

**EMOTIONAL LABOUR AMONGST WOMEN LEADERS WITHIN THE
CONSULTING INDUSTRY: A HERMENEUTIC PHENOMENOLOGICAL INQUIRY**

by

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submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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February 2016

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

No dissertation is written by the hand of the researcher alone. This one is no exception. I would like to thank some of the people whose hearts and hands have touched the pages of my work. My thanks goes to:

My Supreme Lord and Creator Lord Narayana, thank you for blessing me with the ability, strength, dedication, determination and perseverance to complete this dissertation and ultimately attain my goal.

My Supervisor, Mr Aden-Paul Flotman, your guidance, understanding, support and continuous motivation has been invaluable. You never allowed me to give up and you have helped me to achieve my goal. Thank you, I will always appreciate and remember you.

My participants, thank you for affording me the opportunity to interview you, without you, the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible.

My dearest family, there are no words to express my gratitude towards you. Thank you for affording me this opportunity to pursue my goals and for showing me that nothing is impossible if you put your mind to it and work hard to achieve your goals. Although you are so far away, you have guided, motivated, supported and showered me with unconditional love. Thank you, I love you.

My peer mentor and dear friend Siobhan Durand, I have no words to express my gratitude to you. You have played an absolutely pivotal role in me achieving my goal. Thank you for all your guidance, support, care and unconditional love. You have become an amazing friend.

Saiyurin Naidoo, thank you for all your unconditional love, support, help, motivation and understanding during this time. You never allowed me to give up and saw the greatness in me on days that I could not see it in myself. For that I will be eternally grateful. I love you to infinity and beyond.

Surita Naidoo, thank you for your effort and tireless hours of transcribing and ultimately helping me achieve my goal. I really do appreciate all that you did for me.

Ramona Ramphal, thank you for your continuous guidance, support and counselling sessions. You have played an invaluable part in me achieving my goal. I really appreciate all that you have done for me.

Rashri Baboolal, thank you for your continuous guidance, support and willingness to always assist me. You have played an invaluable part in me achieving my goal. I really appreciate all that you have done for me.

Barbara Woods, thank you for your assistance with the technical editing and formatting of my dissertation.

SUMMARY

EMOTIONAL LABOUR AMONGST WOMEN LEADERS WITHIN THE CONSULTING INDUSTRY: A HERMENEUTIC PHENOMENOLOGICAL INQUIRY

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DEGREE: M.Comm (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

The purpose of this study was to explore how women leaders within the consulting industry experience emotional labour in South Africa. I followed a qualitative research approach informed by the hermeneutic phenomenological paradigm, making use of a case study approach and in-depth semi-structured interviews with eight women leaders with a minimum of eight years' experience within the consulting industry, all of whom resided in the Gauteng region. The questions posed to participants aimed to understand the various emotions experienced during pre-set scenarios. The empirical findings suggest that women leaders naturally adopt a transformational leadership style. The empirical research exposes that women leaders within the consulting industry do not have any form of work-life balance. Furthermore, the empirical research reveals that most of the women experience both negative and positive emotions due to the ups and downs exposed to at work, there is no organisational support to overcome these emotions.

Key words:

Emotion labour, woman leaders, emotional exhaustion, work-life balance

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to determine the lived experiences of emotional labour amongst women leaders within the consulting industry from a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry perspective.

Within the layout of this section, the background, motivation and research problem for the research are provided. The general aims of the study are presented and the specific aims are discussed relating to the literature and the specific aims relating to the empirical study of the research proposal. A presentation of my evolving interest in the study is highlighted. Moving on, I expounded on the market of intellectual resources that was employed in terms of the psychological paradigm, research paradigm and meta-theoretical constructs. A discussion of the research design in terms of approach, strategy and the methods that were employed is presented. Subsequent, a proposed chapter layout of the dissertation is presented and finally concluded with a chapter summary of this particular section.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The fast-moving environment in which organisations have to operate has become increasingly complex and uncertain, and results in organisations having to adapt to an ever-increasing rate of change (Green & Bisseker, 2002; Wiesner & Vermeulen, 1997, as cited by du Toit, Coetzee & Visser, 2005). According to Phakathi (2002) and Spruce (2003), the era of globalisation calls for a flexible, multi-skilled, knowledgeable, interchangeable and adaptable workforce. In an increasingly competitive and turbulent business environment, the effective resourcing, management and retention of human capital remain crucial factors of organisational survival, adaptation and competitive advantage (Michaels, Hardfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001; Robinson, 2006, as cited by Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Managing retention and keeping labour turnover to target, especially with regard to core employees or knowledge workers, has become a key strategic issue for

organisations (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). The emergence of a global knowledge-driven economy, international competition and an increasing diverse workforce have increased organisations' concerns about increasing their competitiveness, responsiveness and adaptability in a highly complex and turbulent environment (Green & Bisseker, 2002; Weiss, 2001). These concerns have led to a renewed interest in the role of corporate culture in improving the performance and effectiveness of organisations (Martins & Coetzee, 2011). Weiss (2001) stated that an effective organisational culture enables organisations to retain their competitive edge by adjusting and adapting to their changing internal and external environment. In the competitive global business environment, it is vital that organisations employ leadership styles that enable organisations to survive in a dynamic environment (Bass, 1997; Maritz, 1995).

In recent years, there have been dramatic changes in the context in which work is performed (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). The process of globalisation, advances in technology, increased competition, work intensification, diversification of the workforce, increased number of women in the workforce, and the blurring of boundaries between work and family are some of the changes that have impacted the work environment (Pitt-Catsouphe, Kossek & Sweet, 2006; Poelmans, Kalliath & Brough, 2008). Given that people spend a significant proportion of their lives at work, changes in the work environment can have profound influence on their health and well-being, and consequentially on job and organisational performance (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). Fostering a work culture that is mindful of the importance of work-life balance, employee growth and development, health, safety and employee engagement can be the key to achieving sustainable employee well-being and organisational performance (Grawitch, Gottschalk & Munz, 2006). The growing economic pressures of globalisation have increased economic turmoil, where employers have lessened the attachment to workers at all ends of the workforce. At the lower end of the wage spectrum, many employees face what is known as "underemployment", where workers cannot accumulate enough worked hours and pay to match their skills sets or economic needs (Kossek, Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). According to Kossek et al., (2012), work schedules that limit labour or costs and avoid overtime wages are prevalent. Inflexible work schedules and lack of healthcare benefits in countries such as the USA, where benefits are linked to employment and

employer's cost structures, make it difficult for employees to care for their families or themselves.

However, there are also positive effects that the changing world of work has on employee wellness such as the growth in many forms of alternative work schedules that give employees – in some occupations – more choice and control over where and when and how much they work. This is a positive development in the work environment (Kossek & Michel, 2011). Job control has been linked to psychological well-being (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), and with the growth of flexible work arrangements, employees can now more actively use the flexibility of their working conditions. This helps them solve the daily demands of integrating personal life and work demands. The well-being of employees is in the best interests of employers that spend substantial resources hiring employees, trying to generate products, profits and maintain loyal customers (Harter, Schmidt & Keyes 2003). Schabracq and Cooper (2000) predicted that the way in which organisations deal with the well-being and stress of their employees will become a critical strategic factor in global competition.

Global and national changes are also impacting South African business environments and, consequently, management practices (Palmer, Jansen & Coetzee, 2006). According to Palmer ET al., (2006), the roles and functions of managers has changed considerably, largely because the organisational, political, economic and technological context in which they operate has changed beyond recognition. Organisations have been delayered; new work organisation concepts have been developed; the variety of communication channels that managers have to cope with has increased; social interaction in multi-cultural work environments and a team-based organisation of work have become focal issues in the workplace. Globalisation has created a more competitive environment, where businesses have had to become leaner, more flexible and adaptable (Nolon & Croson, 1995; Weiss, 2002). Weiss (2002) stated that in the evolving information-based workplace, traditional methods and styles of leadership must change for managers to become and remain successful and sustain competitiveness. In order for leaders to be successful in the changing world of work, leadership styles need to be more flexible and adaptable to the situation at hand.

According to Folta, Seguin, Ackerman and Nelson (2012), Eagly and Karau (2002) proposed a role congruity theory, suggesting that there is a perceived incongruity between the female gender role, in which communal characteristics (being pleasant and compassionate) are valued, and qualities traditionally associated with successful leadership (being assertive and competitive). According to authors such as Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero and Martos (2012), women are more supportive and affective with characteristics involving the management of emotions, thus generalising the perception that women are more emotionally intelligent. Transformational leaders, for instance, generally use emotional support; that is, they are able to spread their own emotions and understand their followers' emotions (Lopez-Zafra et.al., 2012). These leaders also benefit from their followers' emotional commitment. Furthermore, transformational leaders present several nonverbal emotional cues that make them more effective and charismatic leaders (Lopez-Zafra et.al., 2012). Supportive (e.g., intellectual stimulation) and considerate (e.g., individual consideration) behaviours are also typical of transformational leaders and are related to feminine gender roles. Thus, these behaviours may be advantageous for women and may allow them to be outstanding leaders, as female leaders are often more transformational than male leaders (Lopez-Zafra et.al., 2012).

Steinberg and Figart (1999, p.9) stated that "emotional labour emphasises the relational rather than the task-based aspect of work found primarily, but not exclusively, in the service economy". It is labour-intensive work; it is skilled, effort-intensive and productive labour. It creates value, affects productivity and generates profit. It is why frontline service workers and paraprofessionals have been referred to as the 'emotional proletariat'. As the definition suggests, emotional labour takes skill, may be effort intensive, and has the aim of generating profit, improving workplace functioning and/or adding value to an organisation's service. Emotional labour includes the idea that many employees are 'paid to "look nice", smile, be caring and polite' (Fineman, 1996), and may entail an array of relational tasks, such as 'soothing tempers, boosting confidence, fuelling pride, preventing frictions and mending ego wounds' (Calhoun, 1992). Emotional labour may involve suppressing or inducing one's own emotions. Crucially, the employee must effect whatever emotional impact is appropriate and required by the organisation; e.g., flight attendants must relax

nervous passengers, while debt collectors must intimidate (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labour researchers have pursued diverse agendas, including, as Steinberg and Figart (1999) showed, assessment of: (i) the effect on employees of performing emotional labour; (ii) the relationship between emotional labour and organisational effectiveness; and (iii) the extent to which emotional labour is recognised and remunerated.

Feminist researchers have been particularly interested in the extent to which emotional labour is recognised and remunerated, finding emotional labour/emotion work to be useful concepts because they name them “*work* behaviours that whether performed in the private or the public sphere, are typically invisible and unrecognised as such” (Frith & Kitzinger, 1998, p.302). Thus, although often a job requirement, emotional labour tends to be poorly rewarded (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). This is a feminist concern because, as a group, women are worse affected than men. This partly reflects women’s overrepresentation in the service industry, where emotional labour is a job requirement and pay is notoriously poor (Toerien & Kitzinger, 2007). Crucially, however, feminists have underscored the socially constructed nature of *skill*, showing how the tasks traditionally performed by women within the reproductive sphere are:

“... defined as requiring minimal skills – even though the very same tasks carried out in the productive sector, particularly if associated with male workers, are considered to require extensive training and qualifications,... the ‘socially constructed’ nature of skills includes the assumption that women are born with certain ‘natural’ skills, which require neither talent nor training, and which are merely part of their ‘natural’, ‘feminine’ behaviour” (Tancred, 1995, p.17).

According to Toerien and Kitzinger, (2007), consequently, such skills are rendered invisible, and remain so even when utilised by women in their paid jobs. Thus, the tendency for women to be hired by “organisations that require the constant display of friendliness based on the assumption that women are better at displays of warmth” (Mirchandani, 2003, p.723), does not translate into adequate remuneration for the skills performed. An important feminist project has thus been to ‘expand the definition of skills to include emotional labour’ (Steinberg & Figart, 1999) and to make

visible the skills involved in performing emotional labour effectively (Toerien & Kitzinger, 2007).

The primary rationale behind the proposed research study is to focus on investigating the experiences of emotional labour among women leaders within the consulting industry from a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry perspective. Humphrey (2012) explained that although recent theoretical articles maintained that leaders use emotional labour, almost all empirical research on emotional labour has focused on how service workers use emotional labour. This void creates an opportunity for leadership researchers (Humphrey, 2012). In light of this, my research study should provide new, valuable insights pertaining to emotional labour, particularly among women leaders in the consulting industry from a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry perspective within the South African context.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Research on emotional labour is extremely popular and according to Google Scholar, 12 800 journal articles have used the terms “emotional labor / labour” and over half of these have been published since 2006 (Humphrey, 2012). Although recent theoretical articles maintained that leaders use emotional labour, almost all empirical research on emotional labour has focused on how service workers use emotional labour, for example within the beauty industry (Toerien & Kitzinger, 2007), the educational industry (Cullen, Cullen & Lindsay, 2013) and within the urban settings (Preston, 2013). The vacuum of such research in other industry sectors creates a great opportunity for leadership researchers (Humphrey, 2012). Focusing on how women business leaders in South Africa experience emotional labour, is based on the current gap in existing research pertaining to how women leaders experience emotional labour in a consulting environment. My proposed study could add value to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of expanding the global and local literature on emotional labour and Human Resources practices such as talent management and retention strategies.

In light of the above, I have formulated the research question as the following:

How do women business leaders in South Africa experience emotional labour within the consulting industry?

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of the research study were presented in terms of the general aim of the study and the specific aim of the study. The specific aim of the study was then further divided into the specific literature aims that the study explored and the specific empirical aims that the study answered.

1.4.1 General aim of the research

In light of the problem statement, the general aim of this study will be to identify and explore how women in their leadership roles experience emotional labour, in order to gain insight and a better understanding into the lived experiences of emotional labour among women leaders.

1.4.2 Specific literature aims of the research

The specific literature aims are:

- To conceptualise the construct of emotional labour in the literature;
- To conceptualise the construct of women leadership in the literature.

1.4.3 Specific empirical aims of the research

The specific empirical aim is:

- To explore how women leaders experience emotional labour within the consulting industry;

- To provide recommendations for future research and application.

1.5 MY EVOLVING INTEREST IN THE STUDY

It was an extremely daunting task to choose a research topic, especially when one was required to do so within the first few months of the first year of one's Master's studies. Choosing the appropriate topic was of vital importance as I lived, breathed and spent every free minute of the past two years researching and writing dissertation of this specific topic. As a result of this, I had chosen a topic that was interesting and intriguing, which was relevant to my context and something that I enjoy finding the answers to and that I was passionate about. I initially chose a completely different topic, however after a discussion with my supervisor and after a lot of searching and reading, I became really fascinated with the concept of emotional labour and I had always been interested and passionate about learning and reading about women in leadership. Therefore I thought that a combination of emotional labour and women in leadership made an intriguing and interesting research topic.

1.6 MARKET OF INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES

The market of intellectual resources in this study was determined by my embraced worldviews, perspectives and paradigms. A paradigm is a way of viewing the world, where the researcher chooses to hold certain systems of meaning in favour of others (Maree, 2010). It was extremely vital to choose a paradigm as a first step, since without it there is no basis for subsequent choices about the methodology, research design or literature (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The paradigm perspectives explained below explicated the scientific boundaries defining my research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) by exploring the meta-theoretical constructs, the psychological paradigm, the research paradigm, and the methodological aspects of my study.

1.6.1 Meta-theoretical constructs

This study was conducted within the discipline of Industrial and Organisational (IO) Psychology and related to the sub-disciplines of personnel psychology, career psychology and wellness psychology.

1.6.1.1 Industrial and Organisational Psychology

Bergh and Theron (2009, p. 20) defined Industrial and Organisational Psychology as “...a branch of psychology that utilises psychological knowledge in the work context to assess, utilise, develop and influence individual employees, groups and related organisational processes”.

It is an applied field of psychology in its study of human behaviour in the workplace that has become a professional practice in its own right (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The main objective of this field is to understand employees’ behaviour and work environments in order to enhance the quality of work life and work performance. Research undertaken by IO psychologists, aims to study and apply theoretical knowledge scientifically with the aim of solving problems and improving the work-life balance in the workplace (Lowenberg & Conrad, 1998; Muchinsky, 1993; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003). IO psychology comprises of six widely acknowledged sub-disciplines, namely: organisational psychology, consumer psychology, ergonomics, psychometrics, career psychology and personnel psychology (Barnard & Fourie, 2007).

1.6.1.2 Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology is a subfield of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. According to Bergh and Theron (2009, p. 21), personnel psychology is “...primarily involved in the assessment, and appraisal, of employees, personnel selection, and placement and promotion of employees in and for organisations”.

The core focus of personnel psychology is the individual employee. Individual differences in and between employees are important in personnel psychology in order to predict the optimal fit between the employee and the organisation (Bergh & Theron, 2009). This was in line with the research objectives of the study, especially in terms of emotional labour.

1.6.1.3 Career psychology

Career psychology is a sub-discipline of IO Psychology, which aims to assist workers to manage career conflicts (Berg & Theron, 2009). It focuses on the dynamics between individuals and their environments and aims to describe the nature of work positions held by the ensuing experiences during the individual's life course (Arnold & Randall, 2010). It further involves the study of career development and career behaviour as an important part of human development (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2010). This was in line with the research objectives of the study, especially in terms of emotional labour and women leaders.

1.6.1.4 Wellness psychology

Myers and Sweeney,(2008) stated that wellness is the paradigm for counselling that provides strength-based strategies for assessing clients, conceptualises issues developmentally, and plans interventions to remediate dysfunction and optimise growth.

Wellness psychology forms part of the positive psychology paradigm. The positive psychology paradigm focuses on facilitating positive psychological capital or resources in organisations and regards employees as important. Therefore, it further focuses on keeping them healthy and resilient to difficulties (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Health-promoting factors that are encouraged are an internal locus of control, positive emotions, hope, optimism, self-efficacy, personal hardiness and a sense of coherence (Bergh, 2009). This was in line with the research objectives of the study, especially in terms of emotional labour and women leaders.

1.6.2 The psychological paradigm

The psychological paradigms that related to my research are the humanistic paradigm and the behaviourist paradigm. Both paradigms are highlighted below.

1.6.2.1 Humanism as an underlying psychological paradigm

The humanistic paradigm views the individual as capable to exercise freedom of choice, rejects reductionism, emphasises the uniqueness of individuals and posits that individuals should determine their own values based on their previous experiences (Van Niekerk, 1996). The humanistic perspective puts forward that science aims to assist individuals to achieve self-determination, by studying them in their natural environments and that human behaviour can be explained by the complete understanding of people, which comes through empathy and intuition (Whitley, 2002). This perspective views the individual as a free agent, seeking to implement the self-concept over the life course, seeking self-actualisation and searching for personal meaning of existence. The focus is on understanding the development process and tasks individuals are faced with. As humans are interdependent and integrated, they consciously strive towards self-actualisation (Ngokha, 2008). A qualitative approach is also commonly used where a humanistic approach is adopted (Whitley, 2002). In order to understand women leaders' lived experience I studied the participants in their natural work environment and employed a stance of empathy and intuition with regard to their behaviours. Humanism was an appropriate paradigm for this study, as the assumption is that women leaders have the capacity to choose how much effort they put into their work and how they deal with effects of emotional labour.

1.6.2.2 Behaviourism as an underlying psychological paradigm

According to the behaviouristic theory, all development and education is based on building up conditioned reflexes and habits (Hassan, 2011). Skinner (1968), a leading figure in the behaviourism school of learning, considered learning to be a function of change in explicit behaviour. Changes in behaviour are the result of an

individual's response to events (stimuli) that occur in the environment (Hassan, 2011). Skinner's model may be summarised in the following words: 'Stimulus – Behaviour – Reinforcement'. He believed that knowledge arises in a situation that is followed by a consistency of behaviour, which, in turn, is called reinforcement. This can be either positive to encourage desired behaviour or aversive to prevent non-desired behaviour (Hassan, 2011). Behaviourists believe that living systems function according to the principles of operant conditioning. In other words, behaviour is followed by a consequence and the nature of the consequence modifies the organism's tendency to repeat the behaviour (Watkins, 2001). Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1997) indicated that the behaviourist paradigm maintains that observable behaviour is psychology's sole object of study and that unobservable phenomena, such as thoughts, feelings and values, are regarded as inaccessible to scientific study. Behaviourists indicate that learning takes place through stimuli and responses, which are combined through learning experiences. The prediction of human behaviour is regarded as the goal of scientific endeavour.

1.6.3 The research paradigm

A research paradigm is an all-inclusive system of interrelated practice and thinking that defines the researcher's nature of enquiry along the three dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2007). Whether deciding on a positivist, interpretative or constructionist paradigm, each shaped the manner in which I conducted my research, and each perspective has a specific set of assumptions or postulates regarding the manner in which the world functions (Henning, van Rensburg & Smit, 2004).

I relied on the interpretive paradigm and more specifically employed the hermeneutic phenomenological perspective as specific orientation within this research paradigm. The interpretive research paradigm, focused on understanding, was applicable to this study, as I seek to gain meaning from each individual experience (Mason, 2002). The interpretive approach is flexible and sensitive to the social context and involves viewing individuals and their unique interpretations, meanings and understandings as a primary source of data (Mason, 2002).

For this research project, I placed myself within the tradition of hermeneutic phenomenology, which was founded by Martin Heidegger and further developed by Hans-George Gadamer in Germany and Paul Ricoeur in France (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004).

Phenomenological study describes the common meaning of several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Phenomenologists focus on describing what all participants have in common as they experience a phenomenon. The basic purpose of phenomenology is to reduce individual experiences with a phenomenon to a description of the universal essence (Creswell, 2013). Hermeneutic is the study of human cultural activity as texts, including written or verbal communication, visual art and music (Kvale, 1996). Hermeneutic, as an interpretive process, has the aim of discovering intended and expressed meaning and to bring understanding of phenomena through language (Annells, 1996; Kvale, 1996). Hermeneutic allows for the interpretation of the participant's experiences.

I ascribed to the hermeneutic phenomenological orientation, which firstly, allowed for a description of women leaders' lived experiences through phenomenology and secondly, interpreted the phenomena by means of hermeneutic (Caputo, 1984). In terms of this research paradigm, I attempted to clarify my ontological assumptions, which gave rise to my epistemology assumptions, which cascaded into my methodological assumptions, which finally resulted in the specific methodologies that I employed, such as data collection and analysis (Nel, 2007).

1.6.3.1 My ontological assumption

Ontology specifies the nature of reality that is to be studied and what can be known about it (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2007). It establishes the framework, the "world" or the target of my study (Nel, 2007). The interpretive framework holds that there is not only one reality, but rather multiple realities that are constructed and can also be changed by the 'knower' (Laverty, 2003). In this study, the notion of an objective reality is rejected in favour of a perspectival reality, where the focus of the ontological

interest is rather on the emotions, ideas, motivations, mentality and perceptions (Mason, 2002) of women leaders in the South African context. The study focuses on the individual experiences and meaning (Whitley, 2002) women leaders ascribe to, where each of the participants' ontology was limited to what they have experienced (Nel, 2007). As my hermeneutic phenomenological stance also focused on understanding the meaning that a phenomenon has for a research participant instead of searching for law-like generalities, these ontological assumptions are compatible with the research paradigm I employed.

1.6.3.2 My epistemological assumption

If ontology defined the research framework or target of the study, epistemology established the set of research questions (Nel, 2007). Epistemology describes the nature of the relationship between the 'knower' and what can be known (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). My epistemological assumption determined my opinions about which theories were valid, what kind of research questions were important, what was the best way to carry out the research and what was the proper way to interpret the data (Whitley, 2002). Epistemological questions should direct researchers to consider philosophical issues that aided the ontological perspective and verified what was considered proof or knowledge of social things, what was regarded as the "knowledge or evidence of things in the social world" (Mason, 2002). Employing an interactional epistemological stance, I relied on the subjective relationship between myself and the participants to obtain information regarding their individual experiences. As hermeneutic phenomenology allowed for the interpretation and construction of the participants' experience my research paradigm was compatible with my epistemological assumption.

1.6.3.3 My methodological assumption

The procedure of qualitative research, or its methodology, is characterised as inductive, emerging and shaped by the researcher's experience in collecting and analysing the data (Creswell, 2013). The methodology employed in the hermeneutic

phenomenological tradition guided my research design and the methodology I followed. I conducted my research in line with what Van Manen (1990) described as the dynamic interaction between the following six hermeneutic phenomenological research activities: (1) Turning the phenomenon that earnestly interests and commits me to the world; (2) Studying experiences as the women leaders and I live it rather than as we conceptualise it; (3) Reflecting on key themes that characterise the phenomenon; (4) Describing the phenomenon through writing and rewriting; (5) Maintaining a strong and oriented relation to the phenomenon and (6) Balancing the research context by considering the parts as well as the whole. The specific methodologies employed in this study flow from my methodological perspective and are discussed in the succeeding section.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research, regardless of the manner in which it is designed, can be seen as a method through which one can report observations made about another (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). A research design is literally a researcher's plan of how to execute a particular study from identifying the topic to interpreting the results (Schurink, 2009). A research design is a strategy or plan that flows from the underlying philosophical assumptions to indicate the selection of participants, data gathering techniques that was used as well as the data analysis that was conducted (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). According to Durrheim (2007), it can be seen as a strategic framework that links the research question to the execution and implementation of the research. Having elaborated on my research question and research paradigm, my research design was discussed specifically in terms of the research approach I employed and the specific research techniques I used to collect and analyse the data.

1.7.1 Qualitative versus quantitative research

Creswell (2013) defined qualitative research as an inquiry process of understanding based on a distinct methodological tradition of inquiry that explores a social or human problem. According to him, the researcher builds a complex, holistic picture,

analyses words and reports the detailed views of informants. Quantitative researchers collect data in the form of numbers and use of statistical types of data analysis (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Qualitative researchers collect data in the form of written or spoken language or in the form of observations that are recorded, and thereafter the researcher analyses the data by identifying and categorising of themes (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Qualitative methods allow the researcher to study selected issues in-depth, openness and detail as they identify and attempt to understand the categories of information that emerge from the data (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Quantitative methods, in contrast, begin with a series of predetermined categories, usually embodied in standardised quantitative measures, and use this data to make a broad and generalised comparison (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Deciding whether to use quantitative or qualitative research has many implications for the research design, namely; deciding on which sample strategy to employ, data collection and analysis (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). If the research purpose is to study phenomena as they unfold in real-world situation, without manipulation, to study the phenomena as interrelated wholes rather than split up into discreet predetermined variables, then an inductive, qualitative approach is required (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Qualitative research is more commonly used to inductively explore phenomena and provide 'thick' descriptions of phenomena (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). As a result of the above discussion, this particular study was qualitative in nature.

1.7.2 Research approach

A qualitative exploratory approach was followed, as this approach is in line with the philosophical views previously discussed and was the most appropriate approach with regard to generating the type of data that I required in order to answer my proposed research question. This approach allowed me to explore the lived experiences of women leaders holistically in their natural context, in depth, openness and detail (Durrheim, 2007).

1.7.3 Research strategy

The research strategy was presented in the form of a case study method, where multiple case studies (Yin, 2009) had been utilised, focusing on the lived experiences of female business leaders in South Africa by making use of in-depth interviews. A case study research involves the study of a case within a real-life, contemporary context or setting (Yin, 2009). Case studies are defined as ideographic research methods; that is, methods that study individuals as individuals rather than as members of a population (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

1.7.4 Research method

The employed research method deals with the research setting, the entrée and establishment of the researcher's roles, sampling, data collection, the recording and analysis of data, strategies employed to ensure quality data, ethics and reporting.

1.7.4.1 Research setting

This study focused on women leaders within the consulting industry. All participants in this study were working within the Gauteng region.

1.7.4.2 Entrée and establishing the researcher's roles

This study was not company specific. Most participants were approached informally, outside their working hours. It was therefore not necessary to approach the organisations for authorisation, as the organisation had no impact on the research setting. I contacted potential participants, explained my study to them and answered any potential questions they had pertaining to my research. I obtained written permission from the participants stating that they were willing to participate in my research study.

1.7.4.3 The self as instrument

When conducting interpretative research, the researcher becomes the primary instrument for collecting and analysing data (Terre Blanche, Kelly & Durrheim, 2007). The researcher's subjectivity is then also accepted as something that cannot be eliminated (Nieuwehuis, 2010) and seen as making it possible to understand personal realities emphatically (Terre Blanche et al., 2007). However, this subjectivity should be made explicit; especially, when employing hermeneutic phenomenology as a research paradigm as one needs to become aware of and account for one's own interpretive influences (Laverty, 2003). It was required that I had to interpret my own presence in the research appropriately, indicated how I used my subjective capacities, had to be open and honest by reporting where I may have lacked in terms of my capability to make good sense of the phenomena under study (Terre Blanche et al., 2007).

1.7.4.4 Sampling

Sampling does not need to be random if the researcher is not looking for representivity, but rather looking at how concepts vary dimensionally in terms of their properties (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In order to obtain the richest possible sources of information to answer my research question, purposive sampling and where necessary a snowball sampling strategies was employed (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). According to Nieuwenhuis (2010), purposive sampling is defined as the selection of participants according to pre-selected criteria, relevant to a particular research question. The next sampling method that could be used, if necessary, would be the snowball sampling strategy. This design uses a process of chain referral, when members of the target population are located, they are asked to provide names and contact information of other members of the target population, who are then contacted and asked to name others, and so on (Burger & Silima, 2006). A basic assumption of snowball sampling is that members of the target population know each other (Burger & Silima, 2006).

The sample group that was used in this study comprised of approximately 8-10 female business leaders working within the consulting industry. The participants were all of senior management level and had approximately eight years and more experience within the consulting industry. My final sample group comprised of eight female leaders, with biographical descriptives as indicated in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1

Biographical descriptives of participants

Code	Race	Gender	Category	Years in Profession
WFMC17	White	Female	Management Consulting	17
IFREC08	Indian	Female	Renewable Energy Consulting	08
IFMC25	Indian	Female	Management Consulting	25
WFMC19	White	Female	Management Consulting	19
WFMC17	White	Female	Management Consulting	17
WFMC10	White	Female	Management Consulting	10
WFMC09	White	Female	Management Consulting	09
IFMC10	Indian	Female	Management Consulting	10

1.7.4.5 Data collection

In qualitative research, rather than using a measurement scale as an instrument of observation, the researcher is the instrument of observation (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Data is collected either through interviews or by observing and recording behaviour in contexts of interactions (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). These particular observations are then categorised into themes, and a more general picture of the phenomenon under investigation is built up (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). In line with the employed hermeneutic phenomenological research paradigm, I engaged in unstructured in-depth interviews as a specific in-depth strategy. This interview strategy allowed for the exploration, understanding and interpretation of the

participants' lived work experiences in the company in which they worked (Appleton, 1995; Kvale, 1996; van Manen, 1990). In this paradigm, the interview takes the form of an informal conversation about a specific human experience (Kvale, 1996; Patton, 1980). In this instance, participants were asked to describe how they – as female business leaders – experience emotional labour, for example, “Tell me about your experiences as a women leader in this organisation?”

1.7.4.6 Recording the data

Interviews were recorded digitally and field notes were compiled additionally (Maree, 2010). Field notes were recorded by means of hand-written or typed notes. Interviews were transcribed and non-linguistic expressions such as silence, laughing and sighs were included in the transcription, in order to provide a complete picture of what the interviewee was saying (Kelly, 2007). The field notes were then used in conjunction with the transcribed interviews in the data analysis phase.

1.7.4.7 Data analyses and interpretation

To analyse and interpret the data, I followed the process proposed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004), which is based on Ricoeur's (1976) hermeneutic phenomenological interpretation theory. The steps involved naive reading, structural analysis and comprehensive understanding. When I employed these steps, I firstly, interpreted each interview separately and once the interviews had been interpreted, then conducted the final step of the process (comprehensive understanding) by interpreting all the interview texts as a whole.

Within the naive reading step, I read the interview transcriptions several times to allow me to grasp the meaning as a whole. I kept an open attitude and mind and allowed the text to speak to me by employing a phenomenological attitude to the text. Once this was achieved, I conducted a thematic structural analysis by employing a content analysis, which made use of codes and coding (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). Content analysis is an “inductive and iterative process” that looks for similarities and differences in texts (Nieuwenhuis, 2010, p.101). Within the

comprehensive understanding step, I tried to formulate an integrated structural analysis of the various interview texts, separately as well as the texts as a whole, which allowed me to articulate the various meanings of the units and themes, as a structural whole (Wertz, 2011). This was done by making use of the hermeneutic circle (Annells, 1996).

1.7.4.8 Strategies employed to ensure quality data

A qualitative study aims to understand people's meaning-making; the emphasis falls on the internal validity of the research, which refers to the production of accurate findings that agree with the participants' life world (Schurink, 2009). I made use of the naturalistic terms to describe the rigour of this study and discussed the trustworthiness, dependability, credibility, transferability and conformability of the findings.

To establish the trustworthiness of a study, Lincoln and Guba (1985) used unique terms such as credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability, as the naturalist's equivalents for internal validation, external validation, reliability and objectivity (Creswell, 2013). Enhancing the trustworthiness of the study ensured that the credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability also are all enhanced and presented within the study.

Dependability has to do with convincing the reader that the findings did occur as reported in the results (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). This can be achieved by presenting the reader with an audit trail, which provides rich and detailed descriptions, showing how my actions and opinions may be rooted in and developed out of my contextual interaction (Kelly, 2007; Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). To enhance the dependability of the study, I made use of field notes and kept a reflective journal (Maree, 2010).

Credibility refers to the extent to which research findings are convincing and believable (Kelly, 2007). To enhance the credibility of the study, I sent the naive interpretations to each of the participants and asked them to comment on whether

my gleaned understanding was correct and if not, how I could have possibly expressed their ways in a better manner (Kelly, 2007).

Transferability has to do with whether understandings from one research context can be transferred to another context to provide a framework that can be used to reflect and make comparisons with findings in the context (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). To ensure transferability of the study, I provided an accurate description of the research process by clearly explaining and encouraging my choice of methods that I employed as well as providing a detailed description of the research situation and context.

Conformability refers to the “degree to which the findings are a function solely of the participants and conditions of the research and not of the researcher’s biases, motivations, opinions and perspectives” (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p. 296). To ensure conformability of the study, I sent the naive interpretations to each of the participants and asked them to comment on whether my understanding was correct.

1.7.4.9 Ethics

This research study will be conducted in line with the Ethical Rules of Conduct as laid down by the Professional Board of Psychology, Health Professions Council of South Africa (Health Professions Act No. 56 of 1974, 2006). To ensure the ethics are adhered to when reporting on the study, I refrained from plagiarism and provided publication credits where they are due. In addition, data was only collected once permission to commence with the study had been obtained from the UNISA IOP departmental Research Ethics Review Committee (RERC).

To ensure that the ethical standards were adhered to with regard to conducting the actual research, the following measures were employed. Participation was voluntary and participants provided their consent. This was achieved by ensuring that all participants signed a consent form. Participants received a letter informing them of the nature and purpose of the research study. They were reassured that all collected data was confidential and that anonymity will always be ensured. This was done in a form of a covering letter that the participants received.

1.7.4.10 Reporting

My dissertation is written in a confessional voice. I used active verbs, employed honest personal stances and straightforward talking to guide the style of the report. In order to accomplish this, I employed a first-person qualitative reporting style to report on the findings of the research study.

1.8 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research;

Chapter 2: Literature review;

Chapter 3: Scientific research article;

Chapter 4: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations.

1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the scientific orientation of the research was discussed. This was accomplished by discussing the background to and motivation for the research. The research problem, the aims of the research and my evolving interest in the study were highlighted. Furthermore, a discussion on the market for the employed intellectual resources, my employed design and research methodology in terms of sampling, data collection, data analysis, interpretation and strategies employed to ensure quality data and ethical considerations were presented. This chapter concluded with the chapter layout of my proposed dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW: EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP

This chapter comprises of the literature review and proposes to answer the specific literature aims of this study. Firstly, the different theoretical perspectives regarding emotional labour will be explored, analysed and integrated. Secondly, the various theoretical perspectives regarding women in leadership will be identified, analysed and discussed. Subsequent to the conceptualisation of emotional labour and women in leadership, an integration will be presented and a summary will conclude this chapter.

2.1 EMOTIONAL LABOUR

Within the layout of this section, emotional labour will be conceptualised and defined and any related constructs will be discussed. Relevant theories and/or models related to emotional labour will be presented. Finally, the implications of leadership effectiveness will be identified, analysed and discussed.

2.1.1 Conceptualisation of emotional labour

According to Rathi (2014), organisations have certain emotional display rules, explicit or implicit, that dictate appropriateness or inappropriateness of certain emotions for the organisation. Moreover, service organisations edict which emotions are apt and should be publicly expressed and which should be suppressed during service encounters (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Hence, in order to fulfil organisational display requirements, employees in service organisations frequently regulate their emotions and express organisationally desired emotions—a process generally known as emotional labour (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Emotional labour is a distinct form of labour, where employees regulate their emotions and express organisationally desired emotions to fulfil the emotional display requirements of the organisation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). The notion of emotional labour was initially proposed by

Hochschild (1983) in a study investigating the behaviour of airline workers. According to Hochschild (1983, p.7), emotional labour is the “management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display”. Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul and Gremler (2006) maintained that emotional labour indicates the presence of explicit or implicit organisational display rules (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) that delineate which emotions employees should express and which they should suppress in their interactions with customers. This was further supported by Lee and Ok (2014), who stated that organisations set standards of emotional display for employees that require them to express certain positive emotions and suppress negative emotions during interactions with customers, irrespective of their actually felt emotions.

According to Scott, Barnes and Wagner (2012), the way in which employees conform to display rules via the management of their affective displays varies. Hochschild (1979, 1983) distinguished between two strategies of what she referred to as emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting entails individuals' modifying affective displays without attempting to alter underlying feelings (Scott et. al., 2012). Judge, Woolf and Hurst (2009), proposed that while engaging in surface acting, an employee simulates the required emotion without making any effort to change his or her actual feelings. For instance, a service employee who feels frustrated and tired at work may smile at a customer nonetheless in order to comply with the organisation's policies (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Judge et al. (2009) suggested that in surface acting, the focus of employees is on public display of emotions without internally experiencing the emotions. Thus, the display of emotions in surface acting is considered to be fake or inauthentic since emotions expressed in surface acting do not match the internal experience of the employee (Cote, 2005; Grandey, 2000).

Deep acting entails modifying the actual affective state to match the desired displays (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998; Hochschild, 1979, 1983). Deep acting is concerned with actually feeling or experiencing the emotions that one wishes to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In deep acting, employees try to change their felt emotions so that they can express genuine, organisationally mandated emotions (Groth, Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2009). Lee and Ok (2014, p. 177) stated that

“employees choose to engage in deep acting by consciously modifying their genuine feelings so they understand customers, have empathy with the situation, and feel customers’ feelings as part of their own”. Judge et. al. (2009) maintained that in deep acting, individuals try to change their felt emotions with the aim of bringing consistency in their behaviour and internal experience and the organisation’s display requirements. Thus, deep acting affects both the internal experience and the public display of emotions (Rathi, 2014). The display of emotions by employees during deep acting is more authentic or genuine because the emotions expressed match the internal experience of the employees (Cote, 2005; Grandey, 2000). For the purpose of this study, the definition by Hochschild (1983, p. 7) of emotional labour being the “management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display”, will be utilised.

2.1.2 Constructs related to emotional labour

The specific constructs related to emotional labour that have to be identified, analysed and discussed are the relationship between emotional labour, gender, emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion. These constructs have been identified because research has revealed that there is a correlation between emotional labour and these other constructs. The relationship between emotional labour and each identified construct will be discussed individually below.

2.1.2.1 Emotional labour and gender

Gender creates different expectations regarding emotional labour (Guy & Newman, 2004; Hochschild, 1983; Meier, Mastracci, & Wilson, 2006; Wharton & Erickson, 1995). In relationships where women are dependent on men for financial support, for example, they expend efforts to keep negative emotions in check to maintain the status quo (Allan, 2006). Social norms also contribute to the disparity through the gendered association of behaviours. According to Yang and Guy (2015), for example, anger and aggression in men are viewed as masculine and positive, whereas in women, these are seen as negative and damaging. Since the work world is a microcosm of cultural values, gender differences imbue organisational

experiences just as they colour family dynamics (Yang & Guy, 2015). According to Yang and Guy (2015), jobs that are held primarily by women usually require more nurturance than jobs held primarily by men. Consider teaching, social work and caregiving, for example, compared with jobs in transportation, inspections and law enforcement. This association between gender and type of job creates a link between gender and emotional labour (Yang & Guy, 2015).

Timmers, Fischer and Manstead (1998) suggested that men and women have different motivations for regulating their emotions. They suggested that men are motivated to stay in control and display emotions that express power, such as pride or anger, while women are more concerned with relationships and more likely to express emotions that express negotiation (Yang & Guy, 2015). Women have also been reported to engage in higher levels of emotional expressivity than men (King & Emmons, 1990; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). There is also a relationship between gender and emotional dissonance, in that women are more likely to report that they pretend to feel one emotion while they actually feel another (Kruml & Geddes, 1998). The implication is that women are more likely to be stressed because of the emotional dissonance that arises from suppressing their real feelings (Yang & Guy, 2015).

According to Yang and Guy, (2015), the relationship between emotional labour and gender has several interesting implications. On the negative side, traits associated with women's traditional emotive capacities—willingness to listen, nurture, have concern for others' feelings, and their capacity for expressing emotion—tend to be undervalued, overlooked and undercompensated. As a result, jobs that are typically thought of as a "women's job" command lower salaries (Guy & Newman, 2004). On the positive side, because emotional labour contributes to job satisfaction and productivity, organisations with more women at the "street level," such as the teaching profession, report lower turnover, higher student attendance and higher performance (Meier et al., 2006).

2.1.2.2 Emotional labour and emotional intelligence

According to Rathi (2014), emotional intelligence is one of the most frequently researched topics in management and Industrial and Organisational (I/O) Psychology in recent times. It has been observed to have significant implications for organisations (Mishra & Mohapatra, 2009), particularly service organisations (Rathi, 2014). According to Rathi (2014), accentuating the significance of emotional intelligence for service organisations. Lee and Ok (2014, p179) argued that “as a physical labourer needs physical fitness to engage in physical labour, service employees need emotional intelligence to perform their jobs”.

Emotional intelligence has been defined as the ability to perceive, respond and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it, and the ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or experiencing them fully (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2001) classified these abilities into four hierarchical branches.

- The first branch is emotional perception. According to Prentice (2014), it involves the ability to identify and express emotions, and to discriminate various expressions of feelings;
- Emotional assimilation, the second branch, includes emotion-prioritised thinking by directing attention to important information (Prentice, 2014). Emotional mood swings may, for example, change an individual’s perspective from optimistic to pessimistic, whereas happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity (Prentice, 2014). Lee and Ok (2014, p.179) maintained that “individuals with this ability easily sense and acknowledge the affective state of others and know what emotional display is appropriate for the given situation”;
- According to Prentice (2014), the third branch, emotional understanding, involves the ability to label and recognise emotions and emotional transitions, for instance, the transition from anger to satisfaction, and the ability to understand complex feelings. According to Lee and Ok (2014, p.179), “individuals with this ability have good control of their own emotions and temper, and can modify their emotional states and responses quickly according to a particular situation”

- The fourth branch, emotions management, includes the ability to stay open to feelings, engage or detach from an emotion, monitor emotions and manage emotions in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones (Prentice, 2014).

Emotional intelligence can also facilitate coping with workplace-related stress and moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and performance (Ashkanasy, Jordan & Ashton-James, 2003; Douglas, Frink & Ferris, 2004). In the context of services, Gabbott, Tsarenko, and Mok (2011) found that emotional intelligence can shape customer reactions when there has been service failure.

As far as individual factors are concerned, different employees use surface and deep acting to varying degrees (Rathi, 2014). Empirical research shows that employees with high emotional intelligence use deep acting more frequently than surface acting (Cheung & Tang, 2009; Cote, Miners & Moon, 2006; Lee & Ok, 2014). Moreover, frequent use of deep acting by employees in service transactions has been observed to have positive consequences for employees as well as for the organisation (Grandey, 2003; Groth et al., 2009; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Judge et al., 2009; Totterdell & Holman, 2003).

2.1.2.3 Emotional labour and emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is one key component of burnout (Maslach, 1982). It is a stress outcome that occurs when an employee is in the state of depleted energy (Ang Chooi Hwa, 2012). This state is consequential when an employee is emotionally overextended in interactions with customers, with little resource to recuperate from the drain on emotional resources (Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986). In so far as this observation has been made in relation to the study conducted (Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986), one needs to be very careful in compartmentalising emotions. One's emotional state in personal life cannot be divorced from occurrences at work, therefore the emotional response to work situations may be an aggregate of a person's total emotional state.

According to Santos, Mustafa and Gwi (2015), emotional strain or exhaustion can often occur when employees need to expend their energy and efforts to realign their feelings (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) with displays of acceptable emotions. Various studies have confirmed the association between emotional labour and burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Kim, 2008; Zapf, 2002). For instance, Kruml and Geddes (2000) found that individuals experience stress when they fake emotions rather than genuinely express what they feel. Furthermore, emotional labour was found to contribute to burnout, over and above the contribution of other organisational and social variables (Santos, Mustafa & Gwi, 2015). Effective emotion regulation occurs when employees choose to modify their situations, monitor and adjust their cognitions, and respond appropriately to clients in ways that do not result in dissonance and stress for extended periods of time (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002).

Kim's (2008) study, however, only managed to establish the positive influence of surface acting and not that of deep acting on emotional exhaustion. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) and Grandey (2003) similarly did not find support for the association between deep acting and emotional exhaustion. These findings are justifiable, based on the following reason. Emotional dissonance or surface acting has been said to be a form of role conflict (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) because it involves a clash between the needs and principles of the employee and the requirements of others within the same role (Kahn, 1964; as cited in Johnson, 2004). Since role conflict has been suggested as a key determinant of emotional exhaustion (Jackson et al., 1986), engaging in surface acting, which results in emotional dissonance, may lead to higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

2.1.3 Theories and models related to emotional labour

The specific theories / models related to emotional labour that will be identified, analysed and discussed are the emotion regulation theory and the control theory. These theories / models have been identified because research has revealed that there is a correlation between emotional labour and the above mentioned theories / models. These identified constructs will be discussed individually below.

2.1.3.1 Emotion regulation theory

Emotion regulation theory, defined as "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998b, p. 275), provides a very useful guiding framework for emotional labour (Grandey, 2000). Gross (1998a, 1998b) proposed a process model of emotion regulation that may be specifically useful for the emotional labour topic. In this input-output model, individuals receive stimulation from the situation and respond with emotions (Grandey, 2000). Regarding the input-output model, individuals experience triggers from a situation and therefore respond with emotions. Gross's (1998b) model proposed that emotion regulation can occur at two points during this process. At the first point, called antecedent-focused, an individual can regulate the precursors of emotion such as the situation or the appraisal.

The first two types involve adjustments in the emotion-inducing situation. As the interactionist theory discusses, people often choose the situations in which they act, including the situations that may create emotions (Buss, 1987). Employees may choose their jobs, but for service employees there may be little opportunity for situation selection beyond that as a method to regulate emotions. In the next two techniques of antecedent-focused emotion regulation, employees can modify how they perceive the situation in order to adjust their emotional response to the situation (Grandey, 2000). These techniques are attentional deployment and cognitive change. Attentional deployment is done by thinking about events that call up the emotions that one needs in that situation, known as "method acting" in theatre (Gross, 1998b, p. 284; Stanislavsky, 1965). The concept of deep acting, in its original form as described by Hochschild (1983), is very similar to attentional deployment (Grandey, 2000).

The other antecedent-focused method is cognitive change, where one perceives the situation so that the emotional impact is lessened (Lazarus, 1991). This type of emotion regulation is also "deep," in that the internal processes (thoughts and feelings) are modified with the goal to make the expression more genuine. The difference is that attentional deployment focuses upon changing the focus of

personal thoughts, and cognitive change focuses on changing appraisals of the external situation (Grandey, 2000).

Grandey (2000) explained that at the second point, response-focused, the individual modifies the physiological or observable signs of emotions. In this process, the person has a tendency toward an emotional response, but manipulates how he or she shows that emotional response by "directly influencing physiological, experiential or behavioural responding" (Gross, 1998b, p. 285). Rather than adjusting the situation or the perception of the situation, the individual manipulates the emotional expression of his or her reaction to the situation. Response-focused emotion regulation corresponds with the process of surface acting. An employee may paste a smile on her face though she is feeling "negative" (adjusting intensity) or may put on an empathic "mask" in order to remain polite toward the customer who is annoying (fake the display) (Grandey, 2000).

Grandey (2000) explained that these two processes of emotion regulation correspond to the emotional labour concept of deep acting and surface acting. Application of general emotion theory to emotional labour can help explicate these processes of emotion management and form predictions about consequences as well. According to both emotional labour theorists and emotion researchers, the management of emotions through acting may have detrimental outcomes for individuals (Grandey, 2000).

2.1.3.2 Control theory

Control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998) is a theory of self-regulation that has been successfully applied to understanding the emotional labour process in past research (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Control theory adopts a cybernetic perspective, meaning that self-regulation is thought to occur through feedback loops that govern the pursuit of goals (Randolph & Dahling, 2013). According to the theory, self-regulation begins with the adaptation of a goal or standard, which may originate inside or outside of the self (Randolph & Dahling, 2013). One's current behaviour or status serves as an input, which is evaluated relative to the goal through a function described as the comparator. At the comparator function, information about current

behaviour is compared to the goal to evaluate whether or not successful progress is being made toward goal attainment (Randolph & Dahling, 2013). If the comparator signals that satisfactory progress toward the goal is being made, then no conscious attention needs to be dedicated to changing behaviour and the monitoring process accordingly can fade out of conscious attention (Randolph & Dahling, 2013). However, if a discrepancy between one's behaviour and the goal is detected, then conscious attention and resources must be dedicated to changing the behaviour so that the goal can be attained (Randolph & Dahling, 2013).

Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) mapped constructs from the emotional labour literature on the basic control theory model to illustrate how this process guides the self-regulation of emotional displays at work. In their model, organisational display rules serve as the referent standards within which an employee's current emotional displays toward a customer (the input behaviour) are compared (Randolph & Dahling, 2013). If a discrepancy is perceived (i.e., if displayed emotions are not consistent with the rules), then the employee needs to engage in laborious emotional labour through surface acting (the output behaviour) to positively impact the customer interaction and bring his or her performance into alignment with the organisation's expectations (Randolph & Dahling, 2013).

Randolph and Dahling's (2013) empirical research, consistent with this theory, indicated that employees first have to perceive that the organisation endorses certain emotional display rules before emotional labour will occur. Once these perceptions have occurred, the employees can choose which, if any, emotional labour strategy they will implement (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003). Because much emotional labour happens in service settings, research on display rule perceptions has overwhelmingly focused on organisations in which display rules call for the display of integrative emotions (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). Integrative emotional displays are those that generate a sense of reassurance, satisfaction and pleasure in customers, and consequently involve a mixture of expressing positive emotions to customers (enthusiasm, warmth, delight) and suppressing the display of negative emotions such as boredom, irritation or disgust (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Employees' awareness of display rules to either express positive emotion or suppress negative emotion is extremely influential on their likelihood to act on these

perceptions and engage in emotion regulation, an idea reflected in a multitude of emotional labour models (Grandey, 2000; Rafeli & Sutton, 1987).

2.1.4 Implications of emotional labour on leadership effectiveness

Humphrey (2012) explained that in most organisations, both leaders and followers are exposed to a variety of emotionally challenging events: accidents, broken equipment, interpersonal conflict, rude customers, shipping delays, defects, and a rapid work pace or slow sales can all create stress. However, it is not limited to these events. Under these frustrating circumstances, leaders may need to use emotional labour and regulation tactics to help employees gain control of their own emotions. Leaders may also need to use emotional labour tactics to help them express the right emotions to their followers: when times are tough, followers need to have confidence in their leaders, and followers cannot feel confident if their leaders are expressing fear, anxiety and other confidence-sapping emotions (Humphrey, 2012). Even during good times, leaders may need to express enthusiasm to motivate their followers to achieve their full potential. Thus emotional labour tactics may help leaders manage their own emotions and, therefore, control the emotions they portray to others. Leaders who effectively use emotional labour may be able to improve the moods, job attitudes and performance of their followers (Humphrey, 2012).

“Leading with emotional labour” is not meant to be a complete theory of leadership. Instead, leader emotional labour is a specific set of behaviours that can help leaders establish better leader–member exchange relationships, perform transformational leadership behaviours, establish authentic relationships with others, and so forth (Humphrey, 2012). For example, it is likely that leaders who use higher rates of deep acting and genuine emotional labour will have better leader–member relationships with followers. Customers respond better to employees who use deep acting and genuine emotional labour, so it is likely that employees will also respond better to leaders who use these two approaches. Followers may also perceive leaders who use deep acting and genuine emotional labour to be more authentic and to have a more honest overall character (Humphrey, 2012).

The skilled use of emotional labour tactics may help leaders to be more effective in several ways. First, it may help leaders establish better leader–member relations, exhibit charismatic and transformational leadership, and perhaps even make them more task-oriented, pragmatic and transactional leaders (Humphrey, 2012). Performing emotional labour can be difficult and stressful for both leaders and followers. The ability to perform emotional labour in a way that promotes positive well-being instead of stress may be one of the key distinguishing factors between effective and ineffective leaders. Leaders who use genuine emotional labour and deep acting may also be better at establishing trusting relationships with subordinates. Leaders high on moral commitment and moral discipline are more likely to use emotional labour methods to achieve ethical goals (Humphrey, 2012).

Having established an understanding of emotional labour, I will now discuss the next construct that is pertinent to my study, which is women in leadership.

2.2 WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP

Within the layout of this section, leadership will be conceptualised and defined. An overview of leadership will be discussed. Relevant theories and/or models related to leadership, as well as the worldviews on women in leadership will be presented. Finally, the implications of emotional labour will be identified, analysed and discussed.

2.2.1 Conceptualisation of leadership

Robbins, Odendaaal and Roodt (2003) stated that leadership is about coping with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals or as a process of influencing others to facilitate the attainment of organisationally relevant goals (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2008). Ivancevich et. al. (2008), on the other hand, viewed leadership as using influence in

an organisational setting or situation, producing effects that are meaningful and have a direct impact on accomplishing challenging goals.

A review by Paul and Blanchard (1990, as cited by Patwardhan, 2007) revealed that most management writers agreed that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in an effort toward goal achievement in a given situation. Barnard (1938) defined leadership as the ability of a superior to influence the behaviour of subordinates and persuade them to follow a particular course of action. Barnard's (1938) definition of leadership as compared to those by other authors was that he believed a prescribed course of action should be followed, whilst other authors believed that leadership was about influencing activities of individuals to obtain a specific goal or situation. According to the IAAP administrative professionals' week event (2009), leadership is a major way in which people change the minds of others and move organisations forward to accomplish identified goals. For the purposes of this study, the definition by Robbins, Odendaaal and Roodt (2003), who stated that leadership, is about coping with change and leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles, will be utilised.

2.2.2 Overview of leadership approaches

Although there are more recent approaches to leadership, such as authentic, charismatic, spiritual and ethical amongst others, for the purpose of this study, the specific leadership approaches that will be identified, analysed and discussed are transformational leadership and transactional leadership. These approaches were selected as Budworth and Mann (2010), Eagly et al. (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours, a form of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles, whilst transactional leadership style comes more naturally to male leaders as compared to any other leadership style (Eagly et al., 2003). Furthermore, I believe that they are the most popular approaches adopted by leaders today. Each identified approach will be discussed individually below.

2.2.2.1 Transformational leadership

Odetunde's (2013) theories of transformational and transactional leadership were initially developed by Burns (1978). McLuarin and Amri (2008 as cited by Odetunde, 2013) stated, according to Burns (1978), transformational leadership involves motivating followers to move beyond their own self-interests for the benefits of the group and the organisation and view their task from the new perspectives. Bass and Avolio (1993, as cited by Mills, 2009) stated that there are four dimensions to transformational leadership:

- (a) *Idealised influence* or charisma is described as the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with the leader. Charismatic leaders display conviction, take stands, and appeal to followers on an emotional level. Inspirational motivation is the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).
- (b) *Inspirational motivation* is explained as leaders, who, with inspirational motivation, challenge followers with high standards, communicate optimism about future goal attainment, and provide meaning for the task at hand (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).
- (c) *Intellectual stimulation* is described as the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks and solicits followers' ideas. Leaders with this trait stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).
- (d) *Individualised consideration* is the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, and listens to the follower's concerns and needs (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Bass and Avolio (1993) stated that effective transformational leaders share the following characteristics (Luthans, 2008): they identify themselves as change agents and are courageous. They believe in people, are value driven, lifelong learners, have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty and finally they are

visionaries (Luthans, 2008). On the basis of his research, Bass (1985) stated that transformational leadership leads to superior performance in organisations facing demands for renewal and change.

2.2.2.2 Transactional leadership

Avolio and Bass (2002) stated that transactional leadership is where management is performed in a more conventional way and the leader rewards or punishes a follower, depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance. Ivancevich et al. (2008) suggested that transactional leaders help the follower identify what must be done to accomplish the desired goals and ensures that employees have the resources needed to complete the job.

Bass (1985) highlighted that two essential elements of transactional leadership are "contingent reward" and "management by exception". Steers, Bigley & Porter (1996) stated that a contingent reward refers to leaders who encourage the performance of their subordinates by rewarding them. This reward is contingent or appropriate according to performance level. Bass (1985) and Kurupparachchi (2001) explained that leaders first need to understand precisely what their goals are and then define and communicate to followers the work that must be done to achieve these goals. Thereafter, followers are rewarded according to the extent to which work is completed successfully (Coetzee & Schaap, 2005).

According to Bass (1985) and Kurupparachchi (2001), management by exception refers to employees who are motivated and directed to achieve expected standards of performance. Leaders who search for potential deviations from rules and standards, and take corrective action, can be seen as actively managing by exception (Robbins, 1998). Passive management by exception refers to leaders only taking action once standards are not met (Coetzee & Schaap, 2005).

Bass (1985) indicated that transactional leaders generally reflect on how to marginally improve and maintain the performance, how to replace one goal for another, decrease resistance to particular actions and execute decisions. This form

of leadership emphasises the clarification of goals, work principles and standards, assignments and equipment (Hayward, 2005).

2.2.3 Theories and models related to leadership

The specific theories / models related to leadership that will be identified, analysed and discussed are the trait theory, the behavioural theory and the situational / contingency theories. These theories have been selected because of their impact on leadership styles. These identified theories will be discussed individually below.

2.2.3.1 Trait theory

The scientific analysis of leadership started off by concentrating on the trait approach to leadership (Luthans, 2008). The earliest research conducted on the concept of leadership focused on identifying the unique qualities or traits that appeared common to effective leaders – the idea that leaders are born and not made (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 2000). Luthans (2008) suggested that the attention was given in the search for universal traits possessed by leaders. Much of the early discussion and research on leadership focused on identifying intellectual, emotional, physical and other personal traits of effective leaders. This approach assumed that a finite number of individual traits of effective leaders could be found (Ivancevich et al., 2008).

The trait theory of leadership is founded on an attempt to identify specific characteristics, which comprises of both physical, mental and personality characteristics that are associated with leadership success. The theory relies on research that relates various traits to certain success criteria (Ivancevich et al., 2008). Robbins et al. (2003) stated that the six traits on which effective leaders differ from non-leaders are ambition and energy, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence and job-relevant knowledge.

2.2.3.2 Behavioural theory

According to Van Dyk and Van Niekerk (2004), in the 1950s, researchers became discouraged with the trait approach and began to pay closer attention to what managers actually do in their jobs. Instead of searching for traits, these researchers examined leader behaviours and their impact on the performance and satisfaction of followers (Ivancevich, et al., 2008). Different patterns of behaviour were grouped together and labelled as styles. According to Van Dyk and Van Niekerk (2004), Gordon stated that this behaviour has been categorised along two common dimensions: initiating structures (concern for organisational tasks) and consideration (concern for individuals and interpersonal relations).

According to Ivancevich et al. (2008), studies were conducted in a wide variety of organisations and through interviewing leaders and followers, and researchers identified two distinct styles of leadership, referred to as job-centred and employee-centred. Job-centred leaders focused on completing the task and used close supervision so that subordinates perform their tasks using specified procedures. The employee-centred leader focused on the people doing the work and believed in delegating decision-making and aiding employees in satisfying their needs by creating a supportive work environment. The employee-centred leader is concerned with followers' personal advancement, growth and achievement (Ivancevich et al., 2008).

2.2.3.3 Situational / contingency theories

As a result of the dissatisfaction with regard to the search for the best set of traits and behaviours, situational theories of leadership evolved, suggesting that leadership effectiveness is a function of various aspects of the leadership situation. The contingency model of leadership was developed by Fiedler and suggests that the performance of groups is dependent on the interaction between leadership style and situational favourableness (Ivancevich et al., 2008). Fiedler's contingency model of leadership proposes three factors, namely, leader-member relations, task structure and position power. A leader-member relation refers to the degree of

confidence, trust and respect the followers have in their leader. This is the most important factor. Task structure is the next most important factor and refers to the extent to which the tasks the followers are engaged in are structured. Position power is the last factor and refers to the power essential in the leadership position (Ivancevich et al., 2008).

Hersey and Blanchard developed the situational leadership theory. According to Stuart and Paquet (2001), the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) emphasises that successful leadership implies the ability to cope with, and adapt effectively to environmental demands. According to Mullins (1999), situational approaches to leadership have come about as a result of attempts to build upon and improve the trait and behavioural approaches to leadership. The situational approaches emphasise the importance of the situation as the dominant feature in effective leadership, together with the leader and the followers (Hayward, 2005).

2.2.4 Worldviews of women in leadership

More than ever before, the world needs women leaders (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). According to Evans (2010), the climb to corporate success is still a very daunting task for most women leaders in the Western world. There are, however, signs that women are finally starting to overcome some traditionally stiff barriers that have previously prevented them from aspiring to the top positions on offer in global corporations (Evans, 2010).

According to Evans (2010), when examining basic gender differences in leadership, collaborativeness, nurturance and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) are far more important considerations than power and control. Transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) is the ability through natural charisma to inspire and guide the workforce through change and transformation. It also emphasises the achievement of goals by gaining employees' trust and respect (Evans, 2010). Transformational leaders, on the whole, are successful and this fact may help women to excel in leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2003). In the increasingly important field of emotional intelligence, Mandell and Pherwani (2003) demonstrated that women scored higher than men in their tests. They underlined the fact that women have always had a

desire to lead, but had been considerably held back by many factors and were politically, economically and socially restricted. These barriers have now, to a large extent, been removed (Evans, 2010). Those who are “well-rounded and capable of handling adversity, ambiguity and uncertainty in times of crisis” will leave their mark (Porterfield & Kleiner, 2005).

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and van Engen (2003) published a meta-analysis, wherein they examined the leadership styles of males and females. Budworth and Mann (2010), Eagly et al. (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours, a form of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles. Transformational leaders adopt a mentoring role with their followers, encouraging self-development and increased responsibility within the organisation (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). Furthermore, transformational leaders are facilitators who act as role models to other team members and use innovative problem-solving approaches. This contrasts with the transactional model of leadership characterised by a top-down definition of role responsibilities combined with a system of rewards and punishments used to ensure that subordinates meet management-defined organisational goals (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). However, generally, female leaders are evaluated less favourably than males (Eagly & Karau, 2002), especially in contexts that are male dominated and strongly hierarchical (Eagly et al., 2003). Findings that reveal effective leadership and management strategies for males versus females are instructive for the understanding of leadership development (Eagly et al., 2003). Women are more likely than men to adopt a transformational leadership style and, therefore, it could be argued that women should be running the world’s major corporations as well as playing key roles in national and international politics (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008).

Holden and McCarthy (2007) identified a problem in authoritatively articulating the under-representation of women in positions of leadership in the creative and cultural sector. There is a general perception that the creative and cultural sector is “female friendly” (Dodd, 2012). However, despite high numbers, there is an understanding that women in positions of power and leadership are underrepresented. This is an issue that transcends sectors across the economy (Dodd, 2012). Lips and Keener

(2007) found that the movement of women into positions of leadership in business has been slow, despite anti-discrimination legislation and heightened awareness of the leadership capabilities of women. Gender-stereotypic perceptions of leadership roles continue to be cited as barriers for women in positions of power (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Mullen, 2009). These perceptions have been observed to be eroding, but have not been eradicated, as such prejudice and discrimination against women in leadership still occurs (Eagly & Carli, 2003). In particular, the gender-stereotypic expectations that Mullen (2009) uncovered and which are seen to yield prejudice through male-dominated organisational environments, provide further evidence that gendered perceptions are potentially constructed in the way institutions operate, rather being inherent in individuals (Nelson Maxfield & Kolb, 2009).

According to Dodd (2012), barriers are a central theme in the literature on the under-representation of women in business and this was explored in some detail by Ryan and Haslam (2007, 2005). The observed barriers are commonly described as the “glass ceiling”, whereby an individual with the relevant qualifications and competencies is stopped in their advancement into leadership or positions of responsibility by an invisible barrier (Dodd, 2012). Ryan and Haslam (2007) extended this metaphor by stating that women also face a “glass cliff”, to highlight the increased risk that women face in failure. Their theoretical review demonstrated that gender inequalities increase the propensity for women to be employed in high-risk leadership positions, failure in which reinforces negative gender perceptions on the suitability of women to lead (Dodd, 2012).

A further difficulty for women lies in the fact that although a transformative leadership style has been shown to be the most effective, many employees and managers perceive a transactional leadership style as best (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). This may be because it conforms to the behaviour of previous leaders they have known or it may be due to the fact that the traits of the transactional style are perceived as more masculine and for complex psycho-social reasons masculinity and leadership are seen as closely related. Interestingly, however, men who exhibit traits of the transformational leader are highly valued for qualities such as empathy, which is expected in women and thus only commented on if absent (Emerald

Publishing Group, 2008). On the other hand, female leaders who attempt to adopt the qualities of the transactional leader (not to *become* more effective, but to be *perceived* as being more effective) are often criticised for being “too masculine”. Behaviours such as assertiveness, which attract praise in male leaders, are reinterpreted in less favourable terms when exhibited by female leaders (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008).

2.2.5 Implications of leadership on emotional labour

An important link between emotional labour and leadership lies in the movement of emotional labour from the service worker to the leader (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor 2013). Humphrey (2006, 2008 & 2012) was the first to introduce the phrase “leading with emotional labour” and to develop a systematic model of how leaders and managers use emotional labour. Humphrey, Pollack and Hawver (2008, p. 153) described how leaders use “emotional labour and emotional displays to influence the moods, emotions, motivations and performance of their subordinates or followers”. They also distinguished the emotional labour performed by leaders from that performed by the three types of service workers described earlier (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor 2013). Although Burch, Humphrey and Batchelor (2013) mentioned three methods of displaying emotions (surface acting, deep acting and expressing genuine natural emotions), this study focuses on two methods, namely, surface acting and deep acting. The reason for this choice is because deep acting is the process that allows one’s emotions to go through the filtration process and therefore the emotions expressed are genuine.

One key component of leading with emotional labour (Humphrey, 2012) is determining and selecting the correct emotion to display, depending on the situation and the individuals involved (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). Here, the use of emotional labour differs between subordinates and leaders (Humphrey, Pollack & Hawver, 2008). Effective leaders must be in touch with their emotions and be able to express them appropriately with subordinates (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Leaders have additional responsibilities above those of subordinates (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). They must manage their personal emotions and the emotions of others in a way that reduces stress and inspires productivity, while

remaining in line with organisational display rules. Leaders use emotional labour whenever they use their emotional expressions to influence others. In addition, leaders use emotional labour display rules to create unique organisational cultures and improve service quality (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). Along with setting display rules, leaders can use emotional labour strategies to boost the moods, motivation and performance of their followers and thereby improve overall firm performance. This means that leaders have to take into account a large number of factors when deciding how to perform emotional labour, and that leading with emotional labour is a complex process (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013).

2.3 CHAPTER INTEGRATION

Emotional labour comprises of a specific or prescribed set of rules that dictates appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in the workplace. Hochschild (1983, p. 7) stated that “emotional labour is the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” and Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) stated that leadership is about coping with change; that leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and aspiring them to overcome hurdles. The critical link that connects emotional labour and leadership is in the way that leaders understand the emotional labour as experienced by staff members (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). Humphrey (2012) was the first to introduce the phrase “leading with emotional labour”. Leading with emotional labour can be described as knowing what emotions to display in any given work situation and with the right staff members.

Gender creates different expectations regarding emotional labour (Guy & Newman, 2004; Hochschild, 1983; Meier, Mastracci & Wilson, 2006; Wharton & Erickson, 1995). Based on societal norms, there are different expectations of women compared to men. Societal norms expect women to take up work roles in the more traditional caring, supportive and nurturing occupations such as teaching, nursing and social work. This links directly to a transformational leadership style and is supported by literature in that a transformational leadership style comes more naturally to women leaders as compared to any other leadership style such as transactional leadership style (Eagly et al., 2003). Social norms expect men to take

up work roles in the more traditional masculine occupations such as transportation, construction and engineering. This links directly to a transactional leadership style and is supported in literature in that a transactional leadership style comes more naturally to male leaders as compared to any other leadership style (Eagly et al., 2003). In looking at gender differences in leadership, collaborativeness, nurturance and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995), all characteristics associated with transformational leadership and which women are believed to have a natural inclination towards, are now far more important considerations than power and control, which are characteristics associated with transactional leadership and which men are believed to have a natural inclination towards. Based on a study on emotional intelligence conducted by Mandell and Pherwani (2003), women scored higher than men in their tests. Societal norms, the multitude of role pressures, expectations and demands (such as mother, caregiver, wife and leader) placed on women in leadership positions may lead to emotional exhaustion. Due to multiple role demands and the pressure of women leaders having to lead with emotional labour, there is a constant need for women leaders to realign their emotions to suit the situation and this may lead to emotional exhaustion. This is supported in literature by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), who stated that emotional strain or exhaustion can often occur when people need to expend their energy and efforts to realign their feelings with displays of acceptable emotions.

Based on the literature presented, the implications that could be expected to be found in the study of emotional labour amongst women leaders within the consulting industry would be the necessity to gain a better understanding of the emotional challenges that they are faced with and to assess whether women leaders display a predominantly transformational leadership approach compared to the more stereotypical gender-based and accepted transactional leadership approach.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the literature review was discussed. This was accomplished by discussing how each emotional labour and leadership has been conceptualised in literature. The relationship between emotional labour and specific constructs, namely; gender, emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion were presented. Additionally, I have identified and discussed theories / models related to emotional labour, as well as the implications of effectiveness of leadership. In relation to women in leadership, the literature review also provided an overview of leadership approaches, namely; transactional and transformational. Moreover, I have identified and discussed theories / models related to leadership, as well as the worldviews on women in leadership and finally the implications of emotional labour. This chapter concluded with the chapter integration of my literature review, specifically highlighting the relationship between emotional labour and women in leadership.

CHAPTER 3: SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ARTICLE

In this chapter, my research is presented as a full scientific article.

EMOTIONAL LABOUR AMONGST WOMEN LEADERS WITHIN A CONSULTING INDUSTRY: A HERMENEUTIC PHENOMENOLOGICAL INQUIRY

ABSTRACT

The focus of this study is to explore the lived experiences of emotional labour amongst women leaders within the consulting industry. Although there has been some research conducted within the field of emotional labour, there has been limited research pertaining to the South African context and little to no research specifically relating to women leaders within the consulting industry. A qualitative study was conducted using the hermeneutic phenomenological perspective. Data was gathered through in-depth, semi structured interviews with eight women leaders within the consulting industry, all of whom resided in Gauteng. The data gathered was analysed by applying a hermeneutic phenomenological analysis and interpreted from a work and personally-related emotional labour stance. The empirical findings suggest that women leaders naturally adopt a transformational leadership style. The empirical research exposed that women leaders within the consulting industry do not have any form of work-life balance. Furthermore, the empirical research revealed that most of the women experienced both negative and positive emotions due to the ups and downs they were exposed to at work; there is no organisational support to overcome these emotions. This study contributed to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of expanding the global and local literature on emotional labour, human resources practices such as talent management and retention strategies, career psychologist and myself as the researcher in terms of providing me with invaluable insights into the lived experiences of women leaders pertaining to the emotional labour they experience on a daily basis within their personal lives and within the work environment.

Key words:

Emotion labour, woman leaders, work-life balance, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, role demands and expectations

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this scientific research article, the primary focus is on investigating the concept of emotional labour in relation to women leaders within the consulting industry. Emotional labour (Hochschild 1979, 1983) is referred to the self-managing of affective displays as emotional labour and distinguished between two primary forms: surface acting and deep acting (Grandey, 2000). Studies on emotional labour have gained importance with the growth of the service sector (Houben & Wüstner, 2014). Houben and Wüstner (2014), stated that for a long time, the focus of emotional labour studies was on typical service professions, such as flight attendants (Hochschild, 1983), nurses (Wharton, 1993) or cashiers (Rafaeli, 1989). According to Scott and Barnes (2011), customer service employees are expected to conform to integrative display rules (Ekman & Friesen, 1969), which stipulate either explicitly or implicitly that they should express positive emotions and suppress negative emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). However, employees naturally experience a variety of emotions throughout their workdays. As a result, they often have to manage their affective displays in order to conform to display rules (Scott & Barnes, 2011).

This study can provide deeper insights into the lived experiences of women leaders pertaining to emotional labour, as well as help fill the gaps in the literature internationally and within the South African context. It can also assist practitioners in formulating effective strategies for human resources management and employees' emotion management, which in turn can lessen customers' negative impact on employees (Huang & Dai, 2010) both internationally and within the South African context.

3.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The regulation of affective display as an explicit or implicit requirement of work roles has been recognised for decades (Hochschild, 1979, 1983). Emotions are always involved in life, at work and outside work (Payne & Cooper, 2001). Emotions are not easily regulated at all times, sometimes they need not to be controlled, sometimes it would serve the circumstance well if individuals displayed their emotions in a socially

or organisationally desired way (Houben & Wüstner, 2014). Especially in service tasks, a sensitised expression and handling of emotions is necessary. Two forms of handling emotions in the interaction of the service provider and the customer can be differentiated: sentimental work and emotional labour (Houben & Wüstner, 2014).

Sentimental work describes efforts by the service provider to influence the emotions of the customer, so that they show emotional reactions that are perceived to be helpful or most suited to the given situation (Strauss, Farahaugh, Suczek & Wiener, 1980). Thus, sentimental work is the attempt to influence the emotions of others.

Emotional labour focuses on how individuals modify not the emotions of others, but their own feelings in order to exhibit a behaviour that follows display rules set by an organisation (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) distinguished two modes of modifying: surface acting and deep acting. The first technique describes an individual feeling differently from the expectations of the environment, and he/she is then urged to present an appearance that is in accordance with the display rules (Houben & Wüstner, 2014). For example, if a person feels angry, they should not let this become obvious via their verbal and non-verbal expressions. The emotion is not regulated, but the emotional expression.

The second strategy is deep acting, which should allow a person to modify not mainly the verbal or non-verbal expression, but help them to feel in the “correct” way (Houben & Wüstner, 2014). Therefore, it is not merely a manipulation of an expression, but a regulation of the emotion itself (Hochschild, 1983). Now that an understanding has been gained as to what emotional labour entails, the subsequent construct that will be discussed will be leadership.

Robbins et al. (2003) stated that leadership is about coping with change and leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals or as a process of influencing other to facilitate the attainment of organisationally relevant goals (Ivancevich et al., 2008). Leadership style is an important variable that explains gender differences in leadership. The most effective leadership style in

contemporary organisations is transformational leadership (Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012). According to Budworth and Mann (2010), Eagly et al. (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours: a form of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles.

Although the Emerald Publishing Group (2008) stated that women are more likely than men to adopt a transformational leadership style and therefore, it could be argued that women should be running the world's major corporations as well as playing key roles in national and international politics, the global history of hundreds of years clearly shows that women were treated as inferior and socialised to put themselves last, thus undermining their self-esteem and the present status of women. This picture remains unchanged (Patwardhan, 2007). This was further emphasised by Lopez-Zafra et al. (2012), who stated that although women's participation in the workforce of industrialised societies is increasing substantially, the percentage of women in leading positions at the top of various organisations still remains low. Dodd (2012) believed that barriers are a central theme in the literature on the under-representation of women in business. The barriers that are observed are commonly described as the "glass ceiling", whereby an individual with the relevant qualifications and competencies is stopped in their advancement into leadership or positions of responsibility by an invisible barrier (Dodd, 2012). Ryan and Haslam (2007) extended this metaphor by stating that women also face a "glass cliff" to highlight the increased risk that women face in failure. Their theoretical review demonstrates that gender inequalities increase the propensity for women to be employed in high-risk leadership positions, failure in which reinforces negative gender perceptions on the suitability of women to lead (Dodd, 2012).

The primary rationale behind the proposed research study is to focus on investigating the experiences of emotional labour amongst women leaders within the consulting industry from a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry perspective. Humphrey (2012) explained that although recent theoretical articles maintain that leaders use emotional labour, almost all empirical research on emotional labour has focused on how service workers use emotional labour. This vacuum creates a great opportunity for leadership researchers (Humphrey, 2012). In light of this, my research study should provide new, valuable insights pertaining to emotional labour

particularly amongst women leaders in the consulting industry from a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry perspective within the South African context.

3.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND CONTRIBUTION

In line with the call to explore emotional labour amongst leaders (Humphrey, 2012), I intended to study emotional labour by conducting a qualitative inquiry into the lived experiences of women leaders within the consulting industry. Gaining an understanding of how women leaders experience emotional labour may contribute to formulating effective strategies for human resources management (Huang & Dai, 2010).

This study contributes to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of expanding the global and local literature on emotional labour, human resources practices such as talent management and retention strategies and employees' emotion management, which in turn can lessen customers' negative impact on employees (Huang & Dai, 2010), on career psychologist and myself as the researcher in terms of providing me with invaluable insights into the lived experiences of women leaders pertaining to the emotional labour they experience on a daily basis within their personal lives and within the work environment.

3.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review different theoretical perspectives regarding emotional labour and women in leadership will be discussed.

3.4.1 Emotional labour

Within the layout of this section, emotional labour will be conceptualised and defined and the implications of leadership effectiveness will be identified, analysed and discussed.

3.4.1.1 Conceptualisation of emotional labour

Hochschild (1983, p.7) described emotional labour as the “management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display”. Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul and Gremler (2006) maintained that emotional labour indicates the presence of explicit or implicit organisational display rules (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) that delineate which emotions employees should express and which they should suppress in their interactions with customers. Lee and Ok (2014) further advanced this argument as they stated that organisations set standards of emotional display for employees that require them to express certain positive emotions and suppress negative emotions during interactions with customers, irrespective of their actually felt emotions.

According to Scott et al. (2012), the way in which employees conform to display rules via the management of their affective displays varies. Hochschild (1979, 1983) distinguished between two strategies of what she referred to as emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting entails individuals' modifying affective displays without attempting to alter underlying feelings (Scott et al., 2012). Deep acting entails modifying actual affective states to match desired displays (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998; Hochschild, 1979, 1983). Deep acting is concerned with actually feeling or experiencing the emotions that one wishes to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In deep acting, employees try to change their felt emotions so that they can express genuine, organisationally mandated emotions (Groth, Hennig-Thurau, Walsh, 2009).

3.4.1.2 Implications of emotional labour on leadership effectiveness

Early leadership research has neglected the role of emotion in leadership effectiveness (George, 2000). Conventionally, emotion was usually viewed as the antithesis of rationality, and something unlikely to be associated with effective leadership (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Bono and Ilies (2006) argued that transformational leaders' emotional displays may energise followers to allocate more attentional resources to their tasks. According to Wang (2011), researchers suggest that leaders' emotions may influence followers' motivation through influencing their emotions. For instance, leaders' positive emotions may be “caught” by followers.

When followers are in a positive emotional state, they are likely to have a high expectancy that their effort will lead to enhanced performance and high-level goals (Wang, 2011).

Humphrey et al. (2008) argued that leaders who use emotional labour are emotionally expressive and are likely to be perceived as transformational. Emotional expressiveness is an important attribute of transformational leaders, and emotional labour can help leaders make their communications more inspiring (Groves, 2005). The skilled use of emotional labour tactics may help leaders to be more effective in several ways. First, it may help leaders establish better leader–member relations, exhibit charismatic and transformational leadership, and perhaps even be more task-oriented and pragmatic, and better transactional leaders (Humphrey, 2012). Performing emotional labour can be difficult and stressful for both leaders and followers, and the ability to perform emotional labour in a way that promotes positive well-being instead of stress may be one of the key distinguishing factors between effective and ineffective leaders. Leaders who use genuine emotional labour and deep acting may also be better at establishing trusting relationships with subordinates. Leaders who are high on moral commitment and moral discipline are more likely to use emotional labour methods to achieve ethical goals (Humphrey, 2012).

3.4.2 Women in leadership

Within the layout of this section, leadership will be conceptualised and defined, the worldview of women in leadership will be identified, analysed and discussed and to conclude this literature review, the implications of leadership on emotional labour will be presented.

3.4.2.1 Conceptualisation of leadership

Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) explained that leadership is about coping with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome

hurdles. Yukl (2006, p.8), on the other hand, defined leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”. Leadership also has been defined as the competencies and processes required to enable and empower ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity. These definitions include emotional competencies (Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Kelly, 1986, Senge, 1991) and leader influence, which is based more on emotion than reason, where leaders are able to inspire and motivate followers (Yukl, 2006).

3.4.2.2 Worldviews on women in leadership

More than ever before, the world needs women leaders (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). According to Evans (2010), when examining basic gender differences in leadership, collaborativeness, nurturance and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) are now far more important considerations than power and control. Transformational leadership (Burns, 1978), the ability through natural charisma to inspire and guide the workforce through change and transformation, also emphasises the achievement of goals by gaining employees’ trust and respect (Evans, 2010). According to Budworth and Mann (2010), Eagly et al. (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours: a form of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles.

Although the Emerald Publishing Group (2008) stated that women are more likely than men to adopt a transformational leadership style and, therefore, it could be argued that women should be running the world’s major corporations as well as playing key roles in national and international politics. However, according to Evans (2010), the climb to corporate success is still a very daunting task for most women leaders in the Western world. There are, however, signs that women are finally starting to overcome some traditionally stiff barriers that have previously prevented them from aspiring to the top-notch positions on offer in global corporations (Evans, 2010). Lips and Keener (2007) found that the movement of women into positions of

leadership in business has been slow, despite anti-discrimination legislation and heightened awareness of the leadership capabilities of women. Gender-stereotypic perceptions of leadership roles continue to be cited as barriers for women in positions of power (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Mullen, 2009). These perceptions have been observed to be diminishing, but have not been eradicated, as prejudice and discrimination against women in leadership still occurs (Eagly & Carli, 2003). The barriers that are observed are commonly described as the “glass ceiling”, whereby an individual with the relevant qualifications and competencies is stopped in their advancement into leadership or positions of responsibility by an invisible barrier (Dodd, 2012). Ryan and Haslam (2007) extended this metaphor by stating that women also face a “glass cliff” to highlight the increased risk that women face of potential failure. Their theoretical review demonstrates that gender inequalities increase the propensity for women to be employed in high-risk leadership positions, failure in which reinforces negative gender perceptions on the suitability of women to lead (Dodd, 2012).

3.4.2.3 Implications of leadership on emotional labour

An important link between emotional labour and leadership lies in the movement of emotional labour from the service worker to the leader (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor 2013). Humphrey (2006, 2008 & 2012) was the first to introduce the phrase “leading with emotional labour” and to develop a systematic model of how leaders and managers use emotional labour. One key component of leading with emotional labour (Humphrey, 2012) is determining the correct emotion to select and display, depending on the situation and the individuals involved (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor 2013). Here, the use of emotional labour differs between subordinates and leaders (Humphrey et al., 2008). Effective leaders must be in touch with their emotions and be able to express them appropriately with subordinates (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011).

Along with setting display rules, leaders can use emotional labour strategies to boost the moods, motivation and performance of their followers and thereby improve overall firm performance. This means that leaders have to take into account a large number of factors when deciding how to perform emotional labour and have to

understand that leading with emotional labour is a complex process (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013).

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Within the layout of this section, an in-depth discussion relating to my research approach, strategy and methodology will be provided.

3.5.1 Research approach

Based on the literature of Gadamer, Heidegger and Ricoeur (Lindseth & Norberg 2004), I employed a qualitative exploratory approach from a hermeneutic phenomenological perspective. This particular approach was followed in order to satisfy my curiosity and desire for a better understanding of the lived experiences of emotional labour amongst women leaders within the consulting industry. As a result of the limited research in this particular field, an exploratory study was ideal as this type of study is typically used when a researcher explores a new interest or when the study itself is relatively new (Babbie, 2005).

Phenomenological study describes the common meaning of several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Phenomenologists focus on describing what all participants have in common as they experience a phenomenon. The basic purpose of phenomenology is to reduce individual experiences with a phenomenon to a description of the universal essence (Creswell, 2013). Hermeneutic is the study of human cultural activity as texts, including written or verbal communication, visual art and music (Kvale, 1996). Hermeneutic, as an interpretive process, has the aim of discovering intended and expressed meaning and to bring understanding of phenomena through language (Annells, 1996; Kvale, 1996). Hermeneutic allows for the interpretation of the participant's experiences. I ascribed to the hermeneutic phenomenological orientation, which firstly, allows for a description of women leaders' lived experiences through phenomenology and secondly, interprets the phenomena by means of hermeneutics (Caputo, 1984).

3.5.2 Research strategy

The research strategy was presented in the form of a case study method where multiple case studies (Yin, 2009) were utilised, which focused on the lived experiences of business women leaders in South Africa by making use of in-depth interviews. A case study research involves the study of a case within a real-life, contemporary context or setting (Yin, 2009). Case studies are defined as ideographic research methods; that is, methods that study individuals as individuals rather than as members of a population (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

3.5.3 Research method

The research method that was employed deals with the research setting, the entrée and establishment of the researcher's roles, sampling, data collection, the recording and analysis of data, strategies employed to ensure quality data, ethics and reporting.

3.5.3.1 Research setting

This research study does not have a specific setting. This study focused on women leaders within the consulting industry. A consulting firm is a firm of experts (consultants) providing professional advice to an organisation or an individual for a fee. The primary purpose of a consulting firm is to provide access to industry-specific specialists / consultants and subject matter. All participants in this study were working within the Gauteng region.

3.5.3.2 Entrée and establishing the researcher's roles

This study was conducted generally in terms that it was not company specific. Most participants were approached informally, and outside their working hours and at their place of employment. With the construct of analysis being the phenomena of emotional labour as experienced by the individual, it was not necessary to approach

the organisations for authorisation. I contacted potential participants, explained my study to them and answered any potential questions that they had pertaining to my research. I further obtained written permission from the participants, stating that they were willing to participant in my research study.

3.5.3.3. Sampling

In order to obtain the richest possible sources of information to answer my research question, purposive sampling and, where necessary, snowball sampling strategies were employed (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). According to Nieuwenhuis (2010), purposive sampling is defined as the selection of participants according to pre-selected criteria relevant to a particular research question. Due to limited access to the sample group, I employed the snowball sampling strategy. This design uses a process of chain referrals. When members of the target population are located, they are asked to provide names and contact information of other members of the target population, who are then contacted and asked to name others, and so on (Burger & Silima, 2006). A basic assumption of snowball sampling is that members of the target population know each other (Burger & Silima, 2006).

The sample group that was used in this study comprised of eight female leaders working within the consulting industry. The participants were of senior management level and had eight years and more experience within the consulting industry. The sample group included eight women leaders, with biographical descriptives as displayed in Table 3.1 below

Table 3.1

Biographical descriptives of participants

Code	Race	Gender	Category	Years in Profession
WFMC17	White	Female	Management Consulting	17
IFREC08	Indian	Female	Renewable Energy Consulting	08
IFMC25	Indian	Female	Management Consulting	25
WFMC19	White	Female	Management Consulting	19
WFMC17	White	Female	Management Consulting	17
WFMC10	White	Female	Management Consulting	10
WFMC09	White	Female	Management Consulting	09
IFMC10	Indian	Female	Management Consulting	10

3.5.3.4 Data collection

In line with the hermeneutics phenomenological research paradigm that was employed, I engaged in unstructured in-depth interviews as a specific in-depth strategy. This interview strategy allowed for the exploration, understanding and interpretation of the participants' lived work experiences (Appleton, 1995; Kvale, 1996; van Manen, 1990). In this paradigm, the interview takes the form of an informal conversation about a specific human experience (Kvale, 1996; Patton, 1980). Participants were asked to describe how they – as women business leaders – experience emotional labour, for example, “Tell me about your experiences as a women leader in this organisation”. Prior to starting with the interviews, I conducted a pilot interview with a colleague, who works within the consulting industry at a senior management level.

3.5.3.5 Recording of data

I recorded the interviews digitally and additional field notes were compiled (Maree, 2010). Field notes were recorded by means of hand-written or typed notes. Interviews were transcribed and non-linguistic expressions such as silence, laughing and sighs were also included in the transcription, in order to provide a complete

picture of what the interviewee was saying (Kelly, 2007). The field notes were then used in conjunction with the transcribed interview in the data analysis phase.

3.5.3.6 Data analysis

To analyse and interpret the data, I followed the process proposed by Lindseth and Norberg (2004), which is based on Ricoeur's (1976) hermeneutic phenomenological interpretation theory. The steps involved naive reading, structural analysis and comprehensive understanding. When I employed these steps, I firstly interpreted each interview separately and once the interviews have been interpreted, I conducted the final step of the process (comprehensive understanding) by interpreting all the interview texts as a whole (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004).

Within the naive reading step, I read the interview transcriptions several times to allow full comprehension of the complete data. I had to have an open attitude and mind and allow the text to speak to me by employing a phenomenological attitude to the text. Once this was achieved, I then conducted a thematic structural analysis by employing content analysis, which made use of codes and coding (Lindseth & Norberg, 2004). Content analysis is an "inductive and iterative process" that looks for similarities and differences in texts (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). Within the comprehensive understanding step, I tried to formulate an integrated structural analysis of the various interview texts separately as well as the texts as a whole, thus allowing me to articulate the various meaning of the units and themes, as a structural whole (Wertz, 2011). This was done by making use of the hermeneutic circle (Annells, 1996).

3.5.3.7 Strategies employed to ensure quality data

A qualitative study aims to understand people's meaning-making; the emphasis falls on the internal validity of the research, which refers to the production of accurate findings that agree with the participants' life world (Schurink, 2009). I made use of the naturalistic terms to describe rigour of this study and will discuss the

trustworthiness, dependability, credibility, transferability and conformability of the findings.

To establish the trustworthiness of a study, Lincoln and Guba (1985) used unique terms such as credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability, as the naturalist's equivalents for internal validation, external validation, reliability and objectivity (Creswell, 2013). To enhance the trustworthiness of the study, I ensured that the credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability were all enhanced and present within the study.

Dependability has to do with convincing the reader that the finding occurred as reported in the results (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). This can be done by presenting the reader with an audit trail, which provides rich and detailed descriptions, showing how my actions and opinions may be embedded in and developed out of my contextual interaction (Kelly, 2007; Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). To enhance the dependability of the study, I made use of field notes and kept a reflective journal (Maree, 2010).

Credibility refers to the extent to which research findings are convincing and believable (Kelly, 2007). To enhance the credibility of the study, I sent the naive interpretations to each of the participants and asked them to comment on whether my understanding was correct and if not, how I could possibly express their comments in a better manner (Kelly, 2007).

Transferability has to do with whether understandings from one research context can be transferred to another context to provide a framework that can be used to reflect and make comparisons with findings in the context (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2007). To ensure transferability of the study, I provided an accurate description of the research process, clearly explaining and encouraging my choice of methods and also provided a detailed description of the research situation and context.

Conformability refers to the "degree to which the findings are a function solely of the participants and conditions of the research and not of the researcher's biases, motivations, opinions and perspectives" (Lincoln & Guba 1985). To ensure

conformability of the study, I sent the naive interpretations to each of the participants and asked them to comment on whether my understanding was correct.

3.5.3.8 Ethics

This research study was conducted in line with the Ethical Rules of Conduct as laid down by the Professional Board of Psychology, Health Professions Council of South Africa (Health Professions Act No. 56 of 1974, 2006). To ensure this was adhered to when reporting on the study, I refrained from plagiarism and provided publication credit where it was due. In addition, data was not collected prior to permission to commence with the study had been obtained from the UNISA IOP departmental Research Ethics Review Committee (RERC).

To ensure that the ethical standards were adhered to with regard to conducting research, the following measures were employed. Participation was voluntary and parties who participated provided their consent. This was achieved by ensuring that all participants signed a consent form. Participants received a letter informing them of the nature and purpose of the research study. The participants were reassured that all data collected were confidential and that anonymity was ensured. This was done in a form of a covering letter that the participants received.

3.5.3.9 Reporting

When writing my dissertation, I employed a confessional voice and used active verbs, honest personal stances and straightforward talking to guide the style of the report (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In order to accomplish this, I employed a first-person qualitative reporting style to report on the findings of the research study.

3.6 FINDINGS

In terms of my comprehensive understanding, I found instances of both positive and negative emotional reactions as well as both physically overt behaviour and internalisation of emotions.

It seemed that some participants did not indicate their management of their experienced emotions as much as they expressed their actual emotions experienced in particular situations. Also, they indicated emotional experiences in terms of negative situations and feelings associated, more so than they articulated positive situations and feelings associated.

All participants naturally displayed a transformational leadership style; however, in situation-specific instances, they consciously reverted to a transactional leadership style. These situations were generally associated with fires (major issues) that needed to be extinguished.

For most participants, achieving a work-life balance proved to be a difficult balancing act. Also, as the roles increased in complexity, fulfilling the work and personal life obligations became more challenging. Some participants experienced a great deal of success in the work environment, but were unable to enjoy the rewards as their other roles lessened the pleasure. Women with children found that achieving a work-life balance was especially difficult and they sought assistance from nannies and extended family support in their quest to achieve some sort of balance. However, most of the participants were not successful in achieving that, as they considered their work obligations always remained a priority.

The range of emotions displayed by the participants covered the full spectrum of negative to positive. A few women leaders in the sample group were able to view negative criticism as a building block for something positive, but the rest of the sample group viewed negative criticism as disappointing, depressing and frustrating, which sometimes resulted in feelings of anguish.

Positive emotions were expressed when their contributions were acknowledged and rewarded. When processes were consultative, input valued and participative decisions taken, this resulted in positive emotions being expressed.

Figure 3.1 provides the categories, themes and sub-themes. These categories, themes and sub-themes were identified during the structural analysis phase.

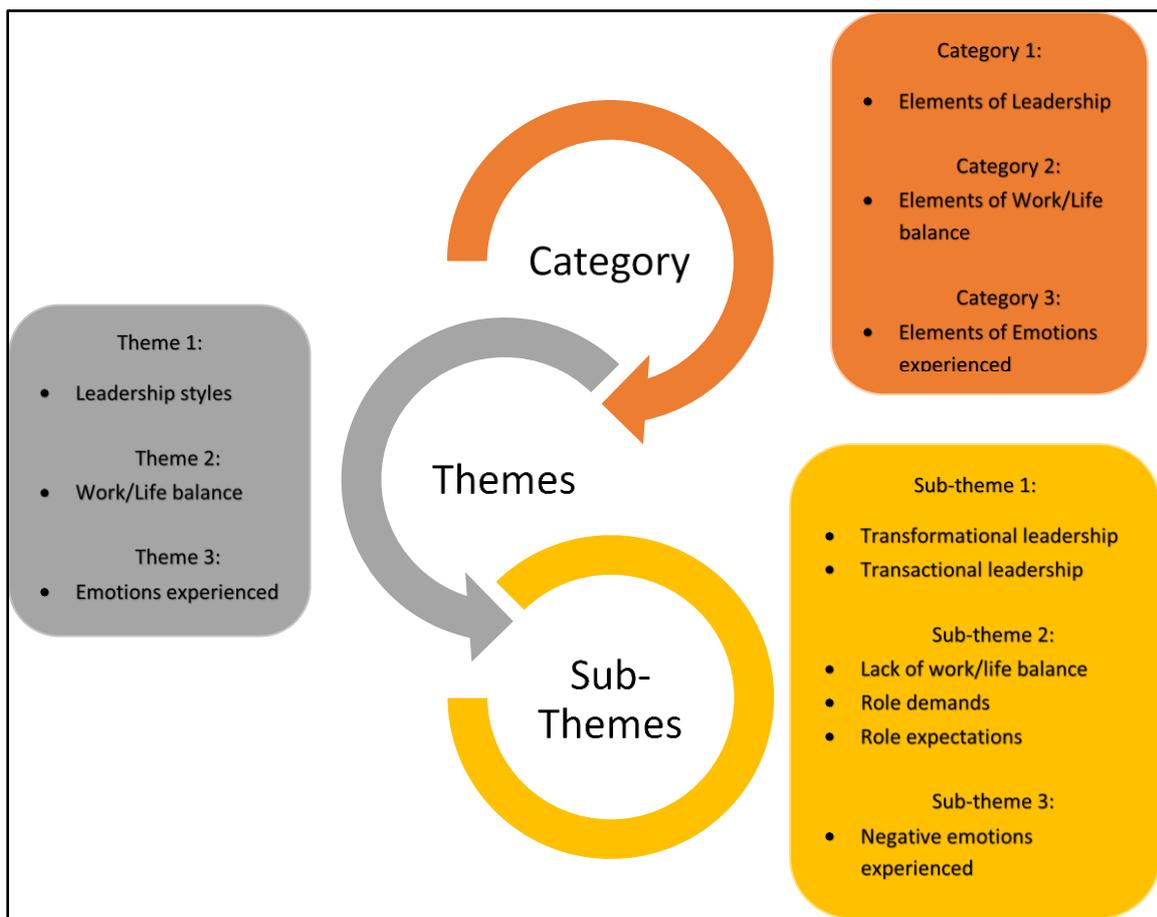


Figure 3.1 A diagram of the identified themes and sub-themes of emotional labour experiences among women in leadership within a consulting industry

Based on the empirical research conducted, the three main themes identified were leadership styles, work-life balance and emotions experienced. Based on further exploration of these themes, additional sub-themes were identified as indicated in figure 3.1 above.

Findings will be discussed below in terms of these themes and how women leaders experience or relate to these specific themes.

Leadership Styles

The first theme identified was leadership styles, which had two specific sub-themes, transactional and transformational leadership approaches. Based on the findings from the empirical research study, six out of the eight participants displayed a natural inclination towards a transformational leadership style. They described their style in terms of being collaborative, mentoring of colleagues, nurturing, displaying creativity, and an understanding of the individual and collective team needs. For example, participant WFMC17 described transformational leadership style as,

“I allow and encourage participation and also specifically for people who report to me to take initiative, to take responsibility, to show up,... be creative...”.

Participant IFMC25 described transformational leadership as,

“...nurturing, caring and understanding the needs of my employees and where they going, and what they want to achieve, I feel I have forged a stronger relationship and lasting relationship with my team”.

All six participants believed that the transformational leadership style motivates team players to maximise performance and capabilities. For example, participant IFMC25 stated that,

“I found that once you have a more nurturing and caring approach to helping people,...you get maximum value out of them, your team or your employees”.

Participant WFMC09 stated that the transformational leadership style she displayed,

“...ensures that a team performs as best as it can perform because that is ultimately the aim of being a leader, if you would like to call it that. For me it is to help a team perform the best they can”.

Of the six participants who displayed the natural inclination towards transformational leadership, three adopted this style naturally, irrespective of the emotional work demands placed on them. One of the participants – whilst naturally inclined towards transformational leadership, when faced with a work situation that required a transactional leadership style, she had to make a conscious decision to adapt her natural leadership style. This resulted in her sometimes becoming overbearing to others in her demands and her approach. Participant WPMC09 stated that when she adopted a transactional approach,

“I have to really focus on taking on that role and also not ... become overbearing because it is not my natural style, I can easily overdo it”.

One of the participants managed to learn, adopt and perfect this leadership style throughout her career, to the extent that this is now her natural leadership style. One participant displayed a natural inclination towards the transformational leadership style within non-pressurised work situations. However, when placed in highly pressurised work situations, she adapted her natural leadership style to that of transactional leadership and became more prescriptive rather than collaborative. This participant described the situations, in which she adopted her leadership styles as,

“...transformational approach is usually associated where urgencies and timelines are not as important and also perhaps not as critical to meet, where it allows the freedom of movement and choice and decision-making and participating in that space. A more transactional or authoritative approach would usually be when there are urgent matters to attend to or fires that need to be killed or dealt with, so fire-fighting or when there are...quick fixes that need to be thought through and implemented, then people who report to me usually do not have the option to think for themselves, they must do what I tell them to do”.

Of the eight participants, two displayed a natural inclination towards a transactional leadership style. While they displayed the transactional leadership style in that they were prescriptive in their demands, dictated what needed to be done in the work

situation, were controlling and enforced strict rules and regulations, they were able to adapt their leadership style to a more transformational style, when this related to softer people issues and had a minimal impact on bottom-line results. In these situations, they became more relaxed and flexible and allowed for more creativity and initiative from the team's members. Participant WFMC17 described the situations, in which she displayed transactional and transformational leadership styles as,

“The transformational approach would be, for example, if we had to revamp our website, let us say we want to redo the website, I will ask the team for ideas, ...I will ask them what they like about the old website, what they have seen about other websites that we could incorporate ... having a young team, it helps because they are more technologically advanced and savvy than what I am, so that will be an example of when an consultative approach would work ... or even for a year-end function, I will hear where they would like to go, what they would like to do, get ideas from the team. More transactional approach would be where we need to implement a marketing strategy for one of our service divisions. We are not meeting the target and we are not on track and I would advise as to how we would go about getting more clients ... on board for a specific certain service division, which is what the role is of each consultant, what each team member needs to do and how we would meet the meet the goal.”.

Participant WFMC10 described the situations in which she displayed a transactional and transformational leadership styles as,

“In corporate, it is about results, it is about delivery, about making sure your team has the right skills and ...frankly you are only as good as your last deal, effectively it is very much ... what do we do to achieve ... , do we have the right people, how are we going to get there, and ... that when you need to take control if it is not happening, ... in my own business now, it is a different way, so I can be far more relaxed, more creative, more flexible, ... and do what works for me rather than what works for the organisation”.

Work-Life balance

The second theme identified was work-life balance, which had three specific sub-themes; work-life balance / lack of work-life balance, role demands and role expectations.

Based on the findings from the empirical research study, six out of the eight participants were of the opinion that they did not have a work-life balance. Of these six participants, two accepted this fact as they were of the opinion that this was common practice within the consulting industry, and that irrespective of the situation at hand, work will always take priority. Four of the six participants were not satisfied with not having a work-life balance and were making a conscious effort towards obtaining this balance. Participant WFMC09 described that in her effort to obtaining work-life balance,

“I had to make a real conscious effort to make different choices, so now the choices I make, which may or may not be a good balance, I always find I am not balanced, but I do not work at night anymore and he does not either and that is the time we spend together”.

Participant IFMC25 described that in her effort to obtain a work-life balance, she decided to adopted a transformational leadership style across all areas of her life,

“I realised that if you apply this transformational leadership style across everything and manage it, it will work in every scenario in every environment with everyone, and it seems to work fine, I think it is part of your value system, if you have your value system right, you want to make a difference in people’s life, you want to transform people, whether it is your son or your family or your friends, you want to work with them to be all they can be, then applying transformational leadership across all your roles ... it works pretty well and quiet easily”.

Although they were aware that this would be difficult due to the demands of the consulting industry, they were determined to balance the other aspects of their family lives to achieve this work-life balance. One of these four participants had to experience a traumatic personal event in order for her to realise that she did not have any work-life balance. Two of the eight participants were happy with their current work-life balance and did not feel the need to enhance this in any way as they believed that they had the work-family balance at its optimal level. Participant IFREC08 stated the reason why she was able to obtain such work-life balance was because,

“It is all up to a person, ... depending what your goals are in life and how you believe you can achieve, my success is being able to provide for my family, it is not being rich, or having all the money in the world, it is about sharing love, light and happiness, that means success to me, so that is balance”.

All eight participants acknowledged and accepted the fact that their role demands vary based on the specific nature of the consulting industry as well as being women leaders in the consulting industry. Six of the eight participants accepted the multiple demanding roles that are placed on them; however, all of these role demands are skewed towards the work environment. Two of the six participants were unhappy with the role demands placed upon them within their personal lives, which resulted in frustration, irritation and anger and detracted from their work role. For example, participant WFMC17 explained that,

“My children were still very young and that was draining me from an energy point of view, which made me irritable and frustrated, so the more I had to work the happier I became because then I did not have to deal with the responsibilities of being a mother, especially if I could travel because then I had my own time, even if it meant that I had to work and had to work at night because I did not have to deal with other things too, there was focused time for me, even if there was just work”.

Four of the six participants acknowledged that their role demands are not balanced, which leads to feelings of frustration and has resulted in them continually striving

towards balancing these role demands. Two of the eight participants believed that the role demands placed on them within their work and personal lives are balanced and therefore do not believe that they are neglecting any of the role demands that are placed on them. Participant WFMC19 stated the reason why she is able to obtain a work-life balance is because,

“I think that my private life and my work life is not necessarily that far apart, so I do not tend to live different lives, I think that for me it is about fundamentals, about trying to making a difference, so in my work life I want to be successful and I want to make sure that whatever we do here makes people feel like they have achieved something and I basically apply those same rules, the same rules to my private life”.

All eight participants acknowledged and accepted the fact that their role expectations vary based on the fact that they are women leaders within the consulting industry. Of these eight participants, seven acknowledged and accepted the expectations placed on them by others. Three of the seven participants believed that they were not excelling in the role expectations placed on them within their personal lives, whilst one of the eight participants believed that expectations placed on her by others are not as important as those placed on her by herself.

Emotional labour

The third and final theme identified was emotions experienced, which had two specific sub-themes; negative emotions and positive emotions.

Based on the findings from the empirical research study, six of the eight participants – when given the opportunity to discuss their emotions experienced – predominantly chose to speak about positive emotions they experienced. Two of the eight participants, when given the opportunity to discuss their emotions experienced, chose to speak about experienced negative emotions.

All eight participants linked positive emotions to their success in the work place, which led to emotions of happiness, recognition, excitement, satisfaction, appreciation and validation of their competency levels. The positive emotions experienced were related to winning tenders, meeting client's expectations and managing relationships effectively between clients, team members and senior managers Participant IFMC10 described the positive emotions related to a work situation as,

"We won a massive contract with one of the biggest banks in Africa for ... you know like double digit numbers over like a 4-year period and ... to know that you have played a huge part in that and you have contributed ... to know that your hard work was acknowledged and did not go ... unappreciated, ... so I think to know that even though you are tired and exhausted that you are making a difference, so yes. It made me feel very re-energised, very excited about the future, ... very positive, very ... it validates your own competence level, very confident, yes, you think you can take on the world haha yes".

Participant IFMC25 described the positive emotions related to a work situation as,

"so recently I won a R25 million proposal ... at work, I did not really realise the impact of that on the whole organisation, I thought ah it is just another project and ... the overwhelming positive response and feedback I got back from ... you know, the CEO and COO, the chairperson, the staff, you know, it was just amazing, the recognition people give you for, you know, closing these huge exceptional deals and the impact it has on everybody, ... I think that was a very nice feeling, a good feeling, finally people see you and appreciate what you have done and it was, it is a nice thing".

Six of the eight participants also linked negative emotions experienced to the work place, which were expressed through anger, helplessness, hopelessness, rejection, grief, disappointment, disconnectedness, anxiousness, frustration, resentment and irritation. Participant IFMC10 described her negative emotions as,

"I define irritation and annoyance, ... I think ... the resentment, there is an element of resentment ... whereby ... an element of doubt to say somebody is

doubting you in your ability because you probably have more experience running companies and setting up companies than them, ... an element of ... like I said disconnecting, there is a point where you literally withdraw from the conversation because nothing you say is being heard ... so withdrawal as well”.

Participant WFMC17 expressed her negative emotions associated with a work experience as,

“The biggest irritation which is a great uncomfortable aspect of being an employee of my organisation is the fact that there was a certain dream that you bought into – because I was head hunted – and what I am experiencing and what is the reality is not the sales pitch that was offered to me, which I have made many decisions in my life around that to take on this opportunity and alongside with that there were things that were linked to my experience, my previous experience of my success and my happiness and my role that I do not have within my current organisation, so it causes much frustration around the inability to be a true leader, an inability to be regarded as a leader, inability to make decisions as a leader and an inability to act in a credible way in front of my peers is because of the context in this organisation, which makes me feel angry, sad ... disappointed ... frustrated and despair”

Two of the eight participants related negative emotions experienced to personal situations, which were expressed through devastation, anger, sadness, anxiousness and harsh tones spoken.

All eight participants were fully cognisant of the emotions they displayed and the impact that these emotions had on themselves and others within the work place and their personal lives.

Findings reveal that the majority of participants adopted a transformational leadership style, had no work-life balance and were accepting of the unrealistic role expectations and role demands placed on them. In spite of these factors, participants were able to experience predominately positive emotions, because they understood the consulting industry and thus the demands and expectations that were placed on

them. Although most participants did not achieve a work-life balance, they acknowledged that they loved working within the consulting industry and therefore made a conscious effort to strive towards creating a work-life balance in order to make the consulting industry work for them rather than choosing a new industry where to seek employment.

3.7 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore how women leaders within the consulting industry experience emotional labour from a hermeneutic phenomenological stance. I answer this objective by providing a discussion of the findings. The findings of the participants' interviews will be discussed below:

Leadership experiences

The majority of the participants displayed a natural inclination towards a transformational leadership style as they believed that this style was the best way to motivate team players to maximise performance and capabilities. For example, participant IFMC25 stated that,

"I found that once you have a more nurturing and caring approach to helping people, ... you get maximum value out of them, your team or your employees."

Participant WPMC09 stated that the transformational leadership style she displayed,

"...ensured that a team performs as best as it can perform because that is ultimately the aim of being a leader, if you would like to call it that; for me it is to help a team perform the best they can".

This was supported in literature as Evans (2010) stated that transformational leadership inspires employees to have trust in and respect for their employers. This was further supported by the Emerald Publishing Group (2008), who stated that transformational leaders adopt a mentoring role with their followers, encouraging self-development and increased responsibility within the organisation. All the

participants who experienced transformational leadership, described it in terms of being collaborative, mentoring of colleagues, nurturing, displaying creativity, and an understanding of the individual and collective team needs. For example, participant WFMC17 described transformational leadership style as,

“.....I allow and encourage participation and also specifically for people who report to me to take initiative, take responsibility, show up, ... be creative ... ”.

Participant IFMC25 described transformational leadership as,

“...nurturing, caring and understanding the needs of my employees and where they are going, and what they want to achieve, I feel I have forged a stronger relationship and lasting relationship with my team”.

The literature supports this finding as women find that displaying this leadership style creates longstanding relationships and builds confidence among colleagues so that they excel in their tasks (Budworth & Mann, 2010). It is apparent that there was a pronounced preference for the participants to lead with the transformational style rather than transactional, as some participants never engaged with the transformational style. Transformational leaders are role-models to the employees and they use innovative problem-solving methods to confront and resolve any challenges that are faced in the workplace, which gives them direction to confront the problem timeously (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008).

The minority of participants displayed a natural inclination towards a transactional leadership style as they believed that this style was the best way to achieve positive bottom-line results. These participants were prescriptive in their demands, dictated what needed to be done in the work situation, were controlling and enforced strict rules and regulations. For example, participant WFMC17 described her leadership style as

“...transactional approach, if we need to implement a marketing strategy for one of our service divisions, we are not meeting the target, we are not on track and I would advise as to how we go about getting more clients ... on board for a specific certain service division, which is what the role is of each consultant, what each team member needs to do and how we would meet the

meet the goal, sometimes it is necessary to steer people forward and to get them to reach a goal, which they maybe do not see ... or recognise the steps required or involved in reaching the goal”.

Participant WFMC10 described her leadership approach as,

“In corporate, it is about results, about delivery, making sure your team has the right skills and ... frankly, you are only as good as your last deal effectively”.

This is supported in literature as Bass (1985) indicated that transactional leaders generally reflect on how to improve and maintain the company’s performance, how to replace one goal for another, how to decrease resistance to particular actions and execute decisions. This is further supported by literature as McCleskey (2014) stated that the transactional leadership style allows leaders to accomplish their performance objectives, complete required tasks, maintain the current organisational situation, motivate followers through contractual agreement, direct behaviour of followers toward achievement of established goals, emphasise extrinsic rewards, avoid unnecessary risks, and focus on improve organisational efficiency. In turn, transactional leadership allows followers to fulfil their own self-interest, minimise workplace anxiety, and concentrate on clear organisational objectives such as increased quality, customer service, reduced costs and increased production (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). This form of leadership emphasises the clarification of goals, work principles and standards, assignments and equipment (Hayward, 2005). Based on the findings, women can display a transactional leadership style; however, no literature was found to substantiate this finding.

Work-life balance experiences

The majority of participants found it difficult to maintain a positive work-life balance, since their leadership roles were so demanding that they required their sole attention for the role of being a woman in leadership in the consulting industry. For example, participant IFMC10 described the leadership role within a consulting industry as,

“...you can speak to any consultant, it is late nights, late hours, weekends it becomes a full-time job, you know there is no 9-5, client wants what the client wants and you have to deliver”.

Literature supports the fact that it is extremely difficult for women to create a positive work-life balance within any corporate industry. Southworth (2014) advocated that the barriers in the corporate ladder forced women wishing for career advancement to prove ‘their masculinity’ by excelling in the workplace at the expense of raising a family. Participants are multi-tasked with a number of different societal roles in a way that they predominantly find it a challenge to balance work and home lives adequately or successfully. For example, participant WFMC17 described her societal roles as,

“...as a mum, it would be important always to be on top of my game, to assist the children in every way possible, to guide them in terms of school work, activities ... children expect miracles ... they are never satisfied and they expected miracles so that is a role that I do not think I am exceeding well in according to their assessment, ... in terms of work, it is having answers, having the ideas, having the solutions to problems, making decisions, motivating the team, leading the team, in terms of family, yes, I suppose one needs to be active in terms of your family life as well, ... participating in family gatherings ... recognising the feelings of others ... things like that”.

This is supported by literature as Whitehead and Kotze (2003) stated that the dual role women have to play makes it difficult for them to meet these higher organisational expectations (Hochschild, 1997). Thus, they are faced with a unique challenge to balance the competing expectations of work and home, along with all their other roles. This is supported by literature as Schueller-Weidekamm and

Kautzky-Willer (2012) explained that women still face a trade-off between career positions that are associated with power and influence, and emotional responsibilities and family life. There were specific participants, who were making a conscious determined effort to try and strive for this balance; however, they were aware that this would be difficult due to the demands of the consulting industry. For example, participant WFMC09 described that in her effort to obtaining a positive work-life balance,

“I had to make a real conscious effort to make different choices, so now the choices I make, which may or may not be good balance, I always find I am not balanced, but I do not work at night anymore and he does not either and that is the time we spend together.”

This is supported by literature as Delina and Raya (2013) stated that the attempt of working women to integrate, organise and balance the various problems and activities in their different roles simultaneously puts them under tremendous pressure. As a result, the family becomes an organisational stakeholder and this powerful social trend marked the beginning of the work-life balance paradigm shift. Only a few of the participants were satisfied that they did not have a work-life balance as they accepted that this lack of work-life balance was part and parcel of being a women leader within the consulting industry. The participants who felt they had mastered the work-life balance, were comfortable with this balance as they felt it afforded them the opportunity to be successful and feel fulfilled overall. For example, participant WFMC19 stated the reason why she was able to obtain a positive work-life balance because,

“I think that my private life and my work life is not necessarily that far apart, so I do not tend to live different lives, I think that for me, it is about fundamental about trying to making a difference, so in my work life I want to be successful and I want to make sure that whatever we do here makes people feel like they have achieved something and I basically apply those same rules to my private life”.

All participants accepted that their role demands and expectations varied based on being a women leader in the consulting industry. The participants have varied roles and expectations of them, ranging from being mothers and nurturers to their children

to sole carers and providers to aged family members. However, they may not afford their children and aged family members with sufficient quality time, which causes strain on their marriage and relationships with children and family members. For example, participant IFMC25 described her role demands and expectations as,

“...from a boss’ perspective, they expect me to drive sales and manage divisions and manage the team performance and that is fine from a work perspective. From family and friends, I do not know, there is not much expectation, they just want me to be all that I can be I suppose, from ... my sons’ perspective, they would want me to have more time with them, which unfortunately I cannot because of work”.

This led to frustration, irritation and annoyance in trying to manage role demands and expectations better as in many instances the participants could not fully enjoy family holidays as work required deadlines to be met over the weekend or over the holidays. This was supported by literature as Whitehead and Kotze (2003) stated that it seems as if professional women in the 21st century have the exceptional challenge of balancing the multiple roles and expectations associated with their homemaker and work roles, namely, fulfilling the responsibilities of mother, caregiver to older relatives, spouse and employee / leader simultaneously. It is also clear that women’s ability to balance these roles has a direct bearing on their physical and mental wellbeing, as well as their career performance and success (Burke, 2001; Burke & Mc Keen, 1996; Facione, 1992; Sharma, 1999). Certain participants, who were sole proprietors, conceded that they can never rest because their clients expect them always to attend to their demands, matters and wishes, meaning that they always have to manage their client’s needs and expectations and cannot explain to their client that they are away on holiday and will not be able to attend to their company’s needs. For example, participant WFMC17 described this as,

“I have been consulting for 17 years now and unfortunately, the family just has to adapt. You do not adapt, they have to ... they have to understand that right now, you cannot pay attention, even in holidays, even when you are away on weekends. If there are work priorities, that is the first thing you pay attention to, not to the rest ... it is very difficult to give the time where it is supposed to be given”.

It seems as if consulting is characterised by impossible deadlines that never seem to end and that working all the time is a normal occurrence that seems to be accepted if one wants to be successful. Certain participants established open communication with their families in order to achieve their balance in the work and personal life. Some participants viewed personal and family matters to be draining on their energies and abilities to be more successful at work and viewed these aspects as a severe hindrance, which in turn caused frustration, irritation or anger. For example, participant WFMC17 explained that,

“...my children were still very young and that was draining me from an energy point of view, which made me irritable and frustrated, so the more I had to work, the happier I became because then I did not have to deal with the responsibilities of being a mother, especially if I could travel because then I had my own time, even if it meant that I had to work and had to work at night because I did not have to deal with other things too, there was focused time for me, even if there was just work”.

Emotional labour experiences

The majority of the participants reported differing degrees of experienced emotions, both negative and positive emotions, due to the ups and downs they were exposed to at work. The way in which employees and leaders manage their feelings in the workplace are variable from person to person (Scott, Barnes, Wagner, 2012). All participants were of the view that there is no organisational support to assist one to manage these emotions, which led to the participants being faced with situations, where they had to manage these emotions according to the way the situation demanded it, which, given the nature of the consulting industry meant that they predominantly masked these emotions. For example, participant WFMC 10 described the masking of emotions as,

“..it is frustrating, the most frustrating thing is as consultants we know ... that one should be able to say what you want, not have the filters as clearly defined ... still remain yourself, we encourage clients to do that and it is difficult to do when you have to do it yourself, especially when you are a leader because when you are a leader, I think the unwritten expectation and I

am sure it is written in many books also, but there is that expectation that you do not show the full vulnerability to teams, rightly or wrongly, I am not saying that it is a right or wrong assumption, it is just what it is, so when I feel as if I cannot, if I have to put filters up, it is frustrating at times”.

Two strategies of emotional labour were distinguished, namely, surface acting (real emotions are not illustrated, also referred to as fake-acting) and deep acting (real issues are illustrated and true feelings are shown) (Hochschild, 1979 & 1983) (Judge Woolf & Hurst, 2009). Sometimes, a frustrated employee may fake-act to comply with the organisational policies, i.e. the employee may be unhappy at work, but will still force a smile to customers to hide away the unhappiness in order to comply with the organisational policies (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). In deep-acting, one is genuine and alters what one feels to express genuine mandated emotions within the organisational policies (Groth, Hennig-Thurau, Walsh, 2009). Given the opportunity to discuss their emotions, the majority chose to speak about positive emotions rather than negative ones, while the minority chose to speak about negative emotions experienced overall. All participants linked positive emotions experienced to success within the workplace, which led to emotions of happiness, satisfaction at closing deals, recognition, appreciation and validation of contribution to company success. For example, participant IFMC10 described the positive emotions related to a work situation as,

“...we won a massive contract with one of the biggest banks in Africa for, you know, like double digit numbers over a 4-year period and to know that you have played a huge part in that and have contributed to know that your hard work was acknowledged and did not go unappreciated ... so I think to know that even though you are tired and exhausted, you are making a difference, so yes. It made me feel very re-energised, very excited about the future, ... very positive, very ... validates your own competence level, very confident, yes, think you can take on the world, haha yes”.

Participant IFMC25 described the positive emotions related to a work situation as,

“...so, recently I won a R25 million proposal ... at work , I did not really realise the impact of that on the whole organisation, I thought it is just another project and ... the overwhelming positive response and feedback I got back from, you

know, the CEO and COO, the chairperson, the staff, you know, it was just amazing, the recognition people give you for, you know, closing these huge exceptional deals and the impact it has on everybody, ... I think that was a very nice feeling , a good feeling, finally people see you and appreciate what you have done and it was, it is a nice thing.

The majority of participants also linked negative emotions to the workplace and these were expressed through anger, hopelessness, rejection, disappointment, sadness and anxiousness. For example, participant IFMC10 described her negative emotions as,

"I define irritation and annoyance ... I think ... the resentment, there is an element of resentment ... whereby an element of doubt to say somebody is doubting you in your ability because you probably have more experiences running companies and setting up companies than them ... an element of ... like I said, disconnecting, there is a point, where you literally withdraw from the conversation because nothing you say is being heard ... yes, so withdrawal as well".

Participant WFMC17 expressed her negative emotions associated with a work experience as,

"...biggest irritation, which is a great uncomfortable aspect of being an employee of my organisation is the fact that there was a certain dream that you bought into because I was headhunted and what I am experiencing and what is the reality is not the sales pitch that was offered to me, which I have made many decisions in my life around to take on this opportunity and alongside with that there were things that were linked to my experience, my previous experience of my success and my happiness and my role that I do not have within my current organisation, so it causes much frustration around the inability to be a leader, an inability to be regarded as a leader, inability to make decisions as a leader and an inability to act in a credible way in front of my peers is because of the context in this organisation...which makes me feel angry, sad ... disappointed ... frustrated and despair".

3.7.1 Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to gain insight into how women leaders within the consulting industry experience emotional labour from a hermeneutic phenomenological stance. The specific research aim was to explore the lived emotional labour experiences of women leaders within the consulting industry. In order to reach this objective, an explorative hermeneutics phenomenological research design was employed. The participants who were interviewed were strong female leaders who added value to their companies and illustrated that women have the potential globally to lead the world (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). The results of the empirical study revealed that most women leaders adopt the transformational leadership style. However, certain participants – when placed in the ‘fire-fighter’ mode – adopted the transactional style. The results also revealed that most women leaders do not have a positive work-life balance and their families accept that work is given greater priority in order for them to succeed in their roles at work. The emotions that women leaders experienced ranged from feelings of happiness and contentment – when they exceeded their job expectations, but then they also experienced feelings of frustrations when their teams let them down in a manner that disappointed them because they expected more. It is apparent from certain negative emotions experienced by participants that they showed signs of burnout as one participant in particular escaped from the brink of divorce as she made work her everything and ignored her husband and children.

This study looked at how a hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry can be used to gain a better understanding of how women leaders in the consulting industry experience emotional labour. In conclusion, I propose the following hypothesis:

Most women leaders appear to display a natural inclination towards a transformational leadership style due to their natural, caring and nurturing disposition. Two participants naturally adopted a transactional leadership style, while for one participant the transactional style was triggered when placed in a highly pressurised situation. Most participants believed that their lack of a positive work-life balance was mainly attributed to the multitude of role demands and expectations placed on them as women leaders. Two participants believed that the lack of a work-

life balance was part and parcel of the consulting industry and they accepted this lack of work-life balance, a further two participants believed that they had a positive work-life balance. All participants associated positive emotional labour experiences with excelling in their leadership roles. The participants that had negative emotional labour experiences in their personal lives related this to the lack of a work-life balance.

3.7.2 Limitations to the study

The limitation of the empirical research was not having the right questions the first time around and having to re-interview certain participants and thus, losing time. Not having a diverse sample group, as they were only White and Indian participants in the group. I was unable to find more than eight participants for this study and they all belonged to small or medium companies and not to the big five consulting companies in the country.

3.7.3 Recommendations

In light of the fact that emotional labour demands placed on women leaders within the consulting industry are so excessively high, there is a need to look at organisational support to address the lack of a work-life balance, emotions experienced and applied leadership styles. Based on the findings of this study, the recommendations below are put forward.

I recommend that within the consulting industry, where these women leaders are employed that human resource professionals may want to consider putting into place practices and policies that look at managing the client's expectations, encouraging limited work over weekends, after hours and during holidays in order to encourage healthier living in relation to creating a better work-life balance within the consulting industry. Furthermore, they may want to consider implementing day-care facilities that companies could offer women leaders that are mothers as a means of attracting top talent amongst women leaders. Due the fast-paced, excessively demanding expectations placed on women leaders within the consulting industry, organisations

may want to consider training women in leadership positions on stress management and time management.

For me as a researcher and other I/O psychologists, I propose that a comparison study on whether junior female personnel experience emotional labour in the same manner as slightly older women leaders within the consulting industry. The focus for this study should be on determining whether the impact of emotional labour increases as one progresses up the corporate ladder or whether it is the same, irrespective of one's job level.

I also propose that a comparison study on whether male leaders versus female leaders' experiences of emotional labour will illustrate different results. The focus for this study should be on determining whether there is a relationship between gender and emotional labour amongst leaders within the consulting industry. Beyond gender, it should also be considered whether race (and more importantly culture) plays a role in emotional labour experiences.

Lastly, I also propose a comparison study on emotional labour experiences amongst women leaders within the consulting industry versus women leaders within other industries within South Africa. The focus of this study should be on determining whether an industry has impact on women leaders' experiences of emotional labour and to what extent.

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CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, conclusions from the empirical findings and literature are provided. Subsequently, based on the empirical study, limitations will be discussed. To conclude this chapter, recommendations are also provided in terms of future studies and on IOP as a discipline.

4.1.1 Conclusions drawn from the literature review

The specific literature aims were:

4.1.1.1 Specific aim 1: To conceptualise the construct of emotional labour in the literature

According to Hochschild (1983, p. 7), emotional labour is the “management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display”. The way in which employees conform to the management of their affective displays varies. Hochschild (1979, 1983) distinguished between two strategies of what she referred to as emotional labour, surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting entails individuals' modifying affective displays without attempting to alter underlying feelings (Scott et al., 2012). Deep acting entails modifying actual affective states to match desired displays (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998; Hochschild, 1979, 1983). Deep acting is concerned with actually feeling or experiencing the emotions that one wishes to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In deep acting, employees try to change their felt emotions so that they can express genuine, organisationally mandated emotions (Groth, Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2009).

One key component of leading with emotional labour (Humphrey, 2012) is determining the correct emotion to select and display, depending on the situation and the individuals involved (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). Here, the use of emotional labour differs between subordinates and leaders (Humphrey, Pollack & Hawver, 2008). Effective leaders must be in touch with their emotions and be able to

express them appropriately with subordinates (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Leaders have additional responsibilities above those of subordinates (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). They must manage their personal emotions and the emotions of others in a way that reduces stress and inspires productivity, while remaining in line with organisational display rules. Leaders use emotional labour whenever they use their emotional expressions to influence others. In addition, leaders use emotional labour display rules to create unique organisational cultures and to improve service quality (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013). Along with setting display rules, leaders can use emotional labour strategies to boost the moods, motivation and performance of their followers and thereby improve overall firm performance. This means that leaders have to take into account a large number of factors when deciding how to perform emotional labour, and that leading with emotional labour is a complex process (Burch, Humphrey & Batchelor, 2013).

4.1.1.2 Specific aim 2: To conceptualise the construct of women leadership in the literature

Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2003) explained that leadership is about coping with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. According to Evans (2010), when examining basic gender differences in leadership, collaborativeness, nurturance and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) are far more important considerations than power and control. Transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) is the ability through natural charisma to inspire and guide the workforce through change and transformation. It also emphasises the achievement of goals by gaining employees' trust and respect (Evans, 2010).

Budworth and Mann (2010), Eagly et al. (2003) found that female leaders were more likely to engage in transformational leadership behaviours, a form of leadership found to be more effective compared to other leadership styles. Transformational leaders adopt a mentoring role with their followers, encouraging self-development and increased responsibility within the organisation (Emerald Publishing Group,

2008). Furthermore, transformational leaders are facilitators who act as role models to other team members and use innovative problem-solving approaches.

More than ever before, the world needs women leaders (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008). Women are more likely than men to adopt a transformational leadership style and, therefore, it could be argued that women should be running the world's major corporations as well as playing key roles in national and international politics (Emerald Publishing Group, 2008), however according to Evans (2010), the climb to corporate success is still a very daunting task for most women leaders in the Western world. According to Dodd (2012), barriers are a central theme in the literature on the under-representation of women in business and this was explored in some detail by Ryan and Haslam (2007, 2005). The observed barriers are commonly described as the "glass ceiling", whereby an individual with the relevant qualifications and competencies is stopped in their advancement into leadership or positions of responsibility by an invisible barrier (Dodd, 2012). Ryan and Haslam (2007) extended this metaphor by stating that women also face a "glass cliff", to highlight the increased risk that women face in failure. Their theoretical review demonstrated that gender inequalities increase the propensity for women to be employed in high-risk leadership positions, failure in which reinforces negative gender perceptions on the suitability of women to lead (Dodd, 2012).

4.1.2 Conclusions drawn from the empirical study

The specific empirical aims were:

4.1.2.1 Empirical aim 1: To explore how women leaders experience emotional labour within the consulting industry

The main objective of the study was to gain insight into how women leaders within the consulting industry experience emotional labour from a hermeneutics phenomenological stance. The specific research aim was to explore the lived emotional labour experiences of women leaders within the consulting industry. In order to reach this objective, an explorative hermeneutics phenomenological research design making use of semi-structured interviews was employed. The

results of the empirical study revealed that most women leaders adopt the transformational leadership style. However, some participants – when placed in the ‘fire-fighter’ mode – adopted the transactional style. The results also revealed that most women leaders do not have a positive work-life balance and their families accept that work is given greater priority in order for them to succeed in their roles at work. The emotions that the women leaders experience range from feelings of happiness and contentment when they exceed their job expectations, but then they also experience feelings of frustrations when their teams let them down in a manner that disappoints them because they expected more. It is apparent from certain negative emotions experienced by the participants who showed signs of burnout as one participant in particular escaped from the brink of divorce as she made work her everything and dedicated very little time towards her husband and child.

4.1.2.2 Empirical aim 2: To provide recommendations for future research and application

Recommendations for future research and applications in terms of IOP are discussed under section 4.3 below.

4.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitation of the empirical research was not having the right questions the first time around and having to re-interview certain participants and thus losing time. Not having a diverse sample group, as there were only White and Indian participants in the group. I was unable to find more than eight participants for this study and also they all belonged to small or medium companies and not to the big five consulting companies in the country.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the fact that the emotional labour demands placed on women leaders within the consulting industry are excessively high, there is a need to look at organisational support to address the lack of work-life balance, emotions experienced and leadership styles. Based on the findings of this study, the recommendations below are put forward.

I recommend that within the consulting industry, where these women leaders are employed that the human resource professionals may want to consider putting into place practices and policies that look at managing the client's expectations, encouraging limited work over weekends, after hours and during holidays in order to encourage healthier living in relation to creating a better, positive work-life balance within the consulting industry. Furthermore, human resource professionals may want to consider implementing day-care facilities that organisations could offer women leaders who are mothers as a means of attracting top talent amongst women leaders. Due the fast paced, excessively demanding expectations placed on women leaders within the consulting industry, organisations may want to consider training women leaders on time and stress management and client engagement management.

For me as a researcher and other I/O Psychologist I also propose that a comparison study on emotional labour experiences amongst women leaders within consulting industry versus women leaders within other industries within South Africa. The focus of this study should be on determining whether an industry has impact on women leaders' experiences of emotional labour and to what extent.

For me as a researcher and other I/O Psychologists I propose that a comparison study on whether junior female personnel experience emotional labour in the same manner as women leaders within the consulting industry. The focus of this study should be on determining whether the impact of emotional labour increases as one progresses up the corporate ladder or is it the same irrespective of one's job level.

Lastly, for me as a researcher and other I/O Psychologists I also propose that a comparison study on whether male leaders versus female leaders' experiences of emotional labour will illustrate different results. The focus of this study should be on determining whether there is a relationship between gender and emotional labour amongst leaders within the consulting industry. Furthermore, a different focus could be on race and culture as to whether they have an influence on such perceptions and experiences.

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