain knowledge. At

this point, the tourist guide is the only mediator between the host destination and its visitors; thus holding on an important function. (Brito, 2012: 270-275).

Tourist guides should also follow society dynamics attentively, and have a foresight about new trends, changes on customs and traditions, possible upcoming events in the near future. They should similarly be knowledgeable retroactively. They are expected to answer questions about the origins of current social rules, their executions back in the past, the reason of their necessity and changes that have been made over time (Ahipaşaoğlu, 1994: 137).

Some of the basic roles of the tourist guides can be summarized as follows (Ferguson, 2010: 112, Wressnig, 1999: 40):

- to make sure all members of the group stay together so no one gets lost
- to make sure they are on time for various arrivals and departures
- educate the group about places they visit
- make alternative arrangements in case of delays, inconvenient weather conditions, over-bookings etc.
- dealing with personal issues regarding to dietary requirements, wheelchair accessibility for handicapped guests, sick travelers etc.
- confirming reservations prior to an arrival point on the route
- ensuring a safe and an enjoyable trip by planning and overseeing every detail of the tour
- provide information about customs and rules to prevent any offensive behavior such as breaking social rules or violating others' privacy.
- giving instructions about general behavior such as taking photographs with or without flash or none at all, not to remain too close to glasscases, not to touch the exhibit, removing hats or covering bare shoulders etc.
- provide information about value of money in foreign currency

In Turkish context, the aim of tourist guiding is to make contribution to the promotion and appraisal of tourist attractions of Turkey and provide a correct and better understanding of the visited areas in the context of tourism policies defined by Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Tourist guiding activity includes taking in and around all kinds of individual tourists and groups as well as supporting activities in

this regard without any prejudice to occupational activity areas and the rights of other tourism professionals granted by law (Tetik, 2006: 3).

1.2. Definition of Tourist Guide

According to the definition of World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (WFTGA, 2003) which was mentioned during the 10th International Convention that took place in Dunblane, United Kingdom, a tourist guide is defined as “a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area, which person normally possesses an area-specific qualification usually issued and / or recognised by the appropriate authority”. According to the definition of Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Turkey, a professional tourist guide is defined in the Professional Tourist Guiding Regulation (Official Gazette of the Republic of Turkey, 2005) as a person who;

- have the authority to perform the guiding profession in accordance with the principles and procedures defined in the regulation
- guides the local and foreign tourists in accordance with the languages specified on their guidance identity cards that is compatible with tourists’ choice before the visit
- interprets them the cultural and natural heritage of the visited regions
- executes the tour program that was sold to the consumer in accordance with the printed documents of the tour operator or travel agency
- manages the tour program on behalf of travel business

While the term ‘tour guide’ is also used synonymously with ‘tourist guide’ extensively, it might be misleading, unfitting or an inaccurately designated title in most cases as the term ‘tour guide’ may refer to a book, a brochure, audio and visual technology resources or a virtual robotic tour guide. This is the reason that the term ‘tourist guide’ is commonly used in most countries of the world rather than ‘tour guide’ (Weiler and Black, 2015: 3).

In this context, it’s possible to categorize guides as static guides and dynamic guides; where static guiding refers to ‘tour guide’ and the latter refers to ‘tourist guide’. While people keep in their memories 20% of any written document that is read, this ratio increases to 40% when they look at something and listen to get

information about it at the same time. And this is only possible with dynamic guides. People have always preferred fancy, warm, lively, humorous narratives rather than books; as a result, dynamic guides giving the visitors intangible emotions through five senses while increasing their knowledge have become more attracting when compared to simple and dry descriptive phrases in books (Yazıcıoğlu et al., 2008: 3).

There are also some similar positions such as tour manager, group leader, transfermen, agency or tour operator representative in the tourism industry which are used interchangeably with professional tourist guide; yet, these positions differ from each other. These are defined below:

Tour Manager: Those are the people who escort the group from the very beginning of the tour until it ends, lead the participants, help them or do on behalf of them all the routine or legislative procedures, give them brief orientation about the destination, make purchases of goods and services on behalf of group members when necessary, take care of their problems at first hand, represent the tour operator to individualistic tourism service providers, make sure the tour is successful and run smoothly as it was planned. They are expected to do their best and be available so that clientele enjoy their vacation. Tour manager is not a local guide (Ahipaşaoğlu, 2001: 83).

Group leader: They are the people who are influential on bringing a group of people together to participate on a package tour. The general rule is that these people don't pay a price for joining the trip. Yet, they're expected to fulfil the responsibilities of a tour leader. A tour leader also may be employed depending on the number or importance of the group members. If this is the case, group leader is much more in charge of cheering the group up and creating a positive ambience (Ahipaşaoğlu, 2001: 98).

Transfermen: The prime responsibility of transfermen is to escort the group between the arrival point at the destination and the accommodation facility or the starting point of the tour. They are not expected to be qualified people but speak the

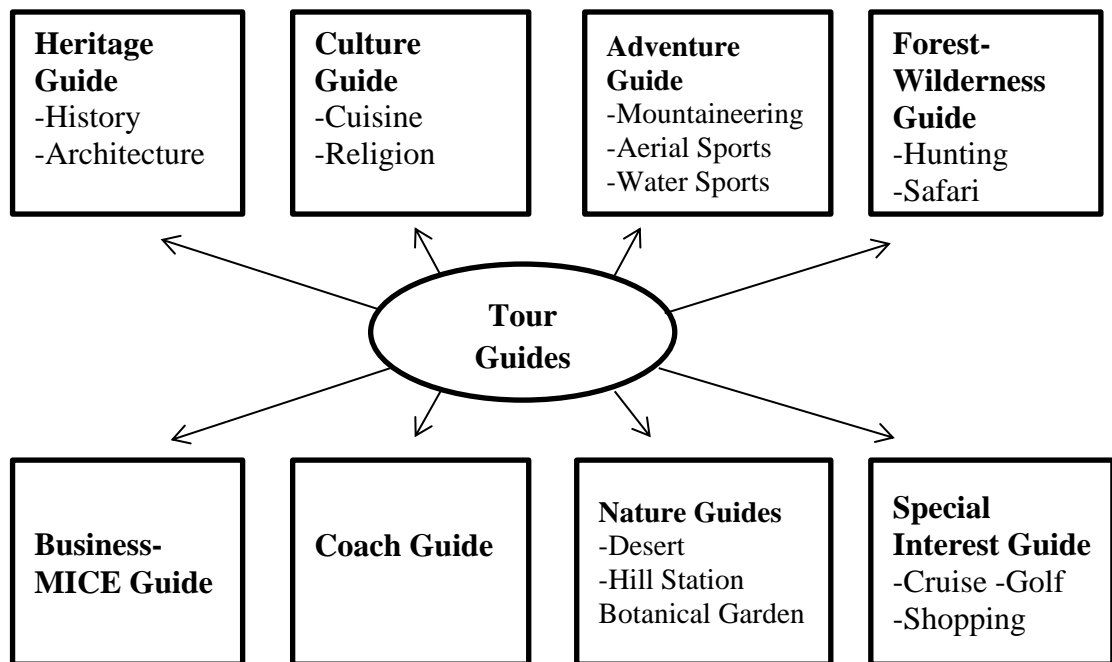
language of arriving group members and be knowledgeable about the procedures to be done (Ahipaşaoğlu, 2001: 100).

Hotel Representative: Overseas tour operators that have contract agreements with the hotels at the host destination usually assign contact persons to help their customers on the premises during their stays. These people are called representatives and carry out the responsibilities of transfermen and as well as being available to guests anytime they need. Besides, usually the next day of their arrival, they organize a welcome reception which is called an information cocktail and they do tour sales on behalf of the tour operator or the representative local travel agency (Batman et al., 2000: 21).

1.3.Types of Tourist Guides

While people travel for different purposes and look for unique experiences with different motivations and demands, governments try to boost their revenues from the tourism industry; as a result, the industry is getting more segmented and specialized in nature. The increase in demand for tourism professionals includes tourist guides as well. Because people, especially inexperienced visitors going to a place for the first time, prefer guided tours to experience the destination in a safe and efficient way. The various types of tourism activities make it also necessary for tourist guides to specialize in at least one of these tourism genres and these specialization types can be grouped under the following classification as on Figure 1. Yet the complex nature of package tours as well as multi-faceted structure of tour guiding may sometimes make it necessary for them to take on dual or more roles. Their expertise is mainly determined by the geographical environment, history, season, product or the employer (Black and Weiler, 2015: 9-12).

Figure 1 Types of Tourist Guides



Source: Black and Weiler, 2015: 8.

1.4. History and Evolution of Guided Tours

The Ancient Empire: Travel began in the era of the great empire which was between 3,000 B.C. to 500 A.D. The first organized travellers came out of Persians, Assyrians and Egyptians but invasions, lack of security and difficulties of transportation made travels both dangerous and slow. Travellers of this period chose land and sea as means of transportation. Egyptian priests are referred as the first guides according to written historical sources in the world. Following the upcoming of festivals and shows known as Olympic Games that started in 776 B.C. during the Greek Empire, people have begun to travel for pleasure and in mass. As the tourism activities have begun common among people, a new profession, guiding, emerged as a necessity. Greeks called guides as “perigetai” which means a person who leads people around or “exegetai” meaning explainer or information giver. Herodotus, known as the first travel writer with his book *Historia*, mentioned extensively about guides. In Ancient Rome roads such as Via Regalis, Via Flammia, Via Aemilia, Via

Avrelia, Via Agnetia were built and made it a lot more easier for people to get from one place to another. They also built accommodation facilities every 20-30 km on these roads which leded an increase in number of travellers (Cruz, 2008: 14).

The Middle Ages: Also called as Dark Ages, Middle Ages is the period between 500 A.D. and 1508 A.D. which is from the fall of Rome till the Renaissance. When the Rome fell, it didn't only cause a decline in trade and economy but also a decline in motive to travel. The only travellers were those to make their pilgrimages to Canterbury, Winchester and Walsingham from middle or upper class citizens but the roads were not safe and they were scared to travel alone. That is why the role of the guide was a bit different than giving information or finding the path. They were paid large fees to find safe alleys and protect their travellers from possible dangers (Cruz, 2008: 15).

The Renaissance and the Grand Tour: Tour guides were highly respected during the Renaissance. Young members of high class families started to travel from England to Italy through France, Germany, Austria and Switzerland on the Grand Tour. This tour was designed for young men so that they learn foreign languages, broaden their minds, exchange cultural values, realize self-development and become intellectual individuals. For this reason, they were assigned a private escort who was called cicerone, bear leader or antiquarii whose function was to lead these young men on their educational and cultural tours during this journey. These personal tutors were expected to be sophisticated people who knew foreign languages and also who were knowledgeable about art, history, architecture, literature and so on. There were many writers, historians among guides of the Grand Tour who created the first body of tourism literature. They were also responsible for keeping an eye on their pupils in terms of safety matters and ethical conducts. As their responsibilities were numerous, so was their income as the rich families were paying the most to hire the best tour guide (Cruz, 2008: 17).

The Modern Age: In the 19th century there had been a revival in tourism activities with the invention of the motor vehicles. In the years 1800s, following the Industrial Revolution, organized tours for touristic purposes increased first in England and then in the rest of the Western Europe. Thomas Cook, a former Baptist preacher, took a group of temperance campaigners from Leicester to Loughborough

to a rally on a one-day rail excursion which was 11 miles away on July 5th, 1841 as he believed this trip would help people drink less and became better educated and this was accepted as the first organised tour. Thomas Cook was also the first travel agency to organize tours on a regular basis. While there had been a decrease in touristic activities during the World Wars I. and II. , visiting battle fields and wish for meeting different cultures attracted the interests of those who were fighting against each other in the post-war period. As a result tourism activities were revived. Guiding was undertaken by those who actually fought in the battle. In the early 20th century, London Tower and Windsor Castle were opened to guided visits. Some of the travel agencies and tour operators started to employ full-time tourist guides. The organization and training of the tourist guides were realized after 1930s (Tetik, 2006: 5).

Tourist Guiding in Turkey: History of tourist guiding in Turkey dates back to late 19th century. Tourist Guiding Associations are also involved in various studies to improve the quality of services provided by tourist guides, pursue the on-the-job trainings, continue their works in the area of specialization and actively participate in numerous activities to promote tourism all around the country for more than 50 years (tureb.org.tr/index.php?mod=haber_detay&did=177 accessed on 23.03.2015).

The relations with the Europeans in areas such as education, fine arts and trade started to increase in volume as well as the number of foreigners living in Istanbul following the declaration of Reforms in 1839 by the Ottoman Empire. When Orient-Express rail expeditions between Paris-Istanbul commenced on June 5th, 1883 upon the development of travel services in Europe, Ottomans also supported western authorities during the Crimean War. Citizens of western societies started to sympathize with Anatolia and traveled to the country more for trade and pleasure reasons. With this development, tourist guiding that emerged towards the end of the 19th century was very important in terms of national security and promotion of the country. The first example of the attempts that were made for institutionalization of the profession was the adoption of Regulation No. 190 dated 29 October 1890. This regulation was made to construct certain rules for tourist guiding and the application of this regulation was given to municipalities by the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Regulations dictated to act in good faith, have a proper knowledge of maternal

language as well as proficiency of a foreign language. The foreign language proficiency was decided to be tested through a proficiency exam to be applied. Two years after the foundation of the Republic of Turkey strict rules were introduced about tourist guiding with the Decree No 2730 dated 8 November 1925 for those who functioned as interpreter and guide to foreign travellers. The most important issue that the decree emphasized was the education of interpreter guides; yet, because of a lack of a foundation on touristic activities, testing their proficiencies with an exam was never implemented. At the end of 1920s, touristic activities in Turkey almost stopped due to the economic crisis but in December 1928, Istanbul Directorate of Economics announced via press that a guidance course was to be organized. Fifty of the candidates who entered the exam were entitled to be a tourist guide. In 1935, tourism offices were founded as part of municipality branches and a guidance course was organized for the second time. This time the courses gave fifty three graduates. But in 1940s, with the impact of World War I. and II., tourism activities almost stopped again and the guides quit their professions. In 1950s, Directorate of Press and Tourism submitted a report titled as ‘Tourist Translator Guidance’ to the Secondary Tourism Advisory Board. Following this report, Turkish National Scholar Federation executed a study so that guidance was adapted to the conditions of the day. 129 young men completed the course that was designed for university students and stepped into the profession. Between 1955-1960, Municipality of Istanbul and Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Media cooperated for the graduation of 128 students and they started to work as tourist guides in different languages. On August 20th of 1963, Ministry of Tourism and Promotion was founded and it was their responsibility to open vocational schools and courses for training staff between 1964-1968. But these courses were executed through on-the-job training and circulars dependent on Regulation No. 2730. The first Regulation No. 13945 named as Interpreter Guiding Courses and Interpreter Guiding Regulation was published on September 3, 1971. This regulation was renamed as Professional Tourist Guiding Regulation on March 21, 1974 and was updated in 1981, 1983, 1986 and 2005. In recent years, universities opened two year undergraduate programs and four year bachelor’s degree programs to educate tourist guide candidates along with the courses of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. On June 7, 2012 Tourist Guiding

Profession Law No. 6326 was adopted by the Turkish Parliament and this act was published in the Official Gazette on 22.06.2012. With the introduction of Tourist Guiding Profession Act No. 6326, Tourist Guiding Association (TUREB) gained legal status with its 13 sub-associations and 10.000 members and continues its activities in Ankara. (tureb.org.tr/index.php?mod=haber_detay&did=177 accessed on 23.03.2015).

1.5. Required Characteristics of a Professional Tourist Guide

When tourists visit a country, a site or a region on a guided tour, their image of the destination and the level of their satisfaction are partly dependent upon the interpretation and information provided by the tourist guide since the tourist guide is the person who is always there to teach them what is already included in the program but also satisfy their curiosity on any subject that cannot be predicted until meeting the group. The way the tourist guide construct the tour and how he or she represents it plays a pivotal role in the establishment of the local identity in tourists' minds. While they are expected to answer all the questions on various subjects such as social, local and national history, previous civilizations, political system of the country, social and health insurance policies, education system, customs and traditions, the structure of the population, geographical and geopolitical conditions, human geography etc., they should strictly pay attention on discussing the issues such as race, religion, gender discrimination or sexual matters to avoid any offensive behavior. But their responsibilities are not just limited to information giving. Tourist guides must have a wide variety of skills. They should lead the group professionally not to lose control, be cold-blooded, fair, flexible, humorous, a storyteller, and diplomatic. They are responsible of their acts in terms of their relations with their employers, their customers and the tourism policies of their country. Different researchers identify different roles for tourist guides (Dahles, 2002: 786). Table 1 summarizes the various roles defined by various researchers:

Table 1 Different Roles of Tourist Guides

| Roles | Researcher | Year |
|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| Actor | Holloway | 1981 |
| Ambassador | Holloway | 1981 |
| Buffer | Schmidt | 1979 |
| | Pearce | 1982 |
| Caretaker | Fine and Speer | 1985 |
| Catalyst | Holloway | 1981 |
| Culture Broker | Holloway | 1981 |
| | Katz | 1985 |
| Information Giver | Holloway | 1981 |
| | Hughes | 1991 |
| Intermediary | Schmidt | 1979 |
| | Ryan and Dewar | 1995 |
| Interpreter / Translator | Almagador | 1985 |
| | Holloway | 1981 |
| | Katz | 1985 |
| | Ryan and Dewar | 1995 |
| Leader | Cohen | 1985 |
| | Geva and Goldman | 1991 |
| Mediator | Schmidt | 1979 |
| | Holloway | 1981 |
| | Cohen | 1985 |
| | Katz | 1985 |
| Middleman | Van den Berghen | 1980 |
| Organizer | Hughes | 1991 |
| | Pearce | 1982 |
| | Schuchat | 1983 |
| Salesperson | Fine and Speer | 1985 |
| | Gronroos | 1978 |
| Shaman | Schmidt | 1979 |
| Teacher | Holloway | 1981 |
| | Pearce | 1982 |
| | Fine and Speer | 1985 |
| | Manchini | 2001 |

Source: Zhang et al., 2004: 83.

As their profession necessitates adoption of each role individually to achieve their responsibilities and please the guests, there are some certain characteristics that tourist guides need to have and they are consisted of the following:

1.5.1. Knowledge

One of the most prominent characteristics that a tourist guide should possess is having a certain amount of knowledge on various topics. These topics can be summarized under the following headings:

1.5.1.1. Knowledge of a Foreign Language

Professional tourist guides not only guide local tourists of their own nationality but also guide tourists who come from different countries. For this reason, they are expected to be fluent in at least one foreign language and speak it efficiently. Because a tourist guide is the person who guides visitors in the language of their choice at the destination. Therefore, knowledge of a foreign language is of great importance to communicate effectively and transmit the information correctly to foreign visitors. Besides, one of the requirements to be a tourist guide in Turkey is proficiency in a foreign language (Tetik, 2006: 53).

1.5.1.2. Knowledge of General Culture

Although the tourist guide gives general information about the places visited during a tour which becomes scripted in time, tourists expect them to present it in a way that they become familiar with the local culture extensively. A guided tour is an interactive experience where the listeners ask questions and the extensive expertise of the tourist guide is necessary to enlighten the visitors upon their questions. These questions vary in nature depending on the group from science to art or from economy to politics. Therefore, they need to have a high level of cultural knowledge on a wide range of subjects to prove their professionalism and competence as well as to satisfy

the curiosity of the visitors in a dynamic manner to hold their interest (Dahles, 2002: 783).

Some of the basic knowledge expected from tourist guides are shown on Table 2:

Table 2 Basic Knowledge Areas for a Tourist Guide

| | |
|-----------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| History | National history, history of religions and art, political conditions of past civilizations, social conditions, daily lives, religious rituals, wars and peace agreements, architectural styles, mythology, archeological excavations, exhibition, classification and dating of artifacts, antiquities smuggling |
| Geography | Mountains, forests, rivers, lakes, seas, underground resources, climate |
| Economy | Economical structure, economical situation, agricultural |
| Life | Urban and provincial life, legal structure, educational status, unionisation, customs and traditions, music, folklore, dance, clothing, eating habits, TV shows, social issues, human rights, crime rate, freedom of thought |
| Politics | International relations, political history of the country and present situation |
| Art | Literature, theater, ballet, exhibitions, seasonal shows and celebrations |

Source: Genç, 1992: 215

1.5.1.3. Knowledge About Other Cultures

There is a demand for intercultural comprehension and communication in the tourism sector more than any other sectors. Tourist guides serve people from all of the world and they should develop a positive relationship with their tourists no matter what their nationality is. They shouldn't discriminate among people. They should

learn how to look from their point of view and respect their values rather than their own to fully understand them (Tangüler, 2002: 26).

A good tourist guide should also have some knowledge about visitors' country, culture, religion, economy and customs as well as speaking their language. This way, they can explain things with comparative examples to make things more clear and the tourists feel much more comfortable and appreciate the guide. This also helps the guide to make some familiar treats to make them feel home. For instance, a 5 o'clock tea break on the itinerary would be a pleasant treat for an English group which is part of their tradition. Tourist guides can travel, follow foreign news, read books on various countries and watch documentaries about history and culture to expand their knowledge on other cultures (Güzel, 2007: 29).

1.5.1.4. First-aid knowledge

Tourist guides are responsible of all group members at any time in any situation including emergencies. For that reason, they should know first-aid procedures and applications. First-aid is an initial intervention in a serious condition prior to professional medical help is reached. The most important objective of first aid training in terms of tourist guides is to prepare them to stay calm in any emergency situation. Besides, they should also be able to tranquilize the patient and other passengers, keep them away from any further harms, make prompt and proper decisions and preserve the life of the patient until paramedics arrive. First aid knowledge can be given as part of on-the-job training or may be required as a hiring prerequisite of the employer (Tangüler, 2002: 29).

1.5.2. Skills and Abilities

Tourist guides are required to be equipped with some basic skills and abilities to be able respond to tourists' needs and to fulfill their expectations. A unique tour experience is somewhat connected to possession of these skills and these skills are shaped within the society depending on country or region, customs and traditions,

family upbringing or social lifestyle. These skills are either learnt or improvable and are summarized as follows:

1.5.2.1. Narrative Skills

Since tourist guide will be speaking in front of a crowded group of tourists on most of the tours they lead, they should be good at public speaking and narration so that they can direct the reaction of the group to the information they get. They should speak clearly, master their voice to talk calmly and slowly so that everyone gets what's being told, and also learn how to control their breathing. Individuals learn information through visual, auditory or sensory processings. Tourist guides should provide information to match all three types of processing to make tourists feel like they are part of the story. They should keep in mind that narration is not just about talking about facts and dates but rather making it interesting with story telling and embellishing it with fascinating events to create motivation to learn. They can use visual materials such as maps, photos, plans and drawings. These materials may complement the auditory sensation and capture their imagination as well. The information provided through narration should well match what visitors are experiencing and observing to avoid confusion and ambiguity. Tourist guide should explain the tour program in detail at the very beginning of the tour and emphasize the important facts so that the visitors are enlightened and stimulated. Likewise, they should be provided with a summary of the places visited at the end of the tour to refresh their minds. The key to success is to make them internalize the new information by stimulating tourists' attention where and when possible (Güzel, 2007: 23).

1.5.2.2. Communication Skills

Communication stands at the core of daily social life, relations between societies, people, and groups. Communication can be defined as the transmission of meaning from an individual to another individual or more than one person. Communication may be realized both in verbal and non-verbal forms. The

communication process is composed of the sender, the message and the receiver. So the message should be clear and convincing and presented in a way that it's precisely understood. While the travel agency or other tourism service providers may not have the opportunity to communicate directly with the tourists, the tour guide is the person who is in direct communication with each member of the group. Communication skills are important as it functions as a facilitator of a guide's all other functions. The tourist guide should know the values of the culture of his or her group and tolerate any unacceptable behaviors or habits to his or her values in order to be successful in communication with tourists. Communication skills are affected from different factors such as environmental factors, personality and proficiency in the language. (Güzel, 2007: 21).

The communication skills of a tourist guide can be improved through getting good at speaking in the public, overcoming anxiety, experience, making eye contact while talking and using proper body language and can be explained as the following (Tangüler, 2002: 19-20):

- 1. Speaking in public:** Most people get nervous when speaking in front of a great number of live audience. While this fear may be disruptive for a tourist guide's career, the possession of this skill on the other hand is a sign of self-confidence and powerful tool which is necessary to influence and entertain group members. Tour guides should avoid any stereotyped speeches and humiliating words while speaking in front of their groups.
- 2. Overcoming Anxiety and Experience:** Speaker's interest in the subject and his or her enthusiasm to share it with the audience is the key to overcome anxiety. One of the methods to overcome anxiety for the speaker is to put himself or herself in the shoes of listeners. The reason of forgetting the next word prior to or during a speech of a speaker stems from the fear of making mistakes or doing something wrong. Experience, on the other hand, is an effective tool that develops self-confidence of the self. As the experience of the tour guide increases, it takes less time to get ready for the tour. They become a more effective speaker and get more pleasure during the tour.

- 3. Eye contact:** While eye contact is a means of nonverbal communication, it is an important element of communication in conveying emotions and establishing a sense of connection. Tour guides, by making eye contact, can gauge the reaction and measure the level of interest or mood of their groups instantly. While too much eye contact can convey a meaning of hostility, rudeness or superiority, too little eye contact would make the tour guide to be evaluated as lacking self-confidence, unprepared and incompetent.
- 4. Body Language:** Body language consists of body posture, hand movements, gestures, facial expressions, skin coloring, use of space and have a strong effect on effective communication. Tourist guides can use body language to make a positive impact and also understand group members better with deciphering their body language. It helps adapting to social environment better and read people easily. An incompatibility between body language and what's said causes lack of confidence and respect of the group so it should be well integrated. Body language should reflect natural and conscious movements rather than arbitrary and artificial ones. Some of the distractive behaviors for tourist guides are as follows and should be avoided:
- Constantly playing with jewellery or hair
 - Frequently and unnecessarily repeated sounds like 'hmm'
 - Facial expressions of anger or humiliation
 - The use of slang and colloquialism
 - The use of words or phrases like 'Do you know?', 'etc.', 'unbelievable', or 'The thing I like most'

1.5.2.3. Interpretation Skills

Interpretation is far beyond simple fact-giving aimed to reveal meanings and develop relationships between the listener and the information given to stimulate, provoke and inspire. The goal of interpretation is not giving instruction but creating provocation. A skilled interpreter's commentary makes people think and also infer

meanings related to a place. It makes people to rethink, imagine and talk about it to others. Information makes up a part of the interpretation. Interpretation, on the other hand, helps the audience to be involved with all their senses and to what is being told and be enlightened about it. For instance, standing in front of a building or sculpture and talking about just the date they were built or which material they were made of could be a quite boring and ordinary experience for the group unless the information is embellished with storytelling why they were created or with the details of the period as a whole (Tangüler, 2002: 28).

1.5.2.4. Organization and Coordination Skills

A professional tourist guide makes a preparation before each tour and checks whether there is anything missing. He or she is aware of the importance of safety, efficiency, time management and prepared for the possible issues that may occur. They plan the tour program, welcomes guests, deals with accommodation, food and beverage and entertainment facilities, execute the tour program and inform tourists. All these phases requires that the tour guides excel in organization skills from the moment tourists arrive at the destination till the moment they leave. For this reason, tourist guides should have knowledge about planning, organization, leadership, coordination and control phases of the management functions and their applicability to tourist guiding. Anything can happen during the tour. Passengers may get sick, injured or died. That's why a tourist guide should learn to stay calm and make quick decisions as he or she is the decision maker in the group. These decisions must be understandable and rational, not emotional. They should also be punctual at all times. A tourist guide should never make the group wait as a sign of his respect for his job as well as to group members. Tour guiding is a profession that requires attention to every single detail. Opening and closing times of museums, sites or exhibitions, lunch arrangements, extra tour sales, monetary issues, time spent on the way, confirmation of various pre-bookings etc. are all part of their organization and coordination skills (Tetik, 2006: 60, Tangüler, 2002: 23).

1.5.2.5. Ability to Deal with Questions

It gets easier for the tour guide to answer questions as they get experienced on the job. The newcomers often abstain themselves from questions. What makes a question difficult varies depending on the tour guide, but some questions have always been difficult for all of them (Tangüler, 2002: 21, Tetik, 2006: 62):

-Questions that they have no answer: Tour guides who are new in this profession sometimes come up with questions that they have no answer. This situation may cause them to think that they are not competent enough or they sense a lack of self-confidence. But sometimes the question is new to them and they cannot answer it right away. When they start trusting their knowledge, these questions don't leave a negative impact on them or don't cause a sense of incompetency. They should look for the answers for future reference and evaluate this situation as a tool for learning new things.

-Questions open to discussion: Questions in this category are about politics, religious and local scandals or ongoing court cases. As the group members feel somewhat attached themselves to their guides or simply because they respect their guides' opinions, they may come up with such questions. The tour guide should keep in mind that the group members are not a homogenous group and consisted of different individuals with different point of view and they should approach with moderation.

-Questions about tour guide's privacy: Questions such as 'How much you earn from this job?', 'Are you satisfied with your employer?' or 'Why don't you have any children?' are private questions that tour guides don't have to answer. Questions of this category could be a sign of friendly approach of group members and vary depending on the culture.

-Humiliating or opposing questions: These questions are cunningly asked by the group members to measure the tour guide's reaction to the subject. In such circumstances, tour guides should give short answers by directing attention the positive sides of the matter and should be humorous rather than being defender.

1.5.2.6. Ability to Renew Themselves and Update Their Knowledge

Tourist guides work in different settings where rules and regulations are exposed to continuous changes. A professional tourist guide should accept that training is not sufficient and need to keep abreast of all new developments through constantly absorbing new knowledge and upgrade themselves. They need to be aware of current events and emerging developments. When they don't renew their monologues and keep telling out-of-date information to visitors, tourists' expectations will not be met. A tour guide who cannot renew himself or herself will, in the end, fall behind their colleagues and have difficulty to find a job. Any information that the tour guide gives should be the latest and valid information. They can also update their knowledge through communicating with local guides. It would be useful to know postal and telephone codes, tipping rates, exchange rates, traffic and next day's weather forecast etc. along with destination's history, geography, flora and fauna as these are the most common subjects the groups are curious about (Güzel, 2007: 27).

1.5.3. Personality Characteristics

Tourists observe everything to create an image of the local people as well as the country and this image is mostly affected from the tourist guide. Besides knowledge and some certain skills, there are some basic personality characteristics and also physical appearance that feed and complement the representation of the tourist guide. Those are leadership spirit, extroverted and hospitable personality, sense of humour, work ethic concerns and physical appearance. These characteristics are briefly explained below:

1.5.3.1. Leadership Spirit

Leadership spirit is an essential element to ensure an effective and enjoyable tour to direct and encourage the group. Even the definition of leadership which is

guiding or directing others or organizing a group of people constitutes the framework of the profession. It's not quite possible for the tourist guide to motivate, influence and set direction for the group if they lack leadership spirit. Leadership spirit helps the tour guide to provide people enthusiasm and excitement, give memorable examples and keep them vivid throughout the journey. Leadership is difficult and complicated. Leadership role is on the top of all other duties and responsibilities of a tour guide. Basic leadership requirements for a tourist guide are (Güzel, 2007: 16):

- Having self-confidence so that people confide in you reciprocally
- Consistency of personality to deal with issues with determination and objectivity
- Sincerety for a modest approach
- Liveliness to exchange positive moods
- A creative mind to better perceive the facts
- Common sense to perceive the relationship of components and the whole
- Understanding people to empathize

1.5.3.2. Extroverted Personality

Extroverted people have a type of personality which is oriented outside for surroundings. Extroverted people tend to communicate with a wide variety of people, need attention from others and tend to involve in public speeches, participate in different activities, events and parties. When applied to tourist guiding profession where human relations should be delicately handled, being extrovert undoubtedly ensures establishment of positive moods and interactions. A group of people on vacation expect nothing but a tour guide who respects them and listens to them with sincerety. It's not only tourists but also industry stakeholders who expect to see a guide who is kind, patient, sensitive, unselfish and someone who really appreciates his or her job and most importantly someone who is able to control his or her temper no matter what the conditions are. Tour guides need to be individuals with positive energy who approach others proactively. They can also manipulate social pressure much better with an extroverted personality (Tetik, 2006: 65).

1.5.3.3. Hospitable personality

Travel is a social phenomenon and the tourist guides play an important role as part of this phenomenon. One of the most important roles is showing hospitality. They are expected to make their guests feel comfortable and at home. This is only possible by providing them a warm and friendly environment at the destination where they are thousands miles away from home with no knowledge of the language or acquaintance of the culture. Their attention to the whole group and interaction with each guest require a welcoming, friendly and integrative touch. A hospitable tourist guide shows kindness to each and every guest with a feeling of good will and knows how to be a good host. A good host is the kind of person who likes people, is keen enthusiastic in human relations and who is able to provide them a comfortable setting. A good host is also sensitive to others' emotions and willing to be helpful whenever needed. The moment they realize their guests are disturbed from any conversation or activity, they should divert the attention to another subject. The essence of the tourist guiding profession should be to make a good host (Tangüler, 2002: 15).

1.5.3.4. Sense of humour

Tourists expect a lot from their guides one of which is the expectation to make them entertained while flourishing them with their cultural insight. A good sense of humour and telling anecdotes are part of an effective speech to avoid boredom. Tour guides with a sense of humour always make a trip more memorable, makes the experience more exciting, the ambience more vivid and friendly, which helps groups of strangers to bond positively together. When it looks like they're enjoying themselves, people tend to enjoy the tour more. Even the most demanding guest who is not easily satisfied with anything will be attempered to some extent which is important to soften the overall ambience of the tour. Sharing a laugh is a great way to lighten the atmosphere, relieve tension, and connect with others. But tourist guides should pay attention not to be political or offend people and nations

while choosing their anecdotes. They should keep in mind that arguments related to religion are delicate and be respectful. Besides, entertaining should be done without going to extremes. Some tourist guides just like comedians, think that the more tourists make an applause or laugh, the more they are successful. Entertaining and making jokes don't mean making someone laugh perpetually. Humor can cause an uncomfortable environment and hostility when used inappropriately. They should be careful not to be sexist, ageist and racist and avoid humor that labels any person or any group of people as inferior (Tetik, 2006: 59).

1.5.3.5. Clothing Style

The first impression that a tourist guide gives to group members may greatly influence his or her image as a leader. As the tourist guide is the person who is examined closely by each tourist in the group, his or her clothing and accessories help them to create an image. A proper outfit and personal care is a sign of respect, thus; tour guides should try to choose the most suitable clothes matching the type of tour or the daily activities. Since there is a lot of time spent on travel, the clothes should be comfortable and should be chosen from not easily wrinkled ones matching the season or the location of the hotel. Women tourist guides should avoid wearing excessive accessories or make-up as this may distract tourists' attention. It's also valid for men's hair and beard cuts. If the tour is going to last long, they need to make sure that they have taken enough clean clothes with them as wearing the same dirty shirt for days is not going to be tolerated. They should also inform their guests about the next days activities so that they choose the proper clothing for themselves; while tours such as Jeep Safari, rafting or animation park visits may require specific equipment or casual clothing; stylish clothing may match an evening city tour much better (Güzel, 2007: 20).

1.5.3.6. Professional Ethics Concerns

Each profession has its own norms and regulations and it's also the case for professional tourist guiding. Tourist guides have definite ethical responsibilities and standards to their travel agencies, to the staff of all service providers and partners as

well as their customers. They should make their best to ensure that tourist get the highest standard of service that is specified by the travel company. There should be a written contract between the tourist guide and the travel agency and this contract shall be binding for both parties. While tourist guides should strive to fulfill their duties in a responsible manner, the travel agency should take the necessary actions for a flawless tour experience. Tourist guide should provide a skilled presentation of knowledge in a courteous, attentive and dutiful manner and avoid discriminatory attitudes free from propaganda and prejudices. They should be hypersensitive to the values and interests of the group and do not share their personal views on controversial subjects such as sex, religion, and politics. As representatives of the host country, they shouldn't try to impose anyone their own ethical standards and values in case of a problem (Tangüler, 2002: 17).

PART II

EMOTIONAL LABOR, ANTECEDENTS AND STRATEGIES

Emotion is a complicated composition of feelings. It makes physical and psychological changes that give direction to the way people think and the way people behave. It constitutes a significant role in how people interpret the stimuli and act in a certain way. Also in situations where it's believed that decisions are produced solely by reasoning and rationalism, emotions function as a guide. Being capable of comprehending and regulating emotions has a significant mission in the decision-making process (Ekman, 1999: 55).

2.1. Emotion

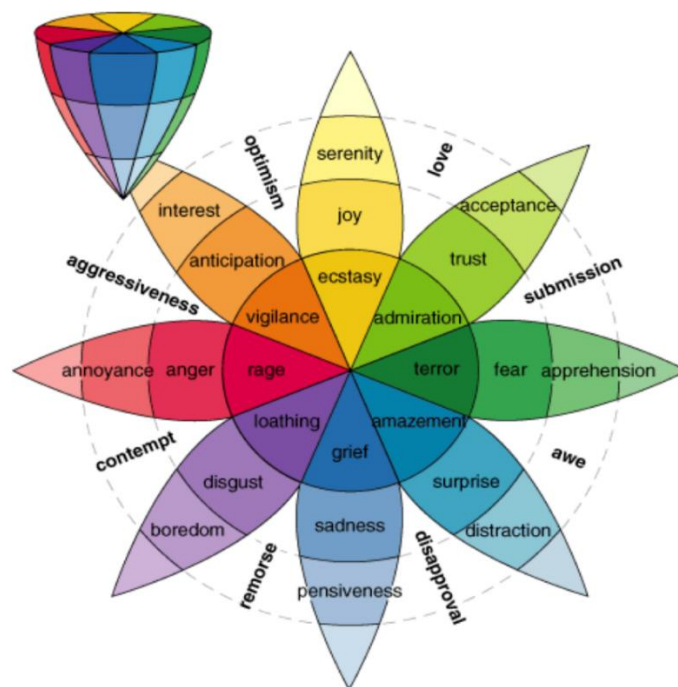
Emotions give people the opportunity to understand each other reciprocally. Since a person's emotions deliver precious facts and details to others, the emotional expressions of others provides quite a lot of social information to him or her as well; and being capable of evaluating and responding to the emotions of others is necessary to build deeper and worthwhile interactions. It is also essential for people to share or exchange information efficiently in versatile social situations, for instance coping with an angry customer or managing an enraged employee (Hess, 2001:402).

In their daily lives, decisions and mood are all based on people's emotions such as happiness, anger, sadness, boredom, or frustration. Emotions can last for a very short time, endure over a prolonged period, have great power, be complicated, and even life-changing. They can provide people the motive to behave in certain ways and provide them the means and resources they require to communicate meaningfully in their social environments. Engaging in emotional exchanges has significant social outcomes that can help both sustaining and developing positive relationships, or in some cases turning out to be the origin of opposition and disharmony (Fredrickson, 1998: 302).

Besides trying to understand what emotions actually are, scientists have also attempted to diagnose and categorize the various kinds of emotions. One of the first researchers who studied emotions scientifically was Charles Darwin (1872). He

proposed that emotional expressions might play a significant role in self protection and continuing to exist. Similarly, when the emotional displays of others are clearly understood, it provides people prominent information on how to evaluate and respond in a particular situation (<http://psychology.about.com/od/emotion/f/what-are-emotions.htm>, reached on 05.08.2014). It was in 1972 when psychologist Paul Ekman proposed that six core emotions exist universally all in human cultures: these are happiness, fear, disgust, surprise, anger and sadness. He added this list to include a number of other basic emotions such as satisfaction, excitement, embarrassment, contempt, pride, amusement and shame in 1999 (Ekman, Ed. Dalglish and Power, 1999: 45). During the 1980s, Robert Plutchik came up with a different emotion classification system that he called the "wheel of emotions."

Figure 2: Wheel of Emotions



Source: Plutchik, 2000: 63.

This model demonstrated how different emotions can be combined or mixed together, much the way an artist mixes primary colors to create other colors. Plutchik (2000: 63) suggested that there are 8 primary emotional dimensions: happiness vs. sadness, anger vs. fear, trust vs. disgust, and surprise vs. anticipation. These emotions

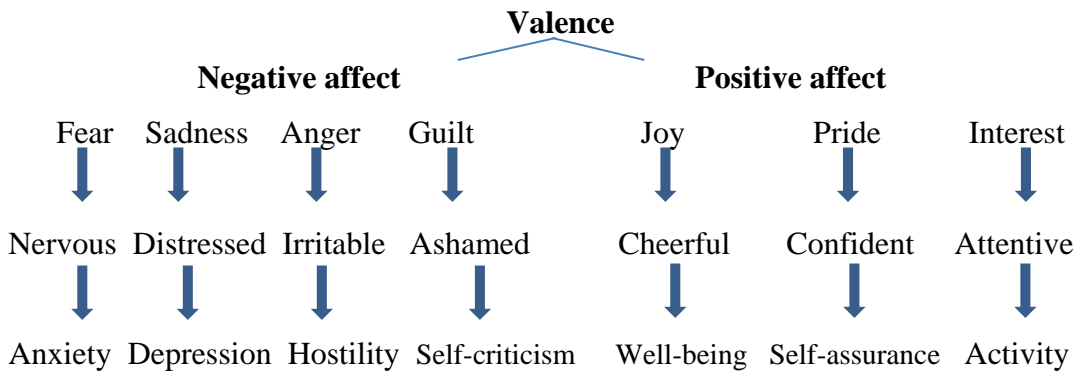
can then be combined in a variety of ways. For example, happiness and anticipation might combine to create excitement.

Another study of classification of emotions is made by Lazarus. He suggests that there are four types of emotions (Lazarus, 1991: 819):

- Emotions resulting from harms, losses, and threats; including anger, anxiety, fear, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy and disgust, referred as negative emotions.
- Emotions resulting from benefits; including happiness and joy, pride, gratitude, and love whether companionate or romantic, considered to be positive emotions.
- Borderline cases such as hope, contentment, relief, compassion and aesthetic emotions.
- Nonemotions.

One similar classification of this subject is made by Gray and Watson (2004: 38). Emotions are basically classified as positive emotions and negative emotions which are seen in the following Figure 3:

Figure 3: Overall framework for the structure of affect: emotion, mood and temperament



Source: Gray and Watson, 2004: 38.

The complex structure of emotions makes it difficult for researchers to agree upon on an all-encompassing classification and the reason of this deviation is likely because some researchers emphasize expressive reactions whereas others emphasize instrumental behavior; also some identify emotions primarily as biological processes while others identify them as social processes (Ashkanasy et al., 2000: 4).

2.2. Expression of emotions

Emotions constitute a significant part of effective communication. The potentiality to expertly transmit emotions is essential for not only the encoder, who tries to be comprehended, but also for the decoder, who makes great efforts to infer a meaning from the information received. Emotional expressions are also means of transmitting information about the encoder's evaluation of the environment. Their perception of the outside world, as well as the purpose of their behaviors and even features of their personality such as power and influence over others are communicated through emotional expressions. Gender, power, culture are also the social aspects of the interaction that influence both the encoding and decoding of emotional expressions. Facial and vocal expressions and also gestures and posture are the nonverbal aspects of emotion communication (Hess, 2001: 397).

Though emotions are indicators of the reactions and the reason of behaviors in communication with others, they don't always communicate the inner feelings directly but regulate them instead. People regulate their emotions for themselves as well as for others in order to manage their own emotional states sometimes for staying calm, to advance their goals such as studying when they don't feel like it, to influence others' emotions such as being cheerful for the kids' sake, to facilitate common goals such as making passionate arguments, to maintain social norms such as not getting overwrought about an issue, to live with the law such as refraining from vengeful murder and so on (Planalp, 1999: 32).

This need for regulation of expression of emotions process is also necessary in the workplace and an increasing attention has been given to the displays of emotion of employees towards customers. Employees are expected to act in accordance with display rules which are the standards to get organizationally desired emotions and to spread the positive emotions throughout the organization and so that these positive emotions will also be reflected to their customers. Employees, on the other hand, need to exert some sort of effort to align their felt emotions and the set of rules determined by their employers. When individuals make such efforts and try to manage their feelings to display organizationally accepted emotions at work,

which also include facial and bodily expressions, they are engaging in emotional labor (Hochschild: 1983: 7).

2.3. Emotional Labor

People live with emotions and emotions drive daily lives. Individuals don't leave their emotions at home and emotions have a tremendous effect on individuals' feelings, behaviors and reactions but people often prefer to react consistent with societal norms and hide their true feelings instead. The reason is sometimes to soften their impact or shift the meaning in order to avoid conflict and keep up the motivation and positive mood (Hess and Kramer 2002: 68).

Emotions also play an important role in employees' workplace as they are expected to be consistent with organization's mission and culture to meet a certain service quality criteria by displaying the 'right' behaviors. Organizations expect their employees to exhibit joyful and amicable emotions when communicating with clients, so that these favourable emotions will also extended to their customers (Chen et al., 2012: 826). This regulation and management of emotions then becomes commodity that is paid in return and called emotional labor.

Tour guides within hospitality and tourism employees are subject to emotional labor displays much more than any other service-oriented professions when physical demands of the job and continuous and intense interactions with customers are taken into consideration. Their responsibilities -such as transportation of the guests no matter what the time is, checking them in their hotels, dealing with hotel related issues and complaints, meal arrangements, carrying out visits regardless of weather conditions, coordination of visits, translation in possible emergencies such as surgery, death, deportation, trying to keep the extra tour sales and tips at maximum, taking 24/7 care of each guest in the group, trying to keep them happy and satisfied during the entire tour, keeping them under control as a group and individually - are numerous and they are in charge for twenty four hours, sometimes with no days-off for a couple of months in a row. The degree of handling this much of a workload both physically and psychologically with empathy and positivity may

differ from person to person when the individual and situational factors influence the emotional labor performance of tour guides (Black and Weiler, 2005: 26).

Emotional labor (EL) concept has been subject to many researches (Hochschild, 1983; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Öz, 2007; Özgen, 2010) and research on EL seeks to describe how employees manage their emotions as part of their work roles. There are basically four approaches to conceptualize the term Emotional Labor which are Hochschild's approach, Ashforth and Humphrey's approach, Morris and Feldman's approach and Grandey's approach.

2.4. Basic Approaches of Emotional Labor

Researchers has come with various approaches and models while trying to develop and understand the dimensions of emotional labor since it was introduced by Arlie Hochschild (1983) in her book "The Managed Heart". Although there are numerous studies in the field of emotional labor, four approaches are widely accepted amongst authorities. These approaches are explained below in chronological order.

2.4.1. Hochschild's (1983) Approach

The term Emotional Labor was introduced by groundwork work of sociologist Arlie Russell Hochschild in her book 'The Managed Heart' for the first time who defined it as "the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" which is "sold for wage and therefore has exchange value" (Hochschild, 1983: 7) and the term has attracted many researchers who have made efforts to form a concept and develop the construct since then.

According to this definition, management of emotions requires effort. In other words, the displays employees express towards customers and the exchange of reciprocal influences between employees and clients is one method for individuals to achieve organizational goals.

She establishes similarities between 'actors – audience – acting' and 'service employees – customers - emotional labor'. While service employees get paid for the

exertion of emotional labor to their customers in a work setting, actors get paid for their acting in front of an audience in a show. If they are good at controlling and managing the appropriate emotions in line with what is expected by the company, they get paid accordingly (Grandey, 2000: 96).

She suggests that feeling covers the process before any action and each person identifies a feeling rule which has the power to direct these actions (Hochschild, 1983: 56). Individuals adapt a certain way of feeling rule as their cultures and different roles force them to regulate their behaviors between what one feels and what one should feel.

According to her, there are two types of emotional control: surface acting which is the display of an adjusted behavior without a change in felt emotions and deep acting which is an effort to change internal feelings by recalling memories or thoughts to arouse the right emotional expression (Morris and Feldman: 1996: 990).

She claimed that there were six occupational groups which are subject to emotional labor; those are self-employed group (doctors, lawyers); managers and administrators; sales workers; officials; private employees who work at home (baby sitters); and private employees who work outside of home (waiters). One would not need to exert emotional labor in any other occupations that doesn't fit any of these categories. Öz (2007: 6) mentions in her study that Hochschild has responded to these criticisms by stating that his categorization of professions should be seen as a starting point for figuring out the extent of emotional labor.

Hochschild (1983: 131) has also made researches to find out the possible outcomes of emotional labor. The findings of her study on flight attendants and box-office employees showed that if employees' felt emotions contradicts with the organizationally demanded emotion displays, this state psychologically leads to 'emotional dissonance' and emotional exhaustion and physically leads to severe headaches and irregular attendance; all directing negative outcomes.

2.4.2. Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) Approach

Emotional Labor is explained as 'the display of expected emotions by service agents during service encounters' by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 88). This view

is a bit different than that of Hochschild (1983). In this perspective emotional labor is defined as a behavior that can be observed rather than as a management of feelings which was named as 'feeling rules' by Hochschild. Since customers' evaluations of good service are based on behaviors of employees, they prefer to focus on observable attitudes and manners instead of the emotions that form the behavior.

They imply that the effort to conform the behaviors according to display rules can be done without having to manage emotions (Ashforth and Humphrey 1993: 90) as one would get used to both job requirements and repetitive nature of it within time and reactions turn into habitual responses; thus there might not even be an effort of emotional labor for surface or deep acting.

They have also added a third emotional display that they have called genuine acting. Sometimes employees behave as they naturally feel without feeling obliged to conform their behaviors in line with display rules. This is exactly what the person experiences and expresses spontaneously without having to act (Zapf, 2002: 243).

They have also claimed that the more an individual is identified with the display rules, the less he or she will experience emotive dissonance or self-alienation. Individuals perceive themselves as part of social groups and identify the attributes of those social groups as their own; thus a person who is able to internalize those role expectations will be less exposed to negative outcomes associated with organizational display rules (Öz, 2007: 9).

Task efficacy and service performance are the subjects related to functions of emotional labor in their conceptualization. 'Emotional labor is a double-edged sword in that it can facilitate task performance by regulating interaction and precluding interpersonal problems, or it can impair performance by priming expectations of good service that cannot be met' (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 107).

2.4.3. Morris and Feldman's (1996) Approach

Morris and Feldman extended the previous theoretical framework and came up with a more complex conceptualization of EL.

They have defined EL as 'the effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions' (Morris and

Feldman, 1996: 987) which is a more interactionist approach of above mentioned definitions.

According to them, emotional expressions are enhanced, suppressed or directed in the social environment as emotions are constructed socially and every behavior is a result of some sort of effort; even in case of genuine acting, there is still effort to express the organizationally desired emotional displays. With this perspective, they are contradicting to Ashforth and Humphrey (1983) who define genuine acting as demonstration of inherently sensed emotions without having to act.

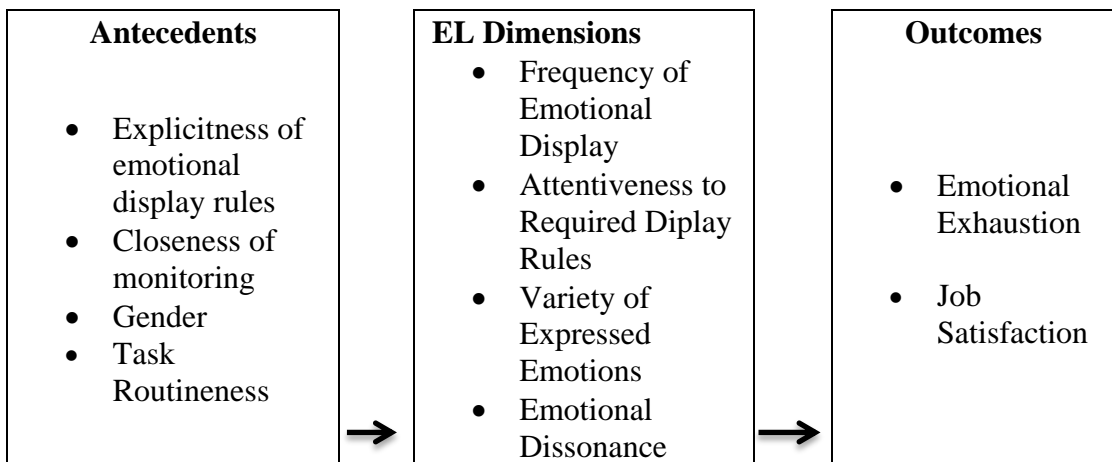
Emotional labor dimensions differentiate under certain circumstances as each encounter is unique and involves varying interactions. Thus, rather than focusing on behavior types as in the above-mentioned approaches, their focus is on four labor dimensions which are as follows (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 989-992):

- *frequency of appropriate emotional displays*: If the work role necessitates that socially appropriate emotional displays recurs more often, then the organization's expectations and requisitions from the employee in terms of regulating the emotions is greater too.
- *attentiveness to required display rules*: The service job will require more attentiveness to display rules from employees, as the degree of psychological energy and physical effort are involved more and hence, emotional displays will entail more emotional labor to present and regulate appropriate emotions.
- *variety of emotions to be displayed*: If the variety of emotions to be displayed is diversified, the emotional labor of jobholders will be greater as it will include serious planning and effort.
- *emotional dissonance*: According to Middleton (1989: 199), the incompatibility between genuinely felt emotions and emotions that are requisite to be displayed in the organizational setting is defined as emotional dissonance. When there are contradictions between genuinely felt emotions and organizationally desired emotions, regulating emotional expression becomes much more difficult and also more labor intensive as individuals should exert a lot more effort to align the displayed emotions and felt emotions (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 989).

They also presented propositions to diagnose the relationships between these four dimensions and organizational, job-related characteristics, individual

differences. As presented in Figure 4, organizational factors are closeness of employee monitoring, explicitness of display norms; job characteristics are interaction and task routineness; individual factor is gender.

Figure 4: Morris and Feldman’s EL Model



Source: Morris and Feldman, 1996: 996.

When Morris and Feldman (1997: 270) tested their model, the research results showed that merely emotional dissonance is related with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction decreases only when emotional exhaustion increases. And all the other three dimensions were negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

2.4.4. Grandey’s (2000) Approach

Grandey’s theory of emotional labor is an integrative perspective of previous studies where she takes ‘emotion regulation theory’ as a guiding start point and comprises personal distinctions and organizational elements to understand the functions of EL and defines it as ‘the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals’ (Grandey, 2000: 97).

Emotional regulation theory is defined as “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience

and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998: 275). Through this perspective, instead of the automatic or immediate emergence of emotions, it is emphasized that individuals not only predict what kind of emotions they will experience within a given situation and change that emotion, but they might also regulate it immediately while experiencing it (Öz, 2007: 16). In this theory, stimulations that come from the environment are considered like an input, and how individuals responds to these situations with emotions are considered like an output. This approach also considers the effect of physiological arousal in the emotion regulation process, as prolonged arousal or supression may have detrimental outcomes such as burnout and stress in the long run.

Emotion regulation occurs as antecedent focused and response focused and it’s similar to deep acting and surface acting. In antecedent-focused emotional regulation, the individual makes partial changes of the situation or the comprehension of the situation that form the emotions. An individual does that through situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment and cognitive change (Gross, 1998: 282).

In the situation selection process, individuals prefer to avoid situations that might lead them into unwanted encounters and negative emotional experiences learnt via previous experiences. For example, a tour guide who spends the whole day with the group in a bus may prefer to eat out rather than eating at hotel’s restaurants in the evening with customers from the group (Öz, 2007: 18).

In the situation modification process, individuals make attempts to straightly remodel the conditions in order to change its emotional effect. For instance, if the tour guide is having a hard time with a certain customer who is giving discomfort to him / her and to the general atmosphere of the group, he / she may try to keep a distance with them and avoid dealing with them directly (Özgen, 2010: 28).

In the attention deployment process, individuals think about the good to call up the emotions in specific situations to distract themselves from possible negative emotions. An employee thinking about the birthday party that he / she will attend in the evening of following working day while serving to an extremely annoying customer will cheer up and work in a better mood (Grandey, 2000: 99).

The last antecedent focused method is the cognitive change in which the individual appraises the current situation so the emotional effect is diminished. Emotion is a feeling in response to a situation or event, so if the situation or event is altered, there will be an alteration in the following emotion too (Lazarus, 1991: 830).

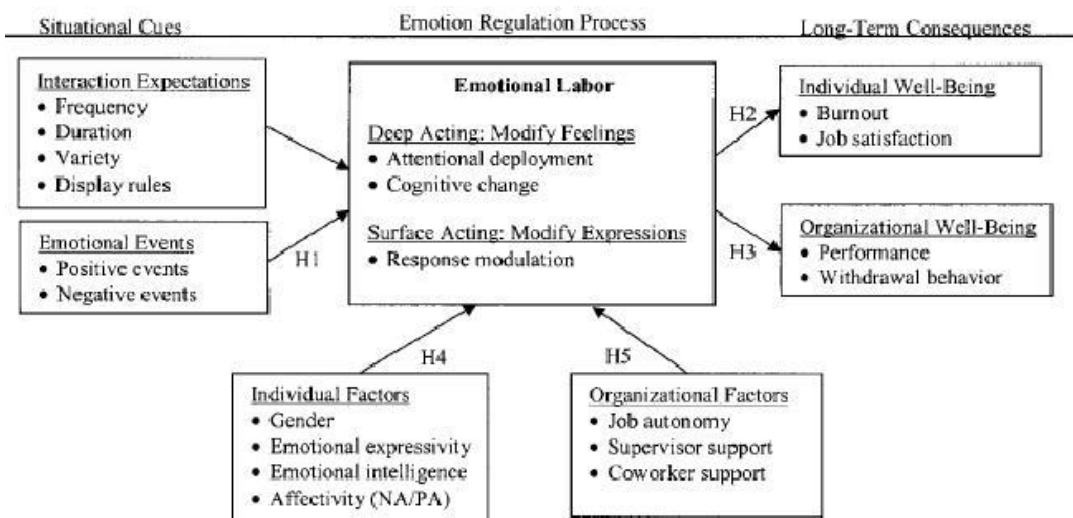
For instance, Hochschild (1983: 111) explained that when flight attendants get training, they're taught to reappraise passengers as children to widen tolerance of them and not become angry with their childish behaviors.

The chances for situation selection and modification are low in the service industry; especially for a tour guide who is in charge of the group and who has close interaction with the tourists in a limited work environment; let's say the bus, museum or a hotel lobby. The attention deployment and cognitive change on the other hand, are much more applicable to managing emotions through modifying the attentional focus of personal thoughts and evaluation of the external circumstance which may be liken to deep acting (Grandey, 2000: 99).

In response-focused emotional regulation, the individual behaves with a manipulated emotion that is different from his / her inclination towards an emotional response or totally fake the expression which may be liken to surface acting (Gross, 1998: 285; Grandey: 2000: 99). Smiling at every guest in the hospitality sector and almost in all other service-related sectors could be an example of regulation of this type as individuals do that to be in line with display rules.

Grandey (2000: 101) provides a detailed conceptual emotional labor framework including conditional signs and long range outcomes of EL as well as considering individual differences and organizational factors; thus combining all previous theoretical perspectives as in the Figure 4 below:

Figure 5: Grandey's Conceptual Framework of Emotional Regulation



Source: Grandey, 2000: 101.

2.5. Emotional Labor Strategies

Researchers have argued that jobholders in the service industry implement emotional labor as one of the following: surface acting, deep acting, or genuine acting (Hochschild, 1983: 37; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 94). Since all these emotional labor strategies differ in character, they necessitate varying levels of falsification of one's internal feelings or observable acts. Some, as in the case of deep acting, might necessitate a higher degree of revision of one's inner feelings than those of others who perform surface acting. Consequently, to what extent the feelings are manipulated stands out as a significant element of in what way a person puts emotional labor into practise (Chu, 2002: 9).

2.5.1. Surface Acting

Surface acting (SA) is the transmission of an emotion which is compatible with the display rules without changing the inner emotional state (Hochschild, 1983: 37). An employee tries to keep up the good mood and mask the anger no matter how pushy or aggressive the customer is as the opposite is not acceptable according to organizational rules.

Surface acting focuses on the displayed emotion or outward appearance and may occur in two ways: suppression of felt emotions and playact of emotions that are not actually felt. While surfacely acting, employees pretend emotions which are not innerly felt. They do this by adjusting their observable behaviors such as facial mimics, movements of hands or head, or tone of the voice while displaying organizationally compulsory emotions (Chu and Murrman, 2006: 1182).

Sometimes emotional display rules are not coherent with or maybe contradictory to the individuals' feelings. In this case, they should adjust their observable emotional displays, frequently via suppressing their own feelings such as nervousness, unhappiness, exhaustion, displeasure, desperation and counterfeiting the appropriate expression such as joyfulness (Lam and Chen: 2012: 5). For instance, call center switchboard operators keep talking with a smiling face no matter how

irritated they are by a certain customer so as not to get a warning from their supervisors.

The requirement of having to display particular emotions on the job forces employees to surface act; one reason behind this necessity is to keep their jobs and avoid negative customer service outcomes or any adverse situations. In surface acting, employees do not try to understand what their customer are feeling but simply parry the encounter to their own benefit. However, when the employees constantly apply surface acting, they are more likely to place themselves distant from their customers, which after all may route them to become cynical about their profession (Kim, 2008: 160).

Surface acting is systematically recognized to be damaging to employees' psychological health, physiological well-being and job satisfaction (Cheung and Tang, 2010: 325). Constant surface acting generates a discrepancy between the inner emotions and displayed emotions which is called emotional dissonance and may lead to low levels of job satisfaction in turn (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 987). In a study conducted by Hochschild (1983: 131), such an effort of constant faking also resulted in severe headaches and employee absenteeism.

2.5.2. Deep Acting

Deep acting (DA) is exerting an effort to experiment or sense the emotions that a person wants to display in reality (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 93). In order to do this, employees try to look through their customers' eyes where they try to feel empathetic and concerned to the customers' difficult situations (Shani et al. , 2014: 151). Feelings are actively induced, suppressed, or shaped as a result of trying to understand the other person's emotions by matching emotional processes in similar situations. They may use their training as well as past experiences. This is when both the outward behavior and also the internal feelings are adjusted.

The difference between deep acting and surface acting is that in the surface acting only behaviors are regulated whereas in the deep acting feelings are regulated along with behaviors (Johnson, 2007: 3).

Deep acting continuously recalls thoughts, memories, or images to encourage the right emotional expression. For instance, upon an angry customer's yelling after being told that his / her flight was cancelled, an airline employee may bring about the very same situation he / she personally experienced to first understand the customer and then display the emotions accordingly instead of yelling back (Hochschild, 1983: 38).

Individuals who have greater empathic consideration utilize deep acting to produce emotions and reactions that are convenient to the conditions (Chu et al. , 2012: 908). If employees accomplish to implement deep acting, they become more genuine and feel internally rewarded with their performance. Deep acting gives the employees a strong sense of accomplishment and professional efficacy (Kim, 2008: 154). As a result, deep acting provides favorable work outputs for individuals since it reduces the amount of emotional exhaustion of constant surface acting and increases the feeling of personal accomplishment yielding job satisfaction.

Deep acting might be necessary if surface acting appears too superficial to satisfy customers' anticipation of sincere reciprocal relationships (Zapf, 2002: 244).

2.5.3. Genuine Acting

A third level of acting, also called 'passive deep acting' (Hochschild, 1983: 38), is genuine acting (GA), where the employees' inner emotions are consistent with their outspoken feelings and the display rules. They argued that to fulfill the requirements of their role, individuals did not have to always act but in some cases their true feelings and expressed emotions may be identical (Ashforth and Humphery, 1993: 94).

In surface or deep acting, there is a deliberate attempt to manage emotions; but sometimes without a need to regulate the emotions, one may genuinely and spontaneously experience and express the expected emotion. For instance, feeling and showing sympathy to a new-born baby is not something people force themselves to act that way but a genuinely expressed emotion. As there is not a deliberate effort to display the organizationally expected behavior in genuine acting, it is not always categorized as an acting type in the literature; because emotional labor is considered

to be the result of regulation of inner feelings or outward behavior as a result of implicit effort which is not the case with genuine acting. In other words, genuine acting is not seen as a problematic issue in terms of quality of service associated with organizational factors (Gosserand, 2003: 19) .

The reason it is included as the third acting strategy in Ashforth and Humphrey's approach is because genuine acting is what organizations would prefer their employees to display in their relations with the customers. Also, surface acting and deep acting might turn into customary reflections or fulfillment of procedures thus developing into an automatic process due to the repetitious and routine nature of many service interactions (Gosserand, 2003: 7).

Displaying genuine behaviors is more likely to occur when employees identify themselves more with the emotional display rules. The display of genuine acting brings out emotional harmony as there is not a discrepancy between the felt and displayed emotion. Employees will only need to apply considerably less intentional effort to make sure that their displays match expectations of the organization (Wong and Wang, 2009: 250).

2.6. Antecedents of Emotional Labor

Emotional Labor is affected from various factors. Antecedents of this term are grouped under three main headings. These are individualistic factors, organizational factors and situational factors.

2.6.1. Individualistic Factors

Each person is different but some features cause similar reactions in people. Some of these features such as gender, age, marital status, experience, empathy, affectivity and emotional intelligence has been studied separately by researchers. These factors are explained in the next page.

2.6.1.1. Gender

Gender is one of the factors that empirical studies have suggested as discriminatory in the use of emotional labor and regulation of emotional in the organizational setting. There is a considerable literature on emotional labor that draws attention on women's roles, both at work and at home.

Women mostly excel in emotional labor strategies to suppress their negative emotional displays and also the display of positive emotions, while men are better suited to the opposite (Erickson and Ritter, 2001: 148).

Hochschild (1989: 182) also argued that women are anticipated to take on more on managing their emotions compared to men not only at work but also at home. She also argued that women are more probable to be characterized with the task of managing irritation and aggressiveness in the service of demonstrating cheerful displays; when it comes to men, the socially assigned task of assaulting in opposition to those that violate rules of different types creates the private task of managing uncertainty and fear. (Hochschild, 1989: 163). According to Gross and John, men have a tendency to restrain their emotional expressions as they think that others perceive these expressions as contradictory to being masculine (Cheung and Tang, 2010: 327). Blanchard-Fields et al. (2004: 263) researched whether gender and age differences cause a change on the use of emotional regulation strategies in day-to-day problem-solving in the light of passive emotional regulation which is managing reactions through the suppression of emotions, and proactive emotional regulation strategies which is reflection of emotion, acceptance of responsibility and their analysis revealed that within all age categorizations, women proclaimed higher use of proactive emotional regulation strategies in comparison to men.

2.6.1.2. Age

People learn to embrace or display the appropriate emotional expression in a wide variety of social settings as they get older. In other words, elder employees are able to spontaneously display the organisationally claimed emotions welded on their past practices (Cheung and Tang, 2010: 336). As the individuals get older, they are

inclined to place much more resources when regulating their emotions and share out more cognitive resources to emotional duties.

Research reveals that compared to younger employees, elder people are better at regulating and controlling their emotions by engaging in more antecedent-emotion based strategies (Gross et al., 1997: 590). Individuals may progressively become competent in better executing the use of healthy emotion regulation strategies as they get mature and collect lifetime experiences, such as self assessment and avoiding the use of inappropriate emotion regulation strategies that are damaging such as suppression (John and Gross, 2004: 1324).

2.6.1.3. Marital status

One of the demographic characteristics that has been to attraction of the researchers is the effect of marital status on emotional labor. Chang and Chiu (2009: 309) has found out that single flight attendants exerts more deep acting when compared to married flight attendants in their research of flight attendants in Taiwanese airline industry. In addition to this, the emotional exhaustion of flight attendants who crossed the single option to categorize their marital status was greater compared to married flight attendants. Yet, most of the studies (Wharton, 1996: 106; Oral and Köse, 2011: 480; Zammuner and Galli, 2005: 275) has shown no significant correlation between marital status and emotional labor display.

2.6.1.4. Experience

Experience lets employees to apperceive what emotions should be displayed, suppressed, or concealed when serving to customers (Wong and Wang, 2009: 253). It would be be much more easier for an employee who has practised a profession long enough to predict what is coming and regulate their emotions accordingly. Employees' feelings do not match the situation at all times, then they should benefit from their job trainings or previous experiences to help them bringing back appropriate emotions that are required and accepted to display (Kruml and Geddes, 2000: 11). They also claimed that when employees don't have enough experience or

occupational incumbency, they are a lot more probable to feel role ambiguity to a greater extent which leads to dissonance and effort. According to Wong and Wang (2009: 254), the more experienced tour leaders get, the more they build up scenarios to cope with their customers effectively and they become wise enough to know what scenario should be performed in which situation, also those who more competent become more talented to display the appropriate emotions than those with insufficient experience.

2.6.1.5. Empathy

Empathy is the possession of the required skills to recognize and comprehend the mental states, faiths, wants of others, and above all, their emotions. It's being aware of the worries of the other people and that feeling initiates a strong wish to assist them. It's not only trying to experience emotions that is in line with another person's emotions, but also realizing what the other persons have in their minds or what they are feeling through ruling out the borders between that person and the self (Ickes et al, 1990: 95).

Empathy skills are present in most people naturally. They don't need to take special lessons or go to personal development courses etc. It is generally defined as being capable of looking through others' eyes, or experimenting the attitudes or emotions of others within oneself; a kind of emotional rebound. When people know what others' thoughts and feeling are, they arrange their activities accordingly, which is advantageous and essential in communication between people. Just like any other talent, the degree of empathizing differentiates among people. Since empathy encompasses both internal and external emotion management, individuals with a high dispositional empathic concern can communicate better than those with decreased capacity. The capability to understand other individuals' emotions is an powerful way to diminish the overload of emotional labor. Establishing empathy is likely to help reducing the possibility of emotional incompatibility since such incompatibility may cause damaging results such as emotional exhaustion (Hodges and Klein, 2001: 437).

2.6.1.6. Affectivity

Affectivity is described as a constant inclination to experience a definite temper like being happy or sad, or to respond to objects such as jobs and others in a certain way or with specific emotions (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 1000). Researchers defines two separate kinds of affectivity: negative affect (NA) and positive affect (PA) Individuals with high PAs are those who are equipped with higher levels of positive affect and practise more positive emotions than negative ones, like joyfulness, eagerness or excitement. PA serves as a tool for individuals to decipher emotional information precisely and efficiently, to find solutions to difficulties, to make decisions, and to accomplish tasks; thus helping to cope or deal with distressing situations which is common in the service industry. On the other hand, high NA people are the ones with higher levels of negative affect who are equipped with more negative emotions, like annoyance, tension or anxiety (Chu et al., 2012: 908). They tend to be distressed, anxious and upset and have a negative view of self, the world, the future and other people (Watson and Clark, 1984: 465).

Affectivity has also been asserted in hypothetical studies as one of the determinative aspect of emotional labor. Individuals with different affect tendencies evaluate and perceive the same display rules differently and engage in different acting methods (Schaubroeck and Jones, 2000: 167). This means a high NA person practises greater amount of emotional labor to push down the effect of negative emotions to sustain the appropriate display in the course of a burdensome interaction with surface acting, whereas a high PA person performs emotional labor with very little acting because the genuinely felt emotions and emotions to be displayed are close. When the emotion work requirements conflict with affectivity, emotional dissonance is likely to occur (Grandey. 2000: 107; Wong and Wang, 2009: 250; Morris and Feldman, 1996: 1000).

2.6.1.7. Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990: 190) defined Emotional Intelligence (EI) as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own feelings

and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". People with EI ability then would be considered more harmonious and responsive in adjusting their inner feelings to be adaptive to circumstantial claims than those who lack it.

As physical fitness is the indispensable element of physical labor, emotional intelligence is also a must-have for emotional labor and those who are employed in service oriented positions are required to use their EI skills to better conduct their jobs (Mastracci et al., 2010: 125). An employee with EI ability knows what emotions are expected from him or her in a given situation, what is acceptable in an interpersonal interaction and what is not.

The advantages of EI for those working in jobs that require emotional labor are numerous. Firstly, individuals who are emotionally intelligent are good at positioning themselves in positive affective states, and are capable of undergoing and standing against negative affective states; thus eliminating notable damaging outcomes (Carmeli and Josman, 2006: 405). Secondly, according to Mikolajczak et al. (2007: 1109), employees with higher EI traits are more talented to manage others' and their own emotions better and would engage in DA rather than SA within a difficult encounter with a customer, thus eliminating the burden of emotional labor and EI trait induces positive emotional experiences and discourage negative ones; this way employees experience less emotional dissonance.

Mikolajczak et al. (2007: 1109) also proposed that EI includes components of empathy and competence of understanding others' emotions, and for higher EI employees, it's easier to engage in positive social relations and get the desired results in customer relations.

2.6.2. Organizational Factors

The degree of regulation and management of emotions are not only shaped by individualistic characteristics but also organizational characteristics; to what extent the individual can align in between them stems from either individualistic characteristics mentioned above or organizational characteristics or situational factors which will be discussed in the next section.

Display rules, job autonomy and social support are the organizational matters that are meant to influence emotional labor (Özgen, 2010: 45).

2.6.2.1. Display Rules

In addition to the individualistic characteristics of employees and the context of their interaction with customers, the emotions expressed or demonstrated by the employees on the job are sanctioned to a great extent by display rules. In general, display rules are a composition of societal norms, organizational norms and occupational norms. Societal norms serve as a guideline that give general, comprehensive rules concerning how and what emotions should be conveyed in words or gestures during service interactions (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989: 24). Display rules are standardized rules that tell employees what emotional expressions are acceptable and unacceptable in a given situation and which are not. Öz (2007: 35) defines display rules as ‘employees’ behavior templates that are organizationally standardized in their emotional displays towards customers’.

In almost every occupational group or organization that requires engagement in personal contact with people, there are a set of rules defining the emotions and behaviors towards the customers or business partners. It is a necessary practice for organizations to standardize the service they provide with written rules. If these rules are not written in employee handbook, they may also be transmitted verbally (Özgen, 2010: 32). For organizations striving for enhancement of their service quality, the existence of these rules and employees’ adherence to them are of great importance.

Display rules may differ from organization to organization. Each organization defines different display rules depending on the nature of business. Norm strength and norm intensity for display rules is greater for service occupations than for non-service occupations as emotional expressions are indispensable elements of the interaction in the service industry (Zerbe and Falkenberg 1989 cited in Ashforth and Humphrey 1993: 91).

Conformity to display rules requires emotion regulation. Once the display rules are learnt through orientation or on-the-job training, employees may choose between emotional labor strategies; either by suppressing negative emotions and

faking with surface acting or modifying inner feelings with deep acting or reflecting their positive emotions with genuine acting. For instance a tour guide smiles and pleasantly greets a guest every morning he gets on the bus. This smile may or may not reflect the tour guide's true feelings; because the smile is a required part of the job (Grandey, 2000: 102).

It's important that display rules are localized for multinational organizations operating in different countries. As display rules are shaped within societal norms, these norms have a tendency to vary across cultures (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 91) as it was in the case with McDonald's. When they opened their first fast-food restaurant in Moscow, western society standards of approved service such as sincere facial expressions at customers didn't work quite well because this norm didn't exist in former Soviet Union.

The clear understanding of display rules is important for employees to authenticize them and display the appropriate behaviors accordingly. If the rules are not understood thoroughly, it's more likely that emotion regulation function won't work properly and unwanted results would occur for the employer in terms of standardization of behaviors. On the other hand, it's also probable for some employees to feel strained by display rules and exert more emotional labor behaviors of different types (Schhaubroeck et al., 2000: 167).

2.6.2.2. Autonomy

Hackman and Oldham (1975: 162) defines autonomy as the extent to which the job provides notable amount of liberty, latitude and independence obtainable to the employee in planning their activities and in establishing the strategies to be utilized in putting it through. When employees are given autonomy and freedom to decide what should be done in a particular situation in their jobs, this should authorize them to answer various contradictory work requisitions more excellently (Thompson and Prottas, 2006: 101). If autonomy is applied to emotional labor, it's obvious that emotional autonomy is not managed by individuals but it's managed by the organization. The type and extent of emotional labor of a service agent in response to an encounter is affected by the emotional autonomy of the service agent.

Emotion regulation process causes stress and job autonomy diminishes the level of this stress; on the other hand, organizations that minimize the emotional autonomy of their employees may have to deal with negative outcomes (Grandey: 2000, 107). Morris and Feldman (1996: 999) found out that job autonomy was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion. Wharton (1999: 173) found that even little autonomy provides employees the power to cope with some of the most inauthenticating aspects of emotional labor and it causes a greater effect on the satisfaction of emotional labor performers than nonperformers. According to Nunan and Knox (2005: 73), if emotional autonomy is low where the work role is highly scripted as in the case of fast food chain employees, emotional labor is likely to emerge in the form of surface acting; when emotional autonomy is higher, then the employee is more able to use deep acting.

2.6.2.3. Supervisor and coworker support

Our emotional responses are shaped within the work environment; a work environment directly influences the way employees interact with each other and the way they develop either positive or negative emotional states and responds accordingly. Support of colleagues, supervisors and managers must establish a positive working environment. The existence of positive and supportive interpersonal relationships let employees display genuinely felt emotions that are requisite in service settings a lot more easier (Grandey, 2000: 107). Consequently, feeling positive about the social environment may lead to less emotional labor burden and social support may help individuals to deal with stress more efficiently. Studies indicate that when employees feel like they are working in a supportive climate, they experience job satisfaction, less turnover intentions and lowered stress, and also their performance as a team changes for the better (Cropanzano et al., 1997: 163; Eisenberger et al., 1997: 815).

Researchers on stress have listed innumerable instances in which the fellowship and moral of interconnected people such as family and friends, co-workers and relatives have had a protecting impact on stress, because those people in

the social environment provide a shield from the damaging effects of stressful occasions. When individuals are faced with numerous demands that tighten their abilities to cope with, they nestle to the support of close acquaintances to avoid being pushed down by feelings of helplessness and lack of self-confidence (Cohen and Willis, 1985: 312). Abraham (1998: 234) found that social individuals with high levels of social support are less likely to experience negative effects of emotional dissonance on job satisfaction than those with low social support.

A different approach to examine the social support concept would be within social exchange theory (Gosserand: 2003: 26); it's when one person takes steps to the other person in favorable ways, he or she feels indebted for the future even though it's not spoken. So according to this theory, a person's behavior towards others is motivated by the expectation of this reciprocity. When a person does a favor for another person, that other person feels some sort of indebt and looks for an occasion to pay it back. This relationship may be interpersonal or between persons and also between the employees of an organization. If an individual believes that the organization values the contributions and efforts of employees and cares about their well-being, then the individual feels obligated to return the favor and put more effort so as to meet the requisitions of the display rules but this social exchange obligation may yield higher levels of emotional labor. The major distinction among social support and social exchange theory is that; social support is related to moods and attitudes in nature; however, social exchange is evaluative or related to cognition (Gosserand 2003: 27).

2.6.3. Situational Factors

The third and the last antecedent of emotional labor is summarized under situational factors heading and it includes frequency of interaction, attentiveness to required display rules and variety of emotions.

2.6.3.1. Frequency of Interaction

Frequency of interactions is about how often employees encounters with their clients. Frequency of interaction with customers varies depending on the nature of

the work or on different operation hours; different work roles hold different expectations for the employee. Sometimes job roles require interaction with customers on short intervals whereas some encounters happens with longer intervals. For instance, a hotel receptionist on mid-shift may welcome 20 guests an hour, but his coworker on night shift may only have to deal with a guest once or twice during the night (Diefendorff et al., 2005: 343).

According to Hochschild (1983: 135), too many frequent emotional displays would lead to alienation and exhaustion; In other words, the engagement of permanent interactions with clients arouse frequent emotion displays along with display of unfeelt emotions, which in turn yield more negative health outcomes. Morris and Feldman (1996: 989) argued that frequency of emotional display is an important indicator of emotional labor; when people are exposed to frequent interaction with others, they may feel reluctant to regulate their emotional displays. Conforming this idea, Brotheridge and Lee (2003: 370) and Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 26) found that frequency of interactions was positively correlated with both SA and DA. Besides, everlasting encounters puts a certain amount of time strain on employees and makes it almost impossible for individuals to display naturally felt emotions.

2.6.3.2. Attentiveness to Required Display Rules

Attentiveness to required display rules incorporates duration of interaction and intensity of emotions. Both factors influence the level of emotional labor exerted by individuals.

2.6.3.2.1. Duration of Interaction

The length of an average customer interactions depicts duration. Emotional displays of short durations is quite the least for the level of effort required and on the contrary, if the duration is longer, emotional displays must involve increased effort and therefore high levels of emotional labor. Rafaeli and Sutton's (1988: 476) study on convenience store clerks revealed that during peak operation hours, employees

were not really willing to display welcomes, make eye contact, greet or express gratitude to their patrons while they do it when it is slower. For instance, a cashier in a department store interacts with each customer for a couple of minutes, whereas a tour guide may have to interact with tourists for hours. When an encounter is too short, it's probable that it's also mechanical; as in cashier example, just a greeting and a thank you with a smile is enough. The emotions displayed in short encounters are more likely to be less intense; but in longer interactions, as in tour guide example, intensity of emotions to be displayed is higher. Then the overall encounter is less mechanical and more effortful (Zapf, 2002: 242). Duration of interaction is more or less the same for similar positions yet it's not always the nature of business but also the type of customer that determines the duration of interaction; for instance, some of the customers are much more fussy or talkative than others and may extend the duration of interaction.

Morris and Feldman (1996: 989) argued that the longer the interactions, the more is the likelihood that individuals will have to effectively regulate their emotional displays. Besides, longer encounters with customers might take the chances higher that these interactions would turn into a more personalized interaction and as a result, employees will display their felt emotions in a natural way. Brotheridge and Lee (2003: 375) and Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 28) studied the effects of duration and the results showed that there was a positive relation between DA and duration but no relationship between SA and duration. DA may be the strategy of choice during long interactions when more effort is needed to regulate emotions and continuous surface acting becomes way too difficult. Cordes and Dougherty (1993: 628) stated that extended encounters with customers were associated with increased levels of burnout as a higher involvement in the interaction causes stronger personal feelings and individuals may have to exert more effort in order to suppress these feelings.

2.6.3.2.2. Intensity

Emotional intensity depicts to how powerfully or with what immensity an emotion is experienced or demonstrated (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990). Some of

the work roles make display of intense emotions inevitable. This obligation necessitates higher level of deep acting and also more effort of the role player because it is not easy to steadily fake intense emotions.

Intensity and duration are closely related to each other; if the emotion to be displayed is longer, the emotion to be displayed is stronger too, in this case a person should pay more attention to management of his or her emotions (Zapf, 2002: 242).

Displays of intense emotions may also occur as a result of repeat encounters. An employee taking care of the same customer, consumer, buyer or guest over a long period would engage in more intense emotions for the continuity of loyalty and business (Öz, 2007: 11). For instance, a front desk employee would welcome and show genuine care to a repeat business guest who is also generous to them more than any other guests as he or she is much more familiar with guest's expectations and needs and wants.

2.6.3.3. Variety of Emotions

The third dimension of situational factors is the variety of emotional displays. When the variety of emotions to be displayed is broad, the emotional labor of jobholder is immense too (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 991). Wharton and Erickson (1993: 463) classified variety of emotional displays as:

- integrative (positive) emotions such as love, loyalty, pride
- differentiating (negative) emotions such as fear, anger, contempt
- emotional masking (neutrality) referring to masking and restraint

While most of the work roles requires positive emotion displays such as smiling and being considerate to build enthusiasm such as those of a kindergarten teacher; others require negative emotion displays to support discipline such as those of a prison guard or a police officer and neutral displays show fairness and professionalism such as those of a judge or a therapist. There are also examples of work roles comprising all three at the same time as it is the case with teachers; a teacher displays positive emotions to arouse students' attention, negative emotions to keep them under control and masks the emotions to give them sense of fairness (Wharton and Erickson 1993: 463).

There are several job positions such as sales representatives or supermarket cashiers for which expression of a certain emotion, let's say friendliness, is dominating, on the other hand, some positions such as psychotherapists, kindergarten teachers, or nurses for which required emotions are much more varied. The more the variety of emotions to be displayed, the more the amount of psychological energy that employees should invest in emotional labor because changing situations brings in the necessity to do more planning on showing the appropriate emotion (Zapf, 2002: 243).

2.7. Outcomes of Emotional Labor

The way employees engage in emotional labor brings out different outcomes depending on organization's expectations, type of business, organizational factors and individualistic differences; sometimes the outcome is positive and sometimes negative.

2.7.1. Positive Outcomes

Most of the research in literature on emotional labor has mentioned the potentiality of negative consequences of emotional labor for the psychological health of individuals while trying to understand and explain this concept. It's true that emotional labor has damaging effects to employee well-being yet, there is also numerous studies with contradictory findings; emotional labor may bring about some benefits in terms of employers and employees (Chu, 2002: 40). Several studies (Wharton, 1993; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993) indicate that it escalates job satisfaction, security and self-respect, pride in work, feelings of psychological well-being and task effectiveness. If it's interpreted as self developing by the employees or they have the ability to undertake their own emotion management, emotional labor appears to have positive consequences; in addition to this, having the strenght of management of others' emotions might be interpreted as empowering.

According to Wharton (1993), some workers perceive emotional labor intensive jobs more satisfying than those jobs that don't involve emotional labor.

Wharton (1993) proposed that emotional labor intensive jobs fascinate employees whose personal qualities are well suited to work with people and, consequently, personal characteristics of these individuals match job demands better. This harmony induces high levels of job satisfaction. An important reason for this outcome is that employers pay attention to the employee selection process in emotional labor intensive service jobs to employ individuals with required personality attributes (Wharton, 1993: 210).

Comparison of performers and nonperformers of emotional labor suggests that jobs demanding emotional labor may have some pleasures as well as dangers for workers, relative to other types of work. For example, jobs that provide workers with opportunities to interact with others on the job, even if these interactions are limited, seem to be more satisfying to workers than jobs allowing less social interaction as it takes the employee to a point where he or she believes to be good at using his or her skills that is followed by a feeling of pride and dominance. Her researches again demonstrated that the unfavorable outcomes of emotional labor are less amongst those who have higher levels of job autonomy. When they know that their job provides them greater autonomy, employees know their limits but freely shape the interaction process within these limits where they can externalize their identity better, and feel less exhausted as a consequence. Moreover, greater autonomy provides employees the opportunity to have allowance on emotion management on a broader sense to develop coping strategies. Lastly, the author points out to the fact that job autonomy reduces the probability of emotional exhaustion for those who perform emotional labor more than nonemotional performers (Wharton, 1999: 166).

According to Rafaeli and Sutton (1987), when employees display their emotions in an affiliative and friendly manner, it affects their financial well-being. This impact is even more evident when employees make their earnings based on tips from customers or work on a freelance basis. The display of sincerity and cheerful mood are anticipated in most service occupations which in turn make the employee more preferable and increase their income. Because performing appropriate emotions establish a pleasant ambience for clients and lead to higher commissions or create repeat business. This means an extra patient to a doctor, client to an attorney, student to a private tutor and tourist to a guide. Beside its financial outcomes, researchers

also emphasize the beneficial outcomes of emotional labor in case of emotional harmony; which is when the inner feelings are parallel to displayed feelings and in coherence with display rules, then the employee is in complete harmony with the working environment, away from stress and stays healthy (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987: 29).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) proposed that one of the advantageous consequences of authenticizing the display rules is that it would serve as a guide for a successful interaction, hence, converting unpredictable to predictable at work. According to the authors, display rules provide the necessary instructions for employees to regulate their interactions and facilitates task accomplishment; when the employee successfully fulfills the task requirements, this improves individuals' self-efficacy levels. For instance, a polite and good-humored person is more likely to be treated likewise in return. Furthermore, it would help employees to hinder undesirable issues between the parties; also helping the individuals to set themselves back from embarrassing encounters (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 94).

2.7.2. Negative Outcomes

The negative outcomes of emotional labor is immense but often researched under two main concepts; the first one being job dissatisfaction and second the burnout; yet the negative effects will not necessarily show up the same way for every employee under each similar condition; which means, negative effects will only grow out of specific situational or individualistic factors (Barsade and Gibson, 2007: 52).

In case of an inconsistency between the displayed emotions and the emotions originally felt by the employee, negative results are unavoidable (Güngör, 2009: 108). The incompatibility between expressed emotions and felt emotions is emotive dissonance. If a person is expressing himself or herself in a cheerful and enthusiastic manner but feeling upset and worried, emotive dissonance exists. The constant involvement in emotive dissonance in turn is likely to let the individual to feel fake and double-faced. In this aspect of emotional labor there are unfavorable outcomes on the intellectual and physical well-being of employees. Researchers propose that if

emotive dissonance occur regularly, it may be detrimental to employees' job-based harmony as well as to their personal defectivity, such as reduced self-respect, psychological breakdown, skepticism, and estrangement from work (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 97).

Performing surface acting is emotionally taxing and important resources will be drained away that result in net loss of resources. Researches in the literature about the subject have revealed that emotional labor produces an increase on employee burnout (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003: 372; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22; Köksel, 2009: 76; Basım and Beğenirbaş, 2012: 87), a decrease in job satisfaction (Uysal, 2007: 47; Yang and Chang, 2008: 879; Köksel, 2009: 90), an increase in health problems, sleep problems and psychological problems such as anxiety and suicidal tendencies (Karim, 2009: 584), high turnover rates and family conflict (Seery et al., 2009: 461).

Hochschild (1983: 187) is perhaps most defender about the negative impact of emotion work on psychological well-being. Some of the employees fully authenticize themselves with their jobs and deeply internalize the organizational roles which looks like a good thing at first sight but this situation brings some drawbacks in the long run such as seeing oneself as the reason of each success or failure. These employees are the ones most subject to suffer from burnout. Some on the other hand keeps playacting and are face to face with losing feelings of intimacy which in turn causes self-alienation. According to her, the constant pressure of emotional labor may cause drug addiction, alcoholism, severe physical aches, sexual disorders and absenteeism. Upon a research on Delta Airlines' flight attendants, Hochschild (1983: 135) announced that emotional labor has unfavorable psychological outcomes for employees as well. She had interviews and made observations with them to support her idea; it turned out as flight attendants did suffer from diminished self-respect, a sense of inauthenticity, loss of feelings, and burnout.

Similarly, Leidner's (1993) research on fast-food workers revealed the unfavorable emotional and social effects of engaging in excessive emotional labor with customers. Leidner proposes that expectation of stiff and constant conformity with employers' display rules is detrimental to employees' evaluation of the self and

originality when they work with little job autonomy under the domination of a powerful corporate culture (Leidner, 1993 cited in Pugliesi, 1999: 130).

Emotional labor can also sabotage an employee's identity of professionalism. In her study of hairstylists, Gimlin claims that rather than doing what's right for their customers, the beauticians prefer to do what their customers want even though they know that it's technically improper or unstylish. The beauticians think themselves as their clients' self giving, obedient companions. They feel strained to place their clients' hairstyling desires even if they don't agree; afterwards, as beauticians engage in emotion work, it makes them to feel themselves as if they are socially equivalents to their customers; yet, they sabotage their authority and identities of expertise (Gimlin, 1996: 505).

There is evidence that emotional labor does compromise job satisfaction (Bulan et al., 1997: 235; Pugliesi and Shook, 1997: 283). Emotional labor can also be exhausting, it can be perceived as stressful, and it can increase psychological distress and symptoms of depression (Pugliesi and Shook, 1997: 310; Wharton, 1999: 166). In their study of 353 Taiwanese flight attendants, Chang and Chiu (2009: 305) found a positive correlation between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion which is the first phase of job burnout. Chen et al. (2012: 826) found that surface acting was negatively related to job satisfaction and deep acting was negatively related to burnout in their study with 206 frontline hotel employees. Cheung et al. (2011: 364) also found similar results on their study of 264 full-time Chinese school teachers; surface acting was recognized to be correlated more positively with burnout while deep acting was only negatively related to lack of personal accomplishment.

PART III

JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT

3.1. Job Satisfaction

The classical approach of management was derived from the fact that employees have only monetary and physical needs. During this period, the social needs as well as the need for job satisfaction were either undermined or were not found important. Hawthorne studies eventually indicated that experimental changes in the working environment momentarily improve productivity. Employees knew that they were being observed and it was understood that this improvement was not a result of the advanced conditions but as a result of this awareness. Participation of workers in decision-making process, genuinely concerned supervision, establishment of good human relations and communication are found to be the essential key elements of workers' productivity. Hawthorne studies looked upon the issue including the human factor and emphasized the fact that workers couldn't be evaluated as machines. It's only after these studies that concepts such as job satisfaction, motivation and performance gained importance and job satisfaction has become one of the most commonly studied subjects in organizational behaviour studies ever since (Saari and Judge, 2004: 398).

The job satisfaction concept has been established by various researchers in many different ways and it can simply be defined as how much pleased individuals are with their jobs; whether they like the job or not or any individual characteristics or features of their jobs. It's a subjective evaluation of the individual while performing his or her duties. It's subjective because it cannot be explained by a single measurement alone and is individual's emotional reaction to job itself (Sinha and Shukla, 2013: 33).

It is an assessment of the interpreted job features and emotional experience at work. When employees are satisfied, they make an affirmative evaluation of their job, according to their observations, emotional experiences, convictions and feelings. Saleh (1981: 18) points out that job satisfaction is a sensation which is a function of the interpreted relationship between all the elements that an individual demands from

his job or life and all that one realizes as contributing or entailing. The consideration here is on what that particular individual desires, not what is important for his or her self-definition.

One of the most widely used definitions in organizational research is that of Locke (1976: 1304), who defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences”. Luthans (1994: 108) defines job satisfaction as a demeanor that individuals hold towards their jobs or to some facets of the job, the perception about the job and the benefits of the job and emotional reactions to them. Luthans (1994: 108-114) assumed that there are three significant aspects of job satisfaction:

- It's not possible to see but only infer job satisfaction as it is an emotional reaction to a job condition.
- Job satisfaction is generally evaluated in terms of outcome and expectations. If the outcome is perceived as better than expectations, one gets satisfied. For example, if employees think that they work harder compared to their colleagues but get fewer rewards they are likely to pose negative attitudes not only for the work but also for the managers and or their associates. However, when they are treated fairly and are paid equally, it's expected that they feel positive and their attitudes towards the job is positive too.
- Job satisfaction is associated with the most important characteristics of a job about which people have effective response. These characteristics, such as the work itself, wages, advancement opportunities, supervision and business associates, determine the attitude.

While job satisfaction is employees' emotional response to their actual conditions of the job, motivation, on the other hand, is the propulsive power to sustain and meet one's needs. Since job satisfaction is closely related with job motivation and a result of employee's internal motivation drive, a number of motivational theories were constructed to achieve overall job satisfaction and increase performance on the job. These theories, namely theories of motivation are explained below (Ünlü, 2013: 4).

3.1.1. Theories of Motivation

Motivation is defined as “the sum of efforts individuals put forth with their own wishes and desires to actualize a specific goal” (Koçel, 2007: 483). Theories of motivation are aimed to energize the effort and behavior of employees and give them a direction. There are two types of theories which are content theories and cognitive theories. While content theories are based on intrinsic factors, cognitive theories are based on extrinsic factors (Koçel, 2007: 483).

3.1.1.1. Content theories

The content theories are known as the most fundamental theories of motivation. Content theories try to understand intrinsic factors that lead certain behaviors; they focus on the significance of what motivates people. In other words they aim to specify what people need and how they function on motivation to satisfy such needs (Önen and Tüzün, 2005: 31).

3.1.1.1.1. Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs

It's Abraham H. Maslow (1943), the American motivation psychologist, who has developed the theory of hierarchy of needs. According to his theory, there are five hierarchic classes from the most basic to most complex (Gündoğdu, 2013: 27):

1. Physiological needs (hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.)
2. Safety needs (Security, shelter, health)
3. Social needs (love, friendship, affection, belonging, acceptance)
4. Ego needs (Recognition, achievement, freedom, self-esteem, prestige)
5. Self-actualization needs (Self improvement, creativity)

The assumption of this theory is that individuals have some certain wants and desires that effect their behavior and they are not going to move to the upper level of needs unless their needs on the lower level are satisfied to some extent. For instance,

when a person doesn't sleep or eat adequately, he or she won't try to meet his or her social needs. If needs are not satisfied, they yield the sources for motivation; a satisfied need doesn't produce any strain or pressure and therefore not a motivator of behavior (Ünlü, 2013: 5).

3.1.1.1.2. Two - factor theory

It's developed by Frederick Herzberg (1959). He stated that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were consequents of two different determinants; motivating factors and hygiene factors, in other words, satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Koçel, 2007: 489).

- Motivating factors: Achievement, advancement, work itself, recognition, responsibility and growth.
- Hygiene factors: Company policy, working conditions, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, status, job security, and personal life.

According to Herzberg, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are on different continuum and he further states that they are not contrary. He makes a distinction between the motivational factors and hygiene factors; that is, the motivational factors either cause satisfaction or no satisfaction; the hygiene factors, on the other hand, cause dissatisfaction when they are not present and no dissatisfaction when they are absent. Both of them has a varying size of strength (Pardee, 1990: 3).

3.1.1.1.3. Theory of Need for Achievement

The theory proposes that when people have an intense need for something, they feel motivated to meet that need, as a consequence they use the need to canalize their behavior which takes the person to reach the satisfaction level of the need. The main argument of McClelland's (1961) theory is that needs come up when people try to deal with their outside world. Due to the fact that needs are learned from the environment, behavior gets rewarded and it's inclined to repeat at an increased frequency. McClelland developed a descriptive set of factors which reflect a high need for achievement. These are (Pardee, 1990: 12):

1. Achievers enjoy situations where they can take private responsibility to find resolutions for the problematic issues.
2. Achievers have an inclination to legitimate logical achievement goals and take reasonable risks.
3. Achievers would like to get feedback on their performance.

3.1.1.1.4. ERG (Existence, Relatedness and Growth) Theory

Alderfer (1968) expanded the hierarchy of needs of Maslow and developed the Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory. According to this theory there are three groups of central needs which makes up the name of the theory. The existence group is associated with satisfying the basic tangible requirements such as hunger, thirst, working conditions matching the factors that was considered to be physiological and safety needs by Maslow (1943). The second group of needs are classified under relatedness. It's the desire one has to sustain personal relationships, acceptance and appreciation. If an individual wants to satisfy these social and status desires, then has to interact with others, and relatedness needs align with Maslow's social need and the external element of Maslow's esteem classification. Lastly, Alderfer (1968) isolates growth needs as an intrinsic desire for personal development, creativity and productivity. Growth needs match the intrinsic element of Maslow's esteem category (Koçel, 2007: 491).

3.1.1.2. Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories explain that if a certain outcome is needed to be achieved again and again, the process which originally created it must be duplicated too. And also, there are some continuous necessary circumstances for the outcome to be attained. These theories are Goal-Setting Theory, Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory and Operant Conditioning Theory (Ünlü, 2013: 10).

3.1.1.2.1. Goal-Setting Theory

Theory that was developed by Edwin Locke (1968) suggests that setting specific, measurable and realistic goals lead to a higher level of performance. A goal has absolute importance because it makes it easier for an individual to focus their endeavors in a specified direction. In other words, goals give direction to actions. In addition to this, employees should be allowed to take part in the goal setting process, but the goals must be stimulating as well to augment motivation. Yet, it is not probable to successfully achieve unrealistic goals, since resources become more inadequate; therefore, goals should be set on a realistic level matching individuals' capacity. At this point, properly delivered feedback also becomes important to allow employees to see how well they are doing or did in attaining their goals (Önen and Tüzün, 2005: 62).

3.1.1.2.2. Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory that was developed by V. Vroom (1964) assumes that people make their choices consciously and behavior is shaped depending on which ones are chosen among alternatives accordingly and the objective is to keep the pleasure at maximum and pain at minimum levels. It's an individual's perceived view of an outcome that determines the level of motivation. According to this theory (Önen ve Tüzün, 2005: 56):

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{expectancy} * \text{instrumentality} * \text{valence}$$

Expectancy is about an individual's conviction that every single effort will be followed by performance. The individual makes an estimation of the effort to be exerted which then would result in better performance. Instrumentality is an individual's conviction that performance is either rewarded or punished. Valence is the estimated quantity of the reward or punishment one gets as a result of his or her performance (Koçel, 2007: 494).

Since motivation level is the result of all three elements mentioned above, the higher the degree of expectancy and valence, the higher the level of motivation will

be (Ünlü, 2013:11). For instance, if a student believes that studying hard will bring good grades and appraisal from the family, the motivation level will be higher than a student who believes getting an A is impossible no matter how hard he or she tries.

3.1.1.2.3. Equity Theory

The Equity theory was developed by J. S. Adams (1965) who stated that employees look for maintaining fairness between the resources that they bring to a job and the outputs that they receive from it. They compare themselves with the others while doing this. If rewards equal efforts, they sense a feeling of equity . According to this theory, people value fair treatment which keeps them motivated to maintain the fairness. When the employees finds themselves in under-rewarded situations, then it may turn out that these individuals no more feel friendly towards the organization and probably their colleagues as well; which might even come to a point where employees even under performing at work, slowing down the job, leaving the work or forcing the others to work less (Koçel, 2007: 498; Ünlü, 2013: 13; Önen and Tüzün, 2005: 52).

3.1.1.2.4. Instrumental Conditioning Theory

It's built on Thorndike's (1905) foundations of law of effect; that is, if a certain behavior is followed by fulfilling consequences, they are more probable to be repeated and those that generate unlikeable consequences are less probable to be recurred. Instrumental Conditioning Theory was developed by B. F. Skinner (1948) by using reinforcement and punishment. When the reinforcement is positive, it makes a behavior stronger by providing an outcome that an individual evaluates as worth doing. Similar to reinforcement, punishment may serve the purpose in two ways; either by directly applying a displeasing stimuli or by taking away a possibly rewarding stimuli (Koçel, 2007: 492).

When applied to work environment, reinforcements could be in the form of an increase in salary, appraisal, recognition, provision of job security, better work conditions, authorization; and punishments could be in the form of criticism;

authorization, promotion and reward restrictions; promotion reduction, passive delegation, termination of employment contract (Ünlü, 2013: 10).

3.1.2. Factors affecting Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is affected by employee – employer expectations harmony and both personal and organizational factors work together resulting in job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Some of these factors are quality of work life, working conditions, work environment; fulfillment of psychological, economical and social needs of employees (Parvin and Kabir, 2011: 113).

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a result of both demographic elements such as age, gender, educational level and organizational and environmental elements such as work itself, earnings, management policies, working conditions and coworkers (Sinha and Shukla, 2013: 35).

3.1.2.1. Individualistic Factors

Individualistic factors that affect the level of job satisfaction are gender, age, education and personality traits and are explained below.

3.1.2.1.1. Gender

One of the most determinative personal characteristics that influence job satisfaction is the gender factor. According to the studies, perception of job satisfaction varies greatly among male and female individuals (Çarıkçı, 2000: 161).

The researches (Clark, 1997; Bender et al., 2005) examining the relationship between gender and job satisfaction indicate the presence of conflicting results in this regard. Some of these studies have shown that women working under worse conditions than men have greater satisfaction in spite of being in jobs with low wages and poor advancement occasions in proportion to men. On the other hand, researches indicating that women have lower job satisfaction explain this result with women's prioritization of maternal roles as the concerns and happiness related to

kids diverge their attention away from work problems and in the direction of the family and women not aiming to meet high-level requirements in work life and also because monetary or physical rewards of the jobs being more important to them (Chiu, 1998; Castillo and Cano, 2004).

Most of the employees make comparisons between themselves and others of the same gender in assessing their jobs; so, female employees make comparisons with other females, not with male employees. When they compare themselves with women who work solely at home, considering the monetary gains and other social rights related to paid work, they feel much superior to them which creates a relatively higher job satisfaction (Hodson, 1989: 387).

Okpara (2006: 49) suggests that one of most important reasons of the men having higher job satisfaction than women is the number of higher-level job positions they hold such as supervisory or managerial positions outnumbering those of women. Besides this, one of underlying reasons of the men having higher job satisfaction is that they are much more involved in business life than women. While women seek employment for supporting household income and experience less stress, men seek career opportunities for advancement and livelihood of the whole family (Okpara, 2006: 224).

3.1.2.1.2. Age

In general terms, it is accepted that job satisfaction climbs up progressively with age whereas there are convincing discussions and also empirical evidence that there is a U-shaped relationship, decreasing from a reasonable level in the first few years of employment and then going up constantly up to retirement (Herzberg et al. , 1957: 5). This U-shaped model is basically due to the fact that the newcomers to the labor force perceive their new positions positively and enjoy their passage to become adults; yet, during the following years, the initial enthusiasm turns into boredom and they feel a decrease in opportunities which reduces the levels of job satisfaction. As time goes by, the individual gets accustomed to his or her current job conditions and routine, and an uprise in job satisfaction is noticed (Clark et al., 1996: 57).

On the other hand, there are also studies (Solmuş, 2004; Wang et al., 2006) indicating positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction which means job satisfaction increases as the individual gets older. This positive relationship develops in time when individuals become aware of what the job environment provides to them and they rearrange their expectations accordingly in harmony. In other words, when an individual spends long time in a particular environment, they are capable of making estimations more accurately and keep away annoyance; also, they reach to a greater satisfaction level in return when their expectations are in line with what job environment provides (Baş and Ardıç, 2002: 91). Fulfillment of career expectations, higher level of wages, having more responsibilities and holding higher-level positions, having more confidence in himself or experience as one gets older also play an important role on higher level of job satisfaction (Çarıkçı, 2000: 162).

3.1.2.1.3. Education

Education might bring both a positive and a negative impact on job satisfaction. It might bring an advantageous effect on job satisfaction indirectly because individuals who have received higher education are capable of finding more profit-bringing jobs on supervisory or managerial level and therefore derive more satisfaction with their work (Özer, 2014: 110).

Education might also effect job satisfaction negatively, because expectations about job rewards which are negatively related to satisfaction tend to increase with education. When the qualifications and education of the employee don't match each other or far exceed the qualifications required by job position, job dissatisfaction is more probable to occur. Sometimes rather than lying idle, people are obliged to work in entry-level positions. This is usually the case especially in countries where unemployment rate is high in the area of residence and this obligation does not bring satisfaction (Arvey et al., 1991: 359; Bowles and Gintis, 1976; 224; Ganzach, 2003: 97).

3.1.2.1.4. Personality traits

Some people consistently feel satisfied or dissatisfied no matter what their business environments are. These people's job satisfaction varies depending on the personality traits they possess independent from the workplace or working conditions (Solmuş, 2004; 187). This implies that individuals who are inclined to get along well with their family members choose to get involved in jobs that make encounters with others available, more introverted individuals choose to have jobs that necessitate individuals' close attention on work. Different characteristics are associated as encouraging to success in different occupations (Rauf, 2011: 379).

A positive individual perceives the job as enriching, fulfilling, challenging and exciting and feels more satisfied with the jobs, whereas, negative individuals frequently see the negative parts of the job and feel less satisfied (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996: 24). They identify goals that they are less determined with and are more likely to give up when they are faced with challenging difficulties. As a result, it is more likely that these people become stuck in repetitive and monotonous jobs than those people who hold positive core self evaluations (Judge and Robbins, 2013: 82).

If there is conformity between the individual characteristics and the organization, it yields high levels of well being and low levels of stress and turnover (Lovelace and Rosen, 1996: 712).

3.1.2.2. Organizational and Environmental Factors

Having lower rates of turnover, absenteeism, union activities and withdrawal behaviors are indications of satisfied and committed employees. Those are the ones who also carry out their tasks on the job in a better way. Considering that managers desire to hold resignations and absences away from their workplaces, particularly amongst their most productive employees, they will desire to bring together instruments that yield favorable job behaviors (Robbins and Judge, 2013: 88).

Organizational and environmental factors can be listed as follows (Telman and Ünsal, 2004; 39-51):

- level of pay and benefits
- the quality of the working conditions
- promotion opportunities
- relations with colleagues and upper management
- job security and
- organizational culture

The earliest method was to utilize payment increases to bond job satisfaction and motivation to organizational dedication. For people who lack sufficient money to live or who try to survive in under-developed countries, pay is connected with job satisfaction and complete contentment. Yet, when an individual achieves a level of comfortable living, the relationship between wages and job satisfaction almost disappears (Robbins and Judge, 2013: 81). When it was understood that pay itself was not sufficient to create motivation in job satisfaction, different approaches were adopted underlying the significance of the skills development and the training of the employees. This was put through with ongoing organisational learning. As it includes just one facet of human resource management, a more detailed approach emerged which focused on the establishment of a certain quality of employment life that comprises fair income, social rights, other employee benefits and career development plans to support the effectivity of motivation and job satisfaction directed towards organisational commitment (Parvin and Kabir, 2011: 114). Most employees feel satisfied and find their jobs interesting only if these jobs furnish them with independence, training, diversity, and control.

Satisfaction is not just directly connected to the total amount of wages that a person is paid; in a wider sense, it is the perception of being treated as fair which means obtaining the identical services and advantages as other people do. Similarly, employees look for equal promotion policies and practices. Promotion produces circumstances for personal development, more responsibilities, and extended social status. When individuals know that promotion decisions are made in accordance with the rules and they are treated in an equal manner, they are more likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs (Witt and Nye, 1992: 910).

Jobs have certain characteristics and some of them are considered as routine jobs. They are boring and they produce a sort of apathy and monotony. On the

contrary, if jobs are stimulating and inspiring, they form a desired job setting for satisfaction. Findings of Jonge et al. (2000: 269) give updated empirical support for the view that high-strain jobs that are high in demand and low in decision cause health problems such as emotional exhaustion and physical disorders. Yet, active jobs that are high in demands and high in decision-making produce positive outcome such as job satisfaction.

Communication is also a key for job satisfaction. When employees can communicate with their supervisors and managers efficiently and share the information, they feel more satisfied. Avtgis (2000: 84) pointed out that individuals who revealed that as the communication and high reward in communication increase people experience relatively more satisfaction and their perceived organisational influence is greater.

Organisational politics is a crucial element of any organisation. Vigoda found out that evaluation of organisational politics by the employees produce an unfavorable connection with job attitudes, a favorable connection with intention to leave the job, and a higher positive association to neglectful actions. For instance, employees might exert less effort in their work, postpone specific tasks without reasonable excuses, or display no originality and resourcefulness even though they have the ability to do it. They may also be encouraged to leave their jobs physically and also psychologically. A weak negative association was found between perception of organisational politics and employee performance as reported by supervisors (Vigoda, 2000: 326).

When an organisation appreciates and invests in its employees, it certainly receives their support in return. Organisation's investment in employee's well being results in the higher satisfaction of employees. Taylor (2000: 308) suggested that job satisfaction is directly related to company's investment in employee's well being.

Conditions of the work does influence job satisfaction, because employees are looking for comfortable physical conditions in the work environment. When the conditions match their expectations, this gives them a more positive level of job satisfaction. According to Arnold and Feldman (1996: 86), certain characteristics of the working environment such as hygiene conditions, noise level, temperature, lighting angle, ventilation, operation hours, and resources are each part of the

working conditions. When employees are faced with poor working conditions, this may merely cause them to yield negative performance, as their responsibilities are already requiring much effort not only mentally but also physically.

Arnold and Feldman also claim that workers must be assigned some certain amount of autonomy while they execute their duties, which in turn will yield job satisfaction. Autonomy ensures considerable power to act, choice, and discretion to the employee in planning and executing the work which will produce distinctiveness and independence in performing a job (Arnold and Feldman, 1996: 88).

3.2. Burnout

The term burnout is examined under three headings. Firstly, definitions of burnout is given under theoretical background of burnout. Secondly, components of burnout are explained and lastly causes of burnout are explained.

3.2.1. Theoretical Background of Burnout

Burnout is one of the most prominent concepts that is related to emotional labor in terms of its negative consequences. In the 1970s, some distinct psychological problems such as anger, anxiety, depression, irritability, hypersensitivity, tension, boredom; behavioral problems such as anorexia, overeating, insomnia, increased use of drugs, smoking and drinking; and physical problems such as high blood pressure, heart disease, ulcers and headache all caused by stress sources in the organization were grouped under the concept name "burnout". It's been accepted as a threatening term for employee well-being since then. What makes burnout different than the reactions from other organizational based stress sources in the service industry is that it happens as a result of intense and frequent interactions of employees that they establish with the people they encounter (Solmuş, 2004: 103). Researches in the area of emotional labor literature (Ghalandri and Jogh, 2012; Güngör, 2009; Erickson and Ritter, 2001) show that emotional labor levels of employees and burnout are closely related in accordance with the above mentioned definition.

Although there are many authors who have tried to conceptualize the burnout syndrome; the most accepted model was developed by Christina Maslach (1981). The expression burnout depicts to a condition of emotional exhaustion and depleted energy rooted from immoderate psychological and emotional requests mostly relevant for jobholders in the people-oriented professions that require extensive direct client contact as in the example of service agents, health care employees and educationalists (Zapf, 2002: 256; Jackson et al. , 1986: 630; Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 63). “Burnout is the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do. It represents an erosion in value, dignity, spirit, and will – an erosion of the human soul. It is a malady that spreads gradually and continuously over time, putting people into a downward spiral from which it’s hard to recover” (Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 17). It happens when people invest too much of their resources for the job and gets too little of their efforts and expectations. In other words, when the work environment does not supply resources and is particularly demanding, employees’ enthusiasm or talents for the job may decrease as the time goes by. It is the loss of meaning in one’s work. Long-term job stress causes burnout but stress is not enough to explain burnout all alone as it’s only the starting point of this syndrome.

Burnout has been often mistaken for stress. Despite the symptoms are quite similar, important distinctions exist. Prolonged stress does cause burnout, but it is not quite the same thing with burnout. When individuals feel stressed, they feel drowned beneath a huge mass just as when too much has been stacked on them. They feel like life and the world puts too much pressure on them and they are no more able to carry on or handle. On the other hand, stress is in general about “too much”, while burnout, is concerning “not enough”. Someone feeling burned out doesn’t have motivation, is disinterested, no more cares anything, has feelings of desperate and emptiness. Stress usually transforms into physical troubles, such as heart diseases, while burnout transforms into emotional issues such as depression and disinterestedness. Stress on the job means individuals might be over-engaged, or have too much to do, or are over-involved. They get stressed because they desire to have everything done properly, yet their resources might be stretched too thin. Occupational burnout, on the other hand, indicates that one doesn't worry anymore, he or she basically shortcomes his or her passion, energy, and motivation to struggle hard in their jobs

anymore, and still might feel thoroughly entrapped in them with no where else to go. The job becomes entirely insignificant and all the energy is dried up, it feels like there is nothing left in the emotional resources any longer to replace into one's professional career. (Smith et al., 2012: www.helpguide.org/articles/stress/preventing-burnout.com, accessed on 7.11.2014)

3.2.2. Components of Burnout

This psychological syndrome is multidimensional and entails three-components; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and feelings of low personal accomplishment (Maslach and Jackson, 1981: 99).

Emotional Exhaustion applies to feelings of being emotionally clamped down and exhausted of one's emotional resources. The prime sources of this feeling of being used up are personal disagreement and work overload at workplace. People feel tired to death and exhausted, without any source of replenishment. When they wake up in the morning they are as tired as when they went to bed. They don't have enough energy to overcome another day or help another person in need. The emotional exhaustion component stands out as the basic stress dimension of burnout (Maslach and Goldberg, 1998: 64).

Depersonalization is constantly having a negative, uncaring, or exceedingly disconnected reaction to other people, which frequently comprises a lack of idealism. It often establishes in response to the overcharge of emotional exhaustion, and develops for self-protection at the beginning; like an emotional shield for detached interest. They minimize their involvement at work and even give up their ideals. But the risk is that the detachment can turn into dehumanization. It refers to treating others just as objects and is usually mentioned in the same way; for instance labeling them instead of using their names when talking about customers (Jackson et al., 1986: 630). The depersonalization dimension constitutes the interpersonal component of burnout.

Reduced personal accomplishment depicts to a reduction in feelings of proficiency and effectivity at work. The conviction that one has no longer the skill to attain one's objectives at work with customers is followed by feelings of

unproductiveness and lack of professional self-esteem. This lowered sense of self-efficacy produces depression and lack of ability to deal with the requisites of the job, then it may be even worse by insufficient social support and opportunities to improve professionally. When staff members experiment an increasing feeling that they are not able to help clients, this might lead to a self-imposed judgement of underperformance. The personal accomplishment component represents the self-evaluation dimension of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001: 399).

3.2.3. Causes of Burnout

Burnout doesn't occur overnight but rather it is a cumulative process which begins with small signals but one can literally become unable to work if not minded.

The causes of occupational burnout are summarized as follows (Potter, 2005: 37-55; Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 10-17):

- A critical boss: Some criticism is helpful as it helps to improve things but a critical boss who finds negativity as a motivator and finds everything faulty may cause a decline in performance and motivation and leaves the individual in a desperate state and makes individual think why to bother if the result is not going to be satisfying no matter what.
- Perfectionism: It's also demotivating to be perfectionist as an employee or work with a perfectionist as there will be no way to meet standards.
- Lack of recognition and fairness: Diminished enthusiasm for working is a result of lack of recognition and makes the individuals think themselves as useless and powerless where they work. Besides, when people feel lack of fairness, they lose their trust in the organization and think that they are not shown any respect or their self-worthiness is not confirmed.
- Inadequate pay: individuals spend years on their education and expect well-paid jobs in return. But when they find themselves in jobs where they are underpaid, they perceive it as lack of respect causing alienation from work.
- Under-employment: Employment below one's appropriate level pretty much the same with lack of recognition which would lead to diminished self-respect and reduced personal accomplishment.

- Ambiguity: If employees don't know what is expected from them, it is difficult for them to feel confident about whether what they are doing is the right thing or done in the right way or not reducing their self-confidence.
- Tasks with no end: Self-employed individuals such as entrepreneurs and sole practitioners seem to have a longer and busier working day or period compared to employees on a shift based position. People who are their own boss force themselves to finish their tasks and work for many more hours a week which results in burnout syndrome.
- Difficult clients: When employees do their best to satisfy their clients or solve their problems they expect to get positive feedbacks. But sometimes they don't and it brings an emotional fatigue collectively. Employee becomes alienated from work and display in a cold and callous manner.
- Incompatible demands: Conflicting demands from different sources may not be achieved together. An employee reporting to two bosses cannot please both of them if their expectations are not the same. If one manager emphasizes quality rather than speed and other manager wishes the contrary, he will only be able to satisfy one of them and feel powerless and then finally give up.
- Conflicting roles: An employee faced with conflicting role demands from home and family feels powerless. A marketing manager whose position requires frequent travels cannot meet the expectations of his or her family who wants him or her at home.
- Value conflicts: Conflicting values with career objectives is a win-lose dilemma that places a tremendous drain on motivation. Sometimes a job may lead people to do things that are not ethical and clash with their personal values. A scientist who is really concerned about ecology and working on a project that causes pollution will feel some kind of pressure and eventually become a burnout victim.
- Meaninglessness of achieved goals: Though employees achieve all the desirable goals, they may continue to feel empty and under-nourished. They find no purpose or meaning in day to day work.

- **Bureaucracy:** Bureaucratic organizations' employees may suffer from occupational burnout as a result of too few stimulants. Employees criticize that their job are no more pleasant. That it's unvaried, monotonous and nothing really encourage them enough. All bureaucracy, rules and formalities simply increase this burned out workers' feeling of uselessness. In the end, he or she just doesn't feel involved, doesn't bother and starts spending his or her time with doing just the necessary to keep up.
- **Work overload:** It is generally directly associated with the exhaustion facet of burnout. One has to do too much in too little time with too few resources. Too many demands exhaust an individual's energy to the extent that recovery becomes impossible. It's also an indication of a mismatch between the job and the person. Emotional work is especially draining when the job requires people to display emotions inconsistent with their feelings (Maslach et al. , 2001: 414).
- **Lack of community:** When people lose their physical social connection with others in the workplace, they may feel isolated, finding themselves sitting face to face with their computers in an office room all day long. They may have to communicate with machines rather than in person and be too busy to get together.

3.2.4. Consequences of Burnout

Employers often believe that burnout is a problem only for the individual's self. However, consequences can be noticed both on individual level and also in the whole work environment. Not recognizing the human side of work would only increase the volume and level of burnout and brings high prices for both sides (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993: 621).

Reduced job performance is one of the most outstanding negative organizational consequences of burnout that lead to different styles of job withdrawal among which regular absenteeism, turnover and intention to leave the job are common (Maslach et al., 2001: 406). Even if employees continue to work and experience burnout, they then become less productive and less effective. Burnout

entraps them in a vicious labyrinth and they don't seek help or try to change their position which reduces their self-confidence, thus diminishing their performances as well (Bakker et al., 2004: 85).

Burnout is also associated with lower job satisfaction, a reduced organizational commitment and higher intention to leave the job. Interestingly, burnout may even be contagious. Employees suffering from burnout may more likely to start conflicts with colleagues and disrupt joint work tasks. Therefore, also the colleagues are at higher risk for experiencing burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1997) also point out to the fact that burnout leads in the first place to higher costs and financial losses because of higher absenteeism rates and more frequent sick leaves. In addition, studies found that especially the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout leads to negative organizational outcomes (Halbesleben and Buckley, 2004: 859).

The emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout is, on the other hand, also strongly related to negative outcomes for the individual. Exhaustion is particularly associated with health problems, reduced well-being and various forms of substance abuse (Maslach et al. , 2001: 406). Burnout is also likely to deteriorate someone's mental health and mental dysfunction. Some of the negative effects are feelings of anxiety, depression and loss of self-esteem.

3.3. Relationship of Emotional Labor with Job Satisfaction and Burnout

When employees adopt different strategies of emotional labor, this brings them distinctive costs and benefits. Most of these costs and benefits fall into two categories as outcomes; job dis/satisfaction and burnout. The relationship of these concepts are explained below.

3.3.1. Emotional Labor and Burnout

According to Grandey (2003: 89) there are two reasons to feel burned out as a result of engaging in emotional labor strategies; these are the experience of tension from emotional dissonance and the draining of resources while effortfully acting. In

surface acting, employees change and control their emotional reactions. For instance, employees might boost or act a smile when they are in a bad mood or are dealing with a troublesome customer. The inauthenticity of this surface-level process, showing expressions different from feelings, is related to stress outcomes due to the inner tension and the physiological effort of suppressing genuine feelings. Being inauthentic over time may result in feeling detached not only from one's real feelings but also from other people's feelings, suggesting a relationship with the dimension of depersonalization. Feeling diminished personal accomplishment is also likely if the employee believes that the performance were not efficacious or were met with irritation by clients. Adding up the frequent, sometimes upsetting and difficult interactions that brings emotional exhaustion, surface acting is expected to relate to all three dimensions of burnout (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22). Deep and genuine acting, on the other hand, may still cause some exhaustion but weaker than surface acting, as they contribute to personal accomplishment and protect from depersonalization.

Maslach (1982) also found that individuals with high initial job involvement, professional commitment, idealism, and empathy for others are most susceptible to burnout, presumably because they invest more emotion in the enactment of their helping role (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993: 106).

3.3.2. Emotional Labor and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a positive pleasant emotional state, resulting from an employee's appraisal of his or her job (Locke, 1976: 1300). Hochschild (1983: 90) suggests that emotions are personal and to superintend something as personal as emotions for commercial intentions would be intrinsically not satisfying. But qualitative research argues that when there is the right person-job-fit, there will be a higher level of emotional harmony and job satisfaction (Johanson and Woods, 2008: 4). Other researchers find job satisfaction to be negatively associated with surface acting (Morris and Feldman, 1997: 262; Grandey, 2000: 104). Hence, it is predicted that an increase in emotive dissonance would lead to decreased job satisfaction. There is less empirical support for the relationship between deep acting

(emotive effort) and job satisfaction. It is argued that those who are more satisfied are more likely engaged in a positive, work-related state of mind and exhibit organizational citizenship behavior (Lee et al., 2011: 24) such as display rules. In addition, it was suggested that when employees are aware of the discrepancy between felt-emotion and desired-emotion they “fake in good faith” and try to close the emotional gap through deep acting. This makes them feel less phony, rewards them through the resulting successful social interaction, and consequently leads to a positive work outcome, just as in genuine acting. Hence, it is predicted that employees who exerted “deep acting” effort would experience increased levels of job satisfaction (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987: 32).

3.4. Studies related to the relationship of Emotional Labor on Job Satisfaction and Burnout

The findings obtained from some of the studies examining the relationship of emotional labor on job satisfaction and burnout are as follows:

- In their study of 136 physicians, Oral and Köse (2011: 463) found that surface acting is positively correlated with burnout whereas no statistically significant correlation were found between deep acting and burnout, on the other hand they found that deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction.
- In their study of 147 tourist guides, Kaya and Özhan (2012: 109) found that the more deep acting and genuine acting tour guides perform, the more individual achievement and the less depersonalization they feel.
- Bayram et al. (2012: 300) studied 202 service sector employees, of whom 103 were social service experts and 99 were shopworkers, to find out which variables of emotional labor dimensions have a significant effect in explaining the burnout levels of employees in the service sector and found that the hiding emotions variable of the emotional labor dimension had statistically significant relation with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization levels of the employees.

- Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 31), in their research consisting of 29 human service workers, 143 service/sales employees, 15 managers, 22 clerical staff, and 29 physical laborers, found that human service workers reported significantly lower levels of depersonalization and higher levels of personal accomplishment than the workers in other occupations as a result of deep and genuine acting whereas they found no higher levels of emotional exhaustion between employees performing 'people work' and other occupations. Also the use of surface-level emotional labor, or faking, predicted depersonalization beyond the work demands. Perceiving the demand to display positive emotions and using deep-level regulation were associated with a heightened sense of personal accomplishment.
- Chen et al. (2012: 826) studied the relationship of the emotional labor of hotel employees and affective and behavioral outcomes and found that surface acting was negatively related to job satisfaction but positively related to burnout. On the other hand, deep acting was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to burnout. Additionally, job satisfaction and burnout were found to mediate the relationship between emotional labor and work performance.
- In their study of 253 hotel employees, Chu et al. (2012: 912) found that emotive effort (deep acting) associates positively with job satisfaction and negatively with emotional exhaustion which means that emotive effort (deep acting) leads to positive work outcomes for employees and they feel more intrinsically rewarded by their performance. On the other hand, surface acting was positively related to job satisfaction, and negatively related to emotional exhaustion. These results indicate that surface acting provides a shield to an individual from getting emotionally drained by the job, and genuine acting keeps an individual more vulnerable to service encounter hazards.
- Ghalandari and Jogh (2014: 24) examined the effect of EL strategies on job satisfaction and burnout in Iranian organizations. The results showed that surface acting has an unfavorable effect on job satisfaction and positive effect on burnout while deep acting has positive effect on both job satisfaction and burnout.

PART IV

**TOUR GUIDES' USE OF EMOTIONAL LABOR AND THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEIR JOB SATISFACTION AND
BURNOUT LEVELS**

4.1. Research Objective

The tourism industry revenues constitute an important part of overall Turkish economy but assuring high quality service in every aspect of the sector is a must for the continuity of the demand of the tourists and the attractiveness of the destination. According to the statistics of Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 36,8 millions of people visited Turkey in 2014 and this number is 5,5% above the number of tourists visited Turkey in 2013 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism statistics, 2015). With its remarkable share to GNP, the industry seems to continue to grow if its potential is well managed.

Undoubtedly, tourism is important to many more countries as it is to Turkey. It is a dynamic and competitive industry in which the ability to adapt constantly to customers' changing needs and desires are inevitable; besides, the customer's enjoyment, safety and satisfaction are particularly the focus of tourism businesses. As it is a major source of foreign exchange earning and employment for many developing countries, it's a socio-economic phenomenon that concerns not only tourism politics and stakeholders but also the academic disciplines.

Tourists visiting tourism destinations are in need of various services such as tour operators and travel agencies, transportation companies, accommodation and food and beverage facilities. This creates a customer – company relationship and the tourist guide is the intermediary among tourists and all these service providers during their entire stay in the host country. Apart from the need for physical elements, tourists also wish for intangible elements such as to have a rest, relax, find the opportunity to meet new people and experience other cultures, or simply to do something different and have an adventure desire during the whole accommodation period. While visitors anticipate that their expectations are fully met, stakeholders anticipate high profits as the nature of business. Therefore, tourist guide tries to

please the guest, create a positive image of the country, maximize the profits for everybody and also take care of the unexpected. This turns to them as not only satisfied guests but also as high commissions for themselves, high revenues for national economy and more tourists for the following season. As a result, tour guides are obliged to engage in both physical labor to endure the intensive brisk nature of business and emotional labor to regulate their own emotions to keep pace in the changing environment as well as to affect the emotions of others to make everyone happy. Yet, the pivotal role that the tour guide plays in constructing and mediating the tourists' experience has not received much attention in tourism literature. It's for sure that two different groups arriving in the same country but with different tour guides will leave the very same country with a total different memory and image in their minds as a result of different knowledgebase and interpretation of the guide. So it can be said that the overall impression and satisfaction is their responsibility.

Studies emphasize the importance of the employees who are in direct contact with customers in achieving the objective of businesses and ensuring customer satisfaction. While tour leaders experience frequent, long and intensive encounters with the package tour participants, they are also expected to display the desired emotions and avoid the negative ones to be able to satisfy their customers as part of their job roles in their everyday face-to-face encounters. These expectations are defined as general display rules and exist for determining their personal success in human relations and the organizational success.

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the tour guides' use of emotional labor which is an emotion regulation process with negative and positive outcomes. A second purpose is to find out what strategy is widely used while performing emotional labor for their customers. The third and final purpose is to find out either the effects of such labor on employee work outcomes are positive or negative in terms of job satisfaction and occupational burnout by testing this model empirically and thus to contribute to the academic literature. So these purposes can be summarized as:

- To determine the effect of tour guides' use of emotional labor dimensions on their job satisfaction.

- To determine the effect of tour guides' use of emotional labor dimensions on occupational burnout.

4.2. The Importance of the Research

Tourism is requisite for the welfare of many nations in terms of generating income by the consumption of goods and services by tourists and the taxes imposed on businesses in the tourism industry as well as creating opportunity for employment and economic advancement for those involved in the industry. The increasing competition among countries and the development of marketing strategies as well as the development of the tourism sector has brought the customers into the focus of the organizations. Employees of tourism industry during the service delivery are submerged in a much closer interaction with customers than any other sector. This interaction also increases the expectations from the employees that they include emotional labor into their encounters for the highest satisfaction, the role of emotional labor in the field of interactive services just as that of tourism industry stand out in particular (Chu and Murrmann, 2006: 1181).

Employees are expected to manage their emotions in a way consistent with organizations' working policies and strategies while offering their services. They are also expected to empathize with customers, to act in scripted roles, to behave in a manner expected from them even though they feel in a much different way. Positive displays in service interactions for sure increase the intention to return, intention to recommend the service to others and change the perception of overall quality (Barsade and Gibson, 2007: 43).

Emotional labor provides pervasive and repetitive or long-term gains to the organizations in the immediate or the long-term as efficient employees and loyal customers. If the emotions displayed are perceived as insincere, negative customer reactions may occur; this would not only end up with unsatisfied customers but also lead a change in their preferences. It is therefore expected from employees to display properly and to manage these feelings without being artificial. The expectation for emotional labor has become a part of the organizational culture within time and is as important as physical labor (Wong and Wang, 2009: 257).

From the perspective of the working employees, people spend a significant amount of their lives on the job. A job is one of the fundamental dynamics of a person's social life. A satisfied employee is not only a happy and productive employee at work but this satisfaction also contributes to achieve a higher level of satisfaction in his / her life. On the other hand, an unsatisfied and emotionally exhausted employee who is feeling inefficient and useless at the same time is not useful for himself or herself or for the employer (Genç, 2013: 72).

Although the two most common outcomes of emotional labor are found to be job dis/satisfaction and burnout by various researchers, there is no previous research in the Turkish-based literature including all three concepts in one research going through the professional tourist guides. This research is of importance in terms of its contribution to fill this gap in the Turkish-based literature.

4.3. Research Method

The research is intended to determine the tour guides' emotional labor dimensions and its impact on their job satisfaction and burnout levels. Kruskal-Wallis is used to determine how engaging in emotional labor dimensions vary depending on the demographic characteristics of tour guides. The Kruskal-Wallis Test is a nonparametric statistical test that assesses the differences among three or more independently sampled groups on a single, non-normally distributed continuous variable (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952: 583) . Relationship of emotional labor with respect to job satisfaction and burnout in context of tour guiding were then analyzed using correlation.

4.3.1. Research Content

This research is about professional tourist guides who are in constant contact with tourists and the key people to turn a travel experience to a meaningful or meaningless one within tourism industry. The study is conducted upon the tour guides who are registered to Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides and licensed members who are at the same time active members.

The reason behind choosing Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides within research content is that it's the second biggest chamber of tourist guides in terms of its scope of members in numbers and also the amount of workload on its members is huge compared to their associates who work on a regional scale.

Izmir, not just the town itself but with its districts on the coastline and historical sites, is also one of the most attractive tourist destinations in Turkey after İstanbul and Antalya and also hosts giant cruise ships.

4.3.2. Research Instruments

Three different scales were used in this study; these are emotional labor scale, job satisfaction scale and occupational burnout scale. They constitute the conceptual framework of the thesis and survey technique was used to collect data. The survey consists of four main sections. The questions of the first part have been established for identifying the categorical features of employees. Following sections are composed of scales consisting of Likert scale type questions. Participants rated their responses on a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree" for occupational burnout scale; 1 "never" to 5 "always" for emotional labor scale and 1 "not satisfied at all" to 5 "highly satisfied" for job satisfaction scale. Emotional labor is identified as independent variable whereas job satisfaction and occupational burnout are identified as dependent variables in the research.

Dependent variables and independent variables that are used in the research are briefly explained below.

4.3.2.1. Emotional Labor Scale

Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale that was developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006) was used to identify the emotional labor strategies of tour guides. These strategies are surface acting, deep acting and genuine acting. HELS was previously used by Pala (2008) and Genç (2013) in their dissertations and was translated into Turkish; this Turkish version of the scale is also used in this study. Hospitality

Emotional Labor Scale is a 19-item scale and the statements about emotional labor are:

1. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers (SA).
2. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers (SA).
3. I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job (SA).
4. The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel (GA).
5. I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel (SA).
6. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way (SA).
7. My interactions with customers are very robotic (SA).
8. I display emotions that I am not actually feeling (SA).
9. I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers (SA).
10. I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well (GA).
11. I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside (GA).
12. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers (DA).
13. When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires (SA).
14. I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work (DA).
15. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers (GA).
16. When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day (DA).
17. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customers (DA).
18. I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers (DA).
19. I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel (SA).

While the scores of the items of the scale in its original form was evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale, this study was identified on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “never” (1), “seldom” (2), “sometimes” (3), “often” (4) to “always” (5). The reason behind this is that all the other scales were also identified on a 5-point Likert scale. The scale was found to be valid and reliable in various empirical studies.

4.3.2.2. Job Satisfaction Scale

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by Weiss et al. (1967) and used to gather data about the job satisfaction of participants. The MSQ consists of 20 items and uses a 5-point Likert type response format. Spector (1997: 15) identified the 20-item short form of the MSQ as a popular measure that is frequently used in job satisfaction research. One advantageous feature of the MSQ short form is that it can be used to measure two distinct components: intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves; extrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself.

It consists of 20 statements looking for an answer to the question “How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?” as following:

1. Being able to keep busy all the time. (Intrinsic (I))
2. The chance to work alone on the job.(I)
3. The chance to do different things from time to time. (I)
4. The chance to be “somebody” in the community. (I)
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers.(Extrinsic (E))
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions. (E)
7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience. (I)
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.(I)
9. The chance to do things for other people. (I)
10. The chance to tell people what to do. (I)
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities. (I)
12. The way company policies are put into practice. (E)
13. My pay and the amount of work I do. (E)
14. The chances for advancement on this job. (E)
15. The freedom to use my own judgment. (I)
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job. (I)

17. The working conditions. (E)
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other. (E)
19. The praise I get for doing a good job. (E)
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job. (I)

It's rated as "Not Satisfied" (1), "Somewhat Satisfied" (2), "Satisfied" (3), "Very Satisfied" (4), and "Extremely Satisfied" (5) on a 5-point Likert type scale.

4.3.2.3. Burnout Scale

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) that was created by Maslach and Jackson (1981) is by far the most widely used, accepted, valid, and reliable measurement tool of burnout. The 22 total items are broken up into the three themes with nine items relating to emotional exhaustion, five to depersonalization, and eight to accomplishment as shown below. Each item is also rated on an intensity scale. The intensity scale ranges from "strongly agree" (1) to "strongly disagree". It appears in Turkish as Ergin's (1993) translated version on the survey form. Items were written in the form of statements about personal feelings or attitudes as the following:

* **Emotional Exhaustion**

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

* **Depersonalization**

1. I feel people blame me for their problems.

2. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.
3. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
4. I don't really care what happens to some people.
5. I feel like I treat some people as if they were impersonal objects.

* **Accomplishment**

1. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my customers.
2. I feel very energetic.
3. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.
4. I can easily understand how my customers feel about things.
5. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
6. I deal very effectively with the problems of my customers.
7. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.
8. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my customers.

4.3.3. Determination of Sample Size

According to the records of the Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides (2015), the registered number of professional tourist guides to the Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides is 1.017 with the following details:

| | |
|-----------------------------|-------|
| Nationwide active members: | 780 |
| Nationwide passive members: | 237 |
| Total number of members: | 1.017 |

The Chamber covers the registered members of three cities; namely Izmir, Manisa and Uşak.

The calculation of the sample size for a population of 1.017, with a margin error of ± 5 and at 95% confidence level gives us the sample size as 280. Of all the questionnaires distributed personally or upon request via Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides repeatedly at different times yielded a return of 342 survey forms that were usable in the research.

4.3.4. Research Limitations

This research has the following limitations because of the time constraint and the inflexible construct of survey technique that was used to gather data:

- * The validity and reliability of the survey results are dependent upon the accurate and honest answers and also the mood of the respondents at the time of filling out the survey form as the survey reflects the self-reports of the respondents on their use of emotional labor strategies and their subjective well-being (job satisfaction and burnout).
- * The study was conducted in a single city -İzmir- only, such that the question of generalizability might be raised. Future research might examine whether the findings of this study would occur likewise on a sample from different chambers.
- * The survey was mailed to respondents at a single point in time that is during the 2014 summer season which is a busy working period for tourist guides; thus the situational factors might have affected their perceptions and opinions of concepts that are subject to research.

4.3.5. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed to demonstrate the relationship between EL dimensions, job satisfaction, burnout and individual characteristics:

Hypothesis 1: Emotional labor dimensions vary depending on the following demographic characteristics and experience of the sample:

Hypothesis 1-a: EL dimensions vary on gender.

Hypothesis 1-b: EL dimensions vary on marital status.

Hypothesis 1-c: EL dimensions vary on age.

Hypothesis 1-d: EL dimensions vary on experience.

Hypothesis 2: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3: Deep and genuine acting are negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4: Surface acting is positively related to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 5: Deep and genuine acting are negatively related to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 6: Surface acting is negatively related to personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 7: Deep and genuine acting are positively related to personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 8: Surface acting is negatively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9: Deep and genuine acting are positively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

4.4. Research Analyses and Results

This section of the dissertation starts with the analysis of demographic characteristics of the participants and continues with scale validity and reliability, followed by interpretation of the research findings.

4.4.1. Demographic Characteristics and Experience of the Participants

The research about tour guides' use of emotional labor and its relationship with job satisfaction and burnout has been made by analyzing the questionnaires of 342 participants of IZRO (Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides). As it's shown on the table below, the majority of respondents are male with a percentage of 59,40 %, while the female respondents hold 40,60 % of the total number of the participants. The majority of the respondents are between 41-50 years old and the percentage of them is 32,50 %; 18-30 years olds are 27,8 %, 31-40 years olds are 22,5 %, 51-60 years olds are 13,2 % and 61 years old and ups are 4,1 % of the total number of survey respondents. 54,40 % of the respondents are single whereas 45,60 % of them are married. When their educational background is analyzed, it is found that 7,3 % is high school graduates, 10,8 is undergraduates, 67,30 % of them are holding a graduate degree, 12,6 % are post-graduates and only 2 % of them are entitled to a doctoral degree. 78,7 % of them are working on a free-lance basis. Only 21,3 % of them are working for a specific travel agency or tour operator. The mod value of experience is between 0-5 years with a percentage value of 32,7 %. Those who have an experience of 6-10 years are 10,5 %, 11-15 years are 12,6 %, 16-20 years are 9,6

%, 21-25 years are 17,5 %, 26-30 years are 9,1 %, 31 and up years are 7,9 %. Table 1 below gives a detailed categorized list of demographic characteristics.

Table 3: Demographic Variables and Experience of the Participants

| Category | | Number (n) | Percentage |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| Gender | Male | 203 | 59,40% |
| | Female | 139 | 40,60% |
| Age | 18-30 | 95 | 27,60% |
| | 31-40 | 77 | 22,50% |
| | 41-50 | 111 | 32,50% |
| | 51-60 | 45 | 13,20% |
| | 61 and up | 14 | 4,10% |
| Marital Status | Single | 186 | 54,40% |
| | Married | 156 | 45,60% |
| Education | High School | 25 | 7,30% |
| | Under graduate | 37 | 10,80% |
| | Graduate | 230 | 67,30% |
| | Post Graduate-Master's Degree | 43 | 12,60% |
| | Post Graduate-Doctoral Degree | 7 | 2,00% |
| Employment Category | Freelance | 269 | 78,70% |
| | Employed at a travel agency/tour operator | 73 | 21,30% |
| Experience | 0-5 | 112 | 32,70% |
| | 6-10 | 36 | 10,50% |
| | 11-15 | 43 | 12,60% |
| | 16-20 | 33 | 9,60% |
| | 21-25 | 60 | 17,50% |
| | 26-30 | 31 | 9,10% |
| | 31 and up | 27 | 7,90% |

n=342

4.4.2. Scale Reliability and Validity

Validity controls whether the research instruments measure what is meant to be measured and also controls the results of the research within the requirements of the scientific research method. It's categorized as external validity, internal validity,

test validity and face validity. Since emotional labor, job satisfaction and burnout scales are already tested for validity, they is no need for validity analysis.

Another subject that is as important as validity is reliability. Research findings start with the determination of the scales' reliability. All scales are found reliable. Cronbach's Alpha statistics is used as the coefficient of reliabilty and it's seen that Cronbach's Alpha statistics ranked as .712 for EL, .913 for JS and .740 for burnout. If $\alpha \geq 0.9$, it's reliability is excellent; between $0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$, it's good; $0.6 \leq \alpha < 0.7$ means acceptable; $0.5 \leq \alpha < 0.6$ poor and $\alpha < 0.5$ as unacceptable reliability. Thus the scales are found in high levels of reliability. No negative correlations exist in scales. Hotelling t-squared test is used to analyze whether the means of the questions of the scales are equivalent. In other words, it's used to find out whether the participants of the survey perceived the questions in the same way and the results are found significant for all scales. Thus, questions are perceived so as to yield similar results by respondents. Results of the reliability analysis is given in Table 2.

Table 4 Reliability Analysis of the Scales

| | N | N of Items | Cronbach's Alfa | Grand Mean | Hotelling t-square |
|------------------|-----|------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------|
| Emotional Labor | 342 | 19 | 0,712 | 2,87 | ,000 |
| Job Satisfaction | 342 | 20 | 0,913 | 2,66 | ,000 |
| Burnout | 342 | 22 | 0,740 | 2,96 | ,000 |

4.4.3. Research Results

**Emotional Labor and Gender:*

Hypothesis 1- a: Emotional Labor dimensions vary depending on gender.

As it's seen from the table 3, there is no significant difference ($p > 0,05$) between gender and two of the sub-scales of emotional labor, here being deep acting and genuine acting. Because p-values of deep acting and genuine acting obtained from Kruskal-Wallis Test is bigger than 0,05 as shown on Table 3. Yet, the p-value for surface acting is smaller than 0,05 ($p = ,009$) which shows a significance between surface acting and gender. Still, there is no strong evidence for claiming gender as a determinative indicator of emotional labor strategies. In this case, H 1-a hypothesis that was built to find out whether emotional labor dimensions vary depending on gender has been partially accepted.

Table 5 Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of Emotional Labor Dimensions and Gender

| Ranks | | | | Test Statistics ^{a,b} | | | |
|-------|--------|-----|-----------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Gender | N | Mean Rank | | EL_GA | EL_SA | EL_DA |
| EL_GA | Female | 139 | 162,31 | Chi-Square | 2,059 | 6,835 | 2,986 |
| | Male | 203 | 177,80 | df | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | Total | 342 | | Asymp Sig. | ,151 | ,009 | ,084 |
| EL_SA | Female | 139 | 154,63 | | | | |
| | Male | 203 | 183,05 | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | | | |
| EL_DA | Female | 139 | 160,38 | | | | |
| | Male | 203 | 179,12 | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | | | |

EL: Emotional Labor / SA: Surface Acting / DA: Deep Acting / GA: Genuine Acting

Research results on Table 3 show that male tour guides tend to surface act more than women tour guides as the mean rank indicates higher values for men. In other words, men are inclined to modify inner feelings or regulate them so as to yield the desired behaviors or obey the display rules. The findings do not contradict with literature and results of previous researches. Johnson (2007: 39), Blanchard-Fields et al. (2004: 263) and Cheung and Tang (2010: 334) also found that men are involved in surface acting more in numbers than their female counterparts.

****Emotional Labor and Marital Status:***

Hypothesis 1- b: Emotional Labor dimensions vary depending on marital status.

Kruskal-Wallis test results to analyze whether there is a difference between surface acting, deep acting and genuine acting dimensions of emotional labor and marital status is shown on Table 4. There is no significant association between marital status and emotional labor strategies as the p-values for all three dimensions are bigger than 0,05. H 1-b hypothesis that was built to find out whether emotional labor dimensions vary depending on marital status was not supported.

Table 6 Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of Emotional Labor Dimensions and Marital Status

| Ranks | | | | Test Statistics ^{a,b} | | | |
|-------|----------------|-----|-----------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Marital Status | N | Mean Rank | | EL_GA | EL_SA | EL_DA |
| EL_GA | Married | 156 | 165,50 | Chi-Square | 1,073 | 1,014 | 0,892 |
| | Single | 186 | 176,53 | df | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | Total | 342 | | Asymp. Sig. | ,300 | ,314 | ,345 |
| EL_SA | Married | 156 | 177,37 | | | | |
| | Single | 186 | 166,58 | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | | | |
| EL_DA | Married | 156 | 166,01 | | | | |
| | Single | 186 | 176,11 | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | | | |

EL: Emotional Labor / SA: Surface Acting / DA: Deep Acting / GA: Genuine Acting

Various studies to determine the relationship between emotional labor strategies and marital status indicate similar results. Kaya and Özhan (2012: 123), Oral and Köse (2011: 480) and Wharton (1996: 106) also stated that marital status is not a determinant factor in choice of emotional labor strategies.

**Emotional Labor and Age:*

Hypothesis 1- c: Emotional Labor dimensions vary depending on age.

Kruskal-Wallis test results to analyze whether there is a difference between surface acting, deep acting and genuine acting dimensions of emotional labor and age is shown on Table 5.

As the p-values for deep and genuine acting are smaller than 0,05, H 1-c hypothesis that was built to find out whether emotional labor dimensions vary depending on age was partially supported. People get good at management of emotions as they get older. Since they authenticize themselves better with display rules, their acts become more genuine and effortful. A negative relationship between age and surface acting was expected according to previous literature but it surprisingly shows no correlations when compared to previous researches. Dahling and Perez (2010: 574) and Cheung and Tang (2010:336) found positive correlation

between age and emotional labor strategies whereas research findings of Oral and Köse (2011: 481) and Kaya (2014: 97) revealed that age is not a predictor of emotional labor strategies.

Table 7 Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of Emotional Labor Dimensions and Age

| Ranks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|--------|-----------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----|-----------|--------|-------|-------|-------|------------|--------|-------|--------|----|---|---|---|-------------|------|------|------|
| | Age | N | Mean Rank | | Age | N | Mean Rank | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| EL_GA | 18-30 | 95 | 162,97 | EL_SA | 18-30 | 95 | 149,31 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 31-40 | 77 | 201,53 | | 31-40 | 77 | 179,58 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 41-50 | 111 | 168,67 | | 41-50 | 111 | 174,91 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 51-60 | 45 | 123,98 | | 51-60 | 45 | 188,02 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 61 and up | 14 | 239,36 | | 61 and up | 14 | 197,46 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | Total | 342 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Age | N | Mean Rank | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| EL_DA | 18-30 | 95 | 155,69 | Test Statistics^{a,b} <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>EL_GA</th> <th>EL_SA</th> <th>EL_DA</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Chi-Square</td> <td>25,315</td> <td>7,672</td> <td>23,821</td> </tr> <tr> <td>df</td> <td>4</td> <td>4</td> <td>4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Asymp. Sig.</td> <td>,000</td> <td>,104</td> <td>,000</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> | | | | | EL_GA | EL_SA | EL_DA | Chi-Square | 25,315 | 7,672 | 23,821 | df | 4 | 4 | 4 | Asymp. Sig. | ,000 | ,104 | ,000 |
| | | EL_GA | EL_SA | | | | | EL_DA | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Chi-Square | 25,315 | 7,672 | | | | | 23,821 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | df | 4 | 4 | | | | | 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Asymp. Sig. | ,000 | ,104 | | | | | ,000 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 31-40 | 77 | 213,94 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 41-50 | 111 | 160,24 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 51-60 | 45 | 146,50 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 61 and up | 14 | 215,00 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 342 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

EL: Emotional Labor SA: Surface Acting DA: Deep Acting GA: Genuine Acting

***Emotional Labor and Experience:**

Hypothesis 1- d: Emotional Labor dimensions vary depending on experience.

Kruskal-Wallis test results to analyze whether there is a difference between surface acting, deep acting and genuine acting dimensions of emotional labor and experience is shown on Table 6.

As it's seen from the table 6, there is no significant difference ($p > 0,05$) between experience and two of the sub-scales of emotional labor, here being deep acting and surface acting. Because p-values of deep acting and surface acting obtained from Kruskal-Wallis Test is bigger than 0,05 as shown on Table 6. Yet, the p-value for genuine acting is smaller than 0,05 ($p = ,030$) which shows a significance between genuine acting and experience. In this case, H 1-d hypothesis that was built

to find out whether emotional labor dimensions vary depending on experience has been partially accepted.

Table 8 Kruskal-Wallis Test for Comparison of Emotional Labor Dimensions and Experience

Ranks

| Experience | | N | Mean Rank | Experience | | N | Mean Rank |
|------------|-----------|-----|-----------|------------|-----------|-----|-----------|
| EL_GA | 0-5 | 112 | 152,88 | EL_SA | 0-5 | 112 | 154,85 |
| | 6-10 | 36 | 188,99 | | 6-10 | 36 | 210,14 |
| | 11-15 | 43 | 184,70 | | 11-15 | 43 | 178,87 |
| | 16-20 | 33 | 216,65 | | 16-20 | 33 | 151,03 |
| | 21-25 | 60 | 172,92 | | 21-25 | 60 | 173,03 |
| | 26-30 | 31 | 154,76 | | 26-30 | 31 | 189,94 |
| | 31 and up | 27 | 165,28 | | 31 and up | 27 | 177,78 |
| | Total | 342 | | | Total | 342 | |
| EL_DA | 0-5 | 112 | 157,91 | | | | |
| | 6-10 | 36 | 205,97 | | | | |
| | 11-15 | 43 | 188,94 | | | | |
| | 16-20 | 33 | 162,94 | | | | |
| | 21-25 | 60 | 178,32 | | | | |
| | 26-30 | 31 | 158,79 | | | | |
| | 31 and up | 27 | 164,04 | | | | |
| | Total | 342 | | | | | |

Test Statistics^{a,b}

| | EL_GA | EL_SA | EL_DA |
|-------------|--------|--------|-------|
| Chi-Square | 13,986 | 11,558 | 9,099 |
| df | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Asymp. Sig. | ,030 | ,073 | ,168 |

EL: Emotional Labor SA: Surface Acting DA: Deep Acting GA: Genuine Acting

Within all age groups, people with 16-20 years experience choose to display genuine acting more than other age groups in the course of their interactions with others. As people get familiar with their customers and their expectations through experience, they will be able to predict the situation dynamics and act consciously. This consciousness let them be real and act genuinely within the predictable. In the literature, Wong and Wang (2009: 253) and Kruml and Geddes (2000:11) also found similar results showing that previous experiences diminish the chances of role ambiguity and stand as a source of reference in dealing with repetitive interactions.

* Relationship of Emotional Labor with Burnout and Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

The hypothesis that was established to find out whether the tour guides' use of surface acting causes emotional exhaustion or not is analyzed with Pearson correlation statistics. When the correlation values on Table 7 is analyzed, it is obvious that there is a positive correlation ($r = .306$, $p < .05$) between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Maslach (1982: 47), Morris and Feldman (1997: 259), Oral and Köse (2011:485) and Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 28) also suggested that surface acting cause emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3: Deep and genuine acting are negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

The findings indicate that there is a negative relationship (GA, $r = -.252$; DA, $r = -.269$ and $p < .05$) between emotional exhaustion and deep and genuine acting, as the two emotional labor strategies reduce the tension of surface acting. Grandey's (2003: 93) research on 131 university administrative assistants and Johnson's study of customer service representatives (2007: 64) yielded similar results yet there is a number of studies claiming no significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and deep acting (Oral and Köse, 2011: 485; Köksel, 2009: 79; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 22).

Hypothesis 4: Surface acting is positively related to depersonalization.

The related findings on Table 7 shows that the relationship between surface acting and depersonalization is positive ($r = .387$, $p < .05$) which means the more the tour guides surface act, the more they feel depersonalized. The repetition of surface acting in their interactions leads to inauthentication over time thus creating estrangement of the self. Grandey (1999: 34), Köksel (2009: 79), Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012: 88), Eroğlu (2014: 157) also found that surface acting causes depersonalization.

Table 9 Scale Correlations

Correlations

| | | EmEx | Depers | Pers. Acc. | EL_ GA | EL_ SA | EL_ DA | Job_ Int | Job_ Ext | Job_ Total |
|-----------|---------------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Em Ex | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | 1 342 | ,549** 0 342 | ,471** 0 342 | -,252** 0 342 | ,306** 0 342 | -,269** 0 342 | -,369** 0 342 | -,392** 0 342 | -,419** 0 342 |
| Dep | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | ,549** 0 342 | 1 342 | ,474** 0 342 | -,310** 0 342 | ,387** 0 342 | -,215** 0 342 | -,351** 0 342 | -,366** 0 342 | -,395** 0 342 |
| Pers Acc. | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | ,471** 0 342 | ,474** 0 342 | 1 342 | -,113* 0,037 342 | ,319** 0 342 | 0,006 0,916 342 | -0,051 0,346 342 | -,195** 0 342 | -,125* 0,021 342 |
| EL_GA | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | -,252** 0 342 | -,310** 0 342 | -,113* 0,037 342 | 1 342 | -,376** 0 342 | ,403** 0 342 | ,325** 0 342 | ,241** 0 342 | ,319** 0 342 |
| EL_SA | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | ,306** 0 342 | ,387** 0 342 | ,319** 0 342 | -,376** 0 342 | 1 342 | 0,069 0,201 342 | -0,104 0,054 342 | -,129* 0,017 342 | -,127* 0,019 342 |
| EL_DA | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | -,269** 0 342 | -,215** 0 342 | 0,006 0,916 342 | ,403** 0 342 | 0,069 0,201 342 | 1 342 | ,384** 0 342 | ,435** 0 342 | ,449** 0 342 |
| Job_Int | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | -,369** 0 342 | -,351** 0 342 | -0,051 0,346 342 | ,325** 0 342 | -0,104 0,054 342 | ,384** 0 342 | 1 342 | ,632** 0 342 | ,929** 0 342 |
| Job_Ext | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | -,392** 0 342 | -,366** 0 342 | -,195** 0 342 | ,241** 0 342 | -,129* 0,017 342 | ,435** 0 342 | ,632** 0 342 | 1 342 | ,874** 0 342 |
| Job_Total | Pearson Cor. Sig. (2- tailed) N | -,419** 0 342 | -,395** 0 342 | -,125* 0,021 342 | ,319** 0 342 | -,127* 0,019 342 | ,449** 0 342 | ,929** 0 342 | ,874** 0 342 | 1 342 |

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 5: Deep and genuine acting are negatively related to depersonalization.

Deep and genuine acting both have negative relationship (DA $r = -.215$, GA $r = -.310$ and $p < .05$) with depersonalization as hypothesized. As individuals control and modify their inner thoughts and emotions in deep acting; and reflect their inner feelings as the same way they feel inside in genuine acting, they feel authenticated. Their observable behaviors reflect most of the themselves and reduces the risk of depersonalization. In the literature, Yalçın (2010: 62), Köksel (2009:79), Grandey (1999: 34) and Eroğlu (2014: 157) made researches that resulted in the direction of supporting this claim.

Hypothesis 6: Surface acting is negatively related to personal accomplishment.

The research findings about tour guides' surface acting and personal accomplishment yielded a negative relationship ($r = .319$, $p < .05$) supporting the relevant hypothesis. When the discrepancy between inner feelings and required emotions is huge as it is the case in surface acting, all related terms with personal accomplishment such as productivity, performance and efficiency of individuals diminish. Grandey (1999: 34) and Brotheridge and Grandey (2002: 30) also supported this hypothesis with their research findings in the literature.

Hypothesis 7: Deep and genuine acting are positively related to personal accomplishment.

Although most of the findings in previous researches (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002: 30; Brotheridge and Lee, 2003: 372; Zapf, 2002: 255) revealed that deep acting is positively related to personal accomplishment, contradictory results emerged in the present study. While deep acting shows no association with personal accomplishment ($r = .006$, $p > .05$); genuine acting shows a weak negative relationship with it ($r = -.113$, $p < .05$). This might be due to fact that acting genuinely may times to times be contradicting the customers' expectations, thus resulting in dissatisfaction, undesired encounters and low financial gains.

Hypothesis 8: Surface acting is negatively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

According to correlations findings, the hypothesis is not supported for the relationship of surface acting and intrinsic job satisfaction and slightly and partially supported for extrinsic and overall job satisfaction at insignificant levels. The results are the given on Table 7 (Job_Int: -.104, $p > .05$; Job_Ext: -.129, $p < .05$; Job_Total: -.127, $p < .05$). Unlike Morris and Feldman's proposition (1997:1003), Grandey's theoretical model (2000: 104), Johnson's (2007: 65) research on customer service employees, Ghalandari and Jogh's (2012: 29) study of Iranian customer service organizations or Lam and Chen's study of 424 hotel service employees, the findings of the present study are in the same direction as those of Chu (2002: 135), Genç (2013: 86) and Chu et al. (2012: 912). According to the findings of the present study, surface acting doesn't decrease job satisfaction as expected; in other words, job satisfaction of guides is not affected by surface acting dimension of emotional labor.

Hypothesis 9: Deep and genuine acting are positively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

The findings show that deep acting (Job_Int: .384, $p < .05$; Job_Ext: .435, $p < .05$; Job_Total: .449, $p < .05$) and genuine acting (Job_Int: .325, $p < .05$; Job_Ext: .241, $p < .05$; Job_Total: .319, $p < .05$) are both positively associated with intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. This results is also the same as Chu et al.'s research (2012: 912) on 253 hotel employees, Johnson's (2007: 39) study of 280 employees and 223 supervisors, Ghalandari and Jogh's (2012: 29) research about customer service employees as well as Uysal's (2007: 54) study on school teachers in terms of deep acting. Only Uysal (2007: 54) took genuine acting into consideration in her study and found negative relationship between two concepts.

According to the above mentioned analysis results, Table 8 below is formed as a summary of the evaluation of the hypotheses.

Table 10 Evaluation of Hypotheses

| | | |
|--------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|
| H.1.a | Emotional Labor dimensions vary on gender | Partially supported |
| H.1.b | Emotional Labor dimensions vary on marital status | Not supported |
| H.1.c | Emotional Labor dimensions vary on age | Partially supported |
| H.1.d | Emotional Labor dimensions vary on experience | Partially supported |
| H2 | Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion | Supported |
| H3 | Deep and genuine acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion | Supported |
| H4 | Surface acting is positively related to depersonalization | Supported |
| H5 | Deep and genuine acting is negatively related to depersonalization | Supported |
| H6 | Surface acting is negatively related to personal accomplishment | Not supported |
| H7 | Deep and genuine acting is is positively related to personal accomplishment | Not supported |
| H8 | Surface acting is negatively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction | Partially supported |
| H9 | Deep and genuine acting is is positively related to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction | Supported |

CONCLUSION

This dissertation is designated to uncover the use of emotional labor in the scope of tour guiding profession and also the likelihood of its associated relationship with a number of significant concepts such as job satisfaction and burnout. For this purpose, a field study was carried out on both freelance and employment contracted tour guides who are registered members of Izmir Chamber of Tourist Guides. The nature of their job requires the establishment of strong face-to-face relations with their guests during a daily or package tour. As it's known, most of them has to interact with a great number of guests all day long; thus practising their professions in a human relations intensive work environment. Considering the necessity of regulation of emotions even in our daily non-occupational relations, it wouldn't be difficult to understand that this emotion management would be much more intense in the professional setting with so many display rules regarding social, occupational and organizational environments. A multi-task profession requiring multi-faceted responsibilities in a multi-component job setting not only causes mental and physical fatigueness but also brings an emotional labor burden. This is the reason why this dissertation is carried out in the scope of tour guiding. Besides, the quality of the interaction between tour guides and the guests not only affect tourists' satisfaction levels but also general and tourism image of the overall country. Survey technique is used to collect data. A questionnaire that was composed of 19-item Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale that was developed by Chu and Murrmann (2006), 22-item Maslach's Burnout Inventory that was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and 20-item Minnesota Job Satisfaction was developed by Weiss et al. (1967) along with questions to gather information about demographic features were sent out to the total number of members of IZRO and 342 of them were returned.

A great number of respondents participated in this survey are consisted of men. In general, women tend to choose this profession less than men due to irregular working hours, absence of off days for weeks, total number of days spent away from home as well as their responsibilities at home, maternal issues and responsibility of raising their children. When the age profile of the respondents is examined, it is seen that the majority of them are composed of young people. As the profession has more

disadvantages than its perks, it's much more preferable at younger ages; yet, tour guides choose to be engaged in other businesses as they get older. The reason behind this is the accumulation of too much mental and physical burden over time, health problems, the desire to spend time at home to see their children growing up, make of adequate savings for retirement or for investment on other types of businesses that they are interested in. It's also due to the fact that the profession holds unemployment risk in a highly sensitive industry subject to crisis of all kinds as well as lack of job security and occupational legislation. When marital status of the respondents is analyzed, it's seen that the percentage of single tour guides is higher than that of married ones. The nature of the profession makes it difficult for tour guides to sustain a healthy marriage life. Uncertainty of working hours and periods, no work permits during holiday seasons, long tours away from their place of residence pins them down to either stay single or change their job positions as they get married. Majority of them prefer working on a freelance basis unlike those on employment contracts. One of the possible reasons behind this is seasonality; thus, they try to make most out of a limited season rather than confining themselves to the offers of a specific tour operator or travel agency who cannot promise them the exact amount of tours that they will execute. There is a harsh competition among tour operators as well as tour guides and working on a freelance basis brings advantages to them in terms of financial earnings. Most of the tour guides are holding a graduate degree as the survey results indicate. Ministry of Culture and Tourism used to be the only authorized foundation to train tour guides in Turkey; but recently, department of tour guiding, tourism and guiding services and travel management of the universities also train professional tour guides. Although the survey findings indicated a majority of them holding a graduate degree, it's more likely that their field of study in the university is different than tour guiding. Most of the individuals working as a tour guide today have no educational background of tourism who are graduates of various language faculties or international high schools. The last demographic section on occupational tenure shows those who have 0-5 years experiences come in the first place. The increase in years spent on the job shows a decrease in the number of the tour guides. The possible reasons are pretty much the same with age and marital status demographics mentioned above.

The analyses to identify whether there is any significant differences between emotional labor dimensions and demographic variables revealed that men tend to adopt surface acting more than women whereas deep and genuine acting don't differentiate between men and women; the older the tour guides get, the more they are likely to engage in deep and genuine acting; yet, marital status doesn't influence emotional labor strategies and genuine acting is commonly adopted among those with 16-20 years of experience. The results indicate that while the years spent on the job increase, tour guides start internalize themselves and their emotions better with their jobs, they learn which emotions produce the desired results and when there is a good job-personality fit, they don't need to engage in surface acting. Surface acting is used as a shield to avoid the unpredictable and undesirable encounters.

The correlation analysis results show significant relationships on tour guides' use of emotional labor dimensions and burnout dimensions. Those who surface act are found to be subject to emotional exhaustion more whereas deep and genuine acting protects them against emotional exhaustion. As the gap between the inner feelings and emotions displayed increases so is the level of emotional exhaustion. If tour guides chooses to engage continuously in surface acting, it's normative that they suffer from emotional exhaustion as they work with almost no pauses over a period of time, from the early hours in the morning to almost midnight which means a repetitive interaction with a great number of tourists with different expectations and problems. Again, surface acting and depersonalization dimension of burnout show a positive relationship; yet, deep and genuine acting dimensions of emotional labor is negatively related to depersonalization. The correlation analysis between surface acting and personal accomplishment yielded positive relationship and genuine acting yielded negative relationship unlike the hypotheses. This might be due to fact that perception of surface acting as a requisite of the job to elicit satisfaction, do what is expected and avoid problems; because a satisfied tourist is key to good image, repeat business, high sales and good reputation of the tour guide.

The correlation analysis about tour guides' use of emotional labor and job satisfaction yielded slightly different results than hypothesized in terms of surface acting. Although surface acting was expected to relate negatively to intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction of tour guides, it's seen that there's no

relationship at all with intrinsic job satisfaction and an insignificant negative relationship with extrinsic and overall satisfaction. Since intrinsic job satisfaction items are designated to elicit answers about tour guides' opinion on trying their own methods, occasionally trying out new things, freedom to decide and act individually, tell others what to do etc.; and extrinsic job satisfaction about appraisal they get, wages, application of company policies etc., surface acting doesn't seem to arouse unfavorable outcomes. This is mostly because tour guides work in an autonomous environment. There is a feeling of greater responsibility, independence and autonomy within a physically attractive job setting such as historical sites, museums, 4 or 5-star hotels, beaches, waterfalls, caves etc. They are not like blue or white collar employees who starts every day at the same hour after a long journey on public transportation who is then supervised all day long by their managers in a boring and monotonous office setting. And even they have a program to follow, they are responsible for scheduling the rest of the details and make the arrangements for the day. These might be the possible reasons that reduce the unfavorable outcomes of emotional burden from them. On the other hand, deep and genuine acting is positively related to all three dimensions of job satisfaction.

After all hypotheses are analyzed, it could be said that the literature is formed with an inspection of employees who are abided by strict display rules and close supervision in the organizational setting. So the effects should also be investigated more often in the scope of other freelance occupations as well as other positions in the hospitality industry to better understand the concepts. One reason behind the contradiction of some of the findings in the present study could be the absence of a selection criteria for tour guides or performance evaluations at specific intervals – other than guest surveys- as in a classical organizational structure. Thus, mismatch of right person and job might increase the necessity for emotional regulation efforts of tour guides if they don't have the skills required to be a tour leader. On-the-job trainings might be initiated by both their employers and also through official institutions such as Ministry of Culture and Tourism and Chambers of Tour Guides. The research could be enlarged to a greater population to see if the results match those of the present study and the scales could be arranged in a way to respond to characteristics of the industry.

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APPENDIX 1

Sayın Katılımcı,

İzmir Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Turizm İşletmeciliği Ana Bilim Dalı'nda Doç. Dr. M. Emre Güler danışmanlığında yürütülen "Turist Rehberlerinin Duygusal Emek kullanımı ile İş Doyumu ve Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişkiler Üzerine Bir Araştırma" başlıklı Yüksek Lisans Tezi çerçevesinde hazırlanan bu anket, İZRO (İzmir Rehberler Odası)'ya kayıtlı profesyonel turist rehberlerinin duygusal emek düzeylerinin İş Doyumu ve Mesleki Tükenmişlik üzerine etkilerini ölçmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Zaman ayırıp ankete katılım göstererek, bilimsel çalışmaya sağlamış olduğunuz katkı ve destekten dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Yüksek Lisans Tez Yazarı: Feray İrigüler
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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ANKETİ

REHBERLERİN DUYGUSAL EMEK KULLANIMI İLE İŞ DOYUMU VE TÜKENMİŞLİK DÜZEYLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Sorular

S1: Cinsiyetiniz

- Kadın
 Erkek

S2: Yaşınız

- 18-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60
 61 ve üzeri

S3: Medeni Durumunuz

- Evli
 Bekar

S4: Öğrenim durumunuz

- Lise
 Yüksek okul
 Üniversite-lisans
 Yüksek Lisans
 Doktora

S5: Çalışma şekliniz

- Serbest
 Bir acenta ya da tur operatörüne bağlı olarak

S6: Meslek mensubu olarak toplam çalışma süreniz

- 0-5
 6-10
 11-15
 16-20
 21-25
 26-30
 31 yıl ve üzeri

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri sizi en iyi tanımlayan kategoriye seçerek cevaplandırınız

| | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| S7: Kendimi işimden duygusal olarak uzaklaşmış hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S8: İşgününün sonunda kendimi bitkin hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S9: Sabah kalkıp yeni bir işgünü ile karşılaşmak zorunda kaldığımda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S10: Müşterilerimin pek çok şey hakkında neler hissettiklerini anlayabiliyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S11: Bazı müşterilerime onlar sanki kişilikten yoksun bir objeymiş gibi davrandığını hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S12: Bütün gün insanlarla çalışmak benim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| İçin gerçekten bir gerginliktir | | | | | |
| S13: Müşterilerimin sorunlarını etkili bir şekilde hallederim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S14: İşimin beni tükettiğini hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S15: İşimle diğer insanların yaşamlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğimi hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S16: Bu mesleğe başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı katılaştığımı hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S17: Bu iş beni duygusal olarak katılaştırdığı için sıkıntı duyuyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S18: Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S19: İşimin beni sınırlendirdiğini hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S20: İşimde gücümün üstünde çalıştığımı hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S21: Bazı müşterilerin başına gelenler gerçekten umurumda değil | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S22: Doğrudan insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla strese neden oluyor | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| S23: Müşterilerime rahat bir atmosferi kolayca sağlayabilirim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S24: Müşterilerime yakın ilişki içinde çalıştıktan sonra kendimi ferahlamış hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S25: Bu meslekte pek çok değerli işler başardım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S26: Kendimi çok çaresiz hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S27: İşimde duygusal sorunları bir hayli soğukkanlılıkla hallederim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S28: Müşterilerimin bazı problemleri için beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri sizi en iyi tanımlayan kategoriye seçerek cevaplandırınız | | | | | |
| | Hiçbir Zaman | Ara Sıra | Bazen | Sıklıkla | Her Zaman |
| S29: Müşterilere gösterdiğim olumlu duygular, gerçekten hissettiklerimle örtüşür | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S30: Müşteri memnuniyeti için gerçekten hissetmem de numaradan hoş görünmeye çalışırım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| S31: Gerçekten nasıl hissediyorsam o duyguları müşterilere yansıtırım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S32: Müşteri beklentilerini karşılayabilmek için her türlü rolü yaparım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S33: İşimin gerektirdiği duyguları yansıtabilmek için, sahte yüz ifadeleri takınırım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S34: Müşterilere yansıttığım duygular gerçekten hissettiğim duygulardır | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S35: Çalışırken gerçek hislerimi yansıtmayacak şekilde farklı davranabilirim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S36: Müşterilerle olan ilişkilerimde rol yaparım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S37: Müşterilere yansıtmam gereken duyguları sergileyebilmek için gerçek hislerimi değiştiririm | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S38: Müşterilerle etkileşim halindeyken, mesleğimin gerektirdiği belli başlı duygu ve tavırları yansıtmaya | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| çalışırım | | | | | |
| S39: İşimi iyi yapabilmek için göstermem gereken duyguları gerçekten hissederim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S40: Müşteri ilişkilerinde olumsuz duygularımı göstermeme konusunda başarılıyım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S41: Müşterilerle ilişkilerim insani etkileşim içermez, sadece (mekanik bir şekilde) işimi yaparım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S42: Müşterilere göstermem gereken duyguları yansıtabilmek için elimden geleni yaparım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S43: Müşterilere hizmet sunarken gerçek duygularımı gizlemeliyim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S44: Çalışmaya başlarken genelde kendime "Bugün güzel bir gün olacak" derim | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S45: Çalışmaya başlarken işimde karşılaşaçağım güzellikleri düşünürüm | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

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|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| S46: Müşterilerle ilişkilerimde göstermem gereken duyguları her seferinde yaşamaya çalışırım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S47: Gerçekten hissetmediğim duyguları davranışlarımda yansıtmaya çalışırken, daha fazla caba harcarım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Kendinize "işimin bu yönünden ne kadar memnunuz?" sorusunu sorunuz ve en yakın gelen kategoriye işaretleyiniz | | | | | |
| | Hiç Memnun Değilim | Pek Memnun Değilim | Memnunuz | Çok Memnunuz | Tamamen Memnunuz |
| S48: Sürekli bir şeylerle meşgul olabilme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S49: Tek başına çalışma imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S50: Zaman zaman farklı şeyler yapabilme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S51: Toplumda yer edinme imkanı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S52: Yöneticimin çalışanları idare ediş şekli | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S53: Karar verme konusunda yöneticimin yeterliliği | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S54: Vicdanıma ters düşmeyen şeyleri yapabilme | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

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|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| imkânı | | | | | |
| S55: Sürekli bir işe sahip olma imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S56: Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S57: Başkalarına ne yapacaklarını söyleme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S58: Yeteneklerimi kullanabilme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S59: Firma politikalarının uygulanış şekli | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S60: Aldığım ücret ve iş yüküm | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S61: Bu işte ilerleme imkânım | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S62: Kendi kararımı verme özgürlüğü | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S63: İş yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi deneme imkânı | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S64: Çalışma koşulları | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S65: Çalışma arkadaşlarımla birbiriyle anlaşması | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S66: Yaptığım iyi bir iş karşılığında aldığım övgü | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S67: İşimden elde ettiğim başarı duygusu | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

APPENDIX 2

Dear Participant,

This Survey Form is designed to evaluate the use of emotional labor on job satisfaction and burnout levels of professional tourist guides who are registered members of İZRO (İzmir Chamber of Tourist Guides) for the master's thesis titled as "A Research on Tour Guides' Use of Emotional Labor and the Relationship between their Job Satisfaction and Burnout Levels" conducted at İzmir Katip Çelebi University, Graduate School of Social Sciences, Tourism Management Department under the advisorship of Assoc. Prof. Dr. M. Emre Güler.

Please take a few moments to fill out this survey form. Your contribution to scientific research and support is highly appreciated.

Master's Thesis Writer: Feray İrigüler
e-mail:feray.iriguler@ieu.edu.tr

MASTER'S THESIS SURVEY FORM

A RESEARCH ON TOUR GUIDES' USE OF EMOTIONAL LABOR AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEIR JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT LEVELS

Questions

Q1: Gender

Female

Male

Q2: Age

18-30

31-40

41-50

51-60

61 ve üzeri

Q3: Marital Status

Married

Single

Q4: Education

High School

Associate Degree

Bachelor's Degree

Master Degree

Doctor's Degree

Q5: Employment Type

Freelance

Tour Operator / Travel agency employee

Q6: Experience

0-5

6-10

11-15

16-20

21-25

26-30

31 years and over

Please choose the option that describes you best

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree Nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Q7: I feel emotionally drained from my work | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q8: I feel used up at the end of the workday | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q9: I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q10: I can easily understand how my customers feel about things | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q11: I feel like I treat some guests as if they were impersonal objects | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q12: Working with people all day is really a strain for me | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q13: I deal very effectively with the problems of my students | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q14: I feel burned out from my work | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q15: I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q16: I've become more callous toward people since I took this job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q17: I worry thss job is hardening me emotionally | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q18: I feel very energetic | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q19: I feel frustrated by my job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Q20: I feel I'm working too hard on my job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q21: I don't really care what happens to some customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q22: Working directly with people puts too much stress on me | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q23: I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my guests | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q24: I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q25: I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q26: I feel like I'm at the end of my rope | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q27: In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Q28: I feel customers blame for for their problems | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Please read the statements and choose the option that describes you best | | | | | |
| | Never | Occasionall y | Sometime s | Frequentl y | Always |
| S29: The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S30: I fake a good mood when interacting with customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S31: I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| S32: I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S33: I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S34: I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S35: I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S36: I fake a good mood when interacting with customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S37: I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S38: When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S39: I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S40: I display emotions that I am not actually feeling | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S41: My interactions with customers are very robotic | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S42: I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S43: I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| customers | | | | | |
| S44: When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S45: I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S46: I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S47: I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Please ask yourself "How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?" and choose the option that best describes you | | | | | |
| | Extremely Dissatisfied | Very Dissatisfied | Satisfied | Very Satisfied | Extremely Satisfied |
| S48: Being able to keep busy all the time | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S49: The chance to work alone on the job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S50: The chance to do different things from time to time | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S51: The chance to be "somebody" in the community | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S52: The way my boss handles his/her workers | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S53: The competence of my supervisor in making decisions | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| S54: Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S55: The way my job provides for steady employment | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S56: The chance to do things for other people | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S57: The chance to tell people what to do | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S58: The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S59: The way company policies are put into practice | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S60: My pay and the amount of work I do | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S61: The chances for advancement on this job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S62: The freedom to use my own judgment | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S63: The chance to try my own methods of doing the job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S64: The working conditions | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S65: The way my co-workers get along with each other | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S66: The praise I get for doing a good job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| S67: The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |