

EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND COMMUNITIES OF COPING IN ACADEMIA

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Research

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Faiza Asif', with a long, sweeping horizontal stroke extending to the right.

Faiza Asif

Date: 19th October 2018

ABSTRACT

Emotional labour has been a burgeoning research area among scholars because of its significance for employees and organisations. However, there is scarce research on emotional labour among high professional service jobs as compared to customer service jobs. Moreover, little research has been done on emotional labour among academics and how they cope with the emotional labour requirements of their teaching role. To address this gap, this study focuses on examining the emotional labour requirements of academics and specifically on whether and how communities of coping allow academics to manage the emotional labour requirements of their teaching role. This thesis employs a qualitative case study methodology, utilising semi-structured interviews to collect data from Australian business schools' academics. Findings show various emotional labour requirements for academics such as being enthusiastic, calm and mindful. Adhering to such occupational emotional labour requirements results in emotional exhaustion among academics. The study demonstrates that communities of coping play an imperative role in dealing with emotional labour requirements of academics. This research concludes that despite the significance of communities of coping in academia, its scope is narrowed down due to the encroachment of managerialism, intensified research expectations and increased workload. This study contributes to the emotional labour scholarship and extends existing research on the academic profession.

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Chapter One: Introduction

“Across the globe, employees in many professions are expected to embrace a work culture that requires the outward display of particular emotions – these can include ambition, aggression and a hunger for success” (Levy, 2018).

“Those who report regularly having to display emotions at work that conflict with their own feelings are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion” (Levy, 2018).

1.1 Background to the research

The adoption of private sector’s organisational philosophies and values by the public service organisations is termed as “new managerialism” (Deem, 1998), a term that is interchangeably used with “managerialism” and “new public management” (Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt, 1993). It is predicated on “performance management and measurement, key performance indicators and decentralised decision making” (Teelken & Deem, 2013, p. 521) with the belief that it will lead to increased productivity and proficiency of the public sector organisations because it allows performance to become measurable (Parker, 2002).

Literature has documented the encroachment of managerialism in higher education. Reduced government funding has resulted in university adapting managerial principles in order to remain competitive in a globalised market. At the same time, universities are subjected to more controls of their performance in an effort to enhance perceptions of accountability. Chan (2001) and Loveday (2018) speculate that managerial practices may have a positive impact on academics’ performance. This may be because academics would perform better if their outputs are measurable.

Conversely, there are also some negative aspects of managerialism. As such, university teachers are subjected to many more administrative responsibilities, managerialism is perceived to increase the considerable workload of academics. Thus, Bryson (2004) argues that academics only enjoy the “vacation part” of their job as managerialism reforms have resulted in the erosion of academics’ autonomy (Martin-Sardesai, Irvine, Tooley, & Guthrie, 2017). Bryson (2004) considers this a shift from academic autonomy to managerial power.

Managerialism reforms also resulted in an increased number of enrolments in Australian universities (Barrett, 2004). The business faculties have attracted a great number of students both at domestic and international level. This significant rise in student numbers suggests that academics in business schools have higher workloads as compared to other university

departments and consequently may involve more work conflicts. Given the increased enrolments, there was a reduction in the caring quality in educating and studying (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). At the same time, academics have to achieve more with less resources as a result of reduced funding.

Due to the increasing number of students and reduced funding, universities increased casualisation. Indeed, the massification of the higher education sector has resulted in the increase of the casual academics in Australia since 1990 (May, Strachan, & Peetz, 2013). These casual academics carry out the majority of the undergraduate teaching in the Australian higher education (Baik, Naylor, & Corrin, 2018) where generally a significant number of students are enrolled. These casual academics are not provided with job security, career path, adequate pay structure or leave benefits. Instead, they are subjected to a lack of visibility in the academia (Crawford & Germov, 2015).

Academia is now considered to be a part of the service industry, students are considered customers whereas academics are service providers who sell services and eventually themselves too (Giroux, 2002). Being service providers, academics may have long working hours, 24/7 on call presence on online platforms and are required to demonstrate friendliness with students. Students rate their faculty on their emotional services through teaching evaluations and through online platforms supplied by universities, for instance, “ratemyprofessor.com” on which caring is one of the top ten aspects of students’ rating for their academics (Lawless, 2018, p. 87). This suggests that such students’ rating for teaching services may serve as a tool for management control. However, it could be argued that it is taxing for academics to demonstrate caring when there is an enormous number of students to deal with thus, leading to the increase of emotional labour among academics.

Emotional labour is “the management of feeling to create a publicly and observable facial display” (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7). Extensive research on emotional labour has been done in customer service jobs such as in call centres (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002) and healthcare (Bartram, Casimir, Djurkovic, Leggat, & Stanton, 2012; Nguyen, Groth, & Johnson, 2016). However, there are other professions that entail emotional labour such as law and teaching. Hargreaves (1998) suggests that teaching is an emotional practice. This is because teachers experience a wide variety of emotions that range from positive (e.g., happiness, pride and satisfaction) and negative (e.g., anger, frustration and sadness). Indeed, Morris and Feldman (1996) were among the first scholars who argued that teachers have to display various emotions apart from positive emotions.

Additionally, an academic's role is more than just transferring knowledge to students (Bellas, 1999) and involves various tasks such as research practice, management responsibilities and student consultations (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). All these duties entail different types of emotional labour requirements. For instance, sometimes lecturers have to exaggerate their emotions (e.g., demonstrating enthusiasm) (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004), suppress or mitigate emotions (e.g., frustration) (Ybema & Smulders, 2002), sometimes they have to control not only their negative emotions (e.g., anger) but also those of their students, and at times they have to exhibit neutral emotions (e.g., calm) with their students to maintain the equality among students (Bellas, 1999). Thus, academics have to engage in emotional labour to meet the emotional labour requirements of their job. This suggests that emotional labour is an integral part of teaching (Hargreaves, 2000).

Research indicates that emotional labour may result in negative consequences (e.g., emotional exhaustion) (Thisera & Bandara, 2017) among academics. However, emotional labour is invisible (Koster, 2011; Meier, 2009) in the higher education context, and hence, is under-examined in academia (Tunguz, 2016). Scholars (e.g., Miller, 1995; Willmott, 1995) pointed out that academics have researched other professionals, but they ignored their own labour process. Moreover, there is surprisingly little research on how academics cope with the emotional labour requirements of their role. To address this gap, the current study examines the role of communities of coping (Korczynski, 2003): employees seeking each other's support after interacting with unsympathetic and abusive customers. A supportive social context in the workplace can be valuable for employees in reducing the negative influence of emotional labour on employees. In fact, Grandey and Gabriel (2015) argue that the supportive context among employees can be useful in offering self-regulatory breaks as well as reducing strain. Accordingly, the aim of the study is to understand the emotional labour requirements of academics in their teaching role. Also, the study aims to contribute to research on the significance of communities of coping in dealing with the emotional labour requirements of academics in their teaching role.

1.2 Research questions and justification for the research

Based on the above, this study seeks to address the following research questions:

- (1) What are the occupational emotional labour requirements of academics teaching in higher education?

- (2) How and to what extent do communities of coping assist in managing the teaching-related emotional labour requirements of the academic profession?

Given that there is surprisingly little research on how academics cope with the emotional labour requirements of their job, this study examines the role of communities of coping in alleviating the burden of emotional labour requirements among academics. Importantly, knowing what constitutes emotional labour requirements of academics may provide insight into how to manage them effectively.

As mentioned earlier, much research has focused on emotional labour from a customer service perspective such as in call centres where interactions with customers are of low intensity as they involve one person at a time following the same scripts and explicit display rules (Zapf, 2002). Display rules refer to the emotional expression norms according to a given context (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Morris and Feldman (1996) gave a call to investigate the emotional labour beyond front-line service occupations such as academics because these professions involve a higher level of intensity, longer duration and greater variability of emotions. Unlike call centre employees, university academics are engaged in a longer period of interactions usually in front of a group of students with fewer explicit emotional expression guidelines (Mahoney, Buboltz Jr, Buckner, John, & Doverspike, 2011). Additionally, Hatzinikolakis and Crossman (2010) gave a call for empirical research to investigate if Australian business academics are experiencing emotional labour. This thesis responds to such scholarly calls to investigate emotional labour in the professional service domain that is academia. This study will provide empirical evidence on whether Australian business academics are experiencing emotional labour and also the significance of communities of coping in dealing with the teaching-related emotional labour requirements of the academic profession. As such, this study will contribute to the literature on emotional labour among academics (e.g., Ogbonna & Harris, 2004; Tunguz, 2016).

To do so, this thesis presents a qualitative case study of Australian business academics. Through seventeen semi-structured in-depth interviews and by drawing on emotional labour literature, and the concept of communities of coping, this study finds that academics engage in emotional labour both back stage and front stage (Goffman, 1959). It further provides evidence of the significance of communities of coping in dealing with emotional labour and raises concerns regarding the diminishing levels of collegiality in academia.

1.3 Thesis outline

This thesis is comprised of six chapters to provide a detailed understanding of the role of communities of coping in academia. Chapter Two reviews the literature on the conceptual development of emotional labour, its consequences, emotional labour requirements, communities of coping to deal with emotional labour requirements of academics in their teaching role. In doing so, this chapter highlights the research gap in the extant research.

Chapter Three explains the adopted qualitative methodological approach of the study and presents an overview of the interview participants. Chapter Four presents the key findings of the study based on detailed data case study analysis. Chapter Five discusses the findings of the study and analyses that how it is related to the previous research. Finally, Chapter Six presents the conclusion, contribution, implications and limitations of the study. It concludes with the prospects of future research.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive literature review on emotional labour. It begins with presenting how the concept has evolved since Hochschild's (1983) work and specifically focuses on what comprises emotional labour, its consequences and the coping mechanisms that individuals can adopt. Emotional labour in academia is also examined in an effort to highlight the surprising dearth of research in the area. Overall, the purpose of this chapter is to present the state of the literature on this topic and to highlight the gaps that this thesis addresses.

2.2 Emotional labour: conceptual development

Hochschild (1983) presented the term "emotional labour" in her revolutionary book *"The Managed Heart: The Commercialization of Human Feeling"*. Hochschild (1983, p. 7) defined emotional labour as "the management of feeling to create a publicly and observable facial display". Notably, Hochschild (1983) distinguished emotional labour from related terms such as emotion work or emotion management that individuals perform in private and have use value. The defining characteristic of emotional labour, she argues, is that it has an exchange value because emotional labour is specifically performed for compensation.

In her seminal study, Hochschild (1983) interviewed and observed flight attendants and bill collectors to examine how management persuade their employees to regulate their feelings and emotional expressions to accomplish organisational goals. Hochschild (1983) drew on the dramaturgical aspects of Goffman's (1959) self-presentation literature that compared the social lives of individuals using the metaphor of a theatrical performance. For Goffman (1959), the workplace serves as a stage, an employee is considered as an actor and a customer is an audience. Similarly, individuals perform emotional labour to show specific emotions that are required in any specific social setting.

Hochschild (1983) found that when employees have to express specific emotions to achieve emotional requirements of their job, they manage their emotions by either one of two interpersonal emotion regulation strategies: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting involves hiding or suppressing felt emotions and faking unfelt feelings. Surface acting is accomplished by two emotion regulation strategies: suppression of real emotions and showing desired expressions. Hochschild (1983) drew on Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory which describes that when an individual keeps two or more components of knowledge that are

inconsistent with each other, then a state of dissonance is created. In doing so, she explained that when employees adopt surface acting, they feel emotional dissonance, which refers to a difference between feelings and emotions that are expressed to follow the organisational norms of expressing appropriate emotions or the organisational display rules. In the literature, there are two conceptualisations of emotional dissonance: emotion-display dissonance and emotion-rule dissonance (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). The emotion display-dissonance refers to the difference between the one's feelings and expressions, whereas emotion-rule dissonance refers to the difference between the one's feelings and the display requirements (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, 2013; Holman, Martinez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008; Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005). The emotional dissonance may lead to emotional deviance when there is a mismatch between emotional expression and emotional expectations. According to Rafaeli and Sutton (1987, p. 32), employees tend to avoid emotional deviance by either "faking in bad faith", i.e., faking emotions with the perception that it should not be their job requirement, or; "faking in good faith", i.e., faking emotions with the perception that it should be their job role. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) connected these types of faking with Hochschild's (1983) original concept of surface acting and deep acting.

Deep acting, on the other hand, involves changing felt emotions to align with the desired or expected emotional expressions. Hochschild (1983) explained that deep acting involves two emotion regulation strategies: (1) encouraging the desired feelings or (2) employing skilled thoughts, such as recalling some related or similar emotion provoking past event to show required expressions. Although Hochschild (1983) speculated that deep acting is beneficial for organisations as it portrays employees in a good light to customers (e.g., sincere, caring), she inferred that both interpersonal emotion regulation strategies separate the worker from the self because they commercialise emotions. Thus, Hochschild's (1983) work suggests that emotional labour has detrimental effects such as burnout and alienation on employees' health and well-being because employees hide or suppress their true feelings and exhibit emotions that are aligned with their organisational norms. In sum, Hochschild's emotional labour theory demonstrates the significance of managing emotions in the workplace context and her work increased awareness among scholars about emotions and emotion regulation for employees.

A number of scholars have extended Hochschild's (1983) work on emotional labour, (see Table 1, for major definitions).

Table 1: Emotional labour definitions

Author, year	Emotional labour definitions	Key ideas
Hochschild (1983)	Emotional labour is defined as “the management of feeling to create a publicly and observable facial display” (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7).	Emphasises employees’ management of emotions, feeling rules and detrimental effects on employees’ health.
Ashforth and Humphrey (1993)	Emotional labour is defined as “the act of displaying appropriate emotion” (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 90).	Emphasises employees’ observable behaviour, display rules and task effectiveness.
Morris and Feldman (1996)	Emotional labour is “the effort, planning and control needed to express organisationally desired emotion during interpersonal transaction” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987).	Introduces four dimensions of emotional labour: frequency of interactions, attentiveness, a variety of emotions and emotional dissonance.
Grandey (2000)	“Emotional labour is the process of regulating both feelings and expression for the organisational goal” (Grandey, 2000, p. 97).	Integrates previous perspectives of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and suggests the significance of emotion regulation in understanding emotional labour.
Glomb and Tews (2004)	“Emotional labour is (1) the expression of emotions and (2) non-expression of emotions, which may or may not be felt in accordance with display rules” (Glomb & Tews, 2004, p. 4).	Focuses on behavioural expression as well as non-expression of emotions that are aligned with display rules.
Grandey et al. (2013)	Emotional labour takes place when “emotion regulation is performed in response to job-based emotional requirements in order to produce emotion toward – and to evoke emotion from – to another person to achieve organisational goals” (Grandey et al., 2013b, p. 18).	Propose to merge three lenses – occupational requirements, emotional displays and intrapsychic processes to understand emotional labour than using a single lens.

There are some points of differentiation between organisational behaviour scholars and Hochschild’s original conceptualisation of emotional labour. First, Hochschild (1983) used the term “feeling rules” for organisational requirements where employees have to show specific expression and feelings to customers that are congruent with the organisations’ norms. For example, airlines may want flight attendants to serve passengers with smile and hotels may want their staff to show hospitality to customers. Conversely, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993, p. 89) argued that the appropriate term should be “display rules” instead of “feeling rules” as cannot directly control the inner emotional state of their employees. For them, organisations are more focused on employees’ external emotional expressions than internal feelings. Rafaeli and

Sutton (1987) demonstrated in their conceptual framework how organisations use practices such as socialisation and feedback to manage employees' emotional display. They also maintained that those emotional displays that were aligned with the organisational objectives lead to effectiveness. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also argued that besides surface acting and deep acting, individuals can also engage in a third type of emotional labour strategy, that is, spontaneous and genuine emotional labour. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) speculate that sometimes employees may demonstrate spontaneous and genuine emotions that are aligned with the organisational display rules and social expectations. For example, academics may feel enthusiasm towards their students' high achievement and thus they will not have to fake emotions. The empirical findings of Glomb and Tews (2004) and Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) were among the first studies, that confirmed all three types of emotional labour strategies. Finally, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) concentrated on the emotional labour impact on task effectiveness as opposed to Hochschild (1983) who focused on the emotional labour impact on the health and stress of individuals.

The definition of emotional labour by Morris and Feldman (1996) is based on an interactionist approach that demonstrates emotions are expressed and determined by social factors. In their conceptual paper, Morris and Feldman (1996) suggested that emotional labour is composed of four elements: frequency, duration, a variety of emotions and emotional dissonance. Their argument is similar with Hochschild in a way that they also discussed emotional dissonance because these scholars speculate that emotional dissonance is present where there is a discrepancy between employees' real emotional expression and organisationally required emotional expression.

Grandey (2000) extended the literature further by integrating all of these prior perspectives (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and developing an emotional labour model by applying emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998b). Emotion regulation theory refers to "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b, p. 275). Gross (1998b) proposed two types of emotion regulation strategies: antecedent-focused and response-focused emotion regulation that occur at two points. Antecedent emotion regulation is used to modify or change situations or thoughts before the experience of emotions (e.g., situation selection or modification, distraction or concentration and reappraisal or reinterpretation). Conversely, response-focused emotion regulation is used to modify expressions and behaviour after the experience of emotions (e.g., relaxation or exercise). Grandey (2000) linked deep acting to antecedent-focused emotion regulation and surface acting to response-focused emotion regulation. However, Grandey (2015) argued that this is not a

perfect theoretical linkage as surface acting involves not only suppressing but also amplifying or faking emotions whereas deep acting, is applied to change feelings to appear more genuine instead of reappraising the situation. Recently, Grandey and Melloy (2017) revised the model of emotional labour as emotion regulation and integrated recent studies to further elaborate on the nature of emotional labour as emotion regulation.

The conceptualisation and operationalisation of emotional labour of Glomb and Tews (2004) include genuine, faked and suppressed positive and negative emotional displays. Their conceptualisation is similar to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) in a way that they also focused on behaviourally emotional expression. However, Glomb and Tews' (2004) study differs from Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) in the sense that it includes underlying emotions that are experienced and occurred in accordance with display rules. Grandey et al. (2013) further extended the literature and argued that the dynamic interactions among occupational requirements, emotional displays and intrapsychic processes result in emotional labour. Consistent with Grandey et al. (2013), Grandey and Gabriel (2015) also suggested an integrated view of emotional labour that includes emotional requirements, emotion regulation and emotional performance. Overall, the consensus about the definition and conceptualisation of emotional labour has not been achieved yet (Bono & Vey, 2005; Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012), however, scholars have agreement that emotional labour involves the management of emotions at work to achieve organisational goals.

For this thesis, the definition of Morris and Feldman (1996) will be used. They refer to emotional labour as the effort, planning and control to regulate emotional expression according to organisational norms during interpersonal transactions. Morris and Feldman (1996) drew from the interactionist perspective that demonstrates emotions are expressed and determined by social factors. They argue that emotional labour exists where there is a difference in felt and expressed emotions. Also, they state that the degree of effort required to express authentic emotions is equivalent to emotional labour. Thus, this framework is utilised to examine emotional labour in the context of academia.

2.3 What are emotional labour requirements?

The management of emotions according to the display rules of organisations are conventional emotional labour requirements of the service job. This suggests that different jobs have different levels of emotional labour requirements. Nurses, for example, experience more emotional labour requirements than the receptionists of a hospital. Based on Hochschild's (1983) work, Grandey et al. (2013) argue that jobs with high emotional labour requirements require frequent

interactions with customers, coworkers, subordinates and supervisors. Research has indicated that employees with emotional requirement jobs feel higher job satisfaction (Bhave & Glomb, 2016) and a sense of personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). The reason may be that some people are interested in jobs with frequent workplace interactions and thus they feel job satisfaction. Also, when they perceive that customers are satisfied with their service, they feel a sense of accomplishment.

However, emotional labour requirements can also result in burnout (Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007). According to Morris and Feldman (1996), during interpersonal transactions, employees need an emotional effort to demonstrate the required occupational emotional expressions. Also, explicit emotional requirements require employees to concentrate on maintaining emotional expressions and thus, worsen service delivery and task performance (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Zyphur, Warren, Landis, & Thoresen, 2007). Also, when employees perceive more emotional requirement, they are engaged in more effort to manage their emotional expressions and consequently, their well-being is affected (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). The requirement of positive emotional requirements within a negative working context can affect employees' well-being because of emotional dissonance and regulatory deletion (i.e., reduction in regulation of one's own emotional response) (Grandey, Rupp, & Brice, 2015) that results in negative consequences (e.g., job dissatisfaction and job burnout) in employees. Singh and Glavin (2017), for instance, found that employees who are engaged in jobs with emotional labour requirements in resource-deprived (e.g., low job autonomy and limited co-workers' support) occupational settings suffer from poorer health. These studies suggest the significance of the management of emotional labour requirements for the sake of employees' well-being. Therefore, the current study examines the extent to which communities of coping can serve as a coping mechanism to manage academics' emotional labour requirements.

2.4 Consequences of emotional labour

As the first study on emotional labour revealed detrimental effects of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983), the concept has been primarily considered as harmful to employees' well-being. However, later studies revealed that this is not always the case. Some studies (e.g., Shuler & Sypher, 2000; Wharton, 1993; Zapf & Holz, 2006) revealed that performing emotional labour is an enjoyable job condition for some employees. Findings of the study, however, may depend on what element of the emotional labour is investigated and in what context (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Indeed, emotional labour is a complex concept and has thereby been regarded as a "double-edged sword" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 96) because it can demonstrate

both positive and negative consequences for employees and organisations (Bono & Vey, 2005; Côté, 2005; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

The seminal study of Hochschild (1983) revealed that both emotional labour strategies – surface acting and deep acting are harmful to employees' health, however, later studies (e.g., Bono & Vey, 2005; Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009) revealed that performing emotional labour through surface acting is generally more detrimental than deep acting for employees' well-being. This is because, employees in surface acting continuously endeavour to show fake emotions and suppress their felt emotions to adhere to organisational norms. Several studies have examined the outcomes of surface acting on employees, more specifically, burnout (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) and job dissatisfaction (Judge et al., 2009). In addition, empirical studies found that engaging in surface acting can lead to increase in strain (Hülshager, Lang, & Maier, 2010), decrease in individuals' resources (i.e., psychological and physiological) (Yam, Fehr, Keng-Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016) and well-being (Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). Similar findings have been reported by meta-analytic studies in terms of strain and poor well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012).

Conversely, research on deep acting effects revealed various kinds of advantages, including, job satisfaction, better emotional performance and job performance. Hülshager and Schewe (2011), for instance, in their meta-analysis inferred that deep acting is weakly related with poor well-being and job attitudes whereas positively related with customer satisfaction and emotional performance. Deep acting was also found unrelated to emotional exhaustion but positively related to task performance and job satisfaction (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Also, some studies revealed that deep acting resulted in financial rewards (e.g., tips) for employees (Chi, Grandey, Diamond, & Krimmel, 2011; Hülshager, Lang, Schewe, & Zijlstra, 2015). This may be because in deep acting employees change their true feelings and give authentic expressions that results in increased performance. Customers perceive this performance positive and thus, it leads to financial gains for employees.

Notably, although deep acting results in better customer service and job satisfaction, it may weakly relate to job burnout and other physical health issues (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). Furthermore, some studies found that deep acting was insignificantly related to job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2009) and even was not useful in dealing with job anxiety and burnout (Wang & Groth, 2014). These are in line with Hochschild's (1983) findings, who proposed that deep acting would be detrimental for employees because in deep

acting individuals deceive themselves as well as others and, thus, employees might feel estrangement from their true feelings.

Conversely, Hochschild (1983) argues that deep acting is beneficial for the organisation because when employees endeavour to align their expression and feelings with the expected emotional expression of the organisation, they appear more genuine to customers. In turn, customers may have a positive perspective of the service and the organisation. That's why, some studies (e.g., Chi et al., 2011; Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009) found that when employees' surface acting strategies are detected by customers, they give a negative impact on customers' outcomes. In fact, Hülshager & Schewe (2011) in their meta-analysis argue that surface acting is not only ineffective emotional labour strategy for employees but also for organisations because it is linked with poor psychological health and impaired performance.

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) examined the relationship between emotional displays (i.e., expression of emotions) and organisational effectiveness. They found that emotional displays that were aligned with organisational goals led to organisational effectiveness. Similarly, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested a positive relationship between observable behaviours (i.e., expressions or behaviours that can be seen or noticed) and employee performance. However, performing emotional labour may have negative consequences for organisations including absenteeism (Nguyen et al., 2016), impaired job performance and job dissatisfaction (Grandey, 2000; Pugliesi, 1999). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also argue that the requirement of service with a smile may down regulate employees' mood and thus decrease their performance at work.

Emerging studies, however, speculate that genuine emotional labour strategy (i.e., a third type of emotional labour strategy) can have positive impacts for employees and customers. Since with genuine emotional labour, employees express their authentic emotions, Humphrey et al. (2015) propose that it should involve less resource depletion (e.g., psychological and physiological) and intellectual challenges. Indeed, some meta-analyses (e.g., Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012) have supported that positive emotional expressions that are authentically experienced can have benefits for individuals. Also, employees demonstrating naturally felt emotions may appear genuine that will have positive impacts on customer service (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Overall, Grandey et al. (2015) emphasise that emotional labour costs for employees (i.e., stress, abuse and task performance costs) outweigh the emotional labour benefits (e.g., positive customer perception about the service) for organisations.

2.5 Dealing with emotional labour and communities of coping

To deal with the negative aspects of emotional labour, employees have used different strategies such as having a rest (Mann, 1997), time-out (Van Maanen, 1986), and substance abuse (i.e., drugs and alcohol) (VanMaanen & Kunda, 1989). Humour is also used as a coping mechanism to deal with emotional labour (Bolton & Boyd, 2003; Shuler & Sypher, 2000; Sutton, 1991) and to enhance persistence at work (Cheng & Wang, 2015). In investigating the mechanisms individuals use in order to cope with emotional labour, scholars have paid significant attention to the role of social support in the workplace. For example, Hochschild (1983) reported that flight attendants depended on each other for emotional support despite the fact that their job was of an individualised nature. A number of scholars supported the notion that employees who have had a challenging experience after interacting with abusive and taxing customers, turn to each other for their emotional support. For instance, McCance, Nye, Wang, Jones, and Chiu (2012) conducted a laboratory-based experiment to investigate the role of sharing in the workplace and found that social sharing after a difficult customer interaction led to reduced anger. These authors conclude that social sharing in the workplace can have a positive impact on employees' mood, and, in turn, can lead to better job performance. These findings suggest that feeling socially supported can mitigate some of the negative effects of emotional labour.

The term “communities of coping” was coined by Korczynski (2003) and encompasses situations when employees seek each other's support to cope with the distress caused by abusive and demanding customers. Korczynski (2003) researched four call centres in Australia and the USA to understand how employees cope with emotional labour. He drew heavily from Brown and Duguid's (1991) concept of communities of practice. According to the perspective of Brown and Duguid (1991), in communities of practice, the informal groups of employees form in the workplace context to solve unique problems instead of reproducing the existing knowledge. Korczynski (2003) argues that Hochschild (1983) used the term “collective emotional labour” (p. 114), but she did not develop this idea in detail. Korczynski (2003) emphasises the collective emotional labour is a significant element in the front line service work because employees may depend on each other to alleviate the burden of emotional labour. In fact, employees share their experiences with their colleagues in the workplace as coworkers are an excellent source to share emotions for various reasons such as similar working context, circumstances and related rich experience with their colleagues.

Scholars in the area have examined how communities of coping form. For instance, Raz (2007) researched three Israeli call centres to examine the conjunctions of communities of coping and communities of practice. He inferred that the group culture and informal socialisation might develop communities of practice into communities of coping. Stroebaek (2013) researched

Danish public family law caseworkers and found that coffee breaks play a vital role in forming communities of coping. Korczynski (2003) suggests that the formation of communities of coping can also take place during the labour process or in “offstage” areas (e.g., restrooms, corridors and corners) of the workplace where employees share their negative emotions (e.g., fear, anger or frustration) with their colleagues. The formation of these communities of coping suggests that the nature of these communities of coping can be informal, but they can play an integral role in dealing with employees strain that results from dealing with taxing customers.

Communities of coping can be beneficial for employees as well as for organisations because they assist employees to reduce the stress and withdrawal intention among employees. Norbeck (1985), for example, demonstrates the significance of collective coping with work emotional strains among nurses. Similarly, Lewis (2005) found that nurses who worked in stressful work environments formed informal communities of coping to provide emotional support to each other. Surana and Singh (2009) examined the emotional labour impact on job burnout among Customer Service Representative of a call-centre in India. They found a weak relationship of emotional labour with job burnout. They concluded that communities of coping serve as a buffer for stress and burnout. Communities of coping can also be significant from the management’s perspectives because it may assist in reducing the stress and withdrawal attention among workers. Consequently, organisations can achieve better outcomes because employees can work efficiently to support organisational aims and objectives.

However, Noon and Blyton (1997) argue that these communities of coping may be a combination of consensus and resistance at the workplace context. This is because, communities of coping can be challenging for management to control because these informal communities may not be completely open to managers’ interventions. Therefore, management encourages workers’ individual coping strategies (e.g., distraction from the stress) instead of forming informal communities of coping. Hochschild (1983) also stated that management does not intend to encourage flight attendants to share their passengers’ issues with their colleagues to avoid spreading anger among other flight attendants.

Social support and the sharing of emotions may not always be beneficial for employees. For example, Hwa (2012) found that the coworker’s support was not as effective in alleviating the burden of emotional labour and instead, resulted in emotional exhaustion. Also, Uy, Lin, and Ilies (2016) found that receiving help from others did not mitigate the harmful stress of emotional behaviour but providing support to others lessened the negative stress of emotional behaviour. Baranik, Wang, Gong & Shi (2017) suggest social sharing as a double-edged sword because it improves employees’ psychological well-being but drains employees’ emotional resources. This is because, social sharing with family, friends or coworkers may improve

employees' confidence but repeating the same negative event again and again may result in emotional exhaustion. Based on such previous confounding outcomes, calls have been made for future research to examine the sharing of negative work incidents and various well-being indicators (Baranik et al., 2017). The current study aims to shed some light into the role of social support at the workplace and whether it can reduce academics' distress caused by emotional labour requirements of their teaching role.

2.6 Emotional labour in academia

The relevance of emotional labour for the academy can be traced back to Hochschild (1983: Appendix C) who argued that emotional labour is an inherent requirement of an academic's role. According to Hochschild (1983), emotional labour is performed in occupations that involve frequent interaction with people, where employees have to manage their own and others emotions, and management monitor and enforce their emotions. In fact, the teaching profession involves a high level of emotional labour (Gann, 2012). This is because, academics have face-to-face or voice-to-voice interaction with different stakeholders, such as students, colleagues and administrative staff as well as non-academic partners (e.g., when applying for grants). During such interactions, academics have to show appropriate emotions according to their organisation's explicit and implicit norms. Moreover, management demonstrates some control over academics' emotions, for instance, through students evaluations and performance reviews. For example, at the end of the semester, students evaluate academics' performance and thus, academics tend to display appropriate emotions according to display rules. Overall, all emotional labour elements identified by Hochschild (1983) are present in academics' profession.

Ogbonna and Harris (2004) argue that the role of lecturer can be viewed through the dramaturgical perspective of Goffman (1959) because the classroom appears as the front stage, the teacher is the actor and students are the audience. Similarly, Bellas (1999) argues that professors have to perform on the stage to provide knowledge to their students while maintaining their interest and enthusiasm for the topic. However, academics' offices can serve as the back stage where they can engage in students' consultation, work for their classes' preparation, research and conferences.

Emotional labour in academia has not been a major area of research for scholars. Existing research has primarily considered emotional labour as a result of the commodification of higher education and the transformation of the student to a customer (Constanti & Gibbs, 2004). Consequently, academic institutions concentrate more on providing greater efficiencies and

quality services to their customers. The commodification of education resulted in the encroachment of managerial practices in higher education and the exploitation of academics (Costanti & Gibbs, 2004). Within this context, Ogbonna and Harris (2004) examined emotional labour with reference to work intensification among academics. In their study, they found that there is widespread discontent and dissatisfaction among university lecturers because of reduced autonomy and increased management roles. Moreover, due to increased managerialism in universities, academics are subject to more casual jobs. In a preliminary review of emotional labour, Barrett (2004) found issues that increased the intensification of emotional labour among casual academics. Barrett (2004) gave a call for a further systematic investigation of the identified issues in the study. In the light of neoliberal practices that have transformed the academia into a service provider, Lawless (2018) presented a review on the emotional labour in academia, particularly in communication studies. Lawless (2018) investigated the way the neoliberal agenda creates an expectation of performing emotional labour from communication faculty, how women experience emotional labour differently and how communication studies aggravate the demand of performing emotional labour.

Research has also connected emotional labour to teaching in higher education (e.g., Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Constanti & Gibbs, 2004; Gaan, 2012; Giroux, 1999; Willmott, 1995). According to Willmott (1995, p. 1002), considering students as customers reinforces the notion of commodification about the university that has also transformed the purpose of a university degree into a commodity or a “meal ticket” (Willmott, 1995, p. 1002). Due to the commodification of education, students may realise their position as customers and their degree as a source of merely acquiring a better job whereas, academics may be dissatisfied with their job because they feel they have limited control over their job due to increased management control. Constanti and Gibbs (2004) argued that the frontline staff members (i.e., academics) perform emotional labour to gain customers’ (i.e., students) satisfaction and revenue for the management.

Ogbonna and Harris (2004) found that the need to be friendly and co-operative with students to receive high teaching evaluations, increased emotional labour requirements for academics and led to widespread discontent among university lecturers. Krishnan and Kasinathan (2017) found a positive relationship between the lecturers’ friendliness and good teaching evaluation scores. These empirical findings suggest that lecturers’ emotional labour is a means towards securing a good rating which is significant as students’ evaluation is one of the main elements in the performance appraisal of academics (Mahoney et al., 2011).

Berry and Cassidy (2013) examined various levels of emotional labour in university academics and compared it with other professions including mental health nurses and a mix of front and

back office employees. The study found that university academics experienced more emotional labour than the compared occupations. Based on their findings and literature review, they developed the Higher Education Emotional Labour (HEEL) model that conceptualises a cyclical process of potential contributing elements of emotional labour in academics and proposes determining elements of the high level of emotional labour among academics. Abery and Gunson (2016) applied HEEL to examine the relationship between extension requests management and students and academics emotional well-being. To assess the emotional labour among teachers, Naqvi (2014) also developed and validated an Emotional Labour Scale for teachers. The statistical analyses of the study revealed that the scale is reliable and valid to measure emotional labour among academics.

Some studies examined the impact of emotional labour in relation to different outcomes among academics. Zhang and Zhu (2008), for example, conducted a study to examine the emotional labour strategies (surface acting, deep acting or authenticity) in relation to job satisfaction among Chinese instructors in college. Zhang and Zhu (2008) found that surface acting is linked to decreased job satisfaction whereas deep acting is related to increased job satisfaction and decreased emotional exhaustion. The empirical findings of Zhang and Zhu (2008) also revealed that emotional labour may result in adverse consequences such as burnout and dissatisfaction among teachers, especially if performed over the long term. These findings confirm the research on emotional labour that argues longer duration interactions require more effort (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, 2002).

Meier (2009) investigated the relationship between six elements of emotional labour (i.e., frequency, variety, duration, surface and deep acting) and burnout among American liberal arts professors. The empirical findings revealed a significant relationship between emotional labour and burnout. Mahoney et al. (2011) examined emotional labour and its relationships with emotional exhaustion, affective commitment and job satisfaction among American college professors. The empirical findings of the study supported a model that demonstrates a direct relationship of emotional labour with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Also, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction mediated the relationship between emotional labour and affective commitment. Gann (2012) conducted a quantitative study to examine the effects of emotional labour on teaching effectiveness. He found a positive relationship between deep acting and teaching effectiveness, whereas a negative relationship between surface acting and teaching effectiveness.

In an empirical research, Tunguz (2016, p. 3) conceptualised emotional labour as “service with authority” in the academic context and found that untenured faculty (i.e., faculty with low power) demonstrate a higher level of emotional labour during their interaction with

students than the tenured faculty (i.e., faculty with high power). Thisera and Bandara (2017) investigated the emotional labour influence on emotional exhaustion of academics in state universities in Sri Lanka. These scholars found a positive impact of emotional labour on emotional exhaustion. Moreover, their empirical findings revealed that the impact of surface acting as compared to deep acting, on emotional exhaustion, is greater. Louw (2017) examined the emotional labour significance in the institutional work performed by Principles for Responsible Management Education (PRME) System advocates in UK business schools. Despite institutional gains such as the sense of community and the accomplishment, negative consequences such as emotional exhaustion and isolation are also experienced. Zhou, Wang, and Wu (2018) investigated the mediating effects of emotional labour on university's playfulness climate (i.e., a relaxed and happy environment) and lecturers' innovation intention and job engagement through the perspective of emotional labour. Moreover, this study explored the impact of emotional labour on academics' innovation intention and engagement behaviour. They found a positive relationship between the university's playfulness climate and academics' deep acting and expression of genuine emotions. But the relationship was insignificant with surface acting. They also found that deep acting has a partial mediation between the university's playfulness climate and innovation, whereas the spontaneous emotions also demonstrate a partial mediation between the university's playfulness climate and job engagement. Overall, these studies have added significantly to the understanding of emotional labour in the academy. Drawing on their findings, this thesis extends and strengthens scholarship on emotional labour by providing qualitative narratives from academics on how emotional labour affects them in their work. Equally as importantly, this thesis goes beyond documenting emotional labour to ascertaining how communities of coping can help academics cope with it.

Some conceptual studies also investigated emotional labour among academics. For example, Hatzinikolakis and Crossman (2010) drew on an in-depth literature review to investigate the basis to argue if business academics in Australia are experiencing emotional labour. These scholars drew two conclusions. First, to make better decisions and strategies, educational managers should be well-informed about the positive and negative aspects of emotional labour. Second, they called for empirical research to investigate if business academics in Australia are experiencing emotional labour. Koster (2011) utilised Hochschild's (1983) work to argue that teaching gender and sexuality entails emotional labour in higher education. She reflects upon her experiences of teaching gender in the higher education context where her students discuss and disclose emotional events such as rape, sexual assault, domestic violence and pornography. She considers how academics can cope with the emotional labour as well as maintain the limits

between the personal and the academic domain within the academic context. In a meta-analysis, Dhanpat (2016) explored emotional labour among university lecturers. The study presents challenges of academics as emotional labourers and suggests recommendations and considerations for academics as well as for higher education institutions.

While studies reveal that university teachers experience emotional labour, there is limited research on how academics deal with the emotional labour requirements, although the same question is addressed in the context of primary education (e.g., Yin, Huang, & Lee, 2017) and secondary education (e.g., Kinman, Wray, & Strange, 2011). To the author's knowledge, in the academic context, only a few studies have revealed that academics use emotional labour as a coping mechanism. For instance, Krishnan and Kasinathan (2017) investigated the emotional labour impact on private university academics in Malaysia. The empirical findings revealed that increased commercialisation and competition does increase emotional labour among lecturers. They found that to cope with emotional dissonance, the academics engage in surface acting and suppression. Also, Ogbonna and Harris (2004) found that academics perform emotional labour as a coping mechanism for the work intensification. Similarly, Constanti and Gibbs (2004) found that employees perform emotional labour for both serving their students and as a coping strategy to hide real feelings. But research indicates that performing emotional labour for a long period can result in job dissatisfaction, burnout (Zhang & Zhu, 2008) and emotional exhaustion (Barber, Grawitch, Carson, & Tsouloupas, 2010) among teachers. Therefore, this study will examine the role of communities of coping as a strategy to deal with the emotional labour in academia.

Chapter Three: Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter reviewed and discussed the literature related to emotional labour in general, communities of coping and emotional labour in academia and in teaching specifically and identified the need to explore the role of communities of coping in managing the occupational emotional labour requirements among academics. This chapter details the research methodology followed in this study. A case is made for the suitability of qualitative methodology for this particular topic followed by a detailed explanation of how the case study method (Yin, 2003) is applied. Semi-structured interviews were considered the most appropriate data collection method to explore how academics cope with emotional labour and the role of communities of coping to that end. The chapter continues with a detailed explanation of the data analysis processes that were followed and concludes with the ethical considerations and limitations of this study.

3.2 Research approach

The selection of the research method depends on the state of the field (Gerring, 2007). As there is no best-fit approach to conduct a research project, a researcher may adopt a quantitative or a qualitative approach. Investigating emotional labour and the role of communities of coping in dealing with emotional labour necessitated a research approach that provides rich data. Given there is not much research on how academics cope with the emotional labour requirements of their teaching roles, or on the role of communities of coping to that end, qualitative research was deemed suitable for this study. Qualitative research with its flexible and inductive nature provides “valuable insights into how people construct meaning in various social settings” (Neuman, 2006, p. 308) and is uniquely suited to examine the complexities of coping with emotional labour.

3.2.1 Qualitative case study

The case study approach is a widely used qualitative research methodology. Case studies are intensive studies of an individual case or a small number of cases that assist in analysing a larger population (Gerring & Cojocaru, 2016). Case study methodology was deemed the most suitable approach to collect the data for this study for several reasons. Yin (2013a) argues that the case study has an apparent advantage when the researcher asks questions of how or why to

investigate a phenomenon within its natural setting and when these questions address such contemporary events where the researcher has little or no control. Also, this approach is useful in maintaining complete and meaningful attributes of real-life events in the investigation (Yin, 2013a) while providing rich contextual knowledge. The case study approach enables researchers to focus on a certain phenomenon in a specific context. In this study, the phenomenon is emotional labour and the context is academia.

This thesis draws on a single case study of Australian business academics. Specifically, this is a critical case as defined by Flyvbjerg (2006, p. 230): “A case with a purpose to achieve information that permits logical deductions of the type: if this is (not) valid for this case, then it applies to all (no) cases”. In other words, the case study is used to provide insight into the issue of coping with emotional labour, while Australian academics are of secondary interest. As business academics all across the world are expected to teach and engage in emotional labour, Australian academics are a good example to study coping with emotional labour.

Hammersley’s (1990, p. 61) criteria of plausibility and credibility are employed in the study to measure the validity of findings. Plausibility assesses an assertion is “very likely to be true given our existing knowledge” whereas credibility enquires the accuracy of the investigator’s judgement regarding the phenomena under investigation, research circumstances and researcher’s attributes. According to Hammersley (1990, p. 74), critics need to evaluate “both the likelihood of an error given the nature of the phenomenon and the chances of error because of the character of the researcher’s or informant’s access to it and/or because of bias”. Hence, Hammersley (1990, p. 60) emphasises that research findings must “not only be valid but also relevant to issues of public concern”. This topic is significant to individuals and its findings present a contribution to the extant literature of emotional labour and higher education, thus, this topic presents both sub-criteria for relevance.

3.3 Research design

This section discusses the selected data collection methods in the study, the interview protocol and data analysis.

3.3.1 Data collection and recruitment of participants

The multiple uses of data resources are one of the significant attributes of a case study, that can result in increased credibility (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2013b). As the triangulation of the data collection provides rigour and depth in the research (Flick, 2002), this study collects the data

both from the primary and secondary data sources. To achieve the study aim of exploring the role of communities of coping in academia, the researcher utilised interviews as a method of primary data collection. The investigator conducted semi-structured interviews because they present the benefits of both structured and unstructured interviews (Flick, 2002). On the one hand, these interviews are structured to explore the phenomenon under investigation. On the other hand, the flexible nature of semi-structured interviews allows the investigator to probe for more information based on interviewees' answers. Thus, this technique enables the researcher to collect more nuanced, in-depth responses from participants' perspectives and experiences.

To collect the primary data, the researcher sent an email advertisement to the Heads of Department and their executive assistants as well as Associate Deans and their executive assistants across different business faculties in Sydney, Australia. The advertisement email requested that senior faculty members forward on the invitation to their staff in their faculty or departments. This method was selected to recruit participants to minimise any direct contact with the investigator and mitigate any risk of perceived coercion to participate. To be selected for this study, the interviewees needed to be on a balanced workload (in Australian universities, this is split as 40% teaching, 40% research and 20% service) or a teaching-only role. All academics who responded were contacted further by emails to arrange the suitable interview time and location. At the end of each interview, the investigator employed snowball sampling to ask participants to forward her details to any of their colleagues who might be appropriate for this study. The snowballing technique is useful to access the individuals of interests and develop a large sample for the study. Snowballing has been used in previous studies of emotional labour (e.g., Dahling & Perez, 2010; Shani, Uriely, Reichel, & Ginsburg, 2014) and is considered appropriate when sensitive topics, such as emotional labour, are examined.

3.3.2 Interview protocol

Prior to the commencement of the interview, the investigator provided a brief background and aims of the research to the respondents and asked to sign the Participant Information and Consent Form (PICF). The PICF details issues of confidentiality and anonymity and clarifies that participants can withdraw at any time before, during or after the interview, without giving a reason and without consequence. No interviewees took that option. At the beginning of the interview, the investigator asked participants to provide some basic demographic information that consisted of age, gender, employment status (e.g., full-time/part-time, casual, permanent), level, employment designation, teaching experience, teaching postgraduate or undergraduate, number of enrolled students and tutoring team. Table 2 below provides this demographic

information. The interview protocol acted as a guide for interview questions (see Appendix B). The interview questions with academics focused on exploring stressful situations with students in the class, in one-on-one meetings and online, as well as on the ways they cope with such situations. However, as is expected in semi-structured interviews, the researcher had to deviate from the protocol as necessary to explore the issues that were unexpected but were brought up by the interviewees.

Table 2: Participants demographics

Participants pseudonym	Disciplines	Professional role	Years of teaching	Teaching UG/PG	Student enrolled in current units
Jemima	Management	Lecturer	11–15	UG & PG	500-1000
Sullivan	Management	Lecturer	16–20	UG & PG	1000+
James	Management	Senior Lecturer	11–15	PG	<50
Bruce	Management	Adjunct	1–5	PG	50–100
Nancy	Management	Lecturer	11–15	PG	50-100
Jack	Management	Senior Lecturer	11–15	UG	1000+
William	Management	Emeritus Professor	20+	UG	<50
Harvey	Management	Associate Lecturer	6–10	UG	500–1000
George	Management	Professor	20+	UG & PG	300–500
Maria	Management	Adjunct	1–5	UG	500–1000
Elizabeth	Management	Adjunct	1–5	UG & PG	<50–100
Flavia	Management	Adjunct	1–5	PG	50–100
Harry	Management	Associate Lecturer	6–10	UG	1000+
Zara	Management	Senior Lecturer	20+	UG	100-300
Florence	Management	Associate Lecturer	16–20	UG	1000+
David	Management	Associate Professor	20+	UG/PG	500-1000
Kate	Management	Senior Lecturer	16–20	UG	1000+

A total of seventeen face-to-face semi-structured interviews were undertaken with academics from various universities in Sydney, Australia for this study. Seven interviews were conducted in academics' offices and ten interviews were conducted over the phone, either because of geographical distance or to facilitate scheduling. Interviews lasted between 30 and 60 minutes. With participants' permission, the interviews were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim. Also, the researcher took notes during the interview. Subsequently, all interviews were transcribed and checked with the written notes taken during the interview to assure the data reliability.

For the secondary data, the researcher used the published media articles, videos, interviews and other research articles and reports. Denzin and Lincoln (1994) speculate that the triangulation of the data will reduce the bias developing from a single source or a single type of data. The researcher studied the data available from the aforementioned secondary sources along with the primary sources – interviews, to not only acquire information in-depth but also validate study findings.

3.4 Data analysis

Interview data have been subjected to a thematic coding procedure using NVIVO 12 software, following the six-phase process identified by Braun and Clarke (2006). Thematic analysis approach identifies, analyses and describes themes present in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The first phase consists of familiarisation with the data from multiple readings of verbatim transcripts of recorded interviews to acquire a deep understanding of the data. In phase two, initial codes are generated by identifying attributes of the data that is of interest to the researcher and relevant to the phenomenon of the study. The third phase involves the searching of different interrelated codes and organising them into potential themes. In phase four, themes were reviewed across all the data, and a “thematic map” was drawn. Phase five consisted of refining and naming of themes. Once all these phases were completed, the researcher proceeded to the sixth phase that consisted of producing the report of the analysis. Appendix C provides the themes that are used for this study, their meaning and a representative quote from the interviews.

3.5 Ethical issues and consideration

This research involved collecting the primary data from human subjects, therefore, before commencing the fieldwork the ethics approval was acquired from Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee in March 2018 (reference number: 5201800109). Prior to the

commencement of the interview, a brief background and aims of the research were provided to each respondent. The participants were made aware that their identities would be kept confidential throughout the entire project. Participant's Information and Consent Form was presented to participants to acquire their signature to agree with the terms and condition of the research. The PICF also acknowledged maintaining the confidentiality of the respondents and their rights to withdraw at any time during the interview with or without reason.

3.6 Limitations

This study identifies some limitations that must be considered during interpretation of findings and also must be addressed in future research. According to Aaltio and Heilmann (2009), the limitation of case study research is the ability to generalise, but Stake (1995) proposes that as traditional studies do better in enhancing generalisation to a population, therefore, case studies should not be selected for this purpose. As case studies expand and generalise theories (Yin, 2003), thus, case studies are perfect for analytical generalisation. Yin (2003) suggested that case study should follow the same logic as experiments: replication. Hence, on the basis of this limitation, future work could replicate this design and utilise in different contexts.

Another limitation of this study is that it relies on a limited number of interviews. Though one can never be sure that gathering new data will not lead to new insights, sufficient data were assumed when nothing new was being added by additional interviews. Third, this study is limited to a research period of almost ten months. Therefore, to make this research project manageable, this thesis focused only on the emotional labour requirements of academics in their "teaching role". Future research should explore the emotional labour requirements in other aspects of academics such as research.

Chapter Four: Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings derived from the interviews conducted. It begins by presenting how the interviewees understood and responded to the pressure of managerialism in the higher education context. It continues with an examination of teaching practices and their relation to emotional labour. Further, surface acting, deep acting and genuine emotional labour are explored followed by the discussion on how colleagues facilitate academics in coping.

4.2 Theme one: Context for increasing emotional labour

4.2.1 Managerialism

The interviews revealed that managerialism has influenced academics greatly even to the extent where they adopt the relevant language. For example, Zara (Senior Lecturer) recalled that there was a time when academics with degrees were considered special whereas today teachers are seen as “*servants*”. She, however, explained:

“Not that there’s anything wrong with being a public servant. I just think the image of the [teacher’s] role has declined in their [students’] eyes much more. Maybe that’s because I teach business students? I feel they [students] think being a manager is the pinnacle – rather than being an academic. They often as a customer, I think they see it’s my role to help them rather than I’m there to assess how well they do their work – in justifying me awarding them their degree”.

David (Associate Professor) highlighted that there has been a general shift in the culture of a whole “*students as customers*”. He described this shift as a challenge for academics because, on the one hand, they have to provide customers what they want and, on the other hand, to maintain their own “*personal integrity as a professional academic*”.

Students evaluating academics at the end of the semester also reinforced the notion of managerialism in academia. Zara (Senior Lecturer), for instance, explained that currently they are constrained by PowerPoint slides. She stated that as students rate them every year, academics feel pressure to provide students the unit notes on PowerPoint slides. So, she was imagining about those academics who do not use PowerPoint slides, may get lower scores in students’ evaluations.

James (Senior Lecturer) pointed out that while he does not have issues from students in his teaching role, however, the policies and bureaucracy in the university stress him out. David (Associate Professor) expressed disappointment about the bureaucratisation of academia and stated that despite him wanting to stay longer at work, he took the option of “*an early retirement*” because he feels that “*things have got so bad*” in his university. A long-serving academic provided a good comparison of the academic work over the period in relation to bureaucratisation:

“I think the major problem is the bureaucratisation of the teaching process, so I finished teaching at 11:00 this morning, so that’s two and a half hours ago. I’ve spent the whole time since then with technical issues, online issues, trying to match up students – late essays, trying to match up the essays to the student ID, because we now have anonymous marking, to the names of the students that I spoke to. So, 20 years ago that wouldn’t have happened, so that’s two and a half hours of what I see as frustrating time-wasting activity. That’s not what I call teaching, but it’s necessary now to the way that we have to work” (George, Professor).

Moreover, the bureaucratisation of the academic work eroded academics’ autonomy. For instance, George (Professor) provided a comparison about this erosion of the autonomy.

“I think that [previously] academic staff had a lot more freedom regarding we dealt with students, for better or for worse and it was definitely less standardised and less bureaucratised than it is now. So, there’s much more formal control at least in this university and a very bureaucratic approach to the teaching process, I think. So, they talk about agility and flexibility all the time, but the actual processes are heavily structured and time-consuming. So look, after all these years I still actually love being in the classroom, but everything that’s so time-consuming around that takes a lot of the pleasure out of it. Which I hate to say it, but that’s the way I feel about it”.

4.2.2 Increased number of students

Participants reported a significant increase in the number of students attending universities. They gave various reasons for the increase in students’ enrolments. Florence (Associate Lecturer), for example, revealed that universities are now shifted into “*money-making ventures*” and hence, they enrol many students to make money. She inferred that the pressure is on academics to get through students in the course, so they can continue to bring in money.

James (Senior Lecturer) provided another reason for students' increase. He stated that more individuals want to learn as compared to before. However, he pointed to the challenges increased numbers bring, particularly with international students. David (Associate Professor) also pointed out:

"I think there is a huge change in the composition of students in that there is a big growth in the number of students in universities and second there is a big growth in overseas students, particularly from Asia who do not speak English very well or who do not understand English. What that means in terms of teaching is that you can't follow the complex thoughts or new ideas and you are stuck in the simple stuff repeated over and over which makes teaching a bit of boring and frustrating".

He also emphasised that an increased number of enrolments is challenging for academics because they have additional administrative duties such as plagiarism, special consideration of students and complaints. William (Emeritus Professor) compared between teaching a large and small number of students:

"I'm sure that if I had to teach four courses with large numbers of students it would not be so pleasant, and I have done that in the past and it's a much more difficult situation. I think the enjoyment of teaching is greatest when it's not so much and you have good students, then it's very enjoyable. But it can be very stressful and very difficult under other circumstances".

4.2.3 Emphasis on research

Universities pay a great deal of attention to research that has resulted in frustration among some respondents because they think universities do not value teaching in comparison to research. For example, Harry (Associate Lecturer) revealed his disappointment about the disproportionate balance between teaching and research. He repeatedly highlighted his frustration:

"I get a lot of satisfaction in my teaching. I think that ultimately, I do feel quite frustrated that it's just not very valued. If you don't research you're just not important, you're not, I don't feel valued in this organisation. No".

Furthermore, Kate (Senior Lecturer) mentioned that teaching is considered as the second priority in the academic landscape. She revealed that publishing in A* journal, considered as a "clear-cut" success in the profession. She also described that the emphasis on research has placed an enormous pressure on the academics who feel that their primary role is to teach.

Moreover, James (Senior Lecturer) was concerned that academics cannot teach the way they would like to because it is difficult to divide their time between teaching and research. Harry (Associate Lecturer) shared his perspective that *“if anything being a good teacher is, by some, seen as a distraction”*.

Florence (Associate Lecturer) also highlighted that students come to universities because of universities' ranking and reputations. Harry (Associate Lecturer) further explained that students pay fees to acquire education and they *“deserve a good quality, energetic and enthusiastic lesson”*, so when they leave the class they feel that they have learnt something. Conversely, James (Senior Lecturer) expressed that academics do disservice to students because they focus on research. He explained that universities provide incentives to encourage academics to do research. Harry (Associate Lecturer) criticised universities that say they are giving a *“grant”*, but they actually give *“money”* to academics for research. He also stated that universities give *“buyouts”* to academics that allow them to not teach and he really viewed these deals as *“heartbreaking”*. Furthermore, Florence (Associate Lecturer) noted that teaching goes unrecognised in the university. She further explained that research is a very critical factor in universities because they want to be ranked highly in the top 100 and *“the only way to climb up the wall is research”*. George (Professor) explained about the research priority for universities and academics:

“We're meant to be leading researchers. We're meant to be publishing the house town and the people that we work for say that they value teaching, but it's all – you're entitled to be sceptical about that; research outputs remain the really critical thing for promotion, status, further travel grants, research grants, all that sort of stuff”.

He further highlighted there is pressure in teaching *“a much higher level of expectation about research output, profile, winning research grants, media engagements”*.

4.2.4 Technology

The introduction of technological advancement further intensifies academics' work especially when they have inadequate technical support. For instance, Kate (Senior Lecturer) stated:

“We need people to specialise in technology solutions and to help teachers. Our job is to teach and to do research. Our job, in my view, is not to understand every technology out there. I think the university needs to provide a better system to support academics and provide the technology we need to embed in our courses”.

Bruce (Adjunct) expressed that technological advancements do not always have a very positive impact on students learning. Harry (Associate Lecturer) also shared his thought on this perspective:

“When I get someone coming to me and saying oh well we want to use VR in the classroom and I say well that’s fantastic, I love VR, but what does that solve? What does that help us teach the students? How does that increase engagement? How does it help them learn? How does that help me to reach program learning outcomes? I get frustrated at that specific stuff, but again I think that’s more to do with the people trying to tick boxes and hit an innovation criterion rather than thinking about our students and what they are trying to learn”.

The technological advancement doesn’t only intensify academics’ work but also diminish teaching pleasure. For instance, George (Professor) stated about technological issues:

“It’s really frustrating and tiring and it’s quite stressful, because – so all that’s happening and at the same time the learning platforms are constantly being changed. So, we’ve just changed from the old [system name] to [system name] this semester. There’s not adequate support for the change, technical support. So, I’m not alone in feeling much higher levels of anxiety, if not outright stress about that. So, now I know it all sounds grim but look, I honestly think it is. I think that the pleasure’s being sapped out of teaching by all these processes and structures around it for me”.

4.3 Theme Two: Teaching

All interviewees shared that they like teaching. James (Senior Lecturer) said that he enjoys teaching those moments when he sees he is helping students in their learning. Flavia (Adjunct) shared:

“I spend a lot of time meeting personally with students to do personal mentoring. So, I just don’t punish them for not knowing something. I try to give them all the tools they can have to succeed. So, it takes a lot of time and lots of energy, but I think it is worth because I can see the evolution of the students from the first day to the last where some students were very quiet, at the end they are quite outspoken and comfortable with the materials. So, I feel that I have done my job”.

Nancy (Lecturer) expressed that teaching people and sharing in their learning journey is an absolute privilege. Similarly, Harry (Associate Lecturer) shared his perspective:

“I’ve got this time on this planet and I think that the best use of my skills is to help people engage with the world more critically and learn how to learn things and work better together. So, not only I love doing it, I think it’s a really important thing that I find a lot of meaning and satisfaction in”.

However, Jemima (Lecturer) said that she likes teaching very much but not marking as much. Flavia (Adjunct) said that she enjoys teaching but the evaluation of students’ assessments and attendance issues create stress.

4.3.1 Classroom

Students’ disruption in the class is identified as the main stressor for respondents. Bruce (Adjunct), for instance, shared the most difficult situations in the classroom context is that when students talk or concentrate on something else in the classroom than learning. He expressed that it is very irritating *“when they’re making noise and distracting people who are trying to listen”*. He emphasised that such situations could be more difficult when students either want to be smart or want to argue with their teacher. Similarly, Harry (Associate Lecturer) shared the stressful interaction in the classroom context:

“I don’t make them [students] come to lecture. The lectures are entirely optional. I think what I found frustrating is just a real lack of respect for the other students in the classroom. I found that incredibly frustrating, in the same way, that I would find generally distractive behaviours in the classroom quite frustrating and I think that’s generally where my frustrations in the classroom come from. So it’s where people are actively choosing to make the environment harder for people to learn in by choosing very selfish and distractive behaviours”.

In addition to students’ distractive behaviour, James (Senior Lecturer) said that it is also frustrating *“when you ask questions, and nobody says anything and when you are guessing”* reasons of their silence. Zara (Senior Lecturer) stated:

“When you’re sort of pulling teeth and trying to get people to be involved in the discussion – or they haven’t done the reading. Then I think it’s a lot harder work”.

There are various reasons identified about students’ disengagement in the class. One of the prominent reasons for students’ disengagement with learning, is the excessive use of their devices in the classroom, a point described by many academics (e.g., David and Flavia). Kate (Senior Lecturer) emphasised:

“So, there is the difficult situation that keeps in coming at the moment is that students are not engaged, messaging on their Facebook or mobiles or they walk out the lecture before the lecture finishes. They don’t have resilience or persistence to understand learning.”

To engage students, Jack (Senior Lecturer) described that he tries to make his lectures fun to his students in order to keep them engaged in the subject. Also, Flavia (Adjunct) shared that to engage students who are quiet in the class, she *“just cracks a joke, so humour has really worked well here”*.

While Jemima (Lecturer) described that academics should be enthusiastic in students’ learning, David (Associate Professor) mentioned that they are required to be enthusiastic at times even when they don’t feel any enthusiasm. He explained that students’ evaluation form asks, *“Is the lecturer enthusiastic about his [course] material?”*. He explained that academics have to manage both their and students’ emotions to achieve a good teaching score. He says that if academics do not meet the emotional labour requirement of being enthusiastic, their supervisors would know that he is not enthusiastic about the course material. Additionally, he emphasised that despite being competent and prompted by PowerPoint slides, it would be difficult for academics to be enthusiastic for a long period of time. Similarly, Zara (Senior Lecturer) expressed:

“I guess one of the things I don’t like is that there’s been pressure to have two-hour lectures. When I was at university you would only ever have an hour at a time. I think it’s pretty impossible to be interesting for two hours”.

4.3.2 Consultation

The demand for higher marks was the most common problem in a one-on-one consultation. For instance, when asked about difficult interactions with students in a one-on-one consultation, Jack (Senior Lecturer) pointed out that *“the difficulty is always around assessment”*. He explained that students claim that they get these marks, but they wanted higher marks. He further emphasised that it can *“lead a degree of conflict that escalates on both sides”*. David (Associate Professor) explained that whereby academics have to mark against a rubric assessment policy, students have *“got many more opportunities to challenge [academics]”*.

Harvey (Associate Lecturer) shared that students want one-on-one consultation, even when academics have provided all the support in the class. Thus, he finds it frustrating to have to repeat the same things that have already mentioned in class. Another academic, Zara (Senior

Lecturer) described that she does not find one-on-one consultation stressful, but sometimes students struggle with their work and think that their meeting with her will sort out the problem. She further said that it is really difficult to deal with students who don't have university skills or are struggling with skills such as essay writing. She states that teaching those university skills is not her area and there are other experts who help students to develop those skills.

Emotional resilience is significant in managing emotions in tough or stressful interactions. For instance, James (Senior Lecturer) recalled a situation where he failed a student and he received calls from the student's father who even threatened him about losing his job. He described, *"I did not do anything wrong, so, I am quite resilient in those more stressful situations"*.

4.3.3 Online context

There is a considerable increase of instances of online interaction between academics and students that results in high work intensification. George (Professor), for instance, mentioned that sometimes he has *"well over 1300 emails"*. In particular, during the assessment period, online interaction is high between academics and students. Harvey (Associate Lecturer) explained:

"So, things can be quite stressful because you have to leave all your other duties and start responding to emails. Sometimes when you sit behind an email it's not just 30 minutes, you will spend hours responding to a student".

Bruce (Adjunct) shared one of the online interaction issues with students:

"I think the most difficult thing is when they're asking questions that are actually really difficult to explain over email and that means you get a lot of back and forth and a lot of questioning. That can be difficult in that it's quite a time-consuming".

Kate (Senior Lecturer) mentioned that students just come out from the school and they have not learned yet that how the university environment works. She mentioned that students expect them to be available "24/7" to respond to their emails although the university has a clear policy about answering their emails. Similarly, George (Professor) described, *"The worst thing [about email contacts] without a doubt is the expectation of an immediate response"*. Harvey (Associate Lecturer) explained that if they do not respond on time, they may get a negative response on students' evaluation.

George (Professor) commented that *"it is an inferior form of communication"*. He compared online context with a face-to-face meeting and explained that if he sits with a student, he can see the student's body language as well. However, he also acknowledges that online context

might be better so that academics can think a bit more and then give students a “*considered response*”. However, James (Senior Lecturer) emphasised that despite spending time writing emails, we have to be more careful in wording them because we don’t physically see the students’ responses.

4.3.4 Experience

The experience was a significant factor in gaining improvement in teaching among respondents. For instance, Florence (Associate Lecturer) shared her personal experience that when she started teaching, she was saying “*Oh my God, what I was thinking [about teaching]*” but she says that with the passage of time it does improve. Elizabeth (Adjunct) stated that PhD students are often tutors and have not been adequately prepared for teaching and thus they pay a very high price in terms of their “*own mental health*”. This was also acknowledged by Maria (Adjunct) who is a PhD student. She shared that when she started teaching she was sleeping badly and “*was highly stressed all the time*”. However, Jack (Senior Lecturer) shared that he is now at that stage where he feels more control in his job and content of the course, so students do not challenge him directly. William (Emeritus Professor) acknowledged that with experience, teaching becomes less stressful.

4.4 Theme Three: Emotional labour

The academics’ lecturing role is consistent with Goffman’s (1959) front stage and back stage as Maria (Adjunct) revealed:

“You want them to have a great experience. So, I have to come to it well prepared and with a bit of magic for them, I think. I have to keep finding that and if it’s not working I have to think, well, why, and what else can I do”?

Moreover, Maria (Adjunct) also described about academics’ back stage duties:

“I think academics, the demands on them, students don’t see. So, it’s course preparation, it’s student demands, it’s marking, it’s endless really. It’s many, many hours and it’s also many hours of unpaid work [for adjuncts]. The preparation time, you get a standard rate for what you’re doing but it doesn’t anywhere near cover the time that you actually spend”.

All informants described different aspects of emotional labour. It was evident from their interviews that they used surface acting, deep acting or genuine emotional labour to demonstrate emotions according to their organisational norms.

4.4.1 Surface acting

Many academics described that one of the most significant emotional labour requirements for them is to remain professional. To meet that emotional labour requirement, Jemima (Lecturer) emphasised:

“You need to be professional in front of the class regardless of what’s going on in your life and at different times you may have different challenges that make you stressful, unhappy and that definitely have an impact on how you feel but you need to be professional to your students”.

She further stated that a professional academic is normal, calm, patient and enthusiastic with his work even though he feels *“the internal feeling”*. Bruce (Adjunct) shared:

“So, you’ve got to try to balance that, and that could be really, really difficult, particularly if the student’s being really disruptive, you have to shut them down fairly harshly. But at the same time, the concern as well, if I do that, I might shut the entire class down and I will not get any further engagement from them for that class”.

Being mindful is another emotional labour requirement for academics, in particular when interacting students whether in the classroom, consultation and online context. For instance, while dealing with students with their marks, Sullivan (Lecturer) mentioned, *“I am mindful I am not calling out or challenging students that you have done something definitely wrong”*. James (Senior lecturer) described that in the classroom context at the university level, even when students are inappropriate, *“I need to keep my responses in checks. So, there is lots of that going on in the back of your mind when you are in a situation of course”*.

4.4.2 Deep acting

Interviewees were found engaging in deep acting to display emotions according to organisational explicit rules. Maria (Adjunct), for example, reinterpreted her role as a teacher and tried to meet the expectation of the academic profession:

“I hadn’t viewed myself as a teacher and so I worried that, how can I call myself a teacher? But I have to call myself a teacher in order to stand up in front of these people because they have expectations of expertise and I worried that I didn’t have that. So, I think I’m hard on myself”.

Another significant emotional labour requirement for academics is to demonstrate caring for students. Elizabeth (Adjunct) described that she tries to remember her students' names because she thinks it is imperative for academics *"to build that rapport with each student so that they know that you care about each one of them"*. Furthermore, she described about interacting with students:

"They [students] learn every day from me I hope. I value them, and I don't find them stressful. I find it's a part of teaching, isn't it? To be challenged".

She also highlighted the significance of understanding differences between individuals:

"We all have a different moral compass and a different philosophical framework. Therefore, we should be able to discuss points of disagreement respectfully with each other and not get into a heated exchange".

Florence (Associate Lecturer) had to reframe when recalling one of her students who was demanding higher marks. She thought, *"He was not aggressive to me, he was aggressive to the marks"*. In a similar situation, Jemima (Lecturer) reconsidered that the student was stressed.

4.4.3 Genuine emotional labour

Interviewees are engaged not only in surface and deep acting but also in genuine emotional labour. A long-serving academic revealed:

"One of the things that I've done which I'd never done before, as I've actually been talking to a lot of the more junior staff. They say to me, as people do Monday morning, how are you? I say I'm terrible. I'm really terrible. I'm tired and I'm stressed and I'm busy because I thought it was that as a leader if you like, I should stop pretending that everything was great. So, it's actually been good because that's then given them the space to say yeah, I'm feeling a bit the same" (George, Professor).

Bruce (Adjunct) gave the example of genuine emotional labour with students:

"Because you're pulling apart somebody's work and, telling them, fairly bluntly, why it's not deserving of a higher mark and students often have a different impression to what you have".

However, Elizabeth (Adjunct) described that how she promotes the expression of genuine and spontaneous emotions among her students:

“We never agree on everything. Nobody will ever always. Learning to share those ideas – it comes back to the teacher. Making sure that everybody in the classroom, can share their views and they won’t be laughed at. They won’t be disrespected. All views are valued. I establish that right from the word goes. Perhaps that’s why the students feel that they can express different points of view”.

4.5 Theme Four: Communities of coping

4.5.1 Reasons for sharing

Many reasons are identified for sharing with colleagues from the collected data. The first being debriefing to colleagues. Bruce (Adjunct) mentioned that the reason for sharing with colleagues is *“a venting and cathartic exercise”*. Sullivan (Lecturer) stated that a small group of colleagues can serve as a *“helping board”*. She repeatedly highlighted her perspective, *“Other times you just come out of your office and you look for which one of your buddies are around at the moment when you need to get off your chest now”*.

Another significant reason for turning to colleagues is seeking for advice. For example, Maria (Adjunct) revealed that whenever she is in doubt she asks from experienced people to solve issues. George (Professor) emphasised that he passes on those people who can provide *“a sensible piece of advice”* rather than personalise issues. Similarly, Zara (Senior Lecturer) stated that she would share with only those on whom she trusts or who have the same views as her.

Getting confirmation from colleagues is also identified as a reason to discuss with colleagues. For example, Sullivan (Lecturer) stated:

“You are looking for advice in terms of just building some confidence. It is often just a confirmatory process that somebody says you have done the right thing, and everything will be okay”.

However, Kate (Senior Lecturer) shared:

“I find support in my teaching team. We have a good team in my teaching course and that helps. But we don’t have all the answers and nor we do have time in our job to find all the answers”.

Despite not having all the answers it is very helpful to discuss with colleagues, a point made by George (Professor):

“Even if you can’t get a solution, just the simple fact of knowing that other people are thinking what you’re thinking is helpful and sometimes, of course, it does lead to

solutions that you find that people are working in a different way around these problems. It can be useful, but even if it isn't, it's still useful I think".

All respondents acknowledged that it is quite helpful to discuss with their colleagues. For instance, Jemima (Lecturer) said that her colleagues help her a great deal emotionally and that assistance is not limited to teaching. Additionally, sharing with their colleagues helps academics to combat the sense of loneliness. Florence (Associate Lecturer), for example, shared an event when her student was claiming higher marks. She recalled when she shared that incident with her colleagues, *"We were sitting around and discussing it and I think, it removes any sort of isolation you have got"*. Harry (Associate Lecturer) also shared his thoughts on this perspective:

"I think I find it really good working on a team. You know the academy is an incredibly lonely institution to work, especially as you become more senior and you're spending your time sitting in your office writing grants and doing research, and so yeah I find it incredibly helpful to be working with a team that you can commiserate, share and work with".

4.5.2 Avoidance from sharing

Harvey (Associate Lecturer) shared that they had a tutor room in his previous university where tutors used to share their experiences. However, David (Associate Professor) explained that people had more interactions with colleagues as compared to the present time. He further explained that 15 years ago, there used to be *"classic communities of coping"* and academics used to come in a specified room or corridor around 4 or 5 o'clock to *"unload"* themselves. In particular, he mentioned that the *"humour"* acted as the main lubricant to feel relief. Conversely, he noted that the space of communities of coping has *"narrowed especially in business schools"*. He explained this using his personal example:

"I am basically in a business school that is increasingly populated by people from overseas who: 1) don't have a union culture, 2) don't know anything about Australia, 3) are uninterested. So, in our business school, we are interested in having an international orientation much more than domestic. So, your research and your teaching are much more oriented in general problems than it is addressing problems exist in Australia".

Kate (Senior Lecturer) also gave a reason for avoidance of sharing:

“We don’t usually talk about [our failures], for example, in research where we get rejection except we have very close peers you know and may be people we are co-authoring with. So, I think, academics aren’t great at collaborating and working on failures together in that would be seen as we are not doing well in our jobs”.

Elizabeth (Adjunct) pointed out the significance of casualisation in sharing with colleagues:

“We are contracted and if we show any weakness, any lack of ability in terms of coping with the students, coping with the volume, then we won’t get employed. I don’t think sessional academics are in a position to do that”.

When further asked if new academics share with their colleagues, she emphasised:

“We don’t know from one semester how much work we’re going to get. It’s very, very insecure and probably a new teacher in the profession who was struggling with their own stress levels or the emotional drains of the classroom probably wouldn’t say anything and would probably just over the course find something else to do and leave. We have no security whatsoever. How can we share any concerns with our employer institutions”?

Moreover, university culture affects that how academics deal with other colleagues. Bruce (Adjunct) also pointed out:

“It also depends on the actual university. Where I work now, there’s a sense of not much connection between the other staff, you’re sort of on your own, you go and teach your allotted hours, and then you come back next week. Whereas in another university, I tend to feel more integrated into the department and the rest of the adjuncts”.

Nancy (Lecturer) emphasised:

“If you’re in an environment where you aren’t able to talk about your teaching outcomes with your colleagues, then that’s a cultural issue with the institution, rather than the individual academic”.

Harvey (Associate Lecturer) shared that at the induction for new academics in the university, they were advised that as a part of the business school policy, they can disagree with someone but shouldn’t be disagreeable. He further explained the policy and its consequences:

“So, it’s okay that someone can have a different point of view from you, but then to not allow the differences to stop you from working with the person. So, you stay and work together, the disadvantage of that is that when people disagree they suppress their feelings, they suppress that emotion, or I don’t want to be the team member who everybody will look at negatively. So, you feel unsatisfied, you feel unhappy, you can’t

just voice it out because when you voice it out then you look, you become the bad person in the team. So, we don't get a chance to communicate our feelings".

4.5.3 Consequence of avoiding sharing

George (Professor) presented the concern of avoiding sharing:

"People just go into their office and they think they're the only one that's under these stresses. They think it's a sign of weakness not to talk about it to other people and I think that's really worrying because I think there are really high levels of stress amongst most teaching staff in universities at the moment, really badly high actually".

He further emphasised about the consequences of not sharing, *"It could be really frightening I think for the amount of stress and loneliness that people would feel without that".*

Harry (Associate Lecturer) stated:

"If you change nothing, then nothing will change, and I think that the issues that I have and the frustrations I have with the academy are systematic institutional ones and unless we talk about these things, they won't change. They won't. If we all keep sitting in our offices doing research, recycling what we taught last semester and telling students we only reply once a week, then I don't know what we're doing here. I don't know what the point of it is".

4.6 Theme Five: Other coping strategies

In lieu of sharing with colleagues, some interviewees reported to confiding to their family members to solve work problems. For instance, Jack (Senior Lecturer) speaks with his wife to share his work-related problems. Flavia (Adjunct) said that besides sharing with her partner, she spends time with her friends outside. She says that there is not necessarily anything you can do about emotional labour. She emphasised that emotional labour does not disappear, but we have to make sure, *"It doesn't corrupt [our] personal life".*

For Zara (Senior Lecturer), quiet time is important. She says, *"Sometimes you just sit and not speak and not be spoken to – that's really priceless for getting my head back together".* Others prefer to involve in activities and hobbies that separate them from their work. For instance, David (Associate Professor) likes to exercise, Bruce (Adjunct) likes to do Japanese martial arts to escape. Harry (Associate Lecturer) emphasised the significance of hobbies and activities:

“I think one of the big problems with a lot of people, especially when they are early in their careers – and you can find a lot of research about this – is where people don’t have hobbies and things outside of work. So I like to play video games, which I find that I can totally zone in on and I can find something that’s intellectually stimulating that I don’t think about work and isn’t work. So video games, spending time with my partner – I love cooking – just finding things that I can do with my hands that isn’t working on program learning outcomes”.

Elizabeth (Adjunct) stated that it is a good idea to prepare academics for the “*burden of emotional labour*”. She suggested, “*professional development workshops*” could help and support academics. William (Emeritus Professor) also advised, “*One could perhaps take a course or do more reading*”. He shared his personal experience that he took a course that was beneficial in managing his teaching role successfully. He recommended that universities should provide counselling services to students as well as the staff in a way that when they attend the course, they do not think themselves inappropriate or imperfect but, in a sense, that they are learning new skills.

4.7 Conclusion

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the findings that emerged from analysing themes. The findings reveal that managerialism, emphasis on research, increased number of students and technical issues have substantially increased stress among academics. Moreover, the findings identify the emotional labour requirements of academics and confirm that Australian business academics are engaged in emotional labour. Finally, the study finds the importance of the communities of coping role and other coping strategies in managing emotional labour requirements of academics.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This study provides empirical evidence that Australian business academics perform emotional labour and as such, it supports Hochschild's (1983: Appendix C) argument that academics' work involves emotional labour. The frequent interaction with people (e.g., students, colleagues), meant that participants have to manage their emotions as well as those of others. Although emotional labour demands have been studied in the school context (Maxwell & Riley, 2017), this study contributes to understanding academics' emotional labour requirements in the higher education context. As such, this chapter discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter in light of the emotional labour scholarship. The chapter adopts Goffman's (1959) the back and front of stage imagery to present the conditions that have led to an increase in emotional labour in academia. Back stage includes the bureaucratic processes that surround teaching that have led to a significant decrease in academics' job autonomy. Front stage entails academics' increasing demands for interactions with their students whether face-to-face or online. The chapter then continues with how academics cope with the emotional labour and concludes that unfortunately the scope of communities of coping and collegiality is decreasing.

5.2 Emotional labour at the back stage

The considerable increase in bureaucratic processes related to teaching impacted academics' perception of job autonomy. Congruent with previous studies (e.g., Constanti & Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004; Willmott, 1995), the study reveals that participants have less autonomy in their jobs and are more controlled by management than ever before. As high levels of autonomy are related with low levels of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Wharton, 1993) and low autonomy is related to high emotional labour (Stenross & Kleinman, 1989), these findings suggest that due to low job autonomy, academics may experience a high level of emotional labour.

The increasing number of students enrolled in business degrees have increased administrative duties such as students' consultations and answering students' emails, management expectations for performance, all of which have resulted in increased workload. Performing such additional administrative duties reduced the pleasure of teaching because interviewees remain extremely busy in trying to respond to students' demands. Business academics have to learn to live with their increased workload and deal with their stress in a professional and calm

manner, thus increasing the instances where emotional labour is performed. Consequently, informants were found exhausted and very time constrained.

Technological advancements add upon an already full workload. With inadequate technical support, technological advancements intensified interviewees' work because sometimes they have to spend hours on the system to manage their work. Interviewees revealed that universities want to achieve innovation without considering the specific course needs and students' learning. All these technological issues increased interviewees' frustration with the system, frustrations which they have to learn to hide behind a "professional" facade.

The overemphasis on research resulted in a great deal of dissatisfaction among interviewees as they perceived that university neither values their teaching nor their good teaching scores unless they publish research papers in top-ranked journals. To meet research publication requirements, some respondents revealed that they cannot teach students as they desire because both teaching and research involve a good deal of time. As finding time to do both at a high level was considered almost impossible, interviewees felt that they had to compromise their teaching standards. Interviewees perceived that teaching had become a second priority after research in universities because research leads to a higher ranking and thus allow universities to attract more students to generate money. This resonates with Feldman and Sandoval (2018) who argue that research is significant in academia because it allows universities to compete in a highly aggressive market. Therefore, some interviewees revealed that universities provide incentives to encourage academics for research. Subsequently, efficient and devoted teaching-focused academics are not provided with a clear career path if they are not interested in research. Consistent with Ogbonna and Harris (2004), this study found that academics may engage in emotional labour to hide their dissatisfaction due to a highly disproportionate balance between research and teaching.

Although these challenging conditions led some of the interviewees to describe teaching as a duty that has to be performed, most interviewees exhibited an intrinsic motivation for teaching. This finding is consistent with the studies of Hagenauer and Volet (2014) and Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne (2011) who also found that academics experience intrinsic happiness by teaching. Participants feel happiness, satisfaction and privilege to help people in their learning journey especially when they can see their students' progress.

5.3 Emotional labour at the front stage

Similar to traditional service employees who have the emotional labour requirement of “service with a smile”, this study reveals many emotional labour requirements for academics, such as being caring, enthusiastic, interesting, engaging, calm and mindful and professional. This is congruent with Ogbonna and Harris (2004), who argue that there are more emotional labour requirements for employees other than being professional. Being professional is, undoubtedly, a very important emotional requirement for academics no matter how they feel inside. For example, academics have to be mindful, calm, patient as well as actively caring about their students. Participants were caring about their students and some perceived it as significant to build rapport with their students. This is in line with Jennings and Greenberg (2009), who argue that academics are actively engaged in emotion regulation because academics occupational life’s main elements are interacting with and caring for their students. The fact that academics have to care for their students more than traditional service jobs more closely aligns with professions such as nursing.

Another emotional labour requirement interviewees highlighted, was the need to be seen as interesting or to even be enthusiastic. However, it is taxing to be interesting or enthusiastic over a long period such as a two-hour lecture or a thirteen-week semester. The interviewees further reinforced that even the most competent academics cannot be energetic all the time. This finding is congruent with Grandey et al. (2015) who argue that even the most enthusiastic and friendly person cannot remain happy in all interactions at all time. Thus, emotional labour requirements such as being interested or enthusiastic for a long period of time created emotional exhaustion among participants. This finding resonates back with previous studies (e.g., Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, 2002) who argue that longer interactions entail more exertion.

Consistent with Hort, Barrett, and Furlong (2001), this study confirms that managerialism is exerting significant pressures on Australian business academics to the point that interviewees themselves have started to adopt the language of “students as customers”. Hence, interviewees felt pressure to keep their students satisfied and happy in order to score highly in their teaching evaluations. Congruent with Ogbonna and Harris (2004), this research reveals teaching evaluations increased the need to engage in emotional labour among informants. These findings suggest that management controls academics’ emotional expressions through teaching evaluations and thus, the interviewees perceived pressure to adhere with the emotional labour requirements of their job such as being enthusiastic or calm even when they have contrary internal emotions.

One of the reasons that have potentially led to increased emotional labour in teaching is the higher levels of interaction with students. Nearly all interviewees acknowledged the phenomenal increase of email interactions with students. This resonates with Zhang and Zhu (2008) who suggested the interaction frequency between academics and students has intensified to a great extent. Interviewees felt a great pressure about email interactions because responding to emails takes a considerable time and if they do not respond within the specified time, students may complain, send continuous and subsequent emails and eventually give them low scores in teaching quality evaluations. Another reason for increasing emotional labour among interviewees is students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom that disturbs others' learning. Additionally, nearly all participants were concerned about students' usage of their devices in the classroom context because they perceive them to be a distraction to students' learning. Participants revealed that they have to manage their emotions because if they interact very strictly with students they may lose the engagement of the entire class.

Although none of the interviewees perceived "teaching" as a source of stress for them, some confessed that they dislike marking. Indeed, interviewees revealed that students mostly have a one-on-one consultation with their teachers for solving their marking issues. The reason for disliking marking may be due to the facts that many conflicts between academics and students arise around marking, managing marking issues takes a good deal of academics' time and also increases emotional labour requirements among academics.

Informants use various emotional labour strategies such as surface acting and deep acting as identified by Hochschild (1983) to manage their authentic emotions and present those emotional expressions that are aligned with their occupational emotional labour requirements. For instance, some participants engaged in surface acting to remain calm and controlled during conflicting situations (e.g., assessments feedback) with students. Also, respondents appeared engaged in deep acting to demonstrate a professional attitude when interacting with students or colleagues. Participants were also found to be engaged with spontaneous emotional labour while interacting with different stakeholders (i.e., students and colleagues). This is in line with Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) who argue that besides surface acting and deep acting, employees are also engaged in the third type of emotional labour strategy: spontaneous emotional labour.

The findings also point to the inadequacy of training at the beginning of one's teaching career. For example, one of the respondents described that PhD students in her university train for nine hours to become a tutor. With limited training and the inherent need to do one's job efficiently, it is unsurprising that teaching for younger academics can be associated with anxiety and fear. As such, emotional labour is particularly prevalent at the beginning of the teaching career where

tutors or PhD students have to perform the role of a competent teacher even if they do not feel like one themselves. This parallels with Hagenauer and Volet's (2014) findings who found that the start of the academic career also evokes emotions because of the higher level of uncertainty at the early career stage.

Conversely, this study finds that experienced interviewees felt a higher sense of control in dealing with the stress of their teaching role and thus were subjected to lower levels of emotional labour. This finding concurs with Tunguz (2016) and Berry and Cassidy (2013) who revealed that tenured academics demonstrate a lower level of emotional labour than untenured academics. Experienced participants used their authority in dealing with disruptive students, solving marking issues or limiting the students' email interaction only on weekdays which is consistent with Tunguz's (2016) concept of emotional labour as "service with authority" in the higher education context.

Despite all informants found to be engaged in emotional labour, congruent with Koster (2011) argument, this study finds that universities neither acknowledge nor reward emotional labour. This negligence may create frustration among academics that can result in absenteeism, burnout or exit from the profession. As high levels of emotional labour requirements can result in depleting individuals' energy resources (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Vohs, Baumeister, & Ciarocco, 2005) that might detrimentally impact on academics' performance as well as their well-being. Although, it is well-established that university teachers engage in emotional labour, however, only a few studies (e.g., Constanti & Gibbs, 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004) described that academics perform emotional labour as a coping mechanism to demonstrate required emotional expression according to their organisation's display rules. Thus, this study contributes to the literature of emotional labour in higher education by seeking the role of communities of coping as a coping mechanism for managing emotional labour requirements of academics in their teaching role.

5.4 Communities of coping

Consistent with Korczynski (2003), this study finds that communities of coping form in offstage areas such as the staffroom and corridors. Sturdy and Fineman (2001) also argued that employees put off their corporate masks and express their emotions in offstage areas such as galleys and corridors. In line with Stroeback (2013), interviewees mentioned that they go for coffee and have a chat with their colleagues. These findings suggest that academics have the opportunity to share their true feelings with their colleagues in offstage areas such as corridors, staffroom and coffee shops.

All participants acknowledged the significance of social sharing with their colleagues in the workplace context. Trust is found as one of the most significant elements in social sharing. Participants preferred to share with either their trusted colleagues or those who can provide them with some help instead of personalising the issues. Sharing with trusted colleagues reduced emotional exhaustion in respondents. This resonates with Yin et al. (2017) who found that trust in coworkers was found to be an organisational resource for primary school teachers in Hong Kong that assisted them to cope with the emotional demands of teaching.

The main reasons to share with colleagues are venting, debriefing, confirming their actions, asking for advice and reducing the sense of isolation. As Hochschild (1983) pointed out that despite the isolated nature of the job, flight attendants were dependent on each other. Similarly, interviewees revealed that their job is quite isolating in nature, but social sharing at the workplace reduces that feeling and provides emotional support from their colleagues. Therefore, many interviewees admitted that they feel good after sharing their workplace experiences and venting their felt emotions with their colleagues. This supports McCance et al. (2012) findings that social sharing of negative events enhances the emotional well-being of individuals. Furthermore, participants perceived social sharing helpful even when it did not provide solutions. This may be because sharing with their colleagues assists them in recognising that their colleagues are either feeling the same or also going through the same situation, and thus they felt better about their jobs. This is in line with Abraham (1998) who found that social sharing reduced job dissatisfaction among employees.

Conversely, there are also many reasons for avoiding sharing with coworkers. For instance, those interviewees working on a casual basis showed more hesitation in social sharing than permanent participants. The explanation of the social sharing reluctance among respondents is that if they share their work-related issues with their colleagues, their weaknesses will be disclosed and in turn, their colleagues may perceive them inefficient. In particular, casual academics were concerned about sharing as they would have difficulty in extending their contracts. Additionally, university culture was one of the important factors for encouraging or discouraging collegiality culture in participants. Participants collaborate with other academics based on their university culture. Moreover, some participants revealed that they are quite busy in their work that they do not find time to share everything with their colleagues.

Notably, some interviewees also pointed out the consequences of not sharing. Participants revealed that with a significant rise in stress among academics, if they avoid sharing with each other, nothing will change in their institutions. Instead, they would have a high level of stress and loneliness. They confessed that it is imperative for them to build a collegial culture in the university to reduce the job strain. This is in line with Su and Baird (2017) who found a negative

relationship between collegiality and job-related strain among Australian accounting academics.

Given the increasing levels of casualisation in the tertiary education (Barrett, 2004), the study finds that the scope of communities of coping is narrowing. As mentioned earlier, interviewees were found to be time constrained due to research pressures, trying to win grants, teaching quality assessments and extra administrative responsibilities and thus they do not find time for collegiality. This resonates with Kalfa, Wilkinson, and Gollan (2017) who found that collective community is diminished because of increased emphasis on individual's performance, winning grants, publishing articles and their teaching quality scores.

5.5 Conclusion

Overall, this study makes several contributions to emotional labour and higher education sector. First, it explores the emotional labour requirements of academics. When academics are aware of their emotional labour requirements, they will be in a better position to manage them accordingly. Without knowing their emotional demands, it is a challenge for academics to do their job proficiently. Second, it identifies how communities of coping can assist academics in managing negative aspects of emotional labour requirements (e.g., frustration and tiredness) of academics in their teaching role. Prior studies have explored emotional labour in academia and how it affected academics (Gaan, 2012; Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017). However, to the author's knowledge, no studies explored how academics cope with the negative aspects of emotional labour requirements. This study contributes to understanding the role of communities of coping in mitigating the negative aspects of emotional labour requirements of academics in the Australian Higher Education Sector.

Third and most significantly, this study found that trust plays a critical role in forming communities of coping. This is because academics share with their colleagues only when they trust each other. Moreover, social sharing among colleagues is possible when academics perceive that they will get sincere advice from their coworkers. Finally, this study contributes to understanding that the absence of communities of coping may have a negative impact on academics' well-being. This is because, without sharing with their colleagues, academics may experience a considerable amount of stress and loneliness that may affect their job performance as well as their well-being.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

By examining the emotional labour requirements of academics' teaching load and the extent to which communities of coping allow staff to cope with such requirements, this study contributes to the literature of emotional labour and the literature of managerialism in academia.

This study argues that for the academics interviewed, teaching is considered a privilege, a source of satisfaction and happiness especially when they can experience their students' development first hand. However, teaching is associated with emotional labour both back stage and front of the stage, for a number of reasons, the first one being managerialism and the treatment of students as customers. Within the domain of teaching, managerialism is performed through an emphasis on teaching evaluations and the treatment of students as "customers". In trying to secure high teaching scores, faculty staff interviewed found themselves constrained by the need to display enthusiasm when they didn't feel enthusiastic, engagement when they were not engaged, care towards students when they would prefer being strict instead.

Second, in an effort to fulfil customer demands, academics pointed to how university management adopts learning technology without providing the requisite support to staff. As such, interviewees highlighted the unnecessary hours devoted to managing online platforms that lead to frustration and feelings of the wasted time. In this context, staff perform emotional labour when they have to remain calm despite feelings of frustrations in order to maintain their "professional" persona. Third, managerialism and the associated need for universities to demonstrate their value to society led to increasing enrolments, especially in business faculties. Catering to the needs of hundreds of students per semester either face-to-face or online (over emails or online learning platforms) is bound to increase emotional labour requirements for academics.

This thesis also extends research on academia by highlighting the sense of devaluation felt by academics who enjoy teaching and perform highly in it, but their career progression is primarily tied to research outputs. This raises questions about the sustainability or even suitability of the "balanced workload". To that end, this thesis suggests that it might be time to consider providing viable opportunities for progression through the academic ranks to staff who are teaching focused. Such a move would also provide career paths for the myriad of casual staff who struggle to find permanent academic positions due to their lower research outputs.

Finally, this study contributes to the literature by considering how communities of coping can alleviate some of the burden associated with emotional labour. This research confirms that communities of coping can be helpful in reducing the sense of isolation by giving academics

an avenue to vent, debrief with colleagues, ask for advice or confirm actions. The findings point to the significance of trust in social sharing as the interviewees only shared concerns with trusted colleagues who would give reasonable advice without judgement. Communities of coping provide a support network through which academics can survive the emotional labour requirements of their roles.

Unfortunately, the findings also illustrate that such examples of collegiality are declining in academia. This finding could possibly be attributed to permanent full-time academics “buying into” work intensification (Kalfa et al., 2017), leaving less time for sharing in the pursuit of publications in top-tier journals, while casual staff are being mindful of sharing in case their competence is questioned, and chances of future employment jeopardised. However, as sharing decreases isolation and increases well-being, this thesis proposes that university managers should strive to establish collegial cultures in their departments.

6.1 Practical implications

This thesis yields significant practical contributions for managers. This study may assist university management to acknowledge that university academics are engaged in emotional labour. Academics, management and students should at least recognise the emotional labour in the academic context. Given emotional labour is invisible in contracts, Lawless (2018) even suggests that such expectations must be explicit rather than unwritten. According to Hochschild (1983), negligence of one’s own feelings may lead to self-estrangement and thus, result in health deterioration. Engaging in emotional labour may have a negative impact on academics’ well-being and thus they may not perform their job efficiently which may lead to students’ dissatisfaction. Consequently, it may impact negatively on the organisational effectiveness as a whole (see Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983).

Moreover, trust building among academics would be very useful as they may share their true feelings with each other and thus be able to reduce the negative consequences of emotional labour such as emotional exhaustion. Tan and Lim (2009) found that the trust levels in coworkers determine the trust in the organisation. These findings suggest that universities should foster a climate of trust by providing opportunities for academics to share their concerns with each other confidently. This may be beneficial for universities because academics will experience a good level of teamwork that may improve their performance. Yin et al. (2017) also found trust in colleagues as a significant organisational resource for teachers in the primary school context to cope with the emotional demands of their job. Thus, university management should foster a trusting atmosphere among academics, so they can deal with the emotional

labour requirements of their job efficiently. It is possible that a culture of trust in educational institutions would increase their performance and thus increase government-mandated performance measurement.

This study may provide insight to university management and Human Resources professionals to implement such practices that can assist academics to deal with the negative consequences of emotional labour requirements. Mann (2004) suggests that an effective organisational strategy may be to encourage employees to share their stories as a coping technique of the negative impacts of emotional labour. Also, he speculates that this strategy would create a distinction between the front stage and back stage, and thus, back stage may provide an opportunity for employees to put off their corporate masks and disclose their actual feelings. Such organisational strategies that lead to a collegiate culture and openness may be helpful for employees to share their actual feelings and emotions with their coworkers at the workplace and in this way, they may be able to debrief. This resonates back with the suggestion of Grandey (2000) who suggested that supervisor and colleagues support can mitigate the negative effects of emotional labour such as burnout.

6.2 Limitations and future research

This study, like other studies, is not without limitations. The first shortcoming of this study stems from drawing data from a limited number of interviewees as mentioned in Chapter Three. However, all the academics who participated in the study were selected from various universities of New South Wales rather than from only one university. Also, the study relied on the cross-sectional data due to a limited time period of the study which was approximately ten months. An avenue for future research would be to conduct a longitudinal study to provide further insights.

Another limitation of the study concerns studying only the emotional labour requirements of academics in their teaching role. However, there may be different emotional labour requirements of academics in their other roles of the job. A fruitful future direction would be to study the emotional labour requirements in their research and administrative roles and also how they deal with the emotional labour requirements in their different roles of the job. Moreover, an avenue for future research study would be to investigate the role of communities of coping in reducing the negative effects of emotional labour requirements of academics in their research or administrative roles.

Ethnographic research, where the researcher observes the classroom environment and records relevant vignettes, would have enhanced the contribution of this study. While this was not

possible for this thesis due to requirements associated with ethics approval, ethnographic research would help to illuminate emotional labour literature and the literature on higher education.

In conclusion, this study has provided an insight into occupational emotional labour requirements of Australian business academics in their teaching-related role. The study has explored various emotional labour requirements for academics in universities today and also how academics deal with the negative aspects of these requirements in their teaching role. In particular, this study has investigated the significance of communities of coping in academia. It is expected that other scholars and practitioners will further examine how academics cope with occupational emotional labour requirements due to its significance to their performance and well-being.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics approval

----- Forwarded message -----

From: Irene Chen <i.chen@mq.edu.au>

Date: Thu, Mar 29, 2018 at 11:17 AM

Subject: ethics application (5201800109)

To: Senia Kalfa <senia.kalfa@mq.edu.au>

Cc: "faiza.asif@students.mq.edu.au" <faiza.asif@students.mq.edu.au>, Nikola Balnave <nikki.balnave@mq.edu.au>, FBE Ethics <fbe-ethics@mq.edu.au>

Dear Dr Kalfa

Re application entitled: Communities of coping in academia

Reference number: 5201800109

The above application was reviewed by the Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee. Approval of the above application is granted, effective "28/03/2018". This email constitutes ethical approval only.

This research meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The National Statement is available at the following web site:

<https://www.nhmrc.gov.au/guidelines-publications/e72>

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Dr Senia Kalfa

Faiza Asif

NB. STUDENTS: IT IS YOUR RESPONSIBILITY TO KEEP A COPY OF THIS APPROVAL EMAIL TO SUBMIT WITH YOUR THESIS.

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 28 March 2019

Progress Report 2 Due: 28 March 2020

Progress Report 3 Due: 28 March 2021
Progress Report 4 Due: 28 March 2022
Final Report Due: 28 March 2023

NB. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned, you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:

<https://staff.mq.edu.au/research/integrity-ethics-and-approvals/human-ethics/resources-research-office>

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five-year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request for Amendment Form available at the following website:

<https://staff.mq.edu.au/research/integrity-ethics-and-approvals/human-ethics/resources-research-office>

5. Please notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at the following websites:

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics>

<https://staff.mq.edu.au/work/strategy-planning-and-governance/university-policies-and-procedures/policies/human-research-ethics#policy>

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide the Macquarie University's Research Grants Management Assistant with a copy of this email as soon as possible. Internal and External funding agencies will not be informed that you have approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Management Assistant has received a copy of this email.

If you need to provide a hard copy letter of approval to an external organisation as evidence that you have approval, please do not hesitate to contact the FBE Ethics Committee Secretariat, via fbe-ethics@mq.edu.au or 9850 4826.

Please retain a copy of this email as this is your official notification of ethics approval.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Nikola Balnave
Chair, Faculty of Business and Economics Ethics Sub-Committee

Faculty of Business and Economics

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Appendix B: Interview questions

Interview Questions

Introduction

1. Tell me a bit about yourself (*e.g., What do you teach? Have you taught this unit before/ how many years? How many years have you been teaching in general?*)
2. How would you describe your teaching style?
3. Do you enjoy teaching?

Emotional labour & communities of coping

4. Think back to a recent time when you were in the classroom, and you had a difficult (stressful) interaction with a student. Can you tell me about it?
5. Think back to a time when you had a difficult (stressful) interaction with a student during consultation. Can you tell me about it? (*Here tease out the differences between EL in the classroom in front of others vs in a one-on-one meeting*).
6. Think back to a time when you had a difficult (stressful) interaction with a student over email. Can you tell me about it? (*Here tease out the differences between EL in face-to-face vs in an online setting*).

Sub-questions for 5-8

7. What did you feel during and after that experience?
8. Did you share with anyone? Who with [*focus on if the same/lower/higher level or if they hold a management position (e.g. Head of Department)*]? Why them? When did you talk to them (straight after the interaction/ a day/few days later)?
9. Did your co-workers suggest anything to help you cope with the situation better? If so, what?
10. Did sharing with your colleague(s) help you in anyway? If so, how?
11. What did you feel during and after that experience?

12. Do you continue to share with this/these colleague(s) situations that arise from teaching?
Is this a regular interaction? Why/ why not?
13. How else do you cope with the emotional requirements of your teaching role?

Participant recruitment: If you can think of colleagues who might be interested in this research, would you mind passing on my details?

Appendix C: Themes

Themes	Description	Representative quotes
1. Managerialism	<p>Students as customers</p> <p>Autonomy erosion</p> <p>Managerialism issues</p>	<p><i>“You can’t fail the customer and that is reinforced through the teaching assessment system” (David, Associate Professor).</i></p> <p><i>“The unit of study outlines, the subject guides, heavily prescribed in what’s in them and how they look. If you pick up one study guide from one subject, then compare it to another, at first glance you wouldn’t be able to tell what was what because they’re proformas that we have to do in a certain way to meet the university’s requirements about what they look like. Whereas, when I started 20 years ago they could be quite inventive documents. So, it has undoubtedly become a more bureaucratic process and I think it’s really about controlling what we do” (George, Professor).</i></p> <p><i>“I feel like more of my anxiety levels or emotional difficulties come from frustrations imposed from above, rather than from the students actually” (George, Professor).</i></p>
2. Increased number of students	Increased enrolments	<i>“When I was a student it was kind of a post-war boom and we had 1000 students in a classroom. It was mass education and then it dipped and now it’s coming back again, through international students” (William, Emeritus Professor).</i>
3. Emphasis on research	<p>Stress from research</p> <p>Teaching priority</p> <p>Devaluation of teaching</p>	<p><i>“I think the stress does not come from teaching but from research” (Jemima, Lecturer).</i></p> <p><i>“Unfortunately, teaching is as often seen as the secondary or maybe the third priority as an academic that large portion of academics see research as perhaps the most important thing we are working on” (Kate, Senior Lecturer).</i></p> <p><i>“The university does not necessarily respect the teaching part of the job we do and therefore, the university is all about research that everyone wants to research” (Florence, Associate Lecturer).</i></p>
4. Technology	Unnecessary advancements	<i>“I think a lot of teaching is moving towards more sort of technological processes of teaching. I’m not</i>

		<i>a big fan. I think the interaction between students and teacher – myself and the students talking about ideas and debating – is a far more effective tool for people learning” (Zara, Senior Lecturer).</i>
5. Teaching	Enjoyment	<i>“How students learn or change their minds about particular aspects we talk about. I find it very rewarding, so I definitely enjoy teaching” (James, Senior Lecturer).</i>
	Disliking of marking	<i>“I love teaching. I hate marking, I hate marking like every other teacher will tell you that they hate marking” (Florence, Associate Lecturer).</i>
6. Classroom	Enjoyment in teaching	<i>“I really do love to be in front of people and to transfer knowledge and experiences that is just something, I really enjoy” (Flavia, Adjunct).</i>
	Stress in the classroom	<i>“When you’ve got students – who are talking or doing something else – they’re not concentrating on what they should be concentrating on, and I don’t mind that so much. But what really sort of irritates me is when they’re making a noise and distracting people who are trying to listen” (Bruce, Adjunct).</i>
7. Consultation	Settling marking issues	<i>“Students that are disappointed with their marks, we usually go over with together. I compare, or I also share with them my experience of failure and how I have gone through failing exams and what that has taught me” (Flavia, Adjunct).</i>
8. Online Context	Increased email interaction	<i>“I would agree that it [email interaction] increased overtime” (Kate, Senior Lecturer).</i>
	The negative aspect of online communication	<i>“The worst thing without a doubt is the expectation of an immediate response. That’s the worst thing” (George, Professor).</i>
9. Experience	Experience	<i>“There are lots of things that I have seen them before, so I know how to deal it with” (Sullivan, Lecturer).</i>
10. Emotional labour	Impression management	<i>“Those students just want you to be engaging and they need you to make something interesting” (Harry, Associate Lecturer).</i>
11. Surface acting	Emotions management	<i>“I try to be very patient to them and explain why I gave them the marks” (Jemima, Lecturer).</i>
	Suppressing or hiding emotions	

	Hiding negative emotions	<p><i>"I can't tell my class that I am not happy today and you have to be careful as it is not professional"</i> (Jemima, Lecturer).</p> <p><i>"Where you meet students that you like and students that you don't like. They possibly wouldn't even know the difference. You have to be professional with all of them. It's an interaction like most work interactions"</i> (Zara, Senior Lecturer).</p>
12. Deep acting	<p>Reinterpretation</p> <p>Engaging students</p>	<p><i>"This guy was just being aggressive for no reason. He was not aggressive to me, he was aggressive to the marks"</i> (Florence, Associate Lecturer)</p> <p><i>"I want students to have fun"</i> (Florence, Associate Lecturer).</p>
13. Genuine emotional labour	Encouraging genuine emotional labour	<i>"I like when people feel comfortable and safe to be curious about new stuff and ask questions and feel like space for them to be challenged but at the same time to challenge others"</i> (Flavia, Adjunct).
14. Communities of coping	<p>Collegiality</p> <p>Trust</p>	<p><i>"I find this space [academia] so amazing because you can share and exchange and whenever someone is having a hard time, we can all be there. So, even for all isolated or own living clusters, we try to have lunch with each other, we try to organise activities and that is usually space where these challenges will emerge not only just with teaching, with supervisor relationships, research in generals"</i> (Flavia, Adjunct).</p> <p><i>"I wouldn't share them with all my colleagues. I would only share it with people that I trust. I guess people who have the same view as me"</i> (Zara, Senior Lecturer).</p>
15. Reasons for sharing	<p>Debrief</p> <p>Asking advice</p>	<p><i>"So once I talk to her [colleague], so letting it out of me for someone to – sometimes she gives a suggestion, sometimes she gives feedback. But I explain to her and I feel good afterwards"</i> (Harvey, Associate Lecturer).</p> <p><i>"You are looking for advice in terms of just to build some confidence. It is often just a confirmatory process that somebody says you have done the right thing, and everything will be okay"</i> (Sullivan, Lecturer).</p>

16. Avoidance from sharing	Time pressure	<i>“I really don’t have time to discuss these issues [difficult interactions with students] much” (James, Senior Lecturer).</i>
	Limitations in sharing	<i>“We [casual academics] run from one institution to another institution, which is really disruptive. There’s always that stress of course that you’ll run into the wrong institution on a wrong day. Those things we laugh, and we share but nothing more than that. I don’t need to share at that level with my colleagues” (Elizabeth, Adjunct).</i>
17. Consequence of avoidance sharing	Increase in stress and loneliness	<i>“It could be really frightening I think for the amount of stress and loneliness that people would feel without that” (George, Professor).</i>
18. Other coping strategies	Sharing with family	<i>“I will talk to my husband sometimes” (Elizabeth, Adjunct).</i>
	Hobbies	<i>“I do a lot of reading. As I read, I would normally ask, what would a practitioner tell someone who is suffering in this situation? What are some of the solutions? What’s the literature saying about this? What about people experiences? So, I read and try to see how best – so I solve my own problems” (Harvey, Associate Lecturer).</i>