

**Gender and Emotion in Tourism:
Do men and women tour leaders differ in their
performance of emotional labour?**

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the extent of gender differences among Chinese tour leaders' roles and the relationship of such differences to emotional labour, perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support. The findings revealed surface acting and deep acting to be the two major strategies of emotional labour. Gender difference is found in performing surface acting strategies. Further analysis of gender differences showed that women tour leaders perform better with more care from organisation and rewards. Men tour leaders perform better with more supervisors' care, concern, recognition and appreciation; and job training and facilitation.

Keywords: emotional labour, deep acting, surface acting, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, role performance

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ABSTRACT

Emotional dimensions of hospitality and tourism service providers constitute an essential research topic, as the provision of high-quality services has clear effects on a destination's competitive advantage. Past studies on gender and emotions have been limited. Currently, little is known about the extent of gender differences in Chinese tour leaders' roles, and the relationship between such differences and emotional labor. This study aims to investigate whether men and women tour leaders perform emotional labor differently. A survey of 309 Chinese tour leaders revealed that surface acting and deep acting were the two most used emotional labor strategies. Men and women tour leaders neither differed significantly in their emotional labor performance nor in their role performance. Women and men tour leaders displayed similar levels of deep acting. However, men put more effort into surface acting than women. Moreover, men and women were motivated by different types of organizational and supervisor support to perform their roles. These findings provide important implications for travel agency managers regarding employee selection, staff training, and organizational support.

INTRODUCTION

Hochschild (1983) first introduced the concept of "emotional labor" in her seminal work *The Managed Heart*, a study of Delta Airlines flight attendants to explain the emotional dilemmas of flight attendants, who were required to manage their emotions to follow the company's emotion display rules defining appropriate service behavior. Flight attendants are required to express positive emotions and suppress negative feelings while working onboard.

Comparing to flight attendants, the emotional labor demand of tour leaders is higher in terms of time involved and diverse emotions to be displayed (Sharpe, 2005; Constanti & Gibbs, 2005). Tour leaders work around the clock to take care of tour participants, and must constantly adjust their emotions to deal with different situations. Their ability to manage emotions at work affects performance and in turn the customers' perceived tour service quality, the company's image and word of mouth (Ap & Wong 2001; Mossberg, 1995; Quiroga 1990; Wang, Hsieh, & Chen 2002). The ever-increasing demand of emotional labor in tour leaders' daily work to conform to organizational requirements and customer expectations warrants an investigation on this matter.

Emotional labor is regarded as an integral part of a tour leader's job. However, research on the gender difference in emotional labor has remained scarce. Generally, women are considered more suitable for occupations such as teaching, social work, and caretaker (Yang & Guy, 2015). They are perceived as more caring, emotionally expressive, and socialized into handling interpersonal relationships (Grandey, 2000; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Do female tour leaders perform emotional labor differently from their male counterparts? Is the role of tour leader more suitable for women? Investigating the gender and emotion issues in an Asian tourism context, such as China, is important, as no study has yet addressed the subject. The current study aims at investigating gender differences in performing emotional labor in tour leaders in Hong Kong. Results contribute to the emotional labor literature on the tourism industry, while implications for tourism practitioners are useful for developing appropriate human resources strategies.

This study also examines the extent of gender differences in Chinese tour leaders' roles, and the relationship between such differences, perceived organizational support (POS), and perceived supervisor support (PSS). The main research questions of this study are the following: (1) do men and women tour leaders perform emotional labor differently? (2) Are

there gender differences in perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, and role performance? (3) What are the influences of emotional labor, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support on role performance?

This research focuses on measuring how gender shapes the role performance of tour leaders when emotional labor strategies are used. In terms of theoretical contributions, the study is the first attempt to examine the gender difference in emotional labor strategies, role performance, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support in the tourism industry. The empirical data delineate the relationships between role performance and each dimension of emotional labor, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support. Moreover, the findings contribute to the understanding of gender difference in tour leaders' emotional labor strategies, and on the relationships between the variables examined. Regarding practical contributions, the study helps travel agencies to understand the dimensions that significantly affect tour leaders' role performance, for both men and women. Based on the research results, travel agency management should apply the appropriate measures to improve both travel agency operations and tour leader practices.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies and Theories on Feelings, Emotions, and Emotional Labor

Feelings can be defined as the experience of certain human physical drive states such as hunger, pain, fatigue (Thoits, 1989) and are related to an emotion (Friedenberg & Silverman, 2005). Emotions are defined in psychology as an appraisal of the situation leading to the “physiological reactions of the body such as increased heartbeat, feeling, expressive display like facial and bodily expression and readiness to behave in a particular way” (Munezero, Suero Montero, Sutinen & Pajunen, 2014, p.105). According to Scherer

(2005), emotions include five major components, namely a cognitive component (appraisal); a neurophysiological component (bodily symptoms); a motivational component (tendencies); a motor expression component (facial and vocal expression); and a subjective feeling component (emotional experience). Previous researchers consider feelings to be one of the components of emotions (Munezero et al., 2014; Scherer, 2005). Furthermore, Shouse (2005) claimed that emotions are projections or display of feelings which can be genuine or fake. A person can display a fake emotion and it is an outcome of the process that include appraisal of the situation, followed by feelings and actions.

Hochschild (1979) proposed that an individual has to manage his/her feelings in different situations so as to display appropriate emotions. She coined and defined the term “emotional labor” as “the management of feelings to create a publicly facial and bodily display via voice-to-voice or face-to-face interpersonal interactions” Hochschild (1983, p. 7). If true feelings do not align with feeling rules, individuals will either change their facial and bodily expressions (i.e. surface acting), or adjust their inner feelings to comply with feeling rules (i.e. deep acting), so that their emotional performance becomes socially acceptable.

Hochschild’s emotional labor theory provided new insights into the interplay of emotions and work, which has led to further research on the effects of emotions at work (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Morris and Feldman, 1996; Kruml and Gedds, 2000; Chu and Murrmann, 2006; Brotheridge and Lee, 2003). In turn, these studies have provided valuable insights into understanding and managing employees’ emotions, both critical to service delivery in multiple industries.

In the service-related industry, organizations impose explicit or implicit emotional display rules to ensure that employees deliver organizationally desired services, and to guide

and train their emotional performance during a service encounter (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Service employees are strongly expected to perform emotional labor: they must perform emotional labor in addition to physical labor in exchange for a wage (Hochschild, 1979). Emotional labor is thus considered part of the work roles (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

The role expectation model suggests that some occupations are already embedded with expected emotional demands (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987). For instance, tour guides are expected to show friendliness, cheerfulness, and helpfulness to tour members, whereas funeral managers are supposed to show empathy and solemnity to clients. This model is useful to study emotional labor in the tourism field, as it highlights the specific sources of role expectations that influence one's emotional performance. Yet, Rafaeli and Sutton's study provided no further explanation on the relationship between specific job roles and emotional labor. Therefore, the current study proposes to fill this research gap by investigating the influence of emotional labor on role performance.

Social identity theory acknowledges the negative effects of emotional labor on the well-being of employees, effects that can be moderated by identifying with organizational roles (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The stronger the identification of employees with their organizational role, the more genuine they are when performing the role. In addition, role identification lessens the negative effects of emotional labor, such as emotional dissonance and alienation. Naturally felt emotions are also a distinct construct of emotional labor (Diefendorff, Croyle & Gosserand, 2005). Therefore, social identity theory enriches the emotional labor literature with new concepts, such as display rules, genuine emotion, and role identity.

Emotional labor in the current study is based on Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) definition as the act of displaying an appropriate emotion to carry out different types of role through surface acting and deep acting. Due to intensive emotional labor demands, tour leaders devote a lot of effort to adjusting their internal feelings to project organizationally acceptable emotions (Sharpe, 2005; Constanti & Gibbs, 2005). The current study examines the emotional patterns observed in men and women tour leaders, including deep acting and surface acting. It helps fill this research gap by providing empirical data on the study of gender difference in emotion management.

Gender and Emotional Labor

Women's traditional caretaking role, such as family care, enables them to fit in the people-oriented nature of service work (Bulan, Erickson, and Wharton, 1997). Women are more likely to experience authentic emotions in the service role. This desired role authenticity may encourage women to engage in deep acting. In fact, women have more positive experiences in emotional-labor-demanding jobs than men, and are also better at deep acting than men (Johnson and Spector, 2007).

Gender and emotions have been widely discussed in the literature on sociology, psychology, and organizational behavior literature ((Brody & Hall, 2000; Fabes & Martin, 1991; Kemper, 1978; 1990). Yet, very few empirical studies in tourism have investigated the effects of gender on emotional labor performance. Only one relevant tourism study examined the emotional labor of adventure tour leaders in Australia. The results showed no significant gender difference in surface acting and deep acting in the sample (Torland, 2011). Nevertheless, the results from studies on nursing have painted a different picture. For instance, a study in Nigeria on emotional labor strategies in male and female nurses found that male nurses performed more surface acting than female nurses, while there was no

significant gender difference in the experience of deep acting (Adeniji & Akanni, 2015). Another study on nurses examined how gender shaped emotional labor and moderated job satisfaction. The results indicated that male nurses performed less emotional labor than female nurses, while the overall deep acting of male and female nurses correlated with higher job satisfaction (Cottingham, Erickson, & Diefendorff, 2015). Furthermore, in a study conducted by Yang and Guy (2015), the results showed that gender could moderate the relationship between emotional labor, job satisfaction, and turnover intent, while women's surface acting could affect their job satisfaction and turnover intent. The limited and mixed findings on gender difference in emotional labor demands in other industries justify the need for a further study on emotional management in the tourism industry.

The Roles of Tour Leaders

Tour leaders in the past fulfilled two major roles: pathfinder and mentor (Cohen, 1985). Pathfinders guided tourists in an unknown environment, or helped them access places that were restricted to tourists. Nevertheless, with the gradual evolution of tourism infrastructure and orientation devices, tourists can now find their way easily by using advanced technologies, such as smartphones, the Internet, Global Positioning System (GPS), and various travel apps. Therefore, the importance of tour leaders as pathfinders has gradually faded. The mentor role of tour leaders initially appeared in religious settings, in which a specialist served as a personal tutor or spiritual advisor to help followers attain an acclaimed spiritual state (Cohen, 1985). The mentor role “resembled the role of teacher, instructor or advisor” (Dahles, 2002, p. 786).

Today, the role of tour leaders is more complex. It involves several important functions and roles, such as information giver, host, ambassador, entertainer, group leader, actor, buffer, caretaker, cultural broker, intermediary/middleman, interpreter/translator, organizer, problem solver, safety keeper, salesperson, teacher/educator, and mediator (Cohen, 1985; Dahles, 2002; 1985; Holloway, 1981; Pond, 1993; Valkonen, 2009; Wong & Wang, 2009).

Travel companies and tour group participants have different role expectations of tour leaders. Travel agencies strongly expect a tour leader to become a professional salesperson, group leader and problem solver, while tour group participants expect a tour leader to be a good caretaker, information giver, middleman and entertainer. These different role expectations may create misunderstandings about tour leaders' roles, which may negatively affect performance. The current study analyzes how tour leaders interpret their roles, and whether there is a gender difference in their interpretation.

Perceived Organizational Support

Tour leaders will willingly give effort and loyalty to the organization, if they perceive that they will receive support and rewards on a reciprocal basis. This exchange is identified as perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Perceived organizational support (POS) derives from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Employees have expectations about the degree of organizational support in various work situations, such as making mistakes, being ill, and attaining outstanding results (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees believe that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligations in the future (Blau, 1964), if they modify their attitudes and behavior to meet the organization's requirements (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). The support provided by the organization in different situations affects both the tour

leaders' interpretation of underlying organizational motive and the level of organizational support.

The work environment influences POS. Extensive evidence has shown that POS is affected by supervisor-employee relationships, training and development, promotion opportunities (Wayne et al., 1997), clarity of job guidelines (Hutchison, 1997), participation in goal-setting and availability of performance feedback (Hutchison, 1997), fairness of rewards (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003), autonomy (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999), job security (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and communication with direct supervisors and upper management (Allen, 1995). In the current study, tour leaders' perceived organizational support mainly relates to human resources policies and benefits, such as fair pay, more training opportunities, and fair tour assignment.

Perceived Supervisor Support

While POS delineates the organization-employee relationship, perceived supervisor support (PSS) defines the supervisor-employee relationship. Perceived supervisor support is the degree to which direct managers or supervisors value the contributions of their subordinates and care about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988), and the extent to which employees perceive that supervisors provide support, encouragement, and concern at work. Both POS and PSS are based on a social exchange environment. Subordinates feel compelled to reciprocate the support, trust, and other tangible or intangible benefits received from their supervisor through good performance or positive behavior that will benefit their supervisor (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). The more the relationship was based on mutual trust, loyalty, interpersonal affect, and respect; the better the subordinates' performance in both in-role and extra-role duties (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

Perceived supervisor support is affected by the intensity of communication between supervisor and staff (Ramus, 2001), organizational changes (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003), and organizational structure (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Moreover, if supervisors perceive that they are valued by the organization, they will treat their subordinates more favorably (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Tepper & Taylor, 2003). The current study examines the influence of POS and PSS on role performance in men and women tour leaders.

Hypothesis Development

Gender Differences in Emotional Labor, Role Performance, Perceived Organizational Support, and Perceived Supervisor Support

Research has shown that men and women have different emotional displays. Men express negative and distancing emotions, while women demonstrate positive and relationship-facilitating emotions (Brody & Hall, 2000; Simpson & Stroh, 2004). Women are more caring, concerned with others' feelings, emotionally expressive, and willing to listen, while men are powerful, aggressive, and like to stay in control (Yang & Guy, 2015). The different roles assumed by men and women in society contribute to these differences. Women are better at managing emotions, and are more capable of handling work that requires emotional labor (Grandey, 2000; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Fischer & LaFrance, 2015). For this reason, good emotional expressivity and care about others' feelings enable women to express felt emotions in deep acting.

Studies have argued that deep acting is a better strategy, as the service provided is perceived as authentic and sincere when the server conveys a sense of genuine interpersonal

sensitivity and care (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Van Dijk, Smith & Cooper, 2011). When employees encounter emotional dissonance, felt emotions differ from organizationally required emotions. Therefore, they use an appropriate strategy to regulate their emotions, to ensure that their behavior aligns with organizational display rules (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

Gender not only regulates men and women emotional displays, but also shapes all other facets of life, including work life (Cottingham et al., 2015). Men and women may perceive organizational and supervisor support differently. Women may look for a more personalized relationship in the workplace, motivated by the extent of care received from the supervisors and the organization. Men may seek more tangible rewards from the organization, such as recognition of their contributions.

The main research question of this study aims at investigating whether gender differences affect men and women tour leaders' performance of emotional labor. The first two hypotheses for Emotional Labor postulate that women are more likely to engage in deep acting than men, but less likely to engage in surface acting than men. In addition to gender differences in emotional labor, gender differences in role performance of tour leaders and their perception of organizational and supervisor support are examined. The following hypotheses are proposed:

- H1a: Women tour leaders use more deep acting strategies than men.
- H1b: Women tour leaders use fewer surface acting strategies than men.
- H2: Women and men perform tour guiding roles differently.
- H3: Women and men perceive organizational support differently.
- H4: Women and men perceive supervisor support differently.

The Effect of Emotional Labor, Perceived Organizational Support, Perceived Supervisor Support on Role Performance

Tour leaders' job performance will improve, if the organization provides both fair financial and adequate spiritual support. Tour leaders who believe that their organization is willing to pay more, give better benefits, and recognize their contributions, generally increase their efforts and offer loyalty to the organization (Johlke, Stamper, & Shoemaker, 2002; Eisenber et al., 1986).

Immediate supervisor support is important for tour leaders when supervisors provide candid performance feedback and coaching to help tour leaders achieve their job responsibilities. Supervisors are in the position to clarify company policies and directions, and help tour leaders release the stress of emotional labor (Anderson, Provis, & Chappel, 2002). Grandey (2000) suggested that service employees use less emotional labor when the working environment is supportive. Employees who feel supported may have more inner resources to fulfill their roles and to deal with difficult customers. Past studies have provided empirical evidence on how strong supervisor support is positively related to higher job satisfaction and team performance, lower work stress, and lower turnover intentions (Anderson et al., 2002; Babin & Boles, 1996; Eisenberger, Cummings, Aemeli, & Lynch, 1997).

Deep acting has a positive relationship with performance, while no such relationship exists between surface acting and performance (Hülshager, Lang & Maier, 2010; Sharpe, 2005). Nevertheless, surface acting has a significant relationship with service hostility displayed by servers that eventually leads to low level of service quality ratings by customers. (Medler-Liraz & Seger-Guttmann, 2015). A more authentic and friendlier service has been perceived in deep acting than in surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Van Dijk et al.,

2011). The expressions of genuine or authentic emotions can convey important clues about positive feelings and friendliness (Chu & Murrmann, 2006). These emotions can elicit favorable customer responses and a good employee-customer rapport (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005; Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul & Gremler, 2006). Hülshager and Schewe (2011) suggested that the delivery of friendly, warm, and authentic service is central to the performance of service-related jobs such as tour guiding.

While a rich body of literature has investigated the relationships between emotional labor and individual outcomes, like emotional dissonance, burnout, and job satisfaction, studies examining the relationship between emotional labor and role performance are inadequate. Drawing on the fact that emotional labor is a fundamental part of tour leaders' job in terms of the amount of time and intensity required, emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) may predict tour leaders' role performance. In addition, both organization and supervisor support may influence role performance. Tour leaders will make more effort when they perceive more tangible and intangible rewards from companies and supervisors. Besides the individual effects of each variable on role performance, a combined effect of the three independent variables on role performance is proposed. The related hypotheses are as follows:

H5: Deep acting, surface acting, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support together influence women tour leaders' role performance.

H6: Deep acting, surface acting, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support together influence men tour leaders' role performance.

METHODOLOGY

Development of Questionnaire

The initial questionnaire consisted of 65 items adapted from the literature. Items related to emotional labor were drawn from the studies of Chu and Murrmann (2006), Kruml and Geddes (2000), Diefendorff et al. (2005), Brotheridge and Lee (2003), and Grandey (2003). Items related to POS were adapted from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS), developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986). To measure tour guides' perception of supervisor support, the SPOS was adapted by replacing the term "the organization" with the term "the supervisor" as done in other studies like Kottke and Sharafinski (1988), Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001), and Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell and Allan (2007). Finally, items regarding the roles of tour guides were obtained from the work of different researchers like Holloway (1981), Cohen (1985), and Zhang and Chow (2004). In-depth interviews were held with tour leaders to cross-check the questionnaire appropriateness, and to generate additional items. The revised questionnaire was then sent to two university professors and five hospitality research students for content validity evaluation before conducting a pilot study.

The internal consistency of the measuring items was assessed using Cronbach's alpha after the pilot study. Results showed that the alpha coefficient for each scale was high, with deep acting = .79, surface acting = .80, perceived organizational support = .91, perceived supervisor support = .95, and role performance = .93. High alpha coefficients indicated that the test items of each construct had a high internal consistency. Therefore, the questionnaire was adopted in the main study. Cronbach's alpha for different scales in the main study remained high, with deep acting = .65, surface acting = .83, perceived organizational support = .88, perceived supervisor support = .93, and role performance = .89. The Cronbach's alpha for deep acting was slightly low (.65), but remained acceptable for exploratory research (Hair et al., 1998).

Data Collection

Data collection procedures involved two stages: the pilot study and the main survey. The pilot study was conducted between October and November 2012. The data collection process in the main study lasted five months, from March to July 2013, and involved two approaches. First, researchers sent invitation letters and instructions for completing the survey to local travel agencies offering tour escorting or tour guiding services. Then, the human resources managers of the travel agencies were contacted to confirm their willingness to conduct the survey, and distribute questionnaires to Chinese tour leaders. A request was made to seal the completed questionnaires in the return envelopes provided. Researchers collected the envelopes from the human resources managers' offices. Second, researchers conducted the survey at the airport and at the training centers where the tour leaders' training took place. Chinese tour leaders were approached and invited to participate in the study. The research purposes and procedures were clearly explained by the researchers to each participant before completing the survey questionnaire. Completed questionnaires were collected immediately. Six-hundred-and-ten questionnaires were sent, and 407 were returned. After excluding cases with missing values and unqualified respondents, a total of 309 responses were found to be usable, giving a usable rate of 50.7%.

Data Analysis

Various statistical tests were used to examine the hypothesized relationships between the gender differences in the major variables of Emotional labor, Role performance, Perceived organizational support, and Perceived supervisor support of the research model. The relevant analyses included reliability tests to assess the internal consistency of the set of

measurements for each variable using Cronbach's alpha; descriptive statistics to identify the demographic data of the respondents, means, standard deviations, and item-to-item correlations of each variable; t-tests to measure the difference in the ratings of male and female respondents; multiple regression analysis to measure the degree and direction of influence of each independent variable on the dependent variable; and principal component analysis to identify any underlying dimensions of the variables.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Profile of Tour Leaders Respondents

As shown in Table 1, the percentages of male and female respondents were 52.5%, and 46.5%, respectively. About 63.7% were aged under 34, and the majority were single (77%). Most of the respondents (56.8%) had completed secondary education, 27.7% had completed a post-secondary qualification, and 14.9% were university graduates. Of the 309 respondents, about half had worked with their present company for more than four years. Almost 30% had worked for 10 years or more. More than 60% of the respondents had been in the tour leader profession for more than four years. About 37% had 10 years or more of working experience as a tour leader.

Please insert Table 1 here

Gender Differences in Emotional Labor, Role Performance, Perceived Organizational Support, and Perceived Supervisor Support

No significant differences were found between men and women on Emotional labor, Role performance, and Perceived supervisor support. As shown in Table 2, there was only a gender difference ($t(298) = 2.04, p < .05$) on Perceived organizational support; means for

men ($M = 4.62$, $SD = .63$), and women ($M = 4.48$, $SD = .62$). Hence, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2, and 4 were not supported, and only Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Please insert Tables 2 and 3 here

A close examination of the means of Emotional labor items revealed a gap between men and women tour leaders in surface acting (see Table 4). Men ($M = 4.39$) scored higher than women ($M = 4.05$) on the item “I put on an act to deal with customers appropriately,” and on the item “I cover my feelings when dealing with customers,” men ($M = 4.38$), women ($M = 4.05$). It indicated that women and men acted differently in surface acting. Male tour leaders put more effort to cover their true feelings with surface acting.

Please insert table 4 here

Underlying Factors of Emotional labor, Role Performance, Perceived Organizational Support, and Perceived Supervisor Support

To examine the underlying factors of Emotional labor, Role performance, Perceived organizational support, and Perceived supervisor support, principal component analysis (PCA) was used, followed by an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation. The factor analysis of Emotional labor showed that the KMO value was 0.83, and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(91) = 1538.75$, $p < .05$). Three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1. Factor 1 “*Surface Acting*,” and Factor 2 “*Deep Acting*” accounted for a total of 44.5% of the variance. Factor 3 was discarded, as only two items were loaded in this factor (Manning & Munro, 2007). The result of a two factors solution was consistent with those in previous studies (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Chu & Murrmann, 2006; Hochschild, 1983; Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Means score of deep acting ($M = 5.19$) was higher than surface acting ($M = 4.13$). Therefore, it could be inferred that tour leaders practiced deep acting more (see table 5).

The factor analysis of Role performance showed that the KMO value was 0.89, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (105) = 1863.99, p < .05$). Three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1. Factor 1 "*Communicative and Intermediary Role*," Factor 2 "*Sales and Interaction Role*," and Factor 3 "*Social and Ambassador Role*." The three factors together accounted for 58.31% of the total variance. "*Sales and Interaction Role*" had the highest mean, followed by "*Social and Ambassador Role*," and "*Communicative and Intermediary Role*." The mean scores of the three factors were all above 5.0. Results showed that tour leaders considered they had multiple roles that were of equal importance in their daily work (see Table 5).

Please insert table 5 here

The factor analysis of Perceived organizational support showed that the KMO value was 0.87, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (91) = 2018.804, p < .05$). The results from the PCA extracted three factors with eigenvalues over 1. Factor 1 "*Organizational Care and Rewards*," Factor 2 "*Job Training and Facilitation*," and Factor 3 "*Organizational Recognition and Appreciation*." The three factors altogether accounted for 64.62% of the total variance. "*Job Training and Facilitation*" (M=5.29) had the highest mean, followed by "*Organizational Care and Rewards*" (M = 4.35), and the lowest mean was "*Organizational Recognition and Appreciation*" (M = 4.07). This could indicate that support from travel companies on job training and facilitation were sufficient, but that the recognition and appreciation from the company was a bit below the tour leaders' satisfaction (see Table 6).

The factor analysis of Perceived supervisor support showed that the KMO value was 0.93, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (120) = 3421.382, p < .05$). Two factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1. Factor 1 "*Supervisor Concern and*

Care,” and Factor 2 “*Supervisor Recognition and Appreciation.*” The two factors altogether accounted for 64.22% of the total variance. The tour leaders revealed higher “*Supervisor Concern and Care*” (M = 5.35) than “*Supervisor Recognition and Appreciation*” (M = 3.72). This indicated that the tour guides agreed that their supervisors were supportive, but that they needed to show more recognition and appreciation (see Table 6).

Please insert table 6 here

Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis (MRA) was conducted to determine the predicting effect of deep acting, surface acting, organizational care and rewards, job training and facilitation, organizational recognition and appreciation, supervisor concern and care, and supervisor recognition and appreciation on men’s and women’s role performance. For the model of women, the multiple correlation coefficient ($R = 0.482$) was significantly different from zero ($F(7, 133) = 5.757, p < 0.05$), and 23% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the set of independent variables ($R^2 = 0.233$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.192$). For the model of men, multiple correlation coefficient ($R = 0.557$) was significantly different from zero ($F(7, 151) = 9.694, p < 0.05$), and 31% of the variation in the dependent variable was explained by the set of independent variables ($R^2 = 0.310$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.278$). Overall, the two regression models significantly predicted role performance for both genders, and the independent variables accounted for 31% and 23% of the variation in men’s and women’s role performance, respectively. The results thus supported Hypotheses 5 and 6.

Table 7 shows the findings of the MRA. Deep acting had a positive influence on role performance for both genders ($\beta = 0.258$ for women, and 0.248 for men, $p < 0.01$), while surface acting had a negative influence on role performance for both genders ($\beta = -0.104$ for women, and -0.125 for men, $p < 0.05$). Organizational care and rewards contributed to

women's role performance positively ($\beta = 0.122, p < 0.05$), while job training and facilitation ($\beta = 0.153, p < 0.05$), supervisor concern and care ($\beta = 0.300, p < 0.01$), and supervisor recognition and appreciation ($\beta = 0.217, p < 0.01$) positively contributed to men's role performance.

Please insert table 7 here

DISCUSSION

The main research question examines whether there is a difference in the emotional labor performance of men and women tour leaders. Although the literature has suggested that women performed deep acting more often due to their caring, high emotion, and expressive and understanding personality (Yang & Guy, 2015), the current findings revealed no significant difference in the adoption of emotional labor strategies (surface acting and deep acting) between men and women tour leaders. Results showed that women tour leaders displayed similar levels of deep acting, and lower levels of surface acting than men tour leaders. However, men put more effort into surface acting compared with women.

The outcomes can be explained by the essential roles performed by both men and women tour leaders. The principal component analysis identified three major roles for tour leaders, including "*Communicative and Intermediary Role*," "*Sales and Interaction Role*," and "*Social and Ambassador Role*." Furthermore, the study revealed "*Sales and Interaction Role*" to be the most important role, and consisted of "problem solver," "group leader," and "salesperson." According to Wong and Wang (2009), tour leaders play a dual role on tours: on the one hand, they are service providers who cater for the needs of tour participants. On the other hand, they serve as representatives of their tour members. In short, tour leaders are required to perform several roles on guided tours regardless of their gender. Therefore, both men and women tour leaders may use similar emotional labor strategies when performing multiple roles on tours to solve problems and ensure high standard of service quality.

Results were consistent with previous studies suggesting that tour guiding is a multifaceted role composed of different sub-roles (Holloway, 1981; Zhang & Chow, 2004). As Heung suggested (2008), the service quality of tour leaders is measured by some core service delivery, such as making sure the itinerary is arranged in accordance with the tour plan, or maintaining an effective communication with tour participants. In that regard, there is no gender difference in the job demands, as both men and women tour leaders must demonstrate their abilities to solve problems, help tour members in an unfamiliar social environment, and ensure the safety of the group. Therefore, women tour leaders display similar levels of deep acting compared with men tour leaders.

While men and women tour leaders do not differ significantly in emotional labor performance, gender difference was found significant in Perceived organizational support, but not in Perceived supervisor support. Compared with the male tour leaders, the ratings of the women tour leaders on Perceived organizational support were lower in general. This reveals that women tend to disagree with the idea that travel agencies care about their well-being, value their contributions, and provide them help and support. The findings thus enrich the current literature on the understanding of POS and PSS. Yet, due to such a difference, these results warrant further investigation.

Furthermore, it was found that deep acting had a positive correlation with role performance. These findings are in line with previous research. For example, in their longitudinal study on the job performance of trainee teachers, Hülshager et al. (2010) found that trainee teachers who engaged in deep acting were rated higher in their job performance. Totterdell and Holman (2003) also reported a positive relationship between deep acting and self-rated job performance in a bank call center. Hülshager et al. (2010) suggested that employees who engage in deep acting are more likely to fulfill their work roles and deliver higher performance.

A likely explanation for the results is the authenticity of emotional display. Deep acting is regarded as acting in good faith (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Tour leaders who perform deep acting are perceived as being sincere, as tour participants believe that their emotional expressions are “real.” Sincere services together with genuine expressions, enhance customer satisfaction and trust, which in turn enables tour leaders to perform their roles more effectively (Chu & Murrmann, 2006). Hence, tour leaders who adopt deep acting probably perform their roles better.

The significant negative relationship between surface acting and role performance is in line with previous studies. These results have important implications for the travel industry in developing appropriate training to enhance tour leaders’ role performance as surface acting may not be a good strategy for tour leaders to perform their duties. Hence, the focus should be on equipping tour leaders with the relevant skills to perform deep acting consistently during their work.

What makes men and women tour leaders perform their roles better? The results from this study showed that only emotional labor strategies and supervisors’ concern and care could predict role performance. However, further analysis of gender differences yielded interesting results, highlighting that women tour leaders performed better with more care from organization and rewards. Conversely, men tour leaders performed better with more supervisors’ care, concern, recognition, and appreciation, and with better job training and facilitation.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of the current study showed that men and women tour leaders do not differ significantly in their emotional labor performance and role performance. However,

men and women are motivated by different types of workplace support to perform their roles.

The findings provide important implications for travel agency managers in employee selection, staff training, and organizational support. First, travel agency managers should consider candidates' ability to display deep acting when selecting new employees. One of the prime selection criteria should be the candidates' personality, as it affects the adoption of relevant emotional strategies at work. Indeed, previous research has shown that empathetic and extroverted people were more likely to engage in deep acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kim, 2008). In addition, selection should be conducted in a relatively lively setting that resembles the workplace, instead of a conventional setting (e.g., in an office). For instance, the job interview may take place in a sales branch, where potential candidates are required to work for a day. Front-line managers can then observe their on-the-job emotional displays and decide whether they are suitable for the job or not. Although this form of assessment takes more time, it is worthwhile as the company can identify the most suitable candidates.

Another implication of this study concerns how travel agencies can benefit from providing emotional labor training to equip employees with essential skills for handling difficult customers. Well-trained employees are more capable of maintaining positive emotions and responding authentically when dealing with difficult customers (Bechtoldt, Welk, Zapf, & Hartig, 2007; Kim, 2008). Organizations should train their employees to change their behavior to display the required emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Therefore, it is suggested that organizations provide customized emotional labor workshops to enhance tour leaders' abilities to manage emotions. The training should be designed to specifically meet the needs of men and women tour leaders, as they behave differently when using surface acting strategies. For example, training for proper emotional displays, such as facial expression, speech, gestures, and manners, are encouraged for men

tour leaders, as men agree that their interactions with customers are robotic, and that they find it difficult to show feelings that differ from their inner emotions. Meditation or yoga classes that help tour leaders relax are recommended for women tour leaders, to relieve the pressure resulting from emotional dissonance when engaging in surface acting.

The final implication of this study is to provide a supportive work environment for tour leaders to perform their roles effectively. The results of this study showed that supervisors' care, concern, recognition, and appreciation predicted men tour leaders' role performance. Therefore, a caring work environment with interpersonal warmth and friendliness, combined with open communication between members, may help mitigate the negative effects of emotional labor. Moreover, supervisors' effective coaching and guidance may enhance men tour leaders' role performance.

To create a supportive work environment, travel agencies should promote a caring culture within the company by meeting employees' needs. For example, allowing tour guides to take a day off after a tour to rest, or respecting their opinions when the company wants to initiate changes relevant to them. In addition, various staff social activities, such as football matches, picnics, birthday parties, visits, and so on, should be organized to foster a sense of belonging in staff. More importantly, travel agencies should help new recruits fit in with the company culture and familiarize themselves with the job requirements, especially regarding appropriate emotion display at work. Companies should arrange for young and inexperienced tour leaders to work with experienced workers in a mentor-mentee fashion. Mentors can help mentees overcome difficulties encountered at work, while mentees can quickly pick up the required emotion displays by observing and replicating mentors' behavior. Such workplace support is important for new members to ensure that they do not feel alone in the face of unpredictable customer demands.

Apart from creating a caring culture, a fair and equitable reward system is essential to motivate tour leaders to put extra effort into work. This is particularly true for women tour leaders, as organizational care and rewards predict their role performance. It is suggested that travel agencies use a more diverse performance evaluation system. In addition to supervisors' appraisal, feedback from customers and peer workers should be taken into account.

This study has some research limitations that weaken the ability to apply these findings to other contexts. For example, the self-reporting methodology adopted relied on tour leaders' self-reporting their role performance. This may have resulted in the exaggeration of the findings for role performance. Another limitation is the convenience sampling method used in data collection. Consequently, samples may not be representative of all tour leaders in the population. Thus, the findings should be interpreted with caution. Future research with an interest in this area should pay attention to these issues.

Several suggestions for future research directions are proposed. First, future research could test the effects of naturally felt emotions on role performance. Future studies could investigate the intensity of naturally felt emotions in relation to tour leaders' role performance and their relationships with deep acting and surface acting. Another suggested area for future research is the level of emotional labor required to work with different types of work colleagues, for example, managers/supervisors, co-workers, and service suppliers. As the demands of emotional labor to deal with internal counterparts have rarely been reported, future research could investigate the issue, to have a complete understanding of tour leaders' emotional labor effort in the workplace.

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Table 1 Demographic Profile of Tour Leaders

Demographic characteristic	Number (N=303)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Men	159	52.5
Women	141	46.5
Age		
18 – 24	73	24.1
25 – 34	120	39.6
35 – 44	59	19.5
45 – 54	43	14.2
55 – 65	5	1.7
65 or above	1	0.3
Marital Status		
Married	61	20.1
Single	234	77.2
Divorced	6	2.0
Education Level		
Secondary	172	56.8
Post-secondary	84	27.7

University or above	45	14.9
Years of Service in the company		
Less than 1 year	62	20.5
1 – 3	74	24.4
4 – 6	51	16.8
7 – 9	24	7.9
10 or above	90	29.7
Experience as a Tour Guide		
Less than 1 year	52	17.2
1 – 3	66	21.8
4 – 6	39	12.9
7 – 9	31	10.2
10 or above	112	37.0

Remarks: The total percentage of each factor is not 100% due to the missing values are not shown.

Table 2 Gender comparison for Emotional labour, Role performance, Perceived organisational support and Perceived supervisor support

Variable	<u>Men</u>			<u>Women</u>			<i>T</i>	df	p
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean			
DA	5.20	.61	.05	5.21	.57	.05	-.08	298	.936
SA	4.23	.94	.07	4.05	1.03	.09	1.60	298	.111
POS	4.62	.63	.05	4.48	.62	.05	2.04	298	.043*
PSS	4.96	.48	.04	4.91	.47	.04	.99	298	.325
RP	5.41	.66	.05	5.44	.59	.05	-.35	298	.730

*significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed), N (men = 159, women = 141)

Table 3 Table of comparison of Perceived Organisational Support item means for women and men tour leaders

Perceived organizational support	Women	Men	<i>T</i> -value	p
The organization values my contribution	4.62	4.81	1.443	.150
The organization cares about my well-being	3.96	4.27	2.214	.028*
The organization maintains a fair human resources system	4.23	4.35	.809	.419
The organization assigns tours to me based on my performance	4.60	4.84	1.801	.073
The organization increases my salary when earning a greater profit	3.85	4.00	.946	.345
The organization cares about my opinions	4.18	4.43	1.800	.073
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments	4.25	4.40	1.124	.262
The organization provides training to enhance my performance	4.94	5.05	.775	.439
The organization helps me when I have problems	5.26	5.46	1.614	.108
The organization maintains a good reputation in the industry	5.57	5.70	1.259	.209
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work	5.11	5.23	1.096	.274
The organization fails to appreciate my extra efforts	4.09	4.22	.966	.335
The organization fails to notice even I did the best	4.10	4.18	.590	.556
The organization shows very little concern for me	3.99	3.86	-1.076	.283

* significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed), N (men = 159, women = 141)

Table 4 Table of comparison of Emotional Labour item means for women and men tour leaders

	Women	Men	T	p
Deep acting				
I think of pleasant images to create a positive feeling	5.30	5.30	-.073	.942
I concentrate on behavior when display emotion that I do not feel	5.45	5.32	-1.172	.242
I try to experience the positive emotions that I must show	5.62	5.54	-.758	.449
Feeling positive emotions is part of my job	5.89	5.78	-1.242	.215
I change my emotions to meet company's requirements	4.96	4.94	-.166	.868
I start to feel happy if I pretend to be happy	4.67	4.79	.797	.426
I change actual feelings to match those express to customers	4.61	4.80	1.467	.144
Surface acting				
My smile is not sincere	4.89	4.97	.563	.574
I put on an act to deal with customers appropriately	4.05	4.39	1.970	.050*
I put on an mask to display the required emotions at work	4.24	4.53	1.684	.093
I show feelings that are different from the inside feeling	4.28	4.40	.808	.420
My interactions with customers are robotic	2.84	2.87	.194	.846
I cover my feelings when dealing with customers	4.05	4.38	2.113	.035*
I fake a good mood when interacting with customers	4.05	4.12	.419	.676

* significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed), N (men = 159, women = 141)

Table 5 Results of Principal Component Analysis on Emotional Labour and Role Performance (N = 303)

Factor	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Factor Mean	Eigen value	Variance %	Reliability Coefficient
Emotional Labour							
Factor 1 – Surface Acting				4.13	4.208	29.71	.865
• I show feelings that are different from the inside	4.34	1.274	.849				

feelings							
• I put on a mask to display the required emotions at work	4.40	1.472	.848				
• I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	4.24	1.486	.820				
• I fake a good mood when interacting with customers	4.09	1.434	.788				
• I cover my true feelings when dealing with customers	4.23	1.378	.703				
• I change actual feelings to match those express to customers	4.71	1.114	.632				
• My interactions with customers are robotic	2.86	1.347	.478				
<u>Factor 2 – Deep Acting</u>				5.19	2.597	14.86	.616
• I think of pleasant images to create a positive feeling	5.31	1.105	.791				
• I concentrate on my behaviour when display emotions that I do not feel	5.38	.931	.590				
• I start to feel happy if I pretend to be happy	4.74	1.295	.579				
• My smile is not sincere	4.94	1.354	.534				
• I try to experience the positive emotions that I must show	5.58	.868	.480				
Role Performance							
<u>Factor 1– Communicative and</u>				5.14	6.080	22.25	.811

<u>Intermediary Role</u>							
• Host	5.05	1.223	.724				
• Interpreter / translator	5.25	1.183	.723				
• Organiser	5.25	1.144	.703				
• Negotiator	4.17	1.479	.656				
• Information giver	5.60	.859	.618				
• Intermediary / middleman	5.57	.918	.510				
<u>Factor 2– Sales and Interactionary Role</u>				5.79	1.495	19.14	.724
• Problem solver	5.84	.794	.826				
• Group leader	5.90	.917	.788				
• Salesperson	5.64	.902	.582				
<u>Factor 3– Social and Ambassador Role</u>				5.54	1.171	16.92	.803
• Actor	5.53	.982	.750				
• Ambassador	5.58	.891	.674				
• Buffer	5.72	.803	.625				
• Cultural mediator	5.39	.939	.550				
• Caretaker	5.74	.950	.533				
• Entertainer	5.30	1.094	.491				

Table 6 Results of Principal Component Analysis on Perceived Organisational Support and Perceived Supervisor Support (N = 303)

Factor	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Factor Mean	Eigen value	Variance %	Reliability Coefficient
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Perceived Organisational Support							
<u>Factor 1 – Organisational Care and Rewards</u>				4.35	5.650	31.18	.898
• Cares about my wellbeing	4.13	1.226	.805				
• Cares about my opinions	4.33	1.205	.798				
• Takes pride in my accomplishments	4.33	1.135	.769				
• Increases my salary when have profit	3.94	1.357	.767				
• Maintains a fair human resources system	4.30	1.261	.747				
• Values my contribution	4.72	1.163	.731				
• Assigns tours to me based on my performance	4.73	1.187	.686				
<u>Factor 2 – Job Training and Facilitation</u>				5.29	2.057	17.44	.762
• Maintains a good reputation in the industry	5.63	.900	.843				
• Helps me when I have problems	5.36	1.054	.776				
• Cares about my general satisfaction at work	5.17	.996	.714				
• Provides training to enhance my performance	5.00	1.189	.536				
<u>Factor 3 – Organisational Recognition and Appreciation</u>				4.07	1.341	16.00	.817
• Fails to notice even when I do my best	4.14	1.120	.911				
• Fails to appreciate	4.16	1.217	.839				

my extra efforts							
• Shows very little concern to me	3.92	1.112	.795				
Perceived Supervisor Support							
<u>Factor 1 – Supervisor Concern and Care</u>				5.35	7.987	41.10	.930
• Helps me solve problems	5.62	.909	.770				
• Helps me when I have a special request	5.41	.938	.769				
• Provides job feedback and advices	5.42	.887	.745				
• Listens to me when handling complaints	5.46	.919	.743				
• Takes pride in my accomplishments	5.02	1.028	.741				
• Helps me strive for better benefits	5.14	1.101	.740				
• Gives praises and encouragement	5.49	.959	.739				
• Maintains a good working relationship	5.56	.870	.739				
• Cares about my general satisfaction at work	5.48	.876	.723				
• Gives reasons for changing my work conditions	5.03	1.000	.709				
• Forgives my mistakes	5.30	.916	.690				
• Values my contribution	5.32	.881	.638				
<u>Factor 2 – Supervisor Recognition and Appreciation</u>				3.72	2.286	23.12	-.018
• Ignores my complaints	4.88	1.337	.912				
• Fails to appreciate my extra efforts	3.35	1.399	-.899				
• Fails to notice even when I do my best	3.38	1.354	-.898				

• Shows very little concern to me	3.29	1.372	-.859				
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Table 7 Results of Multiple Regression of the Independent Variables Predicting Role Performance

Independent Variables	Women				Men			
	Beta	Standard Error	<i>t</i>	Sig.	Beta	Standard Error	<i>t</i>	Sig.
(Constant)	3.333	.598	5.571	.000	1.218	.653	1.867	.064
Deep acting	.258	.064	4.000	.000	.248	.072	3.436	.001
Surface acting	-.104	.043	-2.425	.017	-.125	.050	-2.501	.013
Organisational care and rewards	.122	.059	2.059	.041	-.009	.059	-.145	.885
Job training and facilitation	.028	.078	.356	.722	.153	.071	2.146	.033
Organisational recognition and appreciation	.037	.055	.675	.501	.057	.050	1.145	.254
Supervisor concern and care	.038	.079	.475	.635	.300	.085	3.513	.001
Supervisor recognition and appreciation	-.058	.084	-.691	.491	.217	.082	2.632	.009

(Women): $R = .482$, $R^2 = .233$, Adjusted $R^2 = .192$, $F(7, 133) = 5.757$, $p < .05$

(Men): $R = .557$, $R^2 = .310$, Adjusted $R^2 = .278$, $F(7, 151) = 9.694$, $p < .05$