

CHAPTER1: INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH OUTLINE

1.1. INTRODUCTION

A marked shift towards a more service-oriented, “postindustrial” economy (Bell, 1973, as cited in McCammon & Griffin, 2000) has led to a significant increase in the proportion of workers employed in the service sector in both the United States as well as the United Kingdom (McCammon & Griffin, 2000; Taylor & Bain, 1999).

According to Visser and Rothman (2009), call centres have become a preferred method of service delivery in these economies, as well as in the South African economy, largely due to the significant financial benefits of replacing traditional branch networks employing conventional face-to-face service interaction. Despite the noted organisational benefits of this type of service delivery (Deery & Kinnie, 2004), concern emerges in the literature regarding the effect of these centres on the employees operating within them, especially with regard to experiences of stress.

In general, occupational stress has been recognised as an important factor in influencing the health and general wellbeing of employees (Jamal & Preena, 1998). In addition, work-related stress has been labeled a significant occupational hazard (Daley & Parfitt, 1996), resulting in reduced job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job performance as well as increased absenteeism and turnover (Jamal & Preena, 1998). This is particularly true for call centres where employees are more susceptible to elevated levels of stress and burnout than in any other work environment (Visser & Rothmann, 2008). Maertz and Campion (2001) suggest that the high staff turnover which results from these elevated levels of stress and burnout has severe negative consequences for the organisation, especially with regard to added staffing and training costs, operational disruption, lost production capacity as well as lower levels of customer service. The examination of occupational stress, particularly in the form of potential moderators of the relationship between selected stressor and strain variables, then becomes a crucial task.

1.2. RESEARCH OUTLINE

The second chapter of this report begins with the provision of a theoretical and conceptual background of the research. The first section focuses on the conceptualisation of stress and aims to provide a general overview of the development of a variety of stress models. In addition, this section outlines the model of interest for the present research, that of the Cox and MacKay's (1981) Transactional Model of Stress, as well as its limitations and the adoption of an eclectic approach as a means of addressing these limitations.

In the following section, the call centre environment is discussed; specifically with regard to the nature of the work performed by employees within these call centres and their role as boundary spanners. This chapter also introduces the notion of emotional labour and discusses its relevance to the call centre environment.

This is followed by a section which conceptualises the dependent variables of the study, specifically that of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave and outlines the relationship of each of these variables to emotional labour.

A subsequent section delineates the notion of social support and provides a detailed discussion of the different types and sources of social support, as well as the relevance of these to the present research. In addition, the main and moderating effect of social support on the stressor-strain relationship is discussed.

In the final section of Chapter 2, the primary objective of the research is noted and the specific research questions it aims to address are outlined. In addition, a revised transactional model, specifically one that incorporates elements of the Michigan Model of occupational stress, is described.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology employed to address the objectives noted in the previous chapter. Chapter 4 details the results of the research and Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion and interpretation of the results, addresses the limitations of the present research and outlines recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1. STRESS

2.1.1. INTRODUCTION

O'Driscoll and Brough (2003) suggest that while a multitude of definitions of stress exist, the majority of researchers agree on the notion of a stressor as an event or stimulus within the environment, and a strain as an indication of the reaction of an individual to that stressor. Here, stressors are considered antecedents and strain is the physical and psychological reaction to a stressful event. Stress can then be considered as the overall process linking stressors, strain and coping (O'Driscoll & Brough, 2003). Jex (1998) adds that in the organisational context, exposure to stressors, in the form of stressful occupational conditions, generally results in high levels of strain, including poor health and reduced psychological wellbeing in individuals.

2.1.2. MODELS OF STRESS

O'Driscoll and Brough (2003) identify four general approaches to stress, namely, response-based, stimulus-based, interactional, and transactional. With regard to the response-based definition of stress, they advocate origins in the fields of medicine and physiology and highlight the work of Selye (1956) who developed one of the earliest models of stress, referred to as the General Adaptation Syndrome or GAS. According to Selye (1956), stress can be conceptualised as the adaptive response of an organism to environmental demands or stressors. O'Driscoll and Brough (2003) offer the fields of physics and engineering as contributing to the appearance of stimulus-based definitions of stress, where stress is understood as disturbance in a system as a result of the force exerted on that system. Here, systems are subjected to continual assault from potential sources of stress and it is suggested that damage may result if the tolerance level of the system or individual is exceeded.

Unlike the response-and- stimulus-based approaches, where the focus is on a single element of the stress process, that is, the stimulus or the response; interactional definitions consider the relationship between the two (O'Driscoll & Brough, 2003).

Here, both the environmental demands as well as the response of an individual to those demands are addressed. One of the most notable interactional models is French's (1973) Person-Environment (P-E) fit model. According to this model, a mismatch between an individual and the environment will result in strain. French (1973) advocates that there is an optimum level of demand (eustress) for every individual where the strain experienced is minimal; however, if the level of the demand experienced is greater than this level (distress), strain will increase.

Another prominent theory is Karasek's (1979) Demand-Control (D-C) model. Here it is suggested that excessive work demands are associated with higher levels of psychological strain and that the impact of these demands is affected by an individual's perception of control over important aspects of the work environment. While Karasek (1979) considered highly challenging or demanding work, combined with high control as an active occupation, with beneficial outcomes for the individual, work with low demands and low levels of control, were referred to as passive occupations and may result in strain. High strain occupations are those where the individual encounters high work demands and has little control over these demands (Karasek, 1979).

O'Driscoll and Brough (2003) highlight the transactional view as the fourth approach and advocate this view as underlying the most widely held opinion on work stress. Here, rather than reducing stress to a factor in the individual or environment, it is viewed as a dynamic process consisting of several components. It is for this reason, that despite the availability of a number of models of stress, some of which have been highlighted above, of primary interest for the present research is the transactional view and in particular, the model of Cox and MacKay (1981). This will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.1.3. THE TRANSACTIONAL MODEL OF STRESS

Daniels and Guppy (1994) highlight that transactional models view the stress process as a continual transaction between external demands, personal resources and internal needs and values, in which the individual strives to maintain balance. They suggest

that these models imply complex relationships between environmental variables, individual cognitions and stressors in their relationship with wellbeing.

In their transactional model of stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) advocated the significance of an individual's *cognitive appraisal* of a situation and identified three types of appraisal: primary, secondary, and reappraisal. According to their view, primary appraisal involves the evaluation of the significance of an environmental demand for an individual's wellbeing, secondary appraisal occurs when coping behaviours deemed necessary to reduce the strain are evaluated and reappraisal involves an evaluation of the success of coping mechanisms. Cox and Mackay's (1981) Transactional Model of Stress (*Figure 1*) builds on the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and emphasises the importance of an individual's cognitive assessment of perceived environmental demands, and the individual's perceived capability to cope with the demand. According to their model, stress is the result of the perceived demand outweighing the perceived capability. Similarly, coping with stress then requires the individual to reassess and alter their cognitive and behavioural efforts in order to manage the stressors they perceive as exceeding their personal resources (Spangenberg & Orpen-Lyall, 2000).

Bernstein (1992) offers various limitations of the Transactional Model of Stress. She suggests that the first lies in the model's erroneous distinction between actual demand and capability and perceived demand and capability, in that both the nature of the demand and the capability of the individual to cope with that demand are defined solely in terms of the perception of the individual concerned. In addition, she cites an incomplete discussion of the effect of inter-organismic (personality or individual difference variables that can affect perception) and extra- organismic (external to the individual e.g. cultural, circumstantial and socio-economic differences) variables on the stress process as another limitation.

With regard to addressing these limitations, Bernstein (1992) advocates the adoption of an eclectic approach to the model, which involves the addition of relevant stages, the retention of appropriate stages and the exclusion of irrelevant stages. Of particular relevance to the present research is the addition of a sixth stage, which is primarily

concerned with the addition of a relevant moderator variable to the stress process, namely, that of social support, which will be discussed in further detail at a later stage.

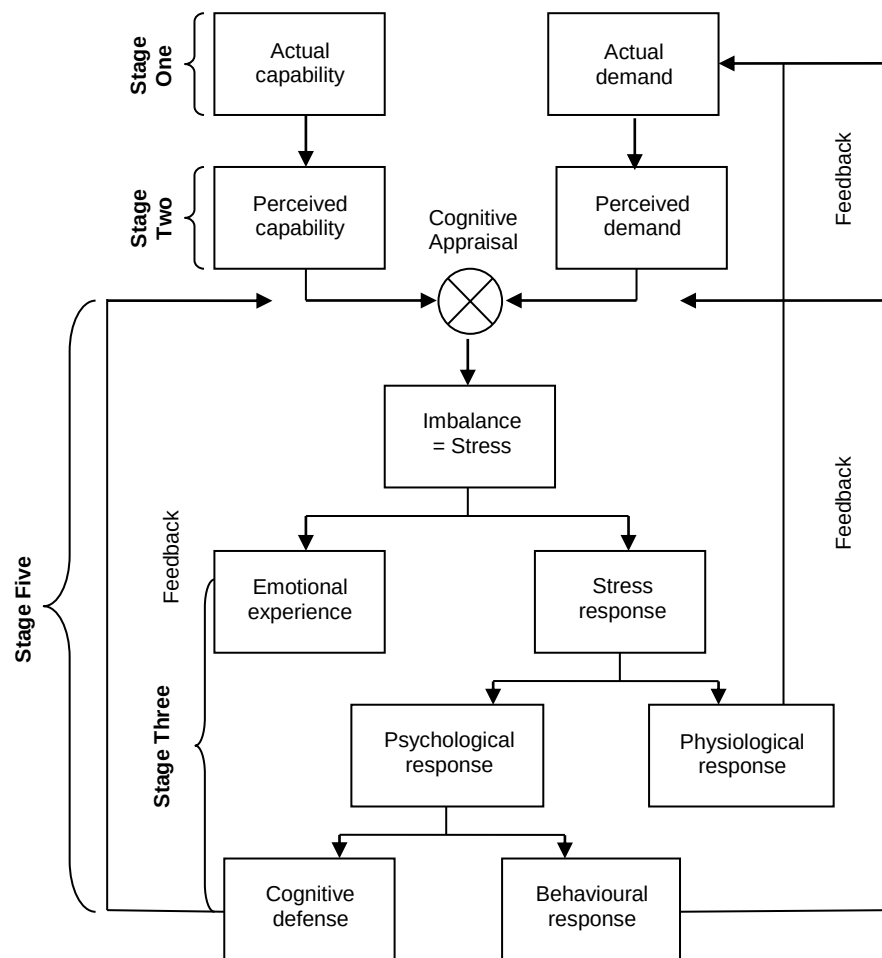


Figure 1. The Transactional Model (Adapted from Cox & MacKay, 1981)

Cox and MacKay's (1981) Transactional Model of Stress (albeit a revised version) has been selected for use in the present research as a result of its emphasis on the role of individual appraisal, rather than an exclusive focus on stimuli and response, as well as due to its wide application in various studies of workplace stress (Stokes & Kite, 2001).

Of the various occupational settings noted in the stress literature, call centres have been emphasised in that employees in these settings are considered more susceptible to elevated levels of stress and burnout than in any other work environment (Visser & Rothmann, 2008). As a result, it is necessary to gain an understanding of the call centre environment and the particular stressors it perpetuates.

2.1.4. THE CALL CENTRE ENVIRONMENT

Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2003) highlight that key business in call centres is ‘mediated by computer and telephone-based technologies that enable the efficient distribution of incoming calls (or allocation of outgoing calls) to available staff, and permit customer – employee interaction to occur simultaneously with use of display screen equipment and the instant access to, and inputting of, information’ (p. 393). In this regard, Visser and Rothman (2008) highlight that this service is rendered by customer service representatives and suggest that these frontline employees are also considered ‘boundary spanners’.

According to Hoobler and Swanberg (2006), ‘boundary spanners’ is the term used to describe occupations and job titles that bridge the gap between organisational members and outsiders. In their discussion, they highlight that these workers are subject to two distinct job demands. Not only do they represent the organisation to outsiders, but also serve to protect and buffer it from outside forces. This type of customer service can be at the expense of the psychological wellbeing of the employee, who is required to protect the policies and integrity of the organisation while placating difficult customers and attempting to protect themselves (Hoobler & Swanberg, 2006). Hoel and Einarsen (2003) add that these individuals are especially at risk for stress at work as a result of the interface between workers and customers inherent in their occupations.

A particular stressor resulting from the boundary spanning role of call centre employees is that of emotional labour (Chappell & Di Martino, 1998). In the case of service and frontline employees, the term generally refers to the suppression of the employee’s feelings in the face of awkward and often offensive customers and the management of emotions in order to display only those considered desirable by the organisation (Hochschild, 1983, as cited in Morris & Feldman, 1996). Bishop and Hoel (2008) describe the negative consequences of emotional labour as emotional dissonance, increased stress and in the case where individuals have not developed effective coping strategies, worker burnout. Various additional wellbeing indicators, or strains, have been linked to emotional labour; however of particular interest for the

present study are psychological wellbeing (Liu, Perrewe, Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2004) and intention to leave (Chau, Dahling, Levy & Diefendorff, 2009).

2.2. EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING

Roothman, Kirsten and Wissing (2003) conceptualise psychological wellbeing by referring to affective, physical, cognitive, spiritual, self and social processes. Van Eeding and Wissing (2002) on the other hand, describe psychological wellbeing as multi-dimensional with regard to the facets of the self that are involved, such as affect, cognition and behaviour as well as with regard to the domains of life in which these facets manifest themselves, such as intrapersonal and interpersonal and social and contextual. They offer satisfaction with life, a sense of coherence and affect-balance (where positive feelings prevail over negative feelings) as compelling indicators of psychological wellbeing. In addition, Ryff (2005) noted self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy and positive relations with others as contributing to psychological wellbeing.

With regard to the impact of emotional labour on the psychological wellbeing of an individual, while some advocate positive effects, such as providing a means for the employee to psychologically distance themselves from unpleasant situations or increasing the predictability of service interactions, thereby assisting in the avoidance of embarrassing faux pas and facilitating the reduction of stress (Morris & Feldman, 1996), the prevailing thought echoes that of Hochschild (1983), who noted the destructive consequences of experiencing and expressing certain emotions on the psychological wellbeing of an individual.

According to Hochschild (1983), emotional labour is detrimental to psychological wellbeing in that it is linked to drug abuse, alcohol abuse and absenteeism as well as eventual alienation or estrangement from an individual's true emotions. In addition, Adelman's (1989) work suggests that employees whose positions require elevated amounts of emotional labour report significantly lower job satisfaction, lower self-esteem, poorer health, and more depressive symptoms. Building on the work of Hochschild (1983), Rafaeli and Sutton (1990, 1991) examined various service occupations and also reported consistent evidence of emotional labour and its

significant negative influence on an individual's psychological wellbeing and job performance as well as on organisational outcomes. Pienaar and Willemse (2008) investigated the relationship between burnout, engagement, coping and the general health of South African service employees in the hospitality industry and found that the burnout resulting from emotional labour may contribute to ill-health and reduced psychological wellbeing. In addition, Zapf (2002) relates emotional labour to exhaustion and depersonalisation and highlights the existence of sufficient evidence with regard the negative effects of emotion work on psychological wellbeing, to warrant attention. Hence, in light of the noted deleterious effects of emotional labour on psychological wellbeing and the general health of individuals, psychological wellbeing was considered an important variable for examination and as such, was included as a dependent variable of the research.

2.3. EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND INTENTION TO LEAVE

Another strain of interest for the present study concerns the intention of an individual to exit the organisation in which they are employed (henceforth referred to as intention to leave). While undoubtedly an individual phenomenon, as a result of the increased staffing and training costs, operational disruption, lost production capacity and lower levels of customer service associated with actual turnover (Maertz & Campion, 2001), it is certainly an organisational concern as well. This is because the majority of perspectives have positioned turnover as the final outcome of a slow, deliberate process where employees evaluate their jobs, develop negative perceptions, secure future employment, and then leave (Chau et al., 2009). According to Chau et al. (2009), the intentions to turnover that are generated by this evaluation then shape actual turnover. In fact, a number of models position intention to leave as a direct antecedent to turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981) thereby advocating it as a variable that warrants serious organisational consideration.

In terms of the relationship between emotional labour and intention to leave, a number of researchers have noted withdrawal behaviours as an outcome of emotional labour (Abraham, 1999; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005). Grandey (2000), for example, argued that the increased physiological arousal which results from emotion management, may cause the individual to

withdraw from their work and ultimately leave the organisation. Visser and Rothman (2008) examined customer service representatives in a call centre in South Africa and found positive relationships between emotional exhaustion, emotional labour and turnover intentions. Wong and Law (2002) also note the influence of emotional labour on turnover intentions.

Another important variable for the present research is that of social support, particularly as a result the reported ability of support to reduce the negative effect of stress on health and wellbeing (House, 1981; van der Heijden, Kummerling, van Dame, van der Schoot, Estryn-Behar & Hasselhorn, 2010; Zapf, 2002). In addition, there occur explicit links in the literature between social support and the variables highlighted above, specifically that of emotional labour (Schneider & Bowen, 1985), psychological wellbeing (Zapf, 2002) and intention to leave (van der Heijden et al., 2010).

2.4. SOCIAL SUPPORT

2.4.1. INTRODUCTION- DEFINING SOCIAL SUPPORT

Williams, Barclay and Schmied (2004) suggest that a multitude of definitions of social support exist in the literature and highlight some inconsistency among studies as a result. Redman and Snape (2006) however, suggest that despite the disagreement around the conceptualisation of social support, the majority of definitions highlight an exchange of resources with the intention of enhancing individual wellbeing. For example, Shumaker and Brownell (1984) (as cited in Redman & Snape, 2006) define social support as ‘an exchange of resources between at least two individuals and perceived by the provider or the recipient to be intended to enhance the wellbeing of the recipient’ (p. 13). Van Daalen, Willemsen and Sanders (2006) also advocate the exchange of resources, with the aim of helping, in the definition of social support and differentiate between four different types of support, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.4.2. TYPES OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

According to Van Daalen et al. (2006), social support can involve providing empathy, care, love and trust (emotional support), actual aid in time, money and energy (instrumental support), information relevant to self-evaluation (appraisal support), and advice, information and suggestions (informational support) (p. 39). They also highlight the work of Friendman and Greenhaus (2000) (as cited in van Daalen et al., 2006) who report differential effects for the four types of social support and as a result advocate distinguishing between the types of support in future research. In light of this, the present study aims to differentiate between two types of social support, namely instrumental and emotional support. This is because emotional labour is considered a job task and both emotional and instrumental support are concerned with providing direct emotional and tangible assistance to the individual in order to ease their performance of their actual work as well as their experience of the work environment. In addition, Bakker and Demerouti (2006) offer emotional and instrumental support as the dominant forms of support evident in call centre environments. Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler and Cullen (2010) also note the importance of these two types of social support and suggest that the provision and receipt of emotional and/or instrumental support should facilitate the reduction of work-related stressors.

2.4.3. SOURCES OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

Van Daalen et al. (2006) further suggest that an individual may receive social support from work-related or non-work related sources. They distinguish these sources of social support into three distinct categories, namely: Friend and Family Support, Colleague Support and Supervisor Support. Redman and Snape (2006) highlight the importance of the distinction between the different sources of social support and suggest that different sources of support may vary in effectiveness for different individual circumstances. Beehr, King and King (1990) add that social support is most effective when the source of the support is relevant to the stressor being experienced. In light of this, it would seem that the effect of social support on the relationship between a stressor and strain would then differ according to the source of social support available. Upon examination of the three sources of support noted by van

Daalen et al. (2006), it appears that the most relevant sources of support with regard to emotional labour as a job requirement, would be those linked to the actual work environment, namely colleague and supervisor support. In this regard, Pienaar, Sieberhagen and Mostert (2007) offer that seminal work on social support has suggested that the support received from people at work, specifically from supervisors and colleagues, is the most important for mitigating occupational strain. In addition, Peeters and LeBlanc (2001) also suggest that the majority of studies on social support at work consider colleagues and supervisors as the foremost sources of support. They offer that individuals often share their experiences with colleagues in that it is likely that they would have encountered similar situations in the work context and would be able to empathise with the individual. With regard to supervisors, they note that positive effects are elicited when supervisors express understanding for employee experiences of difficult working conditions. In addition, supervisors are in a position of power and are able to alter the working situation (Peeters & LeBlanc, 2001). In light of the information presented above, the present research will focus on supervisors and colleagues as sources of social support.

While the distinction between different types and sources of support is important, a number of researchers have highlighted differential effects of all types and sources of social support on the stressor-strain relationship. For example, House (1981) advocated three different effects of social support on strain: a main effect, an indirect effect and a buffering/moderating effect. Other researchers have also noted main and moderator effects (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Henderson, 1984).

2.4.4. THE MAIN EFFECT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

According to House (1981), the main effect of social support occurs in that there is a generalised beneficial effect of social support on wellbeing, independent of stress. In addition, he noted that the indirect effect occurs in that social support may serve to reduce the cognitive appraisal of the stressor as threatening or stressful, thereby reducing or eliminating perceptions of the stressor itself. Three main effects of social support were of particular interest for the present research. These included a main effect of social support on the independent variable of emotional labour as well as on the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave.

Regarding the main effect of social support on emotional labour, Schneider and Bowen (1985) offer that support from supervisors and coworkers serves to facilitate the creation of a positive working environment, which should then minimise the need to engage in emotional labour. That is, less emotional effort is required in to display positive organisationally prescribed emotions if the working environment, and subsequently the employee's mood, are both positive. With regard to the effect of social support on psychological wellbeing, Zapf (2002) highlights a direct positive effect of social support on physical and mental health, as well as an indirect effect on health through the reduction of job stressors. In terms of intention to leave, van der Heijden et al. (2010) investigated the turnover intentions of nurses from various European countries, including France, The Netherlands, Slovakia, Belgium and Germany and found that low quality relationships in the form of low support from colleagues and supervisors, significantly predicted withdrawal behaviour and intention to leave. Conversely, high support from colleagues and supervisors was associated with lowered turnover intentions. Pienaar, Sieberhagen and Mostert (2007) investigated perceived social support in a sample of South African employees and found a negative association between social support from supervisors and colleagues with turnover intention.

2.3.5. MODERATING EFFECT OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderation involves a moderator variable affecting the *direction* and or *strength* of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. In the case of social support, House (1981) offers that the buffering/moderating effect occurs in that social support has a beneficial effect on strain when stressors are present. Here he explains that these social processes are not continual and operate solely when the individual is confronted with stressful circumstances. Similarly, Cohen and Wills (1985) argued that social support positively influenced health and well-being by protecting people from the pathogenic effects of stressors. Daniels and Guppy (1994) expand upon these notions and suggest that social support buffers the effects of stressors by providing resources that alter the perceived nature of the stressors so as to lessen their impact on wellbeing.

According to Carlson and Perrewe (1999), the moderating effect of social support continues to be the dominant hypothesis regarding the effects of social support on occupational stress. The main and moderating effects of social support on the variables of interest for the present research can be seen in *Figure 2* below.

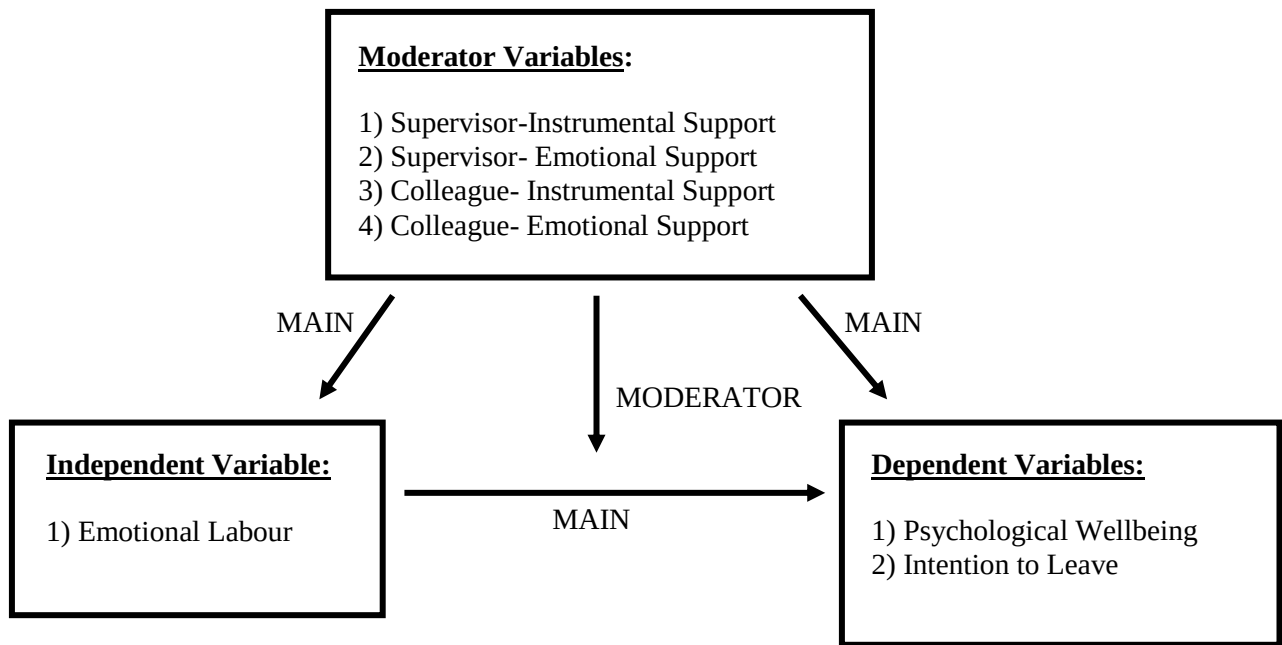


Figure 2. Main and Moderating Effect of Social Support

2.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The aim of the present study is then to examine different types of social support (emotional and instrumental) from different sources of social support (colleague and supervisor) as potential moderators of the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing and intention to leave in call centre employees. The following research questions are presented:

- 1) Is there a negative association between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing?
- 2) Is there a positive association between emotional labour and intention to leave?
- 3) Is there a negative association between social support and emotional labour?

- 4) Is there a positive association between social support and psychological wellbeing?
- 5) Is there a negative association between social support and intention to leave?
- 6) Does social support moderate the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing?
- 7) Does social support moderate the relationship between emotional labour and intention to leave?

It is important to note that for social support, the two types of support will be assessed for each of the two sources. In addition, an earlier discussion of this report was concerned with Bernstein's (1992) promotion of the revision of Cox and MacKay's (1981) Transactional Model as a result of limitations inherent in the original model. She advocates the adoption of an eclectic approach, specifically one that incorporates elements of the Michigan Model (1975) (as cited in Bernstein, 1992) which includes the addition of relevant moderator variables. In addition to the pertinent inclusion of social support as a moderator variable, this model has particular relevance for the present research in that it serves to describe the relationship between occupational stress, social support and affective, cognitive, behavioural and physiological outcomes (Jones, Smith & Johnston, 2005). The various revisions to the model can be seen in *Figure 3* below.

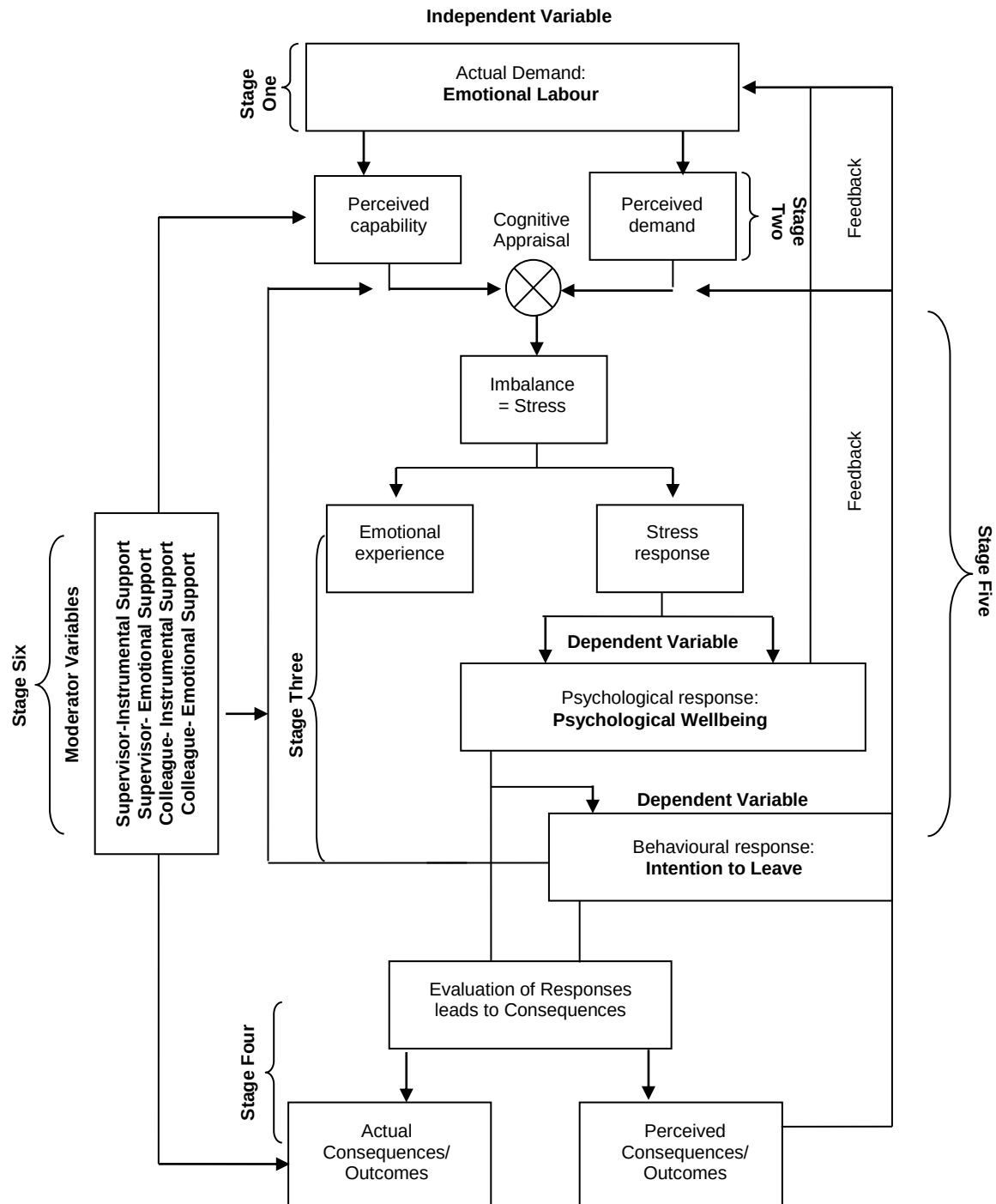


Figure 3. The Transactional-Michigan Model of Stress

(Adapted from Cox & MacKay, 1981; Bernstein, 1992)

From Figure 3, it can be seen that the independent variable of emotional labour occurs at the first stage where actual demands or stress events are perceived by the individual and then appraised in terms of their capability to cope (Bernstein, 1992). Dependent variables occur in terms of responses to stress at the psychological level

(psychological wellbeing) and at the behavioural level (intention to leave). The moderator variables occur at stage six where inter-and extra organismic variables that affect the stress process are considered (Bernstein, 1992). These include emotional and instrumental support from both supervisors and colleagues.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

The present research has a non-experimental design, which is both quantitative (i.e. social phenomena will be allocated numerical values) and cross sectional (i.e. data will be collected at one point in time). A non-experimental design was selected in light of the psychological phenomenon being investigated, especially with regards to stress, in that manipulation of such variables would be problematic, and in all probability unethical.

A cross sectional design was applied, in that this method is considered timely and cost effective (Whitley, 2002). While this type of method is typically unable to detect change in characteristics over time, because the aim of the present research was not to examine developmental trends, and in light of the fact that longitudinal designs are typically time consuming, and costly, a cross sectional design was deemed to be appropriate. In addition, multiple assessments become necessary with longitudinal designs as the attrition rate increases over the lengthier period of time. Furthermore, a cross sectional design was considered appropriate in light of the fact that the present study was exploratory in nature and involved the use of regression analyses, which are essentially a series of correlations (Berger, Mamdani, Atkins & Johnson, 2009), as a means of examining different types of support in relation to specific stressors and strains, particularly with regard to the presence of main and moderating effects.

3.2. THE MODEL

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the model adopted in this research is that of the Transactional Model (Cox & MacKay, 1981), which assumes a transactional approach to stress. In addition, selected aspects of the Michigan Model were incorporated as a result of limitations inherent in the original model as well the Michigan Model's inclusion of relevant moderator variables and affective, cognitive, behavioural and physiological outcomes (Jones, Smith & Johnston, 2005). Here it is assumed that work stressors have physiological, behavioural and psychological consequences, and as such may lead to strain which can then result in illness. In addition, it is suggested

that social environment variables, particularly social support, may serve to buffer the relationship between perceived stressors and strains and may have an independent effect as well (Bernstein, 1992). In the present research, the independent or stressor variable is emotional labour, the dependent or strain variables are psychological wellbeing and intention to leave and the moderator variables include emotional and instrumental support from both supervisors and colleagues (See *Figure 3-Chapter 2*).

3.3. SAMPLE

One hundred and eighty four call centre employees within a prominent Johannesburg financial institution in the banking sector voluntarily participated in the study.

Participants were recruited from the call centre division and the sample was assembled by means of convenience sampling. Employees of the organisation in question deal with a range of financial product related queries including applications for and processing of products such as home and personal loans, requests for and alteration of accounts, releasing of funds and any other product related tasks which the customer would usually perform in their local bank branch. As such, some are tasked with receiving telephone calls from customers and addressing queries, comments and complaints, while others are alternatively tasked with contacting customers to inform them of new and alternate products and services.

Employees ranged between the ages of 18 and 45 with a mean age of 25.51 and a standard deviation of 4.73. Of these, 69 were male, and 114 were female. With regards to ethnicity, 66 participants were African (36.7%), 78 were Coloured (42.6%), 23 were White (12.8%) and 16 were Indian (8.7%). None reported being Asian. In terms of education, 14 participants attained less than a Grade 12 (7.9%), 120 had attained Grade 12 (67.4%), 39 had attained a diploma in an unspecified field (21.9%) and 5 had a degree in an unspecified field (2.8%). 152 participants were single (83.1), 24 were married (13.1) and 7 were divorced (3.8). None reported being widowed or separated. In addition, 85 reported having no dependents (53.8), 48 as having a single dependent (30.3), 19 as having two dependents (12.0%) and 6 as having three dependents (3.8%). Five hundred and fifty one potential participants were contacted resulting in a response rate of 33.39%. With regard to tenure, call centres traditionally experience extremely high turnover rates (Lewig & Dollard, 2003). This phenomenon

was confirmed by a contact within the organisation, and as a result, tenure was excluded from the biographical section of the survey. Demographic details are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Demographic Details of Sample

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Percentage	N Missing
<i>Age</i>	175	25.51	4.73		9
<i>Gender</i>	183				1
Male	69			37.7	
Female	114			62.3	
<i>Ethnicity</i>	183				1
African	66			36.1	
Indian	16			8.7	
Coloured	78			42.6	
Asian	0			0	
White	23			12.6	
<i>Education</i>	178				6
< Grd 12	14			7.9	
Grd 12	120			67.4	
Diploma	39			21.9	
Degree	5			2.8	
<i>Marital Status</i>	183				1
Singe	152			83.1	
Married	24			13.1	
Divorced	7			3.8	
Widowed	0			0	
Separated	0			0	
<i>Dependents</i>	158				26
0	85			53.8	
1	48			30.4	
2	19			12.1	
3	6			3.8	

3.4. MEASURES

The survey (Appendix A) contained a section where biographical information, including age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents and level of education was requested. In addition, the survey included the following questionnaires:

Emotional Labour: Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) Emotional Labour Scale (Appendix A) was used to determine participant's experiences of emotional labour. The scale consists of fifteen items and six subscales, where participants are asked to indicate the duration and frequency of their interaction with customers, intensity and variety of the emotions they experience as well as the extent to which they are required to display deep acting and surface acting behaviours. The duration of customer interaction is assessed with a single free response question, which asks participants to identify the duration of an average customer interaction in minutes. The remaining fourteen items, require participants to indicate in response to the stem question "On an average day at work, how frequently do you do each of the following when interacting with customers?" These items include for example, "adopt certain emotions as part of your job," "try to actually feel the emotions that I must show" and "pretend to have emotions that I don't really have." Response options range from (1) never to (5) always.

Brotheridge and Lee (2003) report adequate internal consistency for the subscales with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .74 to .91. In addition they provide evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity, with regard to the relationship of the scale with associated measures as well as its ability to be adequately distinguished from other scales. Reliability information for the present sample was determined and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .84.

Social Support: Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison and Pinneau's (1980) (as cited in Johnson, 2004) Social Support Scale (Appendix A) was used to determine participant's perceptions of workplace support. The scale consists of four items, two assessing emotional support (easy to talk to and willing to listen to personal problems) and two assessing instrumental support (make things easier and can be relied on).

Participants are required to respond to each of the four items for both their supervisor and colleagues on a four point scale ranging from (1) not at all to (4) very much.

With regard to internal consistency, Repeti and Cosmas (1991) report a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .86 for the supervisor support scale and of .79 for the colleague support scale. Lim (1996) combined participant's scores on both the supervisor and colleague scales into an eight-item measure of work-based support and reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .80. In terms of validity, Repeti and Cosmas (1991) suggest that supervisor and colleague support scales correlate positively with measures of overall job satisfaction and work group cohesiveness. Scheck, Kinicki and Davy (1995) performed Confirmatory Factor Analysis and found that combining the scales into a single measure fit the data best. As a result, a single eight-item measure was used for the present research. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the present sample was .86.

Psychological Wellbeing: Participants psychological wellbeing was assessed with the twelve-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1972, as cited in Bernstein, 1992) (Appendix A). Based on the original sixty item version, this shorter scale has been widely used as a screening measure for general psychological health (Ye, 2009) and requires participants to rate their current psychological state on a four point scale with response options ranging from (1) better than usual to (4) much worse than usual. Items include, for example "Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing," "Have you recently lost much sleep over worry" and "Have you recently felt constantly under strain."

Goldberg (1972) (as cited in Bernstein, 1992) highlights adequate test-retest reliability for the scale over a period of six months and suggests that it demonstrates satisfactory split-half reliability. Banks (1985) investigated the efficacy of the scale within an organisational context and reported adequate psychometric properties, similar to those reported in clinical settings. Specifically, he reports Cronbach's alpha coefficients of between .82 and .90. In addition, Bluen (1986) (as cited in Bernstein, 1992) reports Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .91 and .93 for the scale when used within the South African organisational context. Reliability information for the present sample was determined and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .89.

Intention to Leave: O'Driscoll and Beehr's (1994) Turnover Intentions Scale (Appendix A), was used to determine participant's intention to leave. The scale consists of three items referring to employee feelings about their about their present job in relation to an alternative that they may be interested in or are able to obtain. The first item concerns thoughts about leaving their present place of employment and is measured on a six-point scale with response options ranging from (1) Strongly disagree to (6) All the time. The second item concerns plans to search for alternative employment in the following year and is measured on a six-point scale with response options ranging from (1) Strongly disagree to (6) Strongly agree. The final item concerns the likelihood of the individual to begin an active search of alternative employment outside of their present place of employment in the following year and is measured on a six-point scale with response options ranging from (1) Very Unlikely to (6) Very Likely.

With regards to reliability, O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) report a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .93. Riley (2006), reports a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .91. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the present sample was .86.

3.5. PROCEDURE

The call centre manager within the financial institution was approached and supplied with an explanation of the proposed research via a request for access letter (Appendix B). The manager was notified of issues surrounding informed consent of the participants, as well as the voluntary and confidential nature of their participation. Permission to access the call centre was then requested. The data gathering technique employed was that of survey methodology. This involved the administration of questionnaires to a sample of participants within a larger population. Here, the survey form was self-administered, allowing for concise and efficient completion, honest responses and the minimisation of interviewer bias (Babbie & Mouton, 2002).

Once access had been granted, potential participants were approached and invited to participate in a research project. Those individuals who wished to participate were provided with the survey, a sealable envelope as well as an information sheet (Appendix C) to clarify the nature and purpose of the research and were informed that

their participation would be anonymous, in that no identifying information such as their name, identification number or employee number would be required. They were assured of confidentiality in that only the researcher and the researcher's supervisor would have access to any data gathered and individual participants would not be identifiable as such. In addition, participants were informed that their participation would be voluntary and that they would not be disadvantaged in any way should they not wish to participate. Participants were provided with guidelines for completion and submission of the survey and were informed that they may discontinue participation at any time, prior to submission and that their consent was implied with the return of the anonymous survey. With regards to submission, participants were requested to place their completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and to seal it and then to place in the marked box, located in the company canteen. Ethical clearance for the study was obtained from the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand.

3.6. SCORING PROCEDURE

Scoring procedures followed those set out in the original inventories. For all four scales, total scores were computed from a summation of the Likert Scale ratings, with higher values representing a greater degree of emotional labour and social support while lower values represented a greater degree of psychological wellbeing and lower intention to leave. These were then converted to mean scores, in order to facilitate ease of interpretation.

3.7. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

3.7.1. MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION

In order to examine different types of social support (emotional and instrumental) from different sources of social support (colleague and supervisor) as potential moderators of the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing and intention to leave in call centre employees, a Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis (MMR) was conducted.

This technique was developed by Saunders (1956) and was selected in order to counter the spurious results, degradation of information and reduction of statistical power usually associated with Subgrouping Analysis (Mullins & Kopelman, 1987). In addition, Subgrouping Analysis has been associated with conflicted and inflated findings with regard to moderator variables (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984). Other advantages of the technique of MMR include that it allows for the inclusion of the total sample as well as the examination of nonlinear moderator effects (Mullins & Kopelman, 1987). This technique also allows for the detection of main effects.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis is a form of standardised multiple regression, which can be distinguished from the latter by its inclusion of an interaction term into the regression equation. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2004) an interaction effect concerns the effect of unique combinations of variables, and explains additional variance not accounted for by separate main effects and the combination thereof. Here, two primary concepts are identified, that of the main effect as well as that of the moderator effect (see Chapter 2) and MMR is able to assess both by employing a hierarchical analytical strategy which assesses the main effects of the independent and moderator variables first and then partials them out in order to assess the interaction effect (McClelland & Judd, 1993).

For the present research the Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis involved the computation of separate regression analyses for each of the dependent variables, namely that of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave. Each regression analyses required that the independent variable, or emotional labour, be entered first. Following this, one of the moderator variables, specifically one of the types of social support from one of the sources of social support, was entered into the regression analyses. The final step involved the addition of the interaction term, or the independent variable x the moderator variable (emotional labour x one of the types of social support from one of the sources of social support). A significance level of 0.05 was selected for these analyses, which was deemed appropriate in light of the stringency and robustness associated with Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984).

However, before performing the analyses, it was imperative to address the assumptions underlying this statistical technique. The assumptions of MMR are discussed below.

3.7.2. ASSUMPTIONS OF MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION

3.7.2.1. RELATIONSHIP OF BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

According to Bluen (1986) (as cited in Bernstein, 1992), Moderated Multiple Regression assumes no relationship between biographical variables and dependent variables. If a relationship is identified, the biographical variable must be included in the analysis, as a covariate. The existence of significant relationships between biographical and dependent variables are assessed via T-tests, in the case of categorical variables with two levels, One-way Analysis of Variance, in the case of three levels or more, and Pearson Correlation coefficients, where continuous variables are being analysed.

3.7.2.2. ABSENCE OF OUTLIERS

Extreme cases have a severe impact on the regression solution and also affect the precision of estimation of the regression weights, resulting in regression coefficients that are either too large or too small (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Neither solution generalises well to population values and as a result, it is generally recommended that outliers be deleted, rescored or transformed.

3.7.2.3. ABSENCE OF MULTICOLLINEARITY

Multicollinearity refers to a difficulty with a correlation matrix that occurs when variables are too highly correlated, for example, .90 and above (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). These correlations render variables redundant and as a result, inflate the size of error terms and weaken the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Multicollinearity can be detected via an examination of Pearson correlation coefficients, or alternatively via eigenvalues found within collinearity diagnostics.

3.7.2.4. NORMALITY, LINEARITY AND HOMOSCEDASTICITY OF RESIDUALS

Screening continuous variables for normality is an important early step in almost every multivariate analysis, particularly when inference is a goal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and although normality of the variables is not always a requirement for all analyses, it usually leads to a better solution, as non-normality can result in degradation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Normality can be assessed via histogram plots, as well as through skewness and kurtosis coefficients.

The assumption of linearity recommends that there exists a straight-line (or linear) relationship between each independent and dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). With regard to homoscedasticity of residuals, the assumption, for ungrouped data, is that the variability in scores for one variable is roughly the same at all values of another variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This assumption is often also referred to as equality of variance. In a moderated multiple regression, deviations with regard to the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity can be detected via an examination of the shape of the residuals scatterplot. This will be discussed in greater detail in the results section of this report.

3.7.2.5. MEASUREMENT ERROR

This assumption requires an absence of measurement error. While total elimination of error is unlikely, an examination of the error present in the analyses is vital in that there is a notable impact on the extent to which the regression estimates are accurate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), this assumption is evaluated via Cronbachs alpha coefficients with a value of .6 and above regarded as acceptable.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Participant's scores were captured and placed on a data file. The raw data were then entered into the SAS for Windows program, where descriptive and inferential analyses were carried out. The results of these analyses are presented below.

4.1. TESTS OF ASSUMPTIONS OF MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION

4.1.1. RELATIONSHIP OF BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES

In order to assess potential relationships between biographical and dependent variables, three procedures were selected. In the case of gender, Independent Samples T-Tests were conducted as this was a categorical variable with two levels. Psychological wellbeing and intention to leave scores for gender groups are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Independent Samples T-tests Comparison of Gender for Psychological Wellbeing and Intention to Leave

Psychological Wellbeing	Gender	
	Male	Female
N	69	114
Mean	2.001	2.183
Std Deviation	0.604	0.67
t	-1.84	
df	181	
p	0.067	
Intention to Leave		
N		
Mean	4.343	4.348
Std Deviation	1.576	1.401
t	-0.02	
df	180	
p	0.983	

Results of the Independent Samples T-Tests reveal that participants did not report significantly different psychological wellbeing and intention to leave scores for male and female groups.

One-way Analyses of Variance were conducted for the variables of education, marital status and ethnicity, as these involved categorical variables with three levels or more. The results of these analyses for psychological wellbeing and intention to leave are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

One-way Analyses of Variance Comparisons of Education, Marital status and Ethnicity for Psychological Wellbeing and Intention to Leave

	Education	Marital	Ethnicity
Psychological Wellbeing			
F	0.2	0.17	1.72
df	3	2	3
p	0.895	0.8471	0.164
Intention to Leave			
F	1.55	0.01	4.2*
df	3	2	3
p	0.202	0.988	0.007

* p < 0.05

Results of the One-way Analyses of Variance revealed that participants did not report significantly different psychological wellbeing and intention to leave scores for both education and marital status. However, significantly different intention to leave scores were reported in the case of ethnicity. Post hoc Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) and Bonferroni (Dunn) Tests revealed that the African and Coloured groups reported significantly higher intention to leave scores than the Indian group. African and Coloured groups did not differ significantly from each other. As a result, ethnicity

was included as a covariate in the relevant regression equations for intention to leave as a means of controlling for the potential spuriousness which could arise as a result the covariates' contribution to variance in intention to leave (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984).

In the case of age and number of dependents, as these were continuous variables, Pearson Correlation coefficients were computed. The Pearson Product-Moment correlations for psychological wellbeing and intention to leave are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations between Age, Number of Dependents, Psychological Wellbeing and Intention to Leave

	1	2	3	4
Demographic Variables				
1. Age	--			
2. Dependents	.038	--		
Dependent Variables				
3. Wellbeing	-.019	.070	--	
4. Intention to Leave	.159*	.001	.287***	--

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients suggest a weak, positive correlation between age and intention to leave ($r = .16$, $n = 174$, $p = 0.0367$). As such, age was included as a covariate in the relevant regression equations for intention to leave. No relationship appears to exist between the reported number of dependents and either of the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave.

4.1.2. ABSENCE OF OUTLIERS

In order to assess the presence of outliers, both the residuals scatterplot and graphic representation of Cooks' D values were examined. In the current research, the presence of potential outliers was confirmed. The general recommendation is that these outliers be deleted, rescored or transformed, however because their removal did not significantly alter the nature or direction of regression relationships, they were retained for further statistical analyses.

4.1.3. NORMALITY, LINEARITY AND HOMOSCEDASTICITY OF RESIDUALS

In a moderated multiple regression, deviations with regard to the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity can be detected via an examination of the shape of the residuals scatterplot. An examination of the normal probability plot indicated an approximate straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right, suggesting no major deviations from normality. In the scatter plot of the standardised residuals, these appeared largely rectangularly distributed with the majority of scores concentrated in the centre. The absence of clear or systematic patterns to the residuals suggest that the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of residuals have been satisfied

4.1.4. MEASUREMENT ERROR

In order to determine the presence of measurement error, internal consistency reliability analyses were conducted on each of the measurement scales. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) offer this as a valid measure of this assumption and suggest that Cronbach's alpha coefficients with a value of .7 and above are deemed acceptable. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales employed in the present research are summarised in Table 5.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Internal Consistency Estimates for Measurement Instruments

Measurement Instrument	N Items	Item Min	Item Max	M	SD	Alpha
Emotional Labour Scale	15	1	5	46.060	8.927	.841
Social Support Scale	8	1	4	2.857	0.842	.865
General Health Questionnaire	12	1	4	25.326	7.809	.894
Turnover Intentions Scale	3	1	6	4.333	1.471	.862

Results indicate that the internal reliability alpha coefficients for the measurement instruments employed in the present research range between .84 and .89. These values remain above the recommended value of .7 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In light of this and the scale reliability information presented in the method section, it appears that the assumption with regard to the absence of measurement error remains unchallenged.

4.1.5. ABSENCE OF MULTICOLLINEARITY

Multicollinearity was evaluated via an examination of Pearson correlation coefficients for relationships between the independent and moderator variables. The Pearson Product-Moment correlations for emotional labour and social support are presented in Table 6. Included in this table are the dependent variables as a means of determining the direction of relationships between study variables, however, in regard to multicollinearity, only associations between the independent and moderator variables are evaluated.

Table 6

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations between Emotional Labour, Social Support, Psychological Wellbeing and Intention to Leave

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Independent Variable							
1. Emotional Labour	--						
Moderator Variables							
2. Supervisor-Instrumental Support	.071	--					
3. Supervisor- Emotional Support	.117	.853***	--				
4. Colleague- Instrumental Support	-.079	.421***	.309***	--			
5. Colleague- Emotional Support	-.028	.441***	.388***	.691***	--		
Dependent Variables							
6. Psychological Wellbeing	.149*	-.259***	-.244***	-.197**	-.159*	--	
7. Intention to Leave	.108	-.381***	-.331***	.395***	-.388***		--

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficients suggest moderate to strong correlations between each of the different sources and types of support. The correlations between variables all remain below the recommended .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), suggesting that the assumption with regard to the absence of multicollinearity has been satisfied. No relationship appears to exist between emotional labour and any of the social support moderator variables.

As each of the assumptions underlying Moderated Multiple Regression appeared to have been satisfied, MMR analyses were conducted. The results of these analyses are presented in the subsequent section.

4.2. RESULTS OF MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES

4.2.1. PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING

Psychological wellbeing was regressed onto emotional labour and colleague-emotional support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x colleague-emotional support. Findings indicated a significant main effect of emotional support from colleagues on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = -2.01, p = 0.046$) which explained 6.1% of the variance in psychological wellbeing. This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for emotional support from colleagues are associated with low scores for psychological wellbeing. However, the scale employed to measure psychological wellbeing is designed so that lower scores represent increased psychological wellbeing. As such, results suggest that increased emotional support from colleagues is associated with increased psychological wellbeing. Results of the MMR for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and colleague-emotional support are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Emotional Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	-0.29	-1.00	0.32
Colleague- Emotional Support	-0.63	-2.01	0.04
Emotional Labour x Colleague- Emotional Support	0.15	1.59	0.11
R ²	0.061		

Psychological wellbeing was regressed onto emotional labour and colleague-instrumental support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x colleague-instrumental support. Findings indicated no significant main or interaction effects of emotional labour or instrumental support from colleagues on psychological wellbeing. Results of the MMR for psychological

wellbeing on emotional labour and colleague-instrumental support are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Instrumental Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	-0.14	-0.54	0.59
Colleague- Instrumental Support	-0.50	-1.58	0.12
Emotional Labour x Colleague-Instrumental Support	0.11	1.11	0.27
R ²	--		

While the assumption of the absence of multicollinearity was satisfied via an assessment of Pearson Product-Moment correlations, an examination of the condition index within the collinearity diagnostics for this regression analysis suggested a maximum condition index of 73.27. This exceeds the recommended maximum of 30 and as such, appears to indicate potential multicollinearity. As a result, the regression analysis was conducted a second time, however without the interaction term. Once the interaction term had been removed from the analysis, findings indicated a significant main effect of instrumental support from colleagues on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = -2.55, p = 0.012$) which explained 5.6% of the variance in psychological wellbeing. This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for instrumental support from colleagues are associated with low scores for psychological wellbeing. However, in light of the manner in which the psychological wellbeing scale is designed, results suggest that increased instrumental support from colleagues is associated with increased psychological wellbeing. Results of the regression analysis for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and colleague-instrumental support are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Instrumental Support- No Interaction Term

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	0.14	1.80	0.07
Colleague- Instrumental Support	-0.16	-0.26	0.01
R ²	0.056		

Psychological wellbeing was regressed onto emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x supervisor-emotional support. Findings indicated no significant main or interaction effects of emotional labour or emotional support from supervisors on psychological wellbeing. Results of the MMR for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Emotional Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	0.39	1.70	0.09
Supervisor- Emotional Support	0.05	0.19	0.85
Emotional Labour x Supervisor- Emotional Support	-0.07	-0.93	0.35
R ²	--		

The maximum condition index for this MMR was 63.39. As such, a second regression analysis was conducted without the interaction term. Once the interaction term had been removed from the analysis, two significant findings emerged. Emotional labour had a significant main effect on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = 2.59, p = 0.011$). This relationship is positive, suggesting that high scores for emotional labour are associated with high scores for psychological wellbeing. However, in light of the

manner in which the psychological wellbeing scale is designed, results suggest that increased emotional labour is associated with reduced psychological wellbeing. In addition, emotional support from supervisors had a significant main effect on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = -3.71, p = 0.001$), suggesting that increased emotional support from supervisors is associated with increased psychological wellbeing.

Therefore, 9.3 % of the variance in psychological wellbeing can be explained by emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support. Results of the MMR for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Emotional Support - No Interaction Term

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	T	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	0.19	2.59	0.01
Supervisor- Emotional Support	-0.18	-3.71	< 0.001
R ²	0.093		

Psychological wellbeing was regressed onto emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x supervisor-instrumental support. Findings indicated no significant main or interaction effects of emotional labour or instrumental support from supervisors on psychological wellbeing. Results of the MMR for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Instrumental Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	T	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	0.35	1.53	0.13
Supervisor- Instrumental Support	0.01	0.04	0.97
Emotional Labour x Supervisor-Instrumental Support	-0.06	-0.80	0.42
R ²	--		

The maximum condition index for this MMR was 63.68. As such, a second regression analysis was conducted without the interaction term. Once the interaction term had been removed from the analysis, two significant findings emerged. Emotional labour had a significant main effect on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = 2.40, p = 0.018$). This relationship is positive, suggesting that high scores for emotional labour are associated with high scores for psychological wellbeing. However, in light of the manner in which the psychological wellbeing scale is designed, results suggest that increased emotional labour is associated with reduced psychological wellbeing. In addition, instrumental support from supervisors had a significant main effect on psychological wellbeing ($t_{(1)} = -3.82, p = 0.001$) suggesting that increased instrumental support from supervisors is associated with increased psychological wellbeing.

Therefore, 9.6 % of the variance in psychological wellbeing can be explained by emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support. Results of the MMR for psychological wellbeing on emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Moderated Multiple Regression for Psychological Wellbeing on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Instrumental Support - No Interaction Term

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
Emotional Labour	0.17	2.40	0.02
Supervisor- Instrumental Support	-0.19	-3.82	< 0.001
R ²	0.096		

4.2.2. INTENTION TO LEAVE

Intention to leave was regressed onto the covariates of African, Indian, Coloured and age, followed by emotional labour and colleague-emotional support. Race was therefore divided into distinct dichotomous variables which were separately entered into the regression equation. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x colleague-emotional support. Findings indicated no significant main or interaction effects of the covariates, emotional labour or emotional support from colleagues on intention to leave. Results of the MMR for intention to leave on emotional labour and colleague-emotional support are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Emotional Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.57	1.73	0.09
Indian	-0.48	-1.09	0.28
Coloured	0.34	1.03	0.31
Age	0.04	1.77	0.08
Emotional Labour	-0.17	-0.29	0.78
Colleague- Emotional Support	-1.10	-1.69	0.09
Emotional Labour x Colleague- Emotional Support	0.10	0.54	0.59
R ²	--		

The maximum condition index for this MMR was 94.66. As such, a second regression analysis was conducted without the interaction term. Once the interaction term had been removed from the analysis, findings indicated a significant main effect of emotional support from colleagues on intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = -5.40, p < 0.0001$) which explained 23% of the variance in intention to leave. This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for emotional support from colleagues are associated with low scores for intention to leave. Results of the regression analysis for intention to leave on emotional labour and colleague-emotional support are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Emotional Support- No Interaction Term

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.58	1.73	0.08
Indian	-0.48	-1.11	0.27
Coloured	0.34	1.03	0.30
Age	0.04	1.77	0.08
Emotional Labour	0.14	0.85	0.40
Colleague- Emotional Support	-0.76	-5.40	<.0001
R ²	0.230		

Intention to leave was regressed onto the covariates of African, Indian, Coloured and age, followed by emotional labour and colleague-instrumental support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x colleague-instrumental support. Findings indicated no significant main or interaction effects of the covariates, emotional labour or instrumental support from colleagues on intention to leave. Results of the MMR for intention to leave on emotional labour and colleague-emotional support are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Instrumental Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.61	1.89	0.06
Indian	-0.42	-0.97	0.34
Coloured	0.31	0.96	0.34
Age	0.02	0.98	0.33
Emotional Labour	-0.35	-0.65	0.52
Colleague- Instrumental Support	-1.28	-1.95	0.05
Emotional Labour x Colleague-Instrumental Support	0.16	0.80	0.43
R ²	--		

The maximum condition index for this MMR was 87.34. As such, a second regression analysis was conducted without the interaction term. Once the interaction term had been removed from the analysis, findings indicated a significant main effect of instrumental support from colleagues on intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = -5.92, p < 0.0001$) which explained 25.7% of the variance in intention to leave. This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for instrumental support from colleagues are associated with low scores for intention to leave. Results of the regression analysis for intention to leave on emotional labour and colleague-instrumental support are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Colleague-Instrumental Support- No Interaction Term

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.61	1.91	0.06
Indian	-0.43	-0.99	0.32
Coloured	0.30	0.95	0.34
Age	0.02	0.95	0.34
Emotional Labour	0.06	0.37	0.71
Colleague- Instrumental Support	-0.77	-5.92	<.0001
R ²	0.257		

Intention to leave was regressed onto the covariates of African, Indian, Coloured and age, followed by emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x supervisor-emotional support. Findings indicated a significant main effect of emotional support from supervisors on intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = -3.60, p < 0.001$). This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for emotional support from supervisors are associated with low scores for intention to leave. In addition, the interaction between emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support was a significant predictor of intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = 2.70, p = 0.007$). However, this interaction inverts the relationship to a positive value which suggests that the moderator has a detrimental effect. That is, in the event of the experience of emotional labour, supervisor support increases the intention of the individual to leave the organisation.

Therefore, 24% of the variance in intention to leave can be explained by supervisor-emotional support and the interaction between emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support. Results of the MMR for intention to leave on emotional labour and supervisor-emotional support are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Emotional Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.49	1.48	0.14
Indian	-0.54	-1.24	0.22
Coloured	0.15	0.46	0.65
Age	0.04	1.67	0.10
Emotional Labour	-0.95	-1.95	0.05
Supervisor- Emotional Support	-1.93	-3.60	< 0.001
Emotional Labour x Supervisor- Emotional Support	0.43	2.70	< 0.01
R ²	0.240		

Intention to leave was regressed onto the covariates of African, Indian, Coloured and age, followed by emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support. This was followed by the addition of an interaction term of emotional labour x supervisor-instrumental support. Findings indicated a significant main effect of instrumental support from supervisors on intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = -3.50$, $p < 0.001$). This relationship is negative, suggesting that high scores for instrumental support from supervisors are associated with low scores for intention to leave. In addition, the interaction between emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support was a significant predictor of intention to leave ($t_{(1)} = 2.46$, $p = 0.015$). Again, however, the interaction inverts the relationship to a positive value which suggests that the moderator has a detrimental effect. That is, in the event of the experience of emotional labour, supervisor support increases the intention of the individual to leave the organisation.

Therefore, 26.6% of the variance in intention to leave can be explained by supervisor-instrumental support and the interaction between emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support. Results of the MMR for intention to leave on emotional labour and supervisor-instrumental support are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Moderated Multiple Regression for Intention to Leave on Emotional Labour and Supervisor-Instrumental Support

Variable Entering Equation	Beta	t	Pr > t
African	0.49	1.51	0.13
Indian	-0.56	-1.31	0.19
Coloured	0.11	0.35	0.73
Age	0.04	1.72	0.09
Emotional Labour	-0.83	-1.75	0.08
Supervisor- Instrumental Support	-1.94	-3.50	< 0.001
Emotional Labour x Supervisor- Instrumental Support	0.40	2.46	0.01
R ²	0.266		

4.3. RESULTS SUMMARY

- 1) Emotional labour has a main effect on the dependent variable of psychological wellbeing. This relationship is positive, suggesting that high scores for emotional labour are associated with high scores for psychological wellbeing. However, in light of the design of the psychological wellbeing scale, results suggest that increased emotional labour is associated with reduced psychological wellbeing.
- 2) Emotional labour did not have a significant main effect on the dependent variable of intention to leave.
- 3) Colleague-emotional support has a main effect on the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave. Both relationships are negative suggesting that high scores for emotional support from colleagues are associated with low scores for intention to leave and low scores for psychological wellbeing. However, in light of the design of the psychological wellbeing scale, results suggest that increased emotional support from colleagues is associated with increased psychological wellbeing.

- 4) Colleague-instrumental support has a main effect on the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave. Here, both relationships are also negative suggesting that high scores for instrumental support from colleagues are associated with low scores for intention to leave and increased psychological wellbeing.
- 5) Supervisor- emotional support has a main effect on the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave. Again, both relationships are negative suggesting that high scores for emotional support from supervisors are associated with low scores for intention to leave and increased psychological wellbeing.
- 6) Supervisor-instrumental support has a main effect on the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave. Both relationships are negative suggesting that high scores for instrumental support from supervisors are associated with low scores for intention to leave and increased psychological wellbeing.
- 7) Both supervisor- emotional support and supervisor-instrumental support have moderating effects on the relationship between emotional labour and intention to leave. In each case, the interaction inverts the relationship to a positive value, suggesting that the moderator has a detrimental effect. That is, in the event of the experience of emotional labour, supervisor support increases the intention of the individual to leave the organisation.

These results will be discussed in further detail in the following section. This will be followed by an outline of theoretical and practical implications and the limitations of the present research will be delineated.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to examine different types of social support (emotional and instrumental) from different sources of social support (colleague and supervisor) as potential moderators of the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing and intention to leave in call centre employees. In order to do so, a series of statistical analyses were carried out on the sample of participants (see Results Chapter). In general, findings indicated that the present sample was experiencing an average amount of emotional labour ($M=3.28$) with a slightly above average level of support from both supervisors ($M=2.83$) and colleagues ($M=2.88$). In addition, their wellbeing was the same as usual ($M=2.11$), and intention to leave scores were somewhat average ($M=4.33$).

With regard to the research questions proposed in Chapter 2, results confirmed a relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing. This relationship was positive, suggesting that increased emotional labour is associated with higher scores on the psychological wellbeing measure. As mentioned in the Results Chapter, the psychological wellbeing scale is designed so that higher scores represent reduced psychological wellbeing. As such, the findings of the present research appear to reiterate the work of Hochschild (1983), Zapf (2002) and Pienaar and Willemse (2008) who noted significant negative and detrimental influences of emotional labour on an individual's psychological wellbeing. It is important to note however, that in the case of the present research, this relationship was relatively weak, with emotional labour contributing to less than ten percent of the variance in psychological wellbeing.

Thoits (1991) offers a possible explanation for this weak relationship and highlights the notion of identity in this regard. She suggests that the negative effects of emotional labour on psychological wellbeing are moderated by the identification of the individual with their specific role (or the values and norms of the role). As such, the effects of emotional labour on an individual are then dependent on their perception of the relevance of emotional labour to their important identities, where, as the relevance increases, so does the potential threat to their psychological wellbeing (Thoits, 1991). According to Thoits (1991), if emotional labour offers the employee an opportunity to express their commitment to the valued identity, it would constitute

an identity-relevant experience, specifically, an identity-enhancing one. However, if the individual is indifferent to the identity implicated in the role, then emotional labour will constitute an identity-irrelevant experience and will then have little impact on the wellbeing of the employee (Thoits, 1991). Finally, if one has assumed an identity whose normative expectations are contradictory to those in the customer-contact role, then emotional labour is considered an identity-threatening experience and will have a negative impact on individual psychological wellbeing. In the case of the present research, if participants are indifferent to the identity implicated in their role within the call centre and the values and requirements of that role, then their experience of emotional labour would be identity-irrelevant as a result. As such it is likely that emotional labour would then have a limited influence on their psychological wellbeing.

Another important consideration is highlighted by Abraham (1998), who advocates the importance of control in the emotion work-wellbeing relationship. Here, he suggests that individuals with high perceived control over their work environment would possess the ability to make decisions around whether to subscribe to organisationally prescribed emotional display rules in a given situation. Furthermore, Abraham (1998) offers that these individuals may also be better able to adapt the display to their personality and individual style, thereby reducing emotional dissonance, which may then reduce the impact of resulting emotional labour on psychological wellbeing. Hence, if employees in the current sample have a high perception of control over their work environment, a weakening of the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing may occur as a result.

The notion of emotional intelligence has also been offered as a possible explanation for the reduced impact of emotional labour on psychological wellbeing. According to Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler and Mayer (2000), emotional intelligence refers to “the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion accurately; the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate cognition; the ability to understand affect-laden information and make use of emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth and well-being” (p. 506). Goleman (1995) proposes that emotional intelligence is an ideal characteristic in service interactions and suggests that individuals high in emotional intelligence are

generally proficient at social interaction, and may actually generate positive feelings in their interaction partner. As a result, these individuals are usually able to engage in the processes of emotional labour with greater ease and effectiveness, thereby reducing the detrimental impact of this emotional labour on their psychological wellbeing (Goleman, 1995). Therefore, if the emotional intelligence of participants in the present sample is relatively high, a minimisation of the impact of emotional labour on wellbeing would most likely result.

Finally, Salanova, Piero and Schaufeli (2002) highlight the notion of self-efficacy in their explanation of the limited effect of emotional labour on psychological wellbeing. Here, they suggest that self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief around their competence and likelihood of success in given aspects and situations. According to their view, emotional labour will have less influence on the psychological wellbeing of employees with a higher sense of self-efficacy, in that these individuals are more likely to perceive themselves as capable of coping with the emotional demands inherent in their position. Here, Salanova et al. (2002) explain that emotional labour will likely not result in psychological disturbance as strongly in these employees as in employees with a lower sense of self-efficacy. They also note that employees who are more confident in their ability to provide a service tend to withstand higher levels of emotional labour and emotional exhaustion than employees who are less confident. Hence, if participants possess a high sense of self-efficacy and are confident in their abilities, it is likely that the impact of emotional labour on their psychological wellbeing would then be minimal.

In terms of the possibility of a positive association between emotional labour and the second dependent variable of intention to leave, results suggested no significant relationship between these variables. This finding is inconsistent with the work of Visser and Rothman (2008) and Wong and Law (2002) who found positive relationships between emotional labour and turnover intentions. One potential explanation is that other factors, such as those highlighted above, are operating to minimise the detrimental effects of experienced emotional labour on participant's psychological wellbeing and as a result are mitigating the association between their psychological wellbeing and intention to leave (Warr, 1990). Alternatively, there may be other factors that are influencing participant's intentions to remain within the

organisation. This is particularly relevant in light of the small amount of variance in psychological wellbeing that was accounted for by emotional labour.

The first potential factor influencing employee turnover intentions could include employee tenure, or the length of time that an employee has been operating within the organisation. According to Richardson, Alexander and Castleberry (2008), more experienced employees may be better able to control their emotions in the workplace as a result of increased knowledge about the emotional specifics of their position and as such may have learned how best to manage and express emotions relevant to the job, through experience. In addition, they note an increase in the financial and professional investment of employees as their tenure increases, thereby increasing the financial and social costs associated with leaving a particular position. As such, while tenure was not considered a variable of interest in the present study, the potential impact of the length of time spent in a position on the turnover intentions of employees is worth noting and may have contributed to the turnover intentions of participants.

Other variables that have been emphasised as predominant in their contribution to intention to leave that were not explored in the present research include job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Arthur (2001) when employees are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organisation, they have a lower tendency to leave their organisation. The association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is also emphasised, however, there is some inconsistency in the literature in regard to the precise nature of this relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), some ascertain that job satisfaction leads to organisational commitment, while others advocate that organisational commitment leads to job satisfaction. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that these two factors contribute to the desire of employees to remain within their organisations (Irvine & Evans, 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Therefore, if participants in the current sample were satisfied with their current position within the call centre and were committed to the organisation, this may have impacted upon their reported turnover intentions.

Bakker et al. (2003) offer another explanation of turnover predictors for call centre employees and advocate the differentiation between job demands and job resources. They highlight the Job Demands-Resources model in this regard, which details how employee health and involvement in an organisation may occur as a result of two specific sets of working conditions, specifically job demands and job resources. According to Bakker et al. (2003) job demands include characteristics of the position that have the potential to induce strain, particularly in cases where they exceed the adaptive capability of the employee. More specifically, these include emotional demands and refer to aspects of the job where sustained physical or psychological effort is required on the part of the employee and as such are associated with certain physiological or psychological costs (Bakker et al., 2003). Alternatively, job resources concern the extent to which important resources are made available to individual employees, in the form of physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the position that either, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, are functional in achieving work goals or stimulate personal growth, learning and development. According to Bakker et al. (2003), while job demands (such as emotional labour) are considered important predictors of absenteeism, particularly as a result of health complaints, job resources (such as social support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback and time control) serve to foster goal accomplishment and stimulate personal growth and development. As such, job resources may lead to a stronger involvement in terms of organisational commitment and dedication which may then result in a lower intention to leave the organisation (Bakker et al., 2003). Hence, in the case of the present sample, emotional labour may be operating more as a job demand. In addition, results of the current research indicate a significant main effect of emotional and instrumental support from colleagues on intention to leave which may be ameliorating the effect of emotional labour on intention to leave.

Another important consideration in regard to alternative explanations for the turnover intentions of participants, concerns turnover trends in the South African employment market. Research with regards to turnover behaviour suggests that voluntary turnover is affected by two primary factors: the attractiveness of a current position and the availability of alternatives (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins & Gupta, 1998). In the South African context, the availability of alternatives is somewhat restricted in that the

current workplace context is characterised by an exceptionally high unemployment rate that is further aggravated by low wages. As such, a position within the call centre industry creates employment opportunities and provides skills training (Altman, 2006). This is particularly important in light of the fact that there is a significant skills shortage in the country, coupled with high levels of illiteracy (Altman, 2006). As such, despite the low wages and somewhat stressful working conditions associated with call centre work, in the South African context, it may continue to be viewed as an attractive occupational opportunity, and employees may not be as willing to vacate their position as readily as their international equivalents where employment is not as scarce.

Finally, Glomb and Tews (2004) contradict the proposal of any direct effect of emotional labour on turnover intentions entirely and offer emotional labour as a relatively mundane experience which is common to various occupations. Here, they suggest that emotional labour is therefore unlikely to represent the level of impact that would prompt turnover decisions. Glomb and Tews (2004) instead offer that job perceptions will carry the influence of emotional labour to turnover, suggesting a less direct link.

In terms of a potential negative association between social support and emotional labour, results indicate that no relationship appears to exist between emotional labour and any of the social support moderator variables. This finding is contradictory to Schneider and Bowen's (1985) proposal that support from supervisors and coworkers serves to facilitate the creation of a positive working environment, which then minimises the need to engage in emotional labour, in that less emotional effort is required in to display positive organisationally prescribed emotions. In addition, there is a general assertion that social support may serve to reduce the cognitive appraisal of stressors as threatening or stressful, thereby reducing or eliminating perceptions of the stressor itself (House, 1981). However, in light of the above supposition of the sample experiencing a somewhat average level of emotional labour and its detrimental effect on psychological wellbeing being relatively minimal, emotional labour may not be operating entirely as a stressor here and as such the role of support as a means of reducing the stressor would not be emphasised.

With regard to possible relationships between social support and the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing and intention to leave, results confirm the presence of negative relationships for all types and sources of social support with both dependent variables. As such, increased emotional and instrumental support from colleagues and supervisors is associated with improved psychological wellbeing, as lower scores on the wellbeing scale represent enhanced wellbeing. In addition, increased emotional and instrumental support from colleagues and supervisors is associated with reduced intention to leave. This appears in line with the work of Zapf (2002) who highlights a direct positive effect of social support on physical and mental health as well as Van der Heijden et al. (2010) and Pienaar, et al. (2007) who found a negative association between social support from supervisors and colleagues and turnover intentions.

Regarding whether social support moderates the relationship between emotional labour and the dependent variables of psychological wellbeing intention to leave, results indicate that none of the social support variables moderated the relationship between emotional labour and psychological wellbeing. Also, emotional and instrumental support from colleagues did not moderate the relationship between emotional labour and intention to leave. Possible explanations include the sample size, the impact of extraneous variables and/or the potential presence of multicollinearity, each of which are discussed in further detail in the limitations section of this discussion. Results did however indicate affirmative moderator effects for emotional and instrumental support from supervisors and intention to leave. As mentioned in Chapter 2, moderation involves a moderator variable affecting the *direction* and or *strength* of the relationship between and independent variable and a dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the case of the present findings, the relationship was inverted to a positive value, suggesting that the moderator has a detrimental effect. That is, in the event of the experience of emotional labour, supervisor support increases the intention of the individual to leave the organisation.

One explanation is that the current results are contrary to the writings of House (1981), Daniels and Guppy (1994) and the like, who noted the beneficial effects of support on strain when stressors are present. In particular, they offered that social support provides resources that alter the perceived nature of the stressors so as to

lessen their impact on wellbeing and as a result, is generally perceived as constructive on the part of recipients. In the resent sample however, employee's perception of supervision and supervisor support may not be positive. According to Holman, Chissick and Totterdell (2002), when supervision is perceived as a form of performance monitoring for example, employees generally experience higher levels of stress and dissatisfaction. Here, they note that supervision may then be perceived as threatening, in that it may be viewed as a tool employed by supervisors in order to gain information about employees that may negatively affect remuneration and promotion decisions, which may in turn, negatively affect an employee's relationship with their colleagues or supervisor.

Another explanation is offered by Thompson and Prottas (2005) who highlight the importance of control. They suggest that individuals are motivated to seek control over their environment and that their perceptions of control may be influenced by the attitudes and behaviours of others, particularly supervisors. As mentioned in a previous section of this report, Karasek (1979) also highlighted the importance of perceptions of control, particularly in regard to reducing perceived work demands. In light of this, if participants had been operating within their current occupational role for a significant amount of time, the increased knowledge, expertise and skill which would most likely result, may have increased their perception of control over their work demands, including those presented by emotional labour requirements. Again, while tenure was not considered a variable of interest in the present study, if an individual's perception of control is enhanced by the length of time spent in a position, then their need for supervisory support would be reduced. As such, attempts on the part of the supervisor to offer support in such instances may be viewed as intrusive or as a sign of distrust in the competence of the employee, thereby threatening the employee's sense of control and increasing negative perceptions around work demand and supervisor support.

Deelstra, Peeters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra and Doornen (2003) offer a similar notion and suggest that when the support offered is perceived as a threat to the freedom of choice of the recipient, it will most likely elicit negative reactions. Here, they highlight that when support is imposed on the employee by a superior, and is provided without any exploration into the necessity or desire for that support, it may

have detrimental consequences. Deelstra et al. (2003) explain that this occurs as a result of the employee's perceived inability to refuse the support and their perceptions around their inability to work independently, which will then result in negative reactions.

Finally Shinn, Lehmann and Wong (1984) propose the theory of person-environment fit (Caplan, 1979; French, 1973) in understanding the differential consequences of social support. They highlight the importance of correspondence or fit between individual characteristics or circumstances and environmental supplies and suggest that if support is considered an environmental supply, its effects should be contingent on its fit with individual circumstances. As such, according to the work of Shinn et al. (1984), if the support provided by the supervisor fails to match the circumstances of individuals, negative perceptions of that support will most likely result. These can include perceptions of threat to the employee's self-esteem, implied superiority-inferiority relationships as well as conflicts with values of self-reliance and independence. In addition, unwanted support can be viewed as an invasion of privacy.

In sum, the above research regarding differential perceptions of supervision and support and the various circumstances within which supervision occurs may offer important insight into the contrary findings of the present research in regard to the moderating role of supervisory support.

5.1. LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are a number of important limitations with regard to the present study which have significant implications for future research. The first involves the use survey methodology as a means of eliciting questionnaire information from participants. While this type of methodology allows for concise and efficient completion and the minimisation of interviewer bias (Babbie & Mouton, 2002), there are concerns regarding the subjectivity, accuracy, validity and generalisability of survey methodology, particularly in regard to the introduction of response bias as well as questions around their ability to truly capture complex phenomena (Whitley, 2002).

The use of volunteers from a single call centre within a financial organisation may have also introduced certain biases and threatens generalisation in that the sample may not be representative of the general population (Babbie, 2004). This is particularly important in light of the fact that the variables under consideration, are not limited to call centre environments, and are relevant for all occupations within the service industry.

Another limitation includes a relatively small sample size in terms of the requirements for moderated multiple regression analysis, which may have reduced the statistical power of the study. As such, the possibility of making a type II error increases which may then result in failures with regard to the detection of significant findings (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004). Further, the potential presence of multicollinearity in some instances may have also inflated error terms and weakened the analysis as a result (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Furthermore, only two of the four proposed types and three proposed sources of social support were employed in the current research as these were deemed most relevant. While the inclusion of Friend and Family support as well as appraisal and informational support were considered beyond the scope of the present research, their impact on emotional labour, psychological wellbeing and intention to leave has been noted in the literature. For example, in the case of Friend and Family support, Redman and Snape (2006) offer that employees draw upon networks of extended family and friends for support in their personal and work lives as a means of coping with workplace conflicts. Here, support from family and friends is identified as a direct source of wellbeing and as a buffer against the negative effects of work stressors. Similarly, AbuAlRub (2010) notes that changes in the nature of work and family mean that employees experience increased reliance on the support of friends and family as a means of coping effectively with work demands. In addition, he highlights a negative association between support from friends and family and turnover intentions in nurses. In the case of appraisal and informational support, associations have been identified for emotional labour (Schneider and Bowen, 1985), psychological wellbeing (Zapf, 2002) and intention to leave (van der Heijden, 2010). As such, these variables, while not explicitly investigated may have been present and may have impacted upon the research findings. That is, they may have contributed to

the low impact of emotional labour on psychological wellbeing, highlighted by a weak relationship between the two variables.

Finally, as mentioned in the previous section of this discussion, lengthy tenure on the part of participants may have significance in terms of turnover intentions, perceived employee control as well as with regard to negative perceptions of supervisor support. As such, tenure is considered a potential extraneous variable which may have influenced findings and was not accounted for in the present research.

Future researchers interested in conducting a study of a similar nature would therefore benefit from a larger sample size and an increase in number and variability with regards to the type of organisations examined. Secondly, quantitative approaches could be enriched by combining these with more qualitative techniques for data collection, such as in-depth interviews. This may enhance the exploration and understanding of emotional labour, social support, psychological wellbeing and turnover intentions within the context of the South African service industry.

In addition, the incorporation of these qualitative techniques may shed light on variables not accounted for in the current research which may have contributed to curious findings, particularly in the case of the unexpected moderating role of supervisor support. Future research may also benefit from the inclusion of appraisal and informational support, as well as support from family and friends. In addition, individual indicators such as identity, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as well as organisational wellbeing indicators in the form of job satisfaction and organisational commitment may serve to further elucidate the relationships highlighted by the present research.

Finally, it is recommended that future research should include a measure of tenure, so as to examine the possibility of its impact on perceptions of employee control in relation to turnover intentions, work demand and supervisor support.

5.2. CONCLUSION

Findings of the current research offer that despite prior literature to the contrary, emotional labour may not always serve to increase employee turnover intentions, which are complex and cannot be examined in isolation of the high unemployment rates and low wages characteristic of the South African employment market. In addition, the role of supervisor social support in mitigating working conditions and employee turnover intentions is questioned. In light of the high the high staff turnover associated with South African call centres, these findings offer insight with regard to the wellbeing and retention of call centre employees, particularly in regard to the factors associated with employee turnover and as such, may assist organisations in developing appropriate measures to adequately address these.

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APPENDIX A

***The following details are required to describe the sample and do not identify participants**

Age: _____ Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Ethnicity: ☐ African ☐ Indian ☐ Coloured ☐ Asian ☐ White

Level of Education: ☐ < Grd 12 ☐ Grd 12 ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree

Marital Status: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐ Separated

Number of Dependents _____

Emotional Labour Scale

On a typical day I have ____ customers

A typical interaction I have with a customer takes about ____ minutes

For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling.

On an average day at work, how frequently do you do each of the following when interacting with customers?

1. Interact with customers

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

2. Adopt certain emotions as part of your job

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

3. Express particular emotions needed for your job

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

4. Express intense emotions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

5. Show some strong emotions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

6. Display many different kinds of emotions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

7. Express many different emotions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

8. Display many different emotions when interacting with others

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

9. Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

10. Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

11. Really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

12. Resist expressing my true feelings

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

13. Pretend to have emotions that I don't really have

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

14. Hide my true feelings about a situation

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

Social Support Scale

For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling.

1. How much do your coworkers go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

2. How easy is it to talk with your coworkers?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

3. How much can your coworkers be relied upon when things get tough at work?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

4. How much are your coworkers willing to listen to your personal problems?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

5. How much does your supervisor go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

6. How easy is it to talk with your supervisor?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

7. How much can your supervisor be relied upon when things get tough at work?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

8. How much is your supervisor willing to listen to your personal problems?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	Very much

General Health Questionnaire

For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you. Note that the numbers always extend from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling.

Have you recently...

1. Been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?

1	2	3	4
Better than usual	Same as usual	Worse than usual	Much worse than usual

2. Lost much sleep over worry?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much worse than usual

3. Felt that you are playing a useful part in things?

1	2	3	4
More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful

4. Felt capable of making decisions about things?

1	2	3	4
More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less capable

5. Felt constantly under strain?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual

6. Felt that you could not overcome your difficulties?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Less able than usual	Much less able than usual

7. Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?

1	2	3	4
More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual

8. Been able to face up to your problems?

1	2	3	4
More so than usual	Same as usual	Less able than usual	Much less able

9. Been feeling unhappy and depressed?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much worse than usual

10. Been losing confidence in yourself?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much worse than usual

11. Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?

1	2	3	4
Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much worse than usual

12. Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?

1	2	3	4
More so than usual	About the same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual

Turnover Intentions Scale

How do you feel about your present job, compared with alternative jobs that you may be interested in or able to obtain? For each of the following statements, circle the number that would be most nearly true for you.

1. Thoughts about quitting my job cross my mind

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	All the time

2. I plan to look for a new job within the next twelve months

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

3. How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job outside of this firm?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very unlikely	Moderately unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Moderately likely	Very likely



APPENDIX B

SCHOOL OF HUMAN & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Good day

My name is Danica Liebenberg and I am conducting a research project towards a Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. The focus of the research is to obtain a general overview of employee experiences of support from colleagues and supervisors. Furthermore I would like to establish whether this support is related to emotional labour, psychological wellbeing and intention to leave in call centre employees. I would like to request your permission to conduct this research within your organisation and to invite employees to participate in the study.

The project involves answering four short and simple questionnaires. No written responses other than indicating a preferred response on a checklist will be needed. It should take no longer than 10 minutes in total to complete the survey.

Participation in the study is voluntary and participants are under no obligation to consent to participation and may discontinue participation at any time, prior to the submission of the questionnaire. If they choose to return the questionnaire, it implies that they have consented to participate.

There will be no direct benefit to participants by choosing to participate, nor will they be disadvantaged in any way if they choose not to participate. However, their responses will be greatly appreciated as the findings of this study will contribute to a better understanding of their working conditions and organisational dynamics.

The intent of the research is to examine general trends; therefore responses to the questionnaires are completely anonymous and confidential. No name, identification number or employee number is required and no identifying number will be allocated to the questionnaire, thus ensuring anonymity. In addition, the questionnaire is submitted through a secure and encrypted website which only my supervisor, Colleen Bernstein and I, will have access to. The data gathered will not be used for any other purpose than that stated above. On completion of the project, data will be stored securely for a period of two to six years, after which it will be destroyed. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Feedback on the aggregate research findings will be available to the organisation and participants in the form of a one page summary on request; however individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please do not hesitate to e-mail me at 416682@students.wits.co.za.

Regards,

Danica Liebenberg
Industrial Psychology Masters Student

Colleen Bernstein
Supervisor, Lecturer
University of the Witwatersrand



APPENDIX C

SCHOOL OF HUMAN & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Good day

My name is Danica Liebenberg and I am conducting a research project towards a Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. The focus of the research is to obtain a general overview of employee call centre work experiences.

I would like to invite you to participate in the project, which involves answering four short and simple questionnaires. No written responses other than indicating a preferred response on a checklist will be needed. It should take no longer than 10 minutes in total to complete the survey. Participation in the study is voluntary and you may discontinue participation at any time, prior to the submission of the questionnaire. If you choose to return the questionnaire, it implies that you have consented to participate.

There will be no direct benefit to you by choosing to participate, nor will you be disadvantaged in any way if you choose not to participate. However your responses will be greatly appreciated as the findings of this study will contribute to a better understanding of your working conditions and organisational dynamics.

The intent of the research is to examine general trends; therefore responses to the questionnaires are completely anonymous and confidential. No name, identification number or employee number is required and no identifying number will be allocated to the questionnaire, thus ensuring anonymity. In addition, the questionnaire is submitted through a secure and encrypted website which only my supervisor, Colleen Bernstein and I, will have access to.

Feedback on the general research findings will be available to the organisation as well as to you in the form of a one page summary on request. Note that no individual participants will be identifiable in such a report.

Should you have any queries in this regard, or have any concerns about the completion or submission of the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to e-mail me at 416682@students.wits.co.za.

Considering participating will be appreciated.

Many thanks,

Danica Liebenberg
Industrial Psychology Masters Student

Colleen Bernstein
Supervisor, Lecturer
University of the Witwatersrand