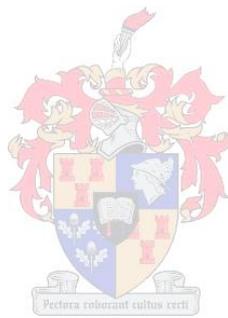


The relationships between emotional labour, the HEXACO personality traits, work engagement and burnout in the hospitality industry

by

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**Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Master of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) at Stellenbosch University**

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March 2015

Plagiarism Declaration

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Abstract

The flexible nature of the service delivery environment has had a major impact on the functioning of organisations. Managers realise that they need to be flexible and able to change if they want to survive in the long run. Employees are the tools service organisations utilise to make profit in the hospitality industry. The restaurant industry is a highly competitive environment and managers cannot afford poor service delivery from employees. Employees experiencing high levels of job engagement and low levels of job burnout have indicated superior performance and increased financial returns.

The primary objective of this research study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that elucidates the antecedents of variance in job engagement and job burnout among frontline waitrons at franchise x in the Western Cape. In addition, the research study investigated whether employees utilise deep acting or surface acting when faced with emotional labour demands. The study investigated whether certain personality traits are more suitable for the industry by investigating whether certain personality characteristics are related to job engagement or job burnout.

In this research study, partial least square (PLS) analyses were utilised to test the formulated hypotheses. Quantitative data was collected from 333 frontline waitrons employed at franchise x in the Western Cape. Data was collected specifically for the purposes of the study and participation was voluntary. The survey was distributed at the branches of franchise x. Managers had a week to facilitate their frontline waitrons in the completion of the surveys. The data was kept confidential and anonymous throughout the study. The survey comprised five sections. The first section asked participants for specific biographical and employment information. Subsequent sections measured specific latent variables applicable to the study utilising reliable and valid measuring instruments. These instruments were the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Naude & Rothmann, 2004), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), HEXACO-PI-R (Ashton, Lee, Pozzebon, Visser & Worth, 2010) and the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Van Gelderen, Konijn & Bakker, 2011). Data was subjected to a range of statistical analyses.

The findings shed light on the importance of job engagement for frontline waitrons at the branches of franchise x in the Western Cape. The results indicate that proactive management of job and personal resources and job demands may result in desirable outcomes such as increased job engagement and financial returns. The study provides South African industrial psychologists with much needed insight into the presenting problem within the hospitality industry. With reference to the managerial implications and the recommended interventions, industrial psychologists can ensure retention of job engagement and decrease of job burnout among frontline waitrons within the hospitality industry.

Opsomming

Die buigsame aard van die diensverskaffingsomgewing het 'n groot impak gehad op die funksionering van organisasies. Bestuurders het tot die besef gekom dat hulle buigsam moet wees asook bereid wees om te verander indien hulle op die lange duur wil oorleef. Werknemers is die gereedskap wat diensorganisasies gebruik om 'n wins in die gasvryheidsbedryf te maak. Die restaurantbedryf is 'n hoogs mededingende omgewing en bestuurders kan nie swak dienslewering deur hul werknemers bekostig nie. Werknemers wat hoë vlakke van werksbetrokkenheid (*job engagement*) en lae vlakke van werksuitbranding (*job burnout*) ervaar, toon superieure prestasie en verhoogde finansiële opbrengste.

Die hoofdoelwit van hierdie navorsingstudie was om 'n strukturele model te ontwikkel en empiries te toets om die antesedente van variansie in werksbetrokkenheid en werksuitbranding onder eerstelynkelnere by franchise x in die Wes-Kaap te verklaar. Daarbenewens het die navorsingstudie ook ondersoek of werknemere van *deep acting* of *surface acting* gebruik maak wanneer hulle deur emosionele arbeidseise gekonfronteer word. Die studie het ondersoek of sekere persoonlikheidseienskappe meer geskik is vir die bedryf deur te kyk of hulle verwant is aan werksbetrokkenheid of werksuitbranding.

In hierdie navorsingstudie is gedeeltelike kleinste kwadrate (*partial least squares (PLS)*) analises gebruik om die geformuleerde hipoteses te toets. Kwantitatiewe data is verkry vanaf 333 eerstelynkelnere wat vir franchise x in die Wes-Kaap werk. Die data is spesifiek vir die doelwitte van die studie versamel en deelname was vrywillig. Die opname is in harde kopie onder die bestuurders van franchise x versprei. Bestuurders het 'n week gehad om die opname onder hulle eerstelynkelnere te versprei vir voltooiing. Die data is as vertroulik beskou en anonimiteit is verseker. Die opname is in vyf dele verdeel. Die eerste gedeelte het die deelnemere se biografiese en indiensnemingsinligting gemeet. Die daaropvolgende dele het spesifieke latente veranderlikes gemeet wat van toepassing was op die studie deur van betroubare en geldige meetinstrumente gebruik te maak. Hierdie instrumente was die *Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)* (Naude & Rothmann, 2004), die *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), *HEXACO-PI-R* (Ashton, Lee, Pozzobon,

Visser & Worth, 2010) en die *Emotional Labour Scale (ELS)* (Van Gelderen, Konijn & Bakker, 2011). Data is aan 'n reeks statistiese analises onderwerp.

Die bevindinge werp lig op die belangrikheid daarvan dat eerstelynkelnere in franchise x se takke in die Wes-Kaap werksbetrokkenheid ervaar. Die resultate toon dat pro-aktiewe bestuur van werk en persoonlike hulpbronne en werk aanvraag kan lei tot gewenste resultate soos hoër werksbetrokkenheid en finansiële groei. Die studie verskaf Suid-Afrikaanse bedryfsielkundiges met belangrike insigte in die presenterende probleem in die gasvryheidsbedryf. Met verwysing na die bestuursimplikasies en die aanbevole ingrypings, kan bedryfsielkundiges die behoud van werksbetrokkenheid en 'n vermindering van werksuitbranding onder eerstelynkelnere in die gasvryheidsbedryf verseker.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Organisations need highly competent employees to survive the harsh nature of business in the 21st century. The flexible nature of the competitive environment has had a major impact on the functioning of organisations. Managers now realise that they need to be flexible and able to change if they want to continue to exist and thrive in the ever-changing economic environment. The most important task of managers is to ensure that the firm has a competent and productive workforce. The primary aim of organisations is to make profit, which is the reason organisations were started in the first place (excluding non-profit organisations), and to attain this they must be productive. Employees are the tools organisations use to make profit. Utilising human resources and making sure your employees are competent and productive is primarily the formula service delivery organisations should follow to be successful (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010).

Organisations experience a continuous trade-off between service quality and service productivity. The better service quality an organisation delivers, the lower the service productivity will be (Rust & Huang, 2012). It is important for managers to find the optimal balance where customers are satisfied with the service provided, while organisations are still productive. Managers often make the mistake of looking exclusively at productivity and continuously trying to only increase productivity. If managers follow this strategy they do not account for all the lost customers who were not satisfied with the service as a result of the productivity-service quality trade-off. If organisations can find this critical optimal balance, they will gain loyal customers through delivering quality service and make profits by being productive (Rust & Huang, 2012).

Managers realise that human capital is a very important resource to manage and it can be any business's most important competitive advantage. Organisations must make sure that they treat their employees with dignity and respect so that positive relationships can develop between managers and employees. Good relationships between managers and employees are crucial, since managers will motivate, appraise, punish, guide and support employees to realise their full potential. These

relationships will result in more productive employees, which will result in more productive organisations (Van den Tooren & De Jonge, 2010). Service productivity includes being effective and efficient (Rust & Huang, 2012). Therefore, if organisations do not have a competent workforce, they will struggle to survive in today's highly competitive service industry.

From the above it is clear that it is very important for the organisation to have frontline employees performing optimally before management can start improving and adjusting productivity behind the scenes. Solid foundations can be regarded as good frontline service and overall good service delivery. Therefore it is important for organisations to make sure their foundations are in place before they start expanding. Organisations building on a solid basis, such as supreme service delivery and employees who are engaged in their work, will have endless opportunities to expand.

A make-or-break moment is present in any service transaction. This is the moment when a customer decides he/she is receiving good service and will commence being loyal or remain a loyal customer, or when a customer decides the service is not good enough and looks for alternatives. To ensure an organisation provides positive make-or-break moments, staff must be competent, friendly and productive. This is especially crucial for frontline employees, from whom customers experience the make-or-break moment first-hand and where they make a decision to stay with the company or seek a competitor due to better service provided elsewhere (Bouranta, Chitiris & Paravantis, 2009). Management must make sure they have competent individuals working in their frontline service area that is capable of providing a pleasant service experience. Organisations must realize that customers only have contact with the frontline employees. They will therefore shape their personal perceptions regarding service quality from what they experience from the frontline service provider individual they communicate with. Therefore the frontline employee is the image of the company from a customer's perspective (Bouranta, Chitiris & Paravantis, 2009).

Good service can be a competitive advantage that favours the organisation relative to its competitors. Exceptional service is not easy to obtain in reality. Management

must always bear in mind that, if good service quality and delivery were easy to achieve, all organisations would utilise it effectively as a competitive advantage. In order to maintain good service as a competitive advantage, human resource management must take a proactive approach in developing and training their workforce with regard to superior service delivery.

The restaurant industry is unique, since it relies on quality service delivery in a very stressful work environment that demands high levels of emotional labour. Most restaurants are expected to be successful with frontline service providers (waitrons) who do not receive any formally or informally accredited training. Training will equip frontline employees with the necessary resources to be successful in this competitive and stressful industry. The restaurant industry is a multi-billion dollar industry and very unique. The study will take an in-depth look at this fascinating and high-in-demand industry.

The global restaurant sector is valued according to total sales of drinks (alcoholic and soft) and food in or through restaurant branches and cafes, drinking places, fast food retail and other. The restaurant and cafes sector of the industry comprises full-service restaurants, snack bars and commercial cafeterias. The fast food industry comprises limited-service restaurants, take-away restaurants, street vendors, mobile vendors and leisure vendors. Drinking places are defined as bars, taverns and nightclubs that specialise in selling alcoholic beverages. Other elements of the restaurant industry profile are home delivery, catering, street stalls, self-service and kiosks. Take note that vending machines are not included. All sales are valued at the price the customer pays the restaurant industry and not according to the price restaurants pay their suppliers (Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2011; Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2014).

The global restaurant industry has seen good growth over the last couple of years. The Asia Pacific region is performing particularly well and is expected to continue its growth in the upcoming years. The global restaurant sector grew by 4.9% in 2013 to reach an estimated value (in sales) of \$2 578.4 billion. This ensured that the compound annual growth rate was 6.4% between 2009 and 2013. The forecast is that the global restaurant industry will have a value of \$3 667 billion by 2018. This is

a 42.6% increase from 2013. The industry grew by 2.4% in 2013 to reach a total of 6.24 million people employed. This ensured a compound annual growth rate in employees of 2.1% between 2009 and 2013. It is expected that this amount will increase to 6.91 million employees by the year 2018, with a compound annual growth rate of 2.1% for the period 2013 to 2018 (Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2014).

The restaurant and cafe sector was the most rewarding for the global restaurant industry, with total revenues of \$1 387.9 billion in 2013. This is equivalent to 53.8% of the industry's overall value. The fast-food segment contributed 21.8% of the sector, with revenues of \$561.9 billion in 2013. The drinking places sector contributed \$208.9 billion, which is 8.1% of the industry's overall value. Figure 1.1 illustrates the segmentations of the global restaurant sector as a percentage of the total value (Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2014).

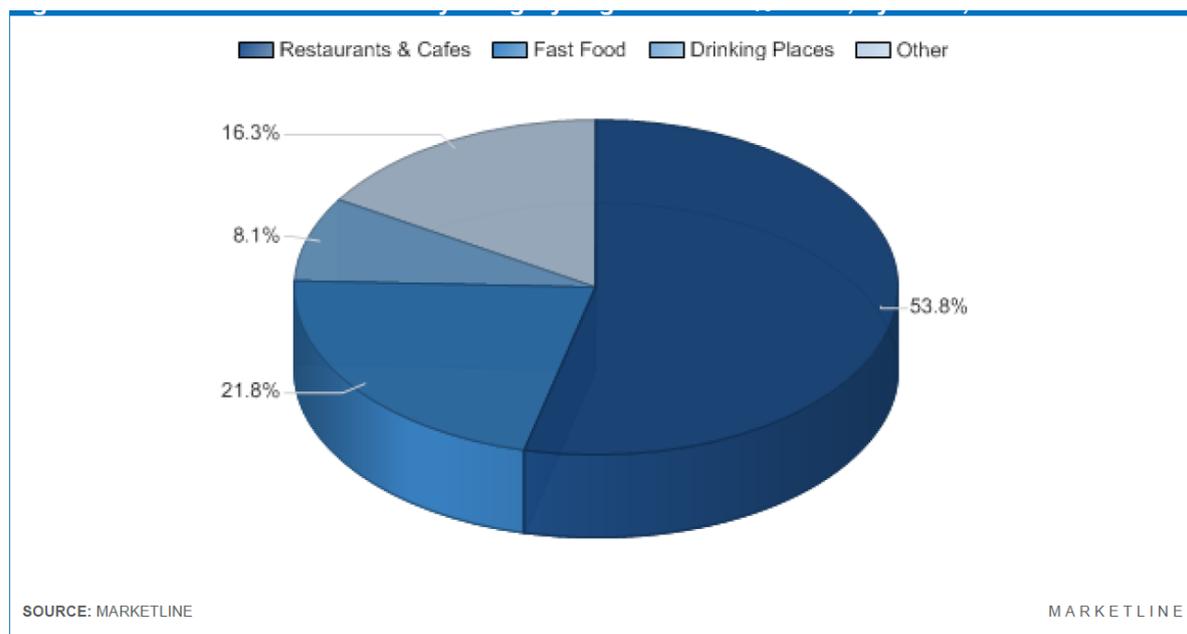


Figure 1.1 Global restaurants sector segmentation: % share, by value, 2013

The Asia-Pacific segment is the largest in the world, accounting for 46.6% of the global restaurant industry value (in sales), with an estimated amount of \$1 202.4 billion. The Americas are the second largest, with a value of \$878.8 billion, and account for 34.1% of the market value. Europe accounts for 17.9% of the market value with an estimated amount of \$462.4 billion. The Middle East and Africa have a

value of \$34.8 billion and account for 1.4% of the total market value. Figure 1.2 illustrates the global restaurant industry's geographical segmentation as a percentage of the total value of the industry (Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2014).

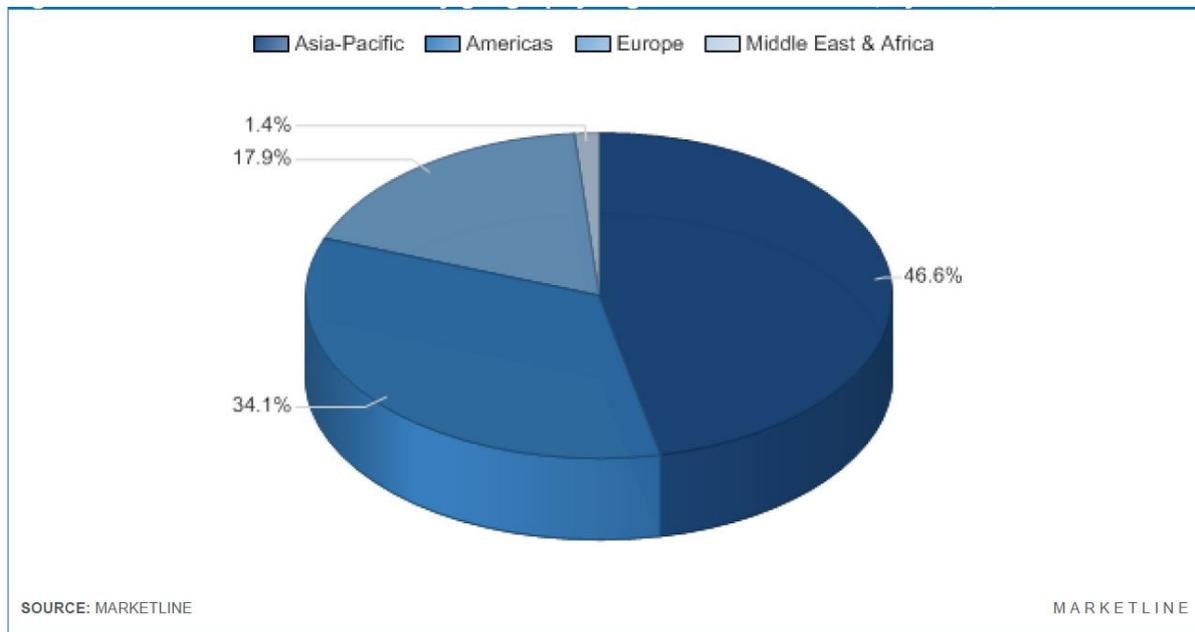


Figure 1.2 Global restaurant industry geographical segmentation: % share, by value, 2013

The large volume of buyers give rise to many restaurant chains, which increases competition between restaurants, since there are many potential restaurants where the public can enjoy a sit-down meal. Restaurant operators can differentiate their offering by brand or special cuisine, added value and tailored services. Brand recognition may become important to attract first-time customers, whereas good service delivery will ensure repeat business through loyal customers. Buyers are generally price sensitive, except in the premium market (Bouranta et al., 2009).

Employees delivering quality service are essential in the restaurant sector and can boost company revenues. Staff costs are significant, as success in the restaurant sector is strongly influenced by the quality of the service provided. Take note of the limited possibilities to create a differentiated offering for clients, which can serve as a competitive advantage in the restaurant industry. For example, management can differentiate their service with regard to aspects such as service delivery, decor,

location and promotions, to name a few. This limited number of opportunities for competitive advantage is the reason why every potential resource, including human capital, should be utilised to its full potential (Restaurants Industry Profile: Global, 2014).

The South African restaurant industry has seen good, steady growth and is expected to continue to grow in the future, although the rate of growth is predicted to decrease. For comparison purposes the South African statistics will be presented in U.S. dollar. The South African restaurant industry had total revenues of \$4.5 billion in the year 2013, representing a compound annual growth rate of 7.2% for the period 2009 to 2013. The forecast is that the South African restaurant industry will decelerate, with an anticipated compound annual growth rate of 6.1% from 2013 to 2018. This will result in the restaurant industry being valued at \$6.1 billion by the end of 2018. The number of employees within the industry has declined by a compound annual rate of 0.1% between 2009 and 2013. The industry had a total of 598 200 employees in 2013. The forecast is that a total of 616 400 employees will be employed in the restaurant industry by 2018. This will represent a compound annual growth rate of 0.6% for the period 2013 to 2018 (Restaurants Industry Profile: South Africa, 2014).

The restaurant and cafes sector in the restaurant industry was the most rewarding, with total revenues of \$1.8 billion. This amount is equivalent to 39.7% of the industry's overall value. The drinking places segment had total revenues of \$1.6 billion in 2013. This amount is equivalent to 39.7% of the restaurant industry's overall value. Figure 1.3 illustrates the segmentation in the South African restaurant sector as a percentage of the total value (Restaurants Industry Profile: South Africa, 2014).

Figure 1.1 contains the global figures for 2013, while Figure 1.3 is the South African figures for 2013. It can be concluded that the South African restaurant and cafes sector represents 39.7% of the total industry, which is slightly less than the global figures, where the restaurants and cafes sector represented 53.8% of the industry at the same time.

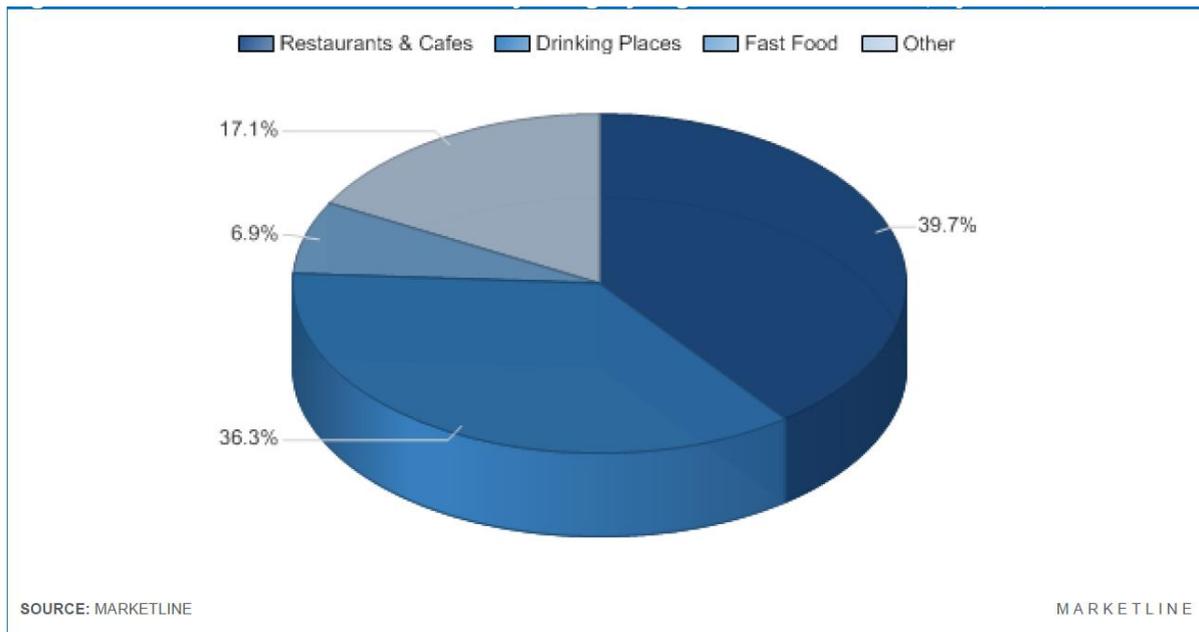


Figure 1.3 South African restaurants sector segmentation: % share, by value, 2013

Surprisingly, South Africa has a much larger percentage belonging to the drinking sector, at 36.3%, while the global sector is only 8.1%. The take-away sector in the South African restaurant industry accounts for only 6.9%, while this sector accounts for 21.8% in the global industry. Since the South African restaurant and cafes sector forms such a large percentage of the market in the South African restaurant industry, it is relevant to take a closer look at this sector and why it is so popular and high in demand.

1.2 Research Problem

Since waitrons have a big responsibility to keep customers happy throughout an entire service delivery, it is very important to have waitrons that are engaged and satisfied with their work. Research has illustrated that engaged employees' produce increased performance, which results in increased financial returns. Burned out employees display symptoms of ill health and their job performance is significantly lower than that of their colleagues experiencing job engagement, and this lower performance will influence financial returns negatively.

Having frontline waitrons who are engaged in their work is a clear advantage for service delivery organisations. Will organisations be enthusiastic to expend time and effort if they knew which factors might result in highly engaged employees, who are

linked to increased job performance and increased revenues? Companies in the service industry should ask themselves the abovementioned question and whether they will be able to observe a relationship between increased time and effort to appoint the best frontline employees and secure high financial returns.

Management would prefer employees displaying high degrees of job engagement and low degrees of job burnout. The presence of highly engaged and low burnt-out employees will result in increased employee performance, which will result in increased financial returns due to quality service delivery and happy customers. Engaged employees will provide the company with increased revenues and burned out employees will reduce revenues. Organisations exist to make as much profit as possible and therefore it makes sense to take an in-depth look at the antecedents of job engagement and job burnout in the hospitality industry in South Africa.

1.3 Research-initiating Question

Quality service delivery is crucial for the hospitality industry. Also, superior service delivery is associated with engaged employees rendering good performance and who displays minimum symptoms of burnout. Research has indicated that job engagement negatively relates to burnout and positively to performance, which ultimately results in increased financial returns. The factors that impact waitron engagement and burnout are thus important to study. The research initiating question is:

What are the prominent antecedents of variance in engagement and burnout for waitrons in the hospitality industry?

1.4 Research Objective

The main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a structural model (based on current literature) that explains the antecedents of variance in job engagement and job burnout among frontline waitrons in the hospitality industry in South Africa.

The research study aimed to:

- Determine the level of job engagement and job burnout among frontline waitrons in the restaurant industry in South Africa;
- Identify the most salient antecedents of variance in engagement and burnout among frontline waitrons in South Africa;
- As a consequence, to propose and test an explanatory burnout and engagement structural model; and
- Recommend practical interventions to increase work engagement and to decrease job burnout for waitrons in the hospitality industry.

1.5 Outline of the study

The study focuses on antecedents of job engagement and job burnout for waitrons. Background information on the restaurant industry was discussed in Chapter 1 with a specific research problem and research initiating question posed. Delimitations of the study are also discussed.

A thorough literature review was conducted and is reported on in Chapter 2. The literature review contains discussions of antecedents and outcomes of job engagement and job burnout, and how these variables might influence one another. Attendant propositions and hypotheses will be formulated.

The methodology used in testing the research hypotheses will be discussed in Chapter 3. A structural model is introduced to provide clarity on the applicable constructs. The research measures, gathering of data, research procedures and statistical analyses are discussed in Chapter 3. Ethical considerations and potential threats to the study are also presented.

The results of the data analyses are discussed in Chapter 4 with the necessary tables and figures.

In Chapter 5 the results, conclusions, practical implications and recommendations for managers are presented. Recommendations for future research will also be presented in Chapter 5.

1.6 Delimitations

The researcher aimed to determine the prominent antecedents of engagement and burnout in the hospitality industry in South Africa based on a literature review. This required research being done on waitrons of franchise x. The JD-R model was used as framework for how job and personal resources, and job demands promote work engagement and discourage job burnout. Hypotheses related to the model were tested. Job crafting in the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014) is not included in this study. No effort was made to improve the psychometric properties of the measures employed by, for example, manipulating the dataset using factor analyses, item deletion or attendant strategies.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Job Demands-Resources Model

The Job Demand-Resources model (JD-R model) is a conceptual framework that can be applied to the service industry. An advantage of the JD-R model is that it can be applied to all occupational settings. This model suggests that employee well-being and effectiveness are influenced by two working conditions, namely job demands and job resources, and one personal aspect, namely personal resources. The JD-R model captures each work environments' unique set of potentially damaging job characteristics as well as protective factors (Balducci, Fraccaroli & Schaufeli, 2011; Hakanen, Perhoniemi & Bakker, 2014; Hu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2013; Menguc, Auh, Fisher & Haddad, 2012).

Job resources are defined as “those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are either/or: functional in achieving work goals; reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker, 2011, p. 266). Job resources work together with personal resources to counter negative emotional labour and help cope with job demands. Job resources are assumed to promote work-related motivation and engagement (Boyd, Bakker, Pignata, Winefield, Gillespie & Stough, 2011).

Job resources are a functional implementation by the company's human resource management to counter extensive job demands. Examples are good supervision, counselling, training programmes, creating a fun culture and job enrichment schemes. Job resources are thus the company's resources that have been put in place to assist employees to cope with job demands and emotional labour challenges (Angelo & Chambel, 2014; Chen & Kao, 2012; Hansez & Chmiel, 2010; Karl, Peluchette & Harland, 2007; Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Thalmayer, Saucier & Eigenhuis, 2011).

Personal resources refer to employees' beliefs in their own ability to successfully control and have an impact on their environment. Bakker (2011) has described personal resources as positive self-evaluations that are linked to resilience and refer

to individuals' sense of their ability to successfully control and have a decisive impact on their environment. Research has illustrated that such positive self-evaluations predict goal setting, performance, motivation, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and other desirable outcomes. The reason for this is that the higher an individual's personal resources, the more positive the person's self-regard and the more goal self-concordance will be experienced by the individual. Individuals high in self-concordance are intrinsically motivated to pursue their goals, and this result in higher engagement, performance and satisfaction (Bakker, 2011).

Ten Brummelhuis, Ter Hoeven, Bakker and Peper (2011) claim there is a reciprocal relationship between stress and resource loss that has been clarified more elaborately as a loss cycle. The loss cycle, in short, means that people who lack access to a large resource pool are more likely to experience further resource loss as job demands accumulate. Management therefore should consider external factors, such as family and/or social support, that their employees have in their personal lives outside work.

Job demands are physical, social and psychological aspects of the job that require physical and psychological efforts and skills (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Job demands are the cause for employees experiencing stress, emotional exhaustion and burnout. Job demands are everyday requirements of the job, which management expects employees to convey and obey at all times.

Job demands are not a concern if employees have the ability to cope with them. Employees utilise personal resources and job resources to counter job demands. Management becomes concerned if employees display negative signs correlating with the strain experienced from job demands. It is important to realise that all jobs in the world have job demands. If there were no job demands, the world of work would have been chaos, since no job structure or pressures to conform to organisational policy would have existed. Therefore, job demands are good, unless employees struggle to cope with the stress they create. It therefore is crucial that managers ensure that employees have personal resources and job resources to successfully deal with job demand stress (Angelo & Chambel, 2014; Chen & Kao, 2012; Hansez

& Chmiel, 2010; Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Van den Tooren & De Jonge, 2010).

The JD-R model highlights the interaction between job demands and strain experienced from one's job, and between job resources and work motivation. These two independent psychological processes are better known as the health impairment process and the motivational process (Balducci, Fraccaroli & Schaufeli, 2011). The health impairment process (effort-driven process) refers to mental and physical exhaustion associated with poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands experienced by employees (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). This results in burnout mediating the interaction effect between job demands and negative health outcomes. Energy depletion, repetitive strain injury, absenteeism and sickness are some examples of the problems facing mentally and physically exhausted individuals (Brauchli, Schaufeli, Jenny, Fullerman & Bauer, 2013; Jackson & Rothmann, 2006; Peterson, Demerouti, Bergstrom, Asberg & Nygren, 2008).

The motivation-driven process refers to job resources having motivational potential. This enhances engagement, decreases cynicism and inspires superior performance (Akkermans, Schaufeli, Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2013; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Hakanen, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2005; Richardson, Lounsbury, Bhaskar, Gibson & Drost, 2009). Organisational commitment, extra-role behaviour, organisation connectedness and client satisfaction are a few positive outcomes related to job resources (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard & Metzger, 2007; Salanova, Agut & Peiro, 2005).

Taking into account the empirical evidence in support of the JD-R model, it is clear that the basic model (Figure 2.1) reflects the work experience of frontline waitrons in the hospitality industry. If employees have sufficient personal and job resources at their disposal it will have major implications for the functioning of organisations. If resources are in place it will not only stop burnout and emotional exhaustion, but enhance job satisfaction and job engagement and reduce burnout symptoms, which may result in increased financial returns. The results of sufficient resources are increased productivity, better service quality and more profit. Job engagement and job satisfaction lead to productivity and service quality, which lead to profitability –

the primary reason organisations exist (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010; Van den Tooren & De Jonge, 2010).

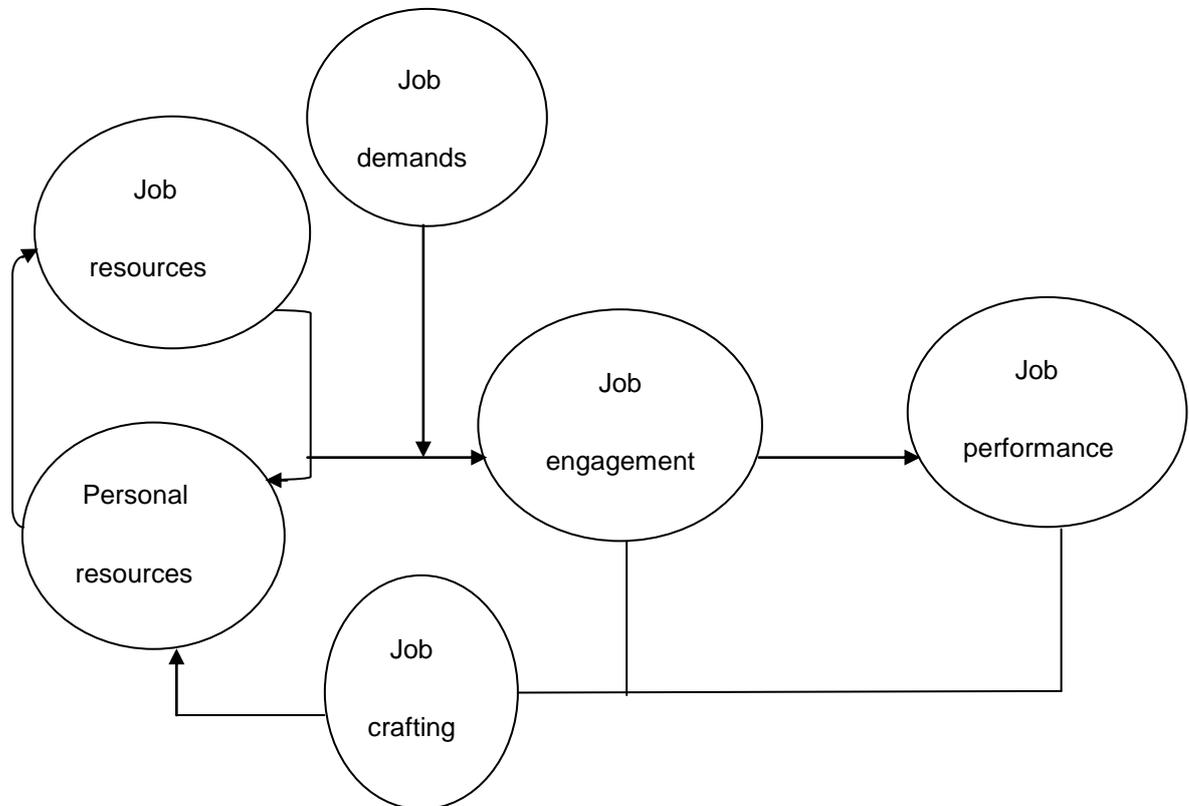


Figure 2.1 Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement

Source: Bakker (2011)

Organisations should be aware that employees are fragile human beings who need support, resources and guidance to overcome the emotional or physical obstacles they experience in the workplace. The competitive work environment brings about psychological, physical and emotional strain in the employees. Emotionally this can lead to burnout, stress and emotional exhaustion. Physical work that causes strain, as a result of handling heavy equipment or pushing one's body to the limit, is an example of physical strain employees have to deal with (Groth, Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2009). In the restaurant industry there is emotional strain to a greater extent than physical strain, however both are present.

The responsibilities of human resource management are to equip employees with the necessary job resources and personal resources. This is crucial, since a lack of

resources can result in devastating negative effects on the company. However, providing sufficient resources from a managerial perspective will result in employees being more resistant to job burnout symptoms and experiencing higher degrees of job engagement, job performance and job satisfaction.

As can be seen from Figure 2.1, job engagement is present as a potential outcome of the interaction between job resources, personal resources and job demands. Job engagement has received a lot of attention in the 21st century. The reason for this is the positive outcomes experienced by companies that have an active, engaged workforce. Job engagement will be discussed at a later stage in this chapter (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011).

Job burnout is not present in Figure 2.1 as a potential outcome from job demands, job resources and personal resources. However, the most up to date research done by Bakker and Demerouti (2014) does acknowledge the importance of job burnout and introduced it to the latest version of the JD-R Model.

A single comment out of line or dubious action may result in a make-or-break moment where a customer can be dissatisfied with the entire service delivery. Since the restaurant industry is such a competitive industry, management cannot afford losing customers due to poor service. Word-of-mouth marketing is a very powerful marketing tool. This entails customers spreading news to friends and family about service experiences. Word-of-mouth marketing can be a restaurant's biggest asset, or its biggest liability. Restaurant managers must make sure their restaurant is utilising word-of-mouth marketing as an asset. Superior service delivery and a positive service experience are necessary for positive word-of-mouth marketing to take place. Restaurant managers can ensure this by having a fully engaged and happy waitron workforce that consistently provides excellent service to customers. This chapter will take an in-depth look at the antecedents of job engagement and job burnout as reported in the literature (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011).

The introductory argument emphasises the importance of a competent workforce. Waitrons have the sole responsibility to entertain, look after and deliver great service to their customers. However, this comes with a potential risky price. High job

demands are always present in the restaurant industry and, if individuals do not have sufficient resources, this can have disastrous effects on them personally, and on the organisation's performance.

It is clear that quality service delivery is crucial in the hospitality industry. It can be concluded that engaged employees will deliver superior service, which ultimately will influence the financial returns positively. Taking an in-depth look at the antecedents of job engagement and job burnout is very appropriate if these variables relate to increased financial returns in the hospitality industry (Saks, 2006; Wollard & Schuck, 2011).

The dependent variables and the relevant antecedents of job engagement and burnout for waitrons, according to the JD-R model, will now be discussed.

2.2 Relevent Latent Variables

2.2.1 Job Engagement

The past decade has witnessed a sharp increase in scientific studies on job engagement. The research has illustrated that engagement is related to bottom-line outcomes such as client satisfaction, job performance and financial returns. Engaged employees enjoy other things outside of work. Unlike workaholics, who work hard from a strong, irresistible inner drive, engaged employees work hard because for them working is fun (Bakker et al., 2011).

Work engagement can be defined as an affective-motivational state characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Bakker, 2011; Bledow, Schmitt, Frese & Kuhnel, 2011; Gan & Gan, 2014; Inoue, Tsutsum, Shimazu, Takahashi, Kurioka & Totsuzaki, 2014; Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Sarti, 2014; Van Doornen, Houtveen, Langelaan, Bakker, Van Rhenen & Schaufeli, 2009; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009). Researchers define job engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker et al., 2011; Lu & Guy, 2014; Prins, Hoekstra-Weebers, Gazendam-Donofrio, Dillingh, Bakker, Huisman & Van der

Heijden, 2010; Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009; Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011; Tuckey, Bakker & Dollard, 2012; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012).

Rich, Lepine and Crawford (2010, p. 618) and Cowardin-Lee and Soyalp (2011, p. 273) claims Kahn formally defined engagement as “the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s ‘preferred self’ in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive and emotional) and active, full performances”. Inceoglu and Warr (2011) define job engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being”. Job engagement can be seen as a motivational concept (Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). Central to the motivational concept is the presence of motivational power in the form of energy. Energy becomes directed as individuals allocate their resources in pursuit of goals they believe are likely to lead to valued and rewarding outcomes (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). Cowardin-Lee and Soyalp (2011) explain that the confusion in defining engagement arises because some studies have defined engagement attitudinally and others have done so behaviourally. This explains the large amount of overlapping, but still unique, definitions of engagement (Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Lu & Guy, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Sarti, 2014).

Another unique, but highly related, definition of job engagement in relation to this study is as follows: “a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work related to well-being that is the opposite of burnout and is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption” (Strauser, O’Sullivan & Wong, 2012, p. 51). Burnout therefore is the opposite of work engagement. It is important to realise that these variables being opposites does not mean an employee must experience either of the symptoms of job engagement or job burnout. Therefore, if an employee is not engaged in his/her work one cannot conclude that the employee is burned out, since this may not be the case. An employee can exist in equilibrium between these two constructs (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011).

As mentioned in the definitions above, job engagement has three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption. Vigour is characterised by being energetic and mentally resilient at work, being willing to invest effort and to persist when

difficulties arise (Lu & Guy, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti & Bakker, 2012). Dedication means being enthusiastic and inspired at work and experiencing significance, pride and challenge (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Absorption can be described as full concentration at work and the experience of being happily engrossed in one's work. When an employee (waitron) experiences all three dimensions of job engagement, one can come to the conclusion that this employee is fully engaged with his or her job. Rich et al. (2010) believe that although employees can be involved in their work roles physically, cognitively or emotionally, engagement is maintaining these involvements simultaneously in a connected rather than fragmented manner. Employees experiencing high degrees of job engagement are a massive asset to organisations. Bledow et al. (2011) maintains that highly engaged employees are characterised by high involvement of the self and by the presence of positive work-related feelings. In engagement, organisation members harness their full services in active, complete work role performances by driving personal energy into physical, cognitive and emotional labours. Engaged individuals are described as being psychologically present and attentive, and feeling connected, integrated and focused in their role performances (Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Lu & Guy, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Rich et al., 2010; Sarti, 2014).

The performance of engaged employees is superior to that of employees who are not engaged in their work. Bakker (2011) claims there are four reasons why engaged individuals perform better than employees who are not experiencing job engagement. Engaged employees often experience positive emotions such as gratitude, enthusiasm and joy. These positive emotions often increase individuals' thought-action repertoire, implying that they work on their personal resources constantly. Engaged employees experience better health. This means they can focus all their skill and energy resources on their work. Engaged employees have the ability to create their own personal and job resources. Engaged employees have the ability to transfer their engagement to employees in their immediate environment (Bakker, 2011).

Engaged employees are not passive, but rather actively involved in changing their work environment if needed. Employees may actively change the content or design of their jobs by choosing tasks, negotiating different job content and assigning

meaning to the jobs or tasks they are doing. The process in which employees shape their jobs has been referred to as job crafting. A consequence of job crafting is employees being able to increase their person-job fit and experiencing enhanced meaning in their work. In the restaurant industry there is space for job crafting, but the opportunities are very rare. The reason for this is that waitrons have a limited scope of responsibilities and therefore the flexibility to be able to utilise job crafting is very restricted.

Antecedents of job engagement are job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, distributive justice, procedural justice, personal variables, personal involvement and hygiene factors, leadership, employee motivation, positive workplace culture, self-esteem, self-efficacy and coping style (Saks, 2006; Wollard & Schuck, 2011).

Engaged employees conserve their own engagement through a process called job crafting (Bakker et al., 2011). Job crafting can take several forms. First, employees may change aspects of their jobs that are task-related, such as the amount of tasks they have or the content of these tasks. Second, employees may change aspects of their jobs that involve the relationships they have at work. Third, employees may change the cognitions they have about aspects of their jobs with the aim to enhance the meaning of their work (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2012).

Research has shown that job resources such as social support from colleagues, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy and learning opportunities are positively related with job engagement (Bakker, 2011; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014). According to Bakker et al (2011, p. 6) “job resources are those physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that may (a) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (b) be functional in achieving work goals; or (c) stimulate personal growth, learning and development.” Job resources may occur as an intrinsic motivator or an extrinsic motivator” (Inoue et al., 2014; Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014).

Job engagement overlaps with constructs such as job satisfaction, job involvement and job commitment. Whereas the attitudinal component of job engagement

overlaps with these constructs, job engagement is distinct, as it also comprises an energetic component and a component that reflects high involvement of the self. Therefore, as job engagement reflects high degrees of motivation, indicators of employee performance have found to be superior when job engagement is high (Bledow et al., 2011; Lu & Guy, 2014). Research also indicates that financial returns in the service sector are higher on days when employees report to experience higher levels of job engagement (Bledow et al., 2011). Job engagement and job performance can also be linked, since high job engagement leads to better job performance through an employee's full commitment physically, cognitively and emotionally (Rich et al., 2010). Job performance can be defined as "the aggregated value to an organisation of the set of behaviours that an employee contributes both directly and indirectly to organisational goals" (Rich et al., 2010, p. 620). Therefore improved job performance creates a more productive work culture, and research has shown that it contributes to higher financial returns. Since engaged employees are actively involved with their job it is argued that they are more active to respond to changes within their work environment. This means engaged employees monitor their competency while remaining flexible to be as valuable as possible to their organisation (Rich et al., 2010; Sarti, 2014).

Job engagement not only differs between people, but also fluctuates within people from day to day (Bakker, 2011). Job engagement is job related and refers specifically to the person's state while at work (Sonnentag et al., 2012). This is why it is very important for managers to have a workforce that is highly engaged in their jobs. Job engagement is sometimes labelled as job well-being. Being engaged in your job can be labelled as experiencing job well-being (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). However, job engagement and job well-being cannot be seen as the same construct, since their level of activation or arousal differs (Lu & Guy, 2014; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012).

As mentioned earlier, job engagement is influenced by individuals' perceptions of their work contexts and their own individual characteristics, as well as the job characteristics (Rich et al., 2010). Rich et al. (2010) have identified three prominent organisational and work factors related to the degree of job engagement experienced by individuals, namely value congruence, perceived organisational support and core self-evaluation.

Value congruence is the “experience of psychological meaningfulness involving a sense of return on investment of the self in role performance” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 621). Individuals experiencing meaningfulness feel valuable, useful and worthwhile. Meaningfulness can be explained as the degree to which the values of the organisation are congruent with the values of the employee. Individuals who see their preferred values in the value system of the organisation have been shown to be more engaged and in touch with the organisation.

Perceived organisational support/psychological safety can be described as “feeling able to invest oneself without fear of negative consequences” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 621). Employees feel safe in organisational contexts that are perceived as secure and trustworthy, and clear in terms of behavioural consequences and predictability. Experiencing psychological safety results in experiencing organisational support. Supportive management and supportive and trusting interpersonal relationship are responsible for the perceived psychological safety experienced by employees. Employees in a supportive organisational environment are able to take risks, may fail at times, but do not fear the consequences. Therefore, supportive management and interpersonal relationships foster feelings of psychological safety and increase the willingness to fully engage in one’s work (Rich et al., 2010).

Psychological availability as a sub-dimension of core self-evaluation can be described as “individual’s readiness to personally engage at a particular moment” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 621). Employees who are psychologically available perceive themselves as being ready to put their physical, cognitive and emotional energies into role performance. This is the reason why psychologically available employees experience higher degrees of job engagement in the workplace. The prominent characteristics of being psychologically available are the individual’s general level of confidence in his or her own abilities and status. Individuals high in core self-evaluation are positive, well adjusted, effective and confident (Rich et al., 2010).

Since value congruence, perceived organisational support and core self-evaluation are linked to job engagement and job performance, it is critical to implement working conditions in which value congruence, perceived organisational support and core self-evaluation can prosper (Rich et al., 2010).

Restaurant managers should aim to have employees experience job engagement on a day-to-day basis. Job engagement does not only result in positive financial returns, but also enhances the well-being of their employees. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that job engagement is related to employees experiencing organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). OCB is defined as the “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Tsai & Wu, 2010, p. 3565). Therefore, the result of having employees that are actively experiencing job engagement is not only beneficial to the organisation, but also to the employees themselves (Rich et al., 2010).

2.2.2 Job Performance

Job performance is defined by Korschun, Bhattacharya and Swain (2014, p. 24) as “the extent to which an employee contributes to organisational effectiveness given the expectations associated with his/her work role”. Job performance is a complex concept encompassing a range of behaviours that are directed internally, towards managers and colleagues, and directed externally, towards customers and suppliers. Fu and Deshpande (2014) claim that job performance is a term to depict how well an individual is performing in his/her work-related duties.

Antecedents of job performance include job stress, employees’ justice perceptions, job engagement, happy employees, work experience, job involvement, corporate ethical values, positive job response, social power, employee feedback, organisational citizenship behaviour and job characteristics (Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Quinones, Ford & Teachout, 1995; Sykes, Venkatesh & Johnson, 2014; Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2014). Positive cognitive states are mostly associated with increased morale, which usually is related to increased performance (Ko, Hur & Smith-Walter, 2013).

Research done by Ko et al. (2013) indicates that work culture does influence performance. Ko et al. (2013) indicate that family-friendly work practices (FFWP) have a positive effect on job performance. FFWPs have been proven to promote organisational attachment by increasing organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. FFWP and organisational culture

interventions can be related to job resources, since this entails the proactive implementation of a strategy to assist employees to reduce their family-work conflict.

Research done by Fu and Deshpande (2014) confirms that organisational culture and climate influences job performance. A caring climate has a direct significant impact on job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job performance. Caring climate also has a significant indirect impact on organisational commitment. These authors also indicate that job satisfaction has a significant direct impact on organisational commitment, through which it also has a significant indirect impact on job performance. They found that organisational commitment has a direct significant impact on job performance (Fu & Deshpande, 2014).

Individuals perform better when they can identify themselves with the company by whom they are employed. Individuals managing to intertwine their sense of self with that of the company will relate more to the company's success and feel as if they have contributed to the success (Korschun, Bhattacharya & Swain, 2014). Intrinsic motivation is defined as the "desire to exert effort on a task in the absence of external constraints or contingencies" (Rich et al., 2010, p. 618). Work contexts and individual differences promote intrinsic motivation, which results in fostering feelings of competence, relatedness and autonomy. It is argued that these feelings will influence performance, because opportunities to satisfy these three intrinsic needs facilitate self-motivation and effective regulatory functioning through internalising valued goals of the organisation (Rich et al., 2010).

Management strives to have a workforce that successfully and consistently achieves high job performance criteria. Job performance can be seen as a positive outcome organisations strive towards, since it is linked to increased financial returns. However, job performance can have a negative impact on an organisation. Researchers have indicated that employees performing very well may leave the company, since they have plenty of potential alternative opportunities with potentially more desirable benefits and culture. However, researchers disagree with one another. The opposing standpoint argues that high performers would not leave a company, as they will be rewarded for their above-average performance and will remain in the positions in which they have gained the knowledge and experience that

resulted in them showing above-average performance. Take note that even with the potentially negative outcomes of high performance (e.g. increased turnover), performance is still a valued outcome treasured by management as one of the most important objectives to achieve (Allan & Griffith, 1999; Dreher, 1982).

2.2.3 Job Crafting

Job crafting has been defined as “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012, p. 365). Job crafting can be viewed as a process in which an employee actively redesigns his/her work. In job crafting, employees independently modify aspects of their jobs to improve the fit between the characteristics of their job and their own abilities, needs and preferences (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli & Hetland, 2012; Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013). Tims et al. (2014) refer to this process as the phenomenon of proactive person-environment fit. The focus is on changing the job characteristics of the job to suit one's own strengths (Tims, Bakker, Derks & Van Rhenen, 2013).

Originally, three types of job crafting were identified, namely cognitive job crafting, task job crafting and relational job crafting. Cognitive job crafting involves changing the way an individual perceives his or her work. Task job crafting involves changing certain content of the work to eliminate certain negative aspects of one's work and increase positive aspects of one's work. Relational job crafting involves changing the quality and amount of interactions with others. This can range from one's manager, colleagues and customers to suppliers. Take note that these job-crafting strategies are utilised to cope with and improve job demands and to increase job resources (Tims, Bakker, Derks & Van Rhenen, 2013).

As mentioned above, job crafting can be linked to job resources and job demands, and therefore to the JD-R model. Job demands refer to physical, social, psychological or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained effort or skills. Job demands therefore are seen as a physiological or psychological cost to employees.

Job resources refer to physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that can reduce job demands and increase functioning to achieve goals and stimulate personal growth. Job resources have the potential to be an individual's support system to counter negative effects from work demands and challenges.

Job crafting is utilised to increase one's job resources and decrease one's job demands. Job crafting is therefore a proactive strategy from an individual's perspective to counter negative effects from work (Petrou et al., 2012). Research done by Tims et al. (2013) identified four job-crafting dimensions, namely structural, social job resources, challenging and hindering job demands. Two of these dimensions, namely structural and social job resources, can be linked to job resources being crafted. Increasing one's autonomy and variety are examples of utilising the structural job-crafting dimension. Increasing one's social support in the work environment and externally and increasing one's feedback from managers is known as utilising the social job resources job-crafting dimension. The remaining two dimensions, namely challenging and hindering job demands, are linked to job demands being crafted. Taking on new projects and experimenting are known as utilising challenging dimension of job crafting. Decreasing one's cognitive demands and psychological demands are examples of utilising the hindering job demands dimension of job crafting (Tims et al., 2013).

Research has indicated that working conditions are closely related to burnout, work engagement and job satisfaction. Based on the research that indicates a positive relationship between a good person-job fit and well-being, it has been proven that well-being is superior when employees utilise job-crafting strategies. The reason for the improved well-being is the ability of employees displaying job-crafting behaviour to change and improve their working conditions. These actions result in employees maximising the person-job fit through job-crafting behaviour (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012).

2.2.4 Job Burnout

Introduced in the mid-1970s, the burnout construct has received growing attention from researchers across the world. Researchers in psychology and psychiatry have developed different models of the burnout phenomena. To date, Maslach's model is

the leading model in the field of burnout research. Burnout can be explained as a negative emotional reaction to one's job that results from prolonged exposure to a stressful work environment. Employees who are exposed to highly stressful working environments may experience job burnout symptoms. Job burnout is characterised by poor employee well-being, a negative attitude, bad health or health impairment, bad behaviour, poor performance, depression, substance abuse and psychological distress (Alarcon, Eschleman & Bowling, 2009; Bakker, Boyd, Dollard, Gillespie, Winefield & Stough, 2010; Deligkaris, Panagopoulou, Montgomery & Masoura, 2014; Taycan, Taycan & Celik, 2014). Job burnout can be the result of job demands that are too high and insufficient personal and job resources being present, or a combination of both, to counter job demands. Job burnout therefore can result from environmental factors as well as individual factors (Bianchi, Truchot, Laurent, Brisson & Schonfeld, 2014; Gan & Gan, 2014; Hudek-Knezevic, Kalebic-Maglica & Krapic, 2011; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone, Perry & Rubino, 2013; Wang, Zheng, Hu & Zheng, 2014).

Examples of environmental antecedents of burnout are stressors at work, such as work overload (increase in job demand), work-home conflict, role-conflict, role-ambiguity, work factors and emotional labour demands. Individual factors that can be seen as antecedents to job burnout are the individual's personal variables and intrinsic motivation. Personality variables are a form of personal variables that, according to research, play a vital role in determining the degree to which an employee experiences job burnout. It is worth mentioning that job burnout can be countered by sufficient personal resources and job resources. Sufficient job resources that will prevent burnout from occurring are a high presence of job security, fairness, trust in managers, good supervision, positive work culture and autonomy (Bakker et al., 2010). Personal resources can entail your personality type, since certain personality types are less susceptible to burnout than others in certain work environments, and factors such as family support and social structures of employees can contribute to an individual's vulnerability to job burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone et al., 2013).

Job burnout is not present in *Figure 2.1*, however, this is a very important variable that needs to be mentioned. Job demands that are not dealt with properly can cause

burnout. A sufficient amount of job resources and personal resources will have the ability to counter extensive job demands, and job engagement is a potential outcome. However, if the job resources and personal resources are not sufficient for dealing with job demands, a potential outcome will be job burnout. Taking this into consideration, job burnout should be discussed, as it potentially is the opposite outcome of job engagement. The latest research done by Bakker and Demerouti does acknowledge the importance of job burnout and introduced it to the latest version of the JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Employees' stress and burnout are generally recognised to have a negative effect on organisational performance and the health of the employee. A 2002 report of the National Institute of Occupational Health (NIOH) states that more than 25% of employees in the United States view their job as the number one stressor in their daily lives. In Europe, a European Commission inquiry in 2002 estimated that 40 million workers in the European Union suffer from work-related stress. These workers cost the European Union \$35 billion in lost productivity (Hollett-Haudebert, Mulki & Fournier, 2011).

Hollett-Haudebert et al. (2011) claim that sales and service workers are more frequently exposed to the burnout phenomenon. Burnout occurs especially when service-delivery employees perceive that the client's demands cannot or will not be met by the organisation. Service delivery jobs can become extremely stressful as these individuals have to accommodate demanding requests from a diverse group of customers. These employees have to balance customer needs with organisational priorities, and these are often in conflict with each other. These difficult situations often arise and result in employees experiencing stress, which ultimately results in burnout (Hollett-Haudebert et al., 2011).

Research has shown that job burnout has three sub-dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion can be defined as "being overextended and drained of one's emotional and physical capacity and is often considered the hallmark of burnout" (Bui, Hodge, Schackelford & Acsell, 2011, p. 462). Emotional exhaustion is characterised by a lack of energy, negative affect and a perception that one's emotional resources have

been depleted (Alarcon et al., 2009). Individuals who have reached this point inevitably feel they are no longer able to give more of themselves on a professional level (Bianchi et al., 2014; Bui et al., 2011; Peltzer, Matseke & Louw, 2014; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone et al., 2013; Wang, Zheng, Hu & Zheng, 2014).

Depersonalisation can be understood as a callous or uncaring response towards people encountered at work and/or as an attempt to cope with work stress by distancing oneself from others (Alarcon et al., 2009). When this occurs, employees are consumed with feelings of apathy and tend to become callous towards their entire work environment (Bianchi et al., 2014; Bui et al., 2011; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

Reduced personal accomplishment represents a decrease in one's perceived professional efficacy. This can be explained as employees believing that they cannot perform their work adequately or that they cannot be successful in meeting their work-related goals (Alarcon et al., 2009). High levels of emotional fatigue and depersonalisation, coupled with low levels of personal achievement, are clear signs of job burnout (Bianchi et al., 2014; Bui et al., 2011; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

Hatinen, Kinnunen, Makikangas, Kalimo, Tolvanen and Pekkonen (2009) say many studies have focused on identifying the primary antecedents and the consequences of job burnout, but considerable less research has been done with regard to identifying effective ways to prevent or reduce burnout. One way to intervene is through employee rehabilitation, which can be defined as a tertiary preventative intervention. The primary objective of this intervention is to improve employee's well-being and work ability and to prevent further impairment of the working population. Unfortunately, evidence is lacking regarding how effectively rehabilitation interventions reduce burnout. Hatinen et al. (2009) claim that a person-oriented approach would be more effective. This type of intervention will provide an individual with personal resources and coping techniques to counter job stressors that might result in burnout symptoms experienced by employees (Hatinen et al., 2009).

It can be concluded that successful human resource managers in the restaurant industry has realised the importance of a compatible workforce. Managers know they must provide conditions and support mechanisms to waitrons to ensure they can counter the effects of job burnout. As mentioned before, the stressful environment in which waitrons perform their duties is a highly susceptible environment for symptoms of job burnout. In the restaurant industry it is difficult, or almost impossible, to adjust the working environment to be less stressful and less demanding on waitrons. It therefore is crucial to provide sufficient job resources to employees behind the scenes to boost their morale and self-confidence. 'Behind-the-scenes job resources' refer to resources being applied to support waitrons when they are not physically in the presence of the clients being served.

2.2.5 Personality Traits as a Personal Resource

Many studies have investigated the relationship between personality type, job burnout and job engagement. Personality can be described in terms of five broad traits that constitute a complete description of an individual's personality, according to the Big Five Personality Model (Morgan & De Bruin, 2010). These five traits are emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Alarcon et al., 2009; Inceoglu & Warr, 2011; Kiffin-Peterson, Jordan & Soutar, 2011; Morgan & De Bruin, 2010; Wang et al., 2014). Emotional stability is the tendency to be free of negative emotions such as frustration, depression, anxiety, hostility and guilt. The opposite of being emotionally stable is referred to as neuroticism. Extraversion can be explained as the extent to which one is cheerful, fun-loving, enthusiastic and gregarious. Conscientiousness is the degree to which one is achievement-oriented, dependable, organised and responsible. Agreeableness can be understood as the degree to which one is cooperative, caring, trusting and sympathetic towards others. Openness to experience can be explained as the extent to which one desires uniqueness, change and variety (Alarcon et al., 2009; Brandstatter & Opp, 2014; Klimstra, Luyckx, Goeseens, Teppers & De Fruyt, 2013; Laher, 2013; Salgado & Tauriz, 2014).

More recent research has used the Big Five Personality Model as a foundation and elaborated on the existing personality model. The most recent personality model is called the HEXACO personality model. The HEXACO personality model consists of

six dimensions, namely Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness versus Anger (A), Conscientiousness (C) and Openness to Experience (O) (Aghababaei, Wassermanb & Nannini, 2014; Ashton & Lee, 2009a; Ashton & Lee, 2009b, Lee & Ashton, 2006; Lee, Ogunfowora & Ashton, 2005; Rolison, Hanoch & Gummerum, 2013).

Honesty-humility can be defined by facets of sincerity, honesty, greed-avoidance, fairness and modesty versus greedy and pretentiousness. A positive score for Honesty-humility has been shown to be an important factor for cooperation and interpersonal relationships. Surprisingly little is known about how well-being is related to Honesty-humility and to the other dimensions of the HEXACO personality model (Aghababaei & Arji, 2014).

Emotionality can be understood as sentimental and oversensitive versus brave and self-assured. Extraversion is the difference between outgoing, sociable individuals and individuals who are shy and quiet. Agreeableness can be seen as patient and tolerant behaviour versus ill-tempered and quarrelsome behaviour. Openness to experience can be understood as intellectual and creative actions versus shallow and unimaginative actions (Aghababaei et al., 2014; Sibley, Harding, Perry, Asbrock & Duckett, 2010).

Three of the HEXACO personality model dimensions correlate closely with the Big Five Personality Model dimensions, namely extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience (Lee & Ashton, 2006). The remaining HEXACO model dimensions have more complex relations with the emotional stability and agreeableness dimensions of the Big Five Personality Model, and incorporate variance the Big Five model does not capture (Aghababaei et al., 2014; Rolison et al., 2013).

The HEXACO dimensions 'agreeableness' (Big Five personality trait) and 'emotionality' (HEXACO personality trait) do not have a one-to-one relation, but rather represent rotated variants of those factors (Lee, Ashton, Morrison, Cordery & Dunlop, 2008). The HEXACO personality model's 'agreeableness' includes traits such as flexibility, gentleness and patience versus hostility, anger and aggression.

The inclusion of content related to anger and hostility at the low poles of HEXACO agreeableness is a deciding factor, since the low poles of the Big Five agreeableness dimension do not include these anger traits (Lee et al., 2008).

Most of the variance in the honesty-humility dimension of the HEXACO model falls outside the scope of the Big Five model, as the honesty-humility dimension only illustrates a moderate association with the Big Five dimension agreeableness (Ashton & Lee, 2009; Sibley et al., 2010). Honesty-humility's common adjectives include sincere and honest behaviour versus greedy and pretentious behaviour. Honesty-humility reflects an orientation towards fairness and sincerity in social relations versus the tendency to manipulate and use people for whatever one can get from them (Sibley et al., 2010).

The HEXACO six-factor model is applicable across different cultures and languages. Researchers sought to find a consistent seventh factor solution, but failed to achieve a sound cross-cultural seventh dimension (Lee et al., 2008). The cross-cultural evidence strongly suggests that a cross-cultural general model of personality structure should be organised around a set of six robust factors using the HEXACO personality model (Lee et al., 2008).

Since personality plays such an influential role in an individual's experience of the world and explains a lot of human behaviour, it is crucial to understand the different personality types. Personality type explains certain behaviour of individuals and makes it easier to understand why certain individuals act differently in similar situations and work environments.

Individuals low in openness to experience tend to value clear, unambiguous moral prescripts and rules describing how the world should operate (Sibley et al., 2010). Individuals high in openness to experience are swayed more by stereotype-disconfirming information about minority group members. Conversely, individuals low in openness to experience are less influenced by stereotype-disconfirming evidence and are more likely to adhere to conventional negative stereotyping towards minority groups. Therefore, individuals low in openness to experience are more likely to

adhere to the existing social order, as it provides a normative referent for existing social values and the way things should be done (Sibley et al., 2010).

Individuals low in agreeableness are more likely to aspire ruthlessly to their personal self-interest pursuits while displaying minimal concerns about whether these pursuits may influence or be in conflict with other individuals' well-being (Sibley et al., 2010). These individuals perceive the world as a competition where money is power and winning is everything. Individuals low in agreeableness therefore tends to value power, show symptoms of prejudice and is sensitive to situations that may cause competition. Individuals high in agreeableness, in contrast, tend to be more tender-minded towards others, be less likely to perceive competition as a field to achieve victory at all costs, and generally are less ruthless in competitive situations when attempting to achieve self-interest goals (Sibley et al., 2010).

Emotional stability is the tendency to be free of negative emotions such as anxiety, depression, hostility, frustration and guilt. Emotional stability in practice is waitrons who are friendly, confident in their personality type and their actions, and have the tendency to view the world from a positive point of view (Alarcon et al., 2009). Employees low in emotional stability is insecure, unsure and has a low self-esteem. This is not the ideal state for waitrons, since waitrons need to project a self-assured and self-confident image towards clients to ensure good and quality service delivery (Alarcon et al., 2009).

Extraversion is the degree to which an individual draws satisfaction from being around people. Individuals high in extraversion flourish when they are in contact with people (Alarcon et al., 2009). Extraversion is a personality type highly regarded in the restaurant industry, since waitrons who reflect extravert personality traits are naturally more comfortable working with people. Individuals with low degrees of extraversion are better known as introverts. Research has indicated that introverts are not the ideal candidates for the restaurant industry, since this industry is characterised by employees communicating with and being around people most of the time.

Individuals high in conscientiousness are generally viewed by others as being dependable, responsible and trustworthy (Alarcon et al., 2009). On the other hand, employees low in conscientiousness is disorganised, unreliable and less trustworthy. Employees high in conscientiousness have the ability to actively manipulate stressors to which they are exposed to experience them as less dramatic. Employees low in conscientiousness, on the other hand, may engage in little behaviour that actively addresses such stressors (Alarcon et al., 2009). Individuals high in conscientiousness elicit more positive responses from their supervisors than individuals low in conscientiousness (Alarcon et al., 2009).

Individuals high in honesty-humility tend to prefer socially cohesive groups with strong norms regulating behaviour within the group, because in such conditions, a high level of this trait should be most adaptive for the individual. Sibley et al. (2010) found that individuals tended to cluster with others similar to themselves in honesty-humility as well as openness to experience. Individuals low in honesty-humility might reap additional rewards from exploiting others in situations where competition is perceived as high or where there is a scarcity of resources.

Personality traits will help managers make sense of individuals' behaviour and performance. If employees have the personality attributes to help them cope with the work environment, it is not only a benefit to the individual, but to organisation as well. Individuals will be able to manage their emotional labour if they have the right set of personality traits in relationship to job challenges. Organisations will be pleased with such an outcome, since individuals that have the ability to handle emotional labour effectively using personal resources have a smaller chance of experiencing job burnout and stress. Managers have the responsibility to make a proper person-environment (P-E) fit, which will benefit the organisation in the long run (Angelo & Chambel, 2014; Hansez & Chmiel, 2010).

2.2.6 Emotional labour as an Emotional Demand

Emotional labour can be defined as the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display (Li, Gao, Shen & Liu, 2014; Othman, Abdullah & Ahmad, 2008; Sohn & Lee, 2012). Groth et al. (2009, p. 960) define emotional labour as the "process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organisational

goals". From the definition it is clear that emotional labour includes the employees' total bodily display. It is interesting to note that the definition highlights the fact that the employees' entire bodily display must be in line with their facial message observed by the client. If customers notice a difference between facial expression and bodily display they will accept the behaviour as being insincere or fake (Groth et al., 2009). Individuals with certain personality traits find it effortless to display the required bodily and emotional image, while individuals with other personality traits find it very challenging. Waitrons face another dilemma when they over-emphasise their surface acting, such as being overly friendly or too kind, which will result in customers perceiving their behaviour as insincere. Service providers such as restaurants should promote customers' positive emotions, such as customer satisfaction, using expressions that make customers feel good rather than being concerned with their own feelings (Sohn & Lee, 2012). Such emotional management is a characteristic of a professional workforce. The perceived and actual value and quality of service is increased through emotional labour (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008; Brunetto, Shacklock, Teo & Farr-Whartond, 2014; Li, Gao, Shen & Liu, 2014; Sohn & Lee, 2012; Wrobel, 2013).

Emotional labour focuses primarily on two dimensions, namely surface acting and deep acting (Othman et al., 2008). Surface acting is faking or amplifying emotions not actually felt. Deep acting is the attempt to modify felt emotions so that genuine emotional display follows (Groth et al., 2009; Othman et al., 2008; Sohn & Lee, 2012). Emotional dissonance can be explained as a subjective emotional state that represents a mismatch between genuine emotional expression and organisational requirements of emotional display (Cheung & Tang, 2012). Emotional dissonance theory makes its strongest predictions when important elements of the self-concept are threatened (Pugh, Groth & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). This discrepancy arises when the emotions being displayed at work are not the genuinely felt emotions of an employee. Emotional dissonance therefore involves three different aspects, namely emotions required by display rules, expressed emotions and felt emotions (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Li, Gao, Shen & Liu, 2014; Wrobel, 2013).

Researchers use different combinations of these three aspects to conceptualise and measure emotional dissonance (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Some view emotional

dissonance as the discrepancy between required and felt emotions, which has also been referred to as 'emotion-rule dissonance', while others conceptualise it as the discrepancy between expressed and felt emotions (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Emotional consonance, on the other hand, is where an individual effortlessly feels and displays the emotion that is required of them in a certain situation (Naring, Briet & Brouwers, 2006). It therefore can be concluded that surface acting will result in higher levels of emotional dissonance than deep acting, since employees do not express emotions they are really feeling (Karimi, Leggat, Donohue, Farrell & Couper, 2014; Li, Gao, Shen & Liu, 2014).

Emotional dissonance experienced in surface acting is most likely to produce alienation, dissatisfaction, tension and stress when the dissonance threatens the self-concept in some way (Pugh et al., 2011). Even though different points of view exist regarding the conceptualisation of emotional dissonance, the majority of research assesses emotional dissonance as emotion-rule dissonance (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). This is in line with previous and current theoretical models of emotional labour, which define surface acting as an antecedent of emotional dissonance. Emotion-rule dissonance is a form of person-role conflict commencing from incongruence between emotions that are actually felt and emotions that are required by display rules and result in an unpleasant state of tension (Hulsheger, Lang & Maier, 2010; Karimi et al., 2014).

Deep acting will result in less burned-out employees, since the emotional dissonance experienced will be less than with surface acting. This can be explained by employees who display emotions that are aligned with the inner emotions they actually feel. Additional dimensions of emotional labour have been identified besides surface acting and deep acting. These dimensions are frequency of emotional display, intensity of displayed emotions and variety of displayed emotions (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008). While surface acting and deep acting have been seen as the primary dimensions of emotional labour, frequency, intensity and variety have been seen as secondary dimensions, described as "emotion-related role requirements" (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008, p. 1109). Frequency, intensity and variety as dimensions of emotional labour have been inconsistent and more recent than the identification of surface acting and deep acting. Therefore the three

secondary dimensions of emotional labour bear weaker and less consistent relationships with correlates and outcomes of emotional labour (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008).

The latest research done by Biron and Van Veldhoven (2012) has found a third strategy to deal with emotional labour. The third strategy is known as psychological flexibility, which involves the acceptance of emotions, even negative ones, while maintaining focus on goal-oriented behaviours. An individual who is psychologically flexible will accept his/her emotions that may arise from a situation. The individual is aware of his/her frustration, regarding it as essentially an automatic, idiosyncratic reaction to the circumstances. The benefit of psychological flexibility is that the individual does not need to divert his/her attention to suppressing or transforming his/her emotions, but rather focuses all his/her energy on the concrete issue to be dealt with (Biron & Van Veldhoven, 2012).

Employees high in psychological flexibility may engage in acceptance and commitment and therefore accept the present moment without needing to regulate the associated thoughts and emotions and adapting their behaviour to the situation as needed for the pursuit of goals. Acceptance refers to a willingness to experience thoughts and emotions, including negative ones like anger or frustration, without letting them determine one's actual actions. Commitment refers to adapting your behaviour as needed to meet goals, irrespective of negative thoughts and emotions. Acceptance and commitment are inherently tied together as the two main approaches characterising the cognitive-behavioural pattern known as psychological flexibility (Biron & Van Veldhoven, 2012).

Othman et al. (2008) maintain that there are at least three types of "labour" to be offered to the organisation in exchange for reward. First is "mental labour", which refers to the cognitive skills and knowledge as well as the expertise of the organisational workforce. Second is "physical labour", which refers to the physical efforts of employees to achieve organisational goals. Third is "emotional labour", which refers to the extent to which an employee is required to present an appropriate emotion in order to perform the job in an effective and efficient manner (Othman et al., 2008). High negative degrees of these three types of labour, without sufficient

resources, can result in high degrees of job burnout. In the restaurant industry, waitrons will utilise a combination of these three factors, namely mental labour, physical labour and emotional labour. However, the predominant factor and the most important factor regarding service quality will be emotional labour.

Traditionally, research has made the assumption that emotional labour is negatively associated with mental health outcomes (Pugh et al., 2011). However, this is not always the case. Emotional labour has two primary dimensions, namely surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting is related to high degrees of negative mental health outcomes, such as poor health and emotionally exhausted employees (Pugh et al., 2011). This can be justified, since surface acting leads to emotional dissonance, which also is an antecedent of negative mental health outcomes. Deep acting, on the other hand, does not result in cognitive dissonance or negative mental health outcomes. Therefore, which dimension of emotional labour an individual utilises will determine the outcomes experienced by individuals. It is important to realise that emotional labour is not automatically linked to negative mental health outcomes and therefore can be linked to positive outcomes, depending on the dimensions of emotional labour used by individuals (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Pugh et al., 2011; Wröbel, 2013).

The person-role conflict inherent in emotional-rule dissonance impairs employees' well-being by putting them in a double-bind situation. Employees can either overrule their own values and character and adhere to organisational display rules, thereby threatening their sense of authenticity, or they can hold on to their personal aspirations, disregarding their professional duties and run the risk of dissatisfying customers and supervisors (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Emotion-rule dissonance induces stress and threatens employees' resources. Role conflict provokes negative emotions and the adoption of passive coping styles. Research has illustrated a consistent negative relationship between role conflict and personal and job-related well-being. Following this argument one can conclude that emotion-rule dissonance can be conceived as a hindrance stressor displaying a positive relationship with personal ill-being and a negative relationship with job-related well-being. Hulsheger and Schewe (2011) argue that emotional-rule dissonance impairs motivation and thereby performance. When facing hindrance stressors, individuals believe that they

do not have the necessary resources and coping mechanisms to meet the demands, no matter how much effort they invest (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011).

Emotional regulation can be defined as the “process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Groth et al., 2009). Emotional regulation therefore plays a crucial role in surface and deep acting, since it potentially enables an employee to shift his/her attitude and move from expressing surface acting to deep acting or vice versa. Emotional regulation introduces the potential of waitrons to be able to shift their emotions on a continuum from positive to negative, or vice versa, towards customers, fellow employees, the organisation and their supervisors. The ideal circumstances for an organisation would be for their employees to have the ability to adjust their actual emotions felt and transform these emotions to be aligned with prescribed organisational bodily display. Take note that emotional regulation can be taught to employees by providing them with developmental and training courses. Emotional regulation can be very challenging and will be more natural for certain personality types than others (Li, Gao, Shen & Liu, 2014; Wrobel, 2013).

Emotional labour can be managed effectively, although it is impossible to have a waitron workforce that does not experience any form of emotional dissonance. Managers must accept that emotional labour will always be present in the restaurant industry work environment. Waitrons work on a daily basis with difficult and even unreasonable customers, but it is expected of them to continue displaying company-approved emotions. The strict adherence and importance to conform to company policy for clients to experience good service can be very stressful on a waitron. Managers realise that waitrons will be happy and enjoy their work if management deals with emotional labour effectively. Managers must ensure personal resources are dealt with correctly. This entails selecting and recruiting employees with sought-after personality characteristics that fit the job. Management must make sure it provides the employees with the necessary job resources, such as supportive supervision, autonomy and learning opportunities to counter the negative outcomes of hindrance job demands (Bakker, 2011).

However, if emotional labour is not correctly managed it can have disastrous effects on the company. The experience of high levels of negative emotional labour without adequate personal or job resources will have a negative effect on an employees' well-being. Consequences of negative emotional labour without sufficient resources are poor job engagement, poor job satisfaction, job burnout, poor performance, mental and physical illness (Bakker, 2011).

The relationship between the latent variables will now be discussed.

2.3 Latent Variable Relationships

2.3.1 Job Burnout and Job Engagement

According to Makikangas, Feldt, Kinnunen and Tolvanen (2012), job burnout and work engagement are seen as opposite indicators of occupational well-being (Gan & Gan, 2014; Narainsamy & Van der Westhuizen, 2013; Vassos, Nankervis, Skerry & Lante, 2013). According to this view it is very unlikely that burned-out employees would show high degrees of job engagement or that highly engaged employees would suffer from serious job burnout. Different views exist on whether burnout and work engagement represent independent or related constructs (Makikangas et al., 2012). For example, Maslach and Leiter (1997) found that work engagement is the polar opposite of job burnout. Work engagement therefore is characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy, which represents the opposite of burnout dimensions, which are exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy respectively (Gan & Gan, 2014).

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (2002) claim that the absence of burnout symptoms cannot be regarded as a sign of high degrees of job engagement, but rather that job engagement is a distinct construct independent from job burnout. The research conducted so far fails to display consistent support for whether job burnout and job engagement are opposite indicators of occupational well-being (Makikangas et al., 2012; Narainsamy & Van der Westhuizen, 2013). An employee not experiencing job engagement does not necessarily experience job burnout symptoms. Employees can experience a state in which they are in equilibrium between job engagement and job burnout. In the current study it will be assumed

that job engagement is the polar opposite of job burnout. The hypothesis representing the relationship between job burnout and job engagement would therefore support the stance of Makikangas et al. (2012).

Hypothesis 1: Job burnout (η_2) has a significant negative effect on work engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

2.3.2 Personality and Job Burnout

One area of job burnout research that has gained much interest in recent years is that of the association between various personality traits and predispositions to experience job burnout (Bui et al., 2011). Research has illustrated that personality variables may have an impact on the degree to which employees experience job burnout. Research has proven that certain personality types are more susceptible to job burnout than others. Job burnout is an important variable not only because it is an indicator of poor employee well-being, but also because it is related to employee attitudes, health and behaviour (Alarcon et al., 2009). Although most burnout research has focused on environmental factors causing job burnout, it is likely that individual difference factors also play an important role in the development of job burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009).

Research has shown that certain personality types are more susceptible to job burnout than others. It has been argued that person-job fit would decrease the probability of employees experiencing job burnout. Person-job fit can be understood as the attempt to appoint employees with personality traits that are more resistant to job burnout in that specific job. Therefore, a good person-job fit should result in less need for an employee to surface act or deep act, as they are more likely to spontaneously experience the required emotions (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011).

Research done by Alarcon et al. (2009) has proven that extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness are negatively correlated with job burnout. Openness to change has little or no relationship with job burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009). Extraversion is the degree to which one is cheerful, gregarious, fun-loving and enthusiastic and is expected to yield a negative relationship with job burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009). Individuals high in extraversion

may generally perceive the work environment more positively than do individuals who are low in extraversion. However, high degrees of emotional stability are the general tendency to be free of negative emotions, such as anxiety, depression, hostility, frustration and guilt. The tendency to be free of negative emotions ensures that the employee steers clear of symptoms of job burnout (Armon, Shirom & Melamed, 2012; Hurt, Grist, Malesky & McCord, 2013).

Take note that research done on the phenomena burnout and personality does not correlate between researchers. Taycan et al. (2014) mention that personality traits such as extraversion, neuroticism or alexithymia may increase the sense of stress and contribute to the development of burnout. However, Fontana and Abouserie (1993) found that stress levels were positively correlated with neuroticism, but negatively correlated with extraversion. They found that extraversion and neuroticism were the best predictors of stress levels (Hurt et al., 2013; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 2001; Taycan et al., 2014).

Agreeableness is the extent to which one is cooperative, caring, trusting and sympathetic towards others and, because of its qualities, has been proven to be negatively related to job burnout (Alarcon et al., 2009). The reason for this is the ability of agreeable employees to evoke favourable responses from their social environments. An example is employees who have agreeable personalities may be treated kindly by fellow employees because of their own kind behaviour (Alarcon et al., 2009). The proactive nature of conscientious employees ensures the negative relationship between high degrees of the conscientious personality dimension and low degrees of job burnout. The ability of employees to manipulate their work environment decreases their susceptibility to experience job burnout symptoms (Armon et al., 2012; Hurt et al., 2013).

Piedmont (1993) has indicated that Openness to Experience has a little or no relationship with job burnout. The relationship, even though small, was found to be positive with job burnout.

No study undertaken has measured the relationship between honesty/humility and job burnout. Due to a lack of evidence the researcher hypothesises that there will be

a positive relationship between honesty/humility and job burnout. The research discussed in this section has illustrated that certain personality types will influence the degree of job burnout waitrons will experience. Therefore, personality dimensions and their relationship with job burnout can be hypothesised as follows:

Hypothesis 2: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 3: Extraversion (ξ_2) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 4: Agreeableness (ξ_3) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness (ξ_4) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 6: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 7: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

2.3.3 Personality and Job Engagement

According to Inceoglu and Warr (2011) it is widely agreed that job engagement arises from both personal and environmental factors. However, theoretical discussions and empirical investigation have emphasised the occurrence of job engagement as the primary response to job characteristics (Inceoglu & Warr, 2011). Key job features such as autonomy, demands and good relations with other people have been found to contribute to engaged employees. It is important not to exclude the role individual differences play in determining job engagement. More engaged and less engaged employees are likely to differ in certain personality traits, as well as in the nature of their jobs. Inceoglu and Warr (2011) predict that only three of the Big Five Personality Model dimensions will be associated with job engagement,

namely emotional stability, extraversion and conscientiousness (Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014).

Research illustrates that only two of the Big Five Personality Model dimensions uniquely predict job engagement, namely emotional stability and conscientiousness (Inceoglu & Warr, 2011). Employees displaying emotional stability personality traits will find it easier to remain positive and objective on the job. Waitrons can easily get carried away by one bad experience with a customer and this will then influence the quality of service delivered to the remaining customers. Emotionally stable employees find it easier and more natural to put bad experiences in the past and focus on their current performance and to stay positive (O'Neill, Hambley & Chatellier, 2014; Reinke & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014; Woods & Sofat, 2013).

However, Li, Gao, Shen and Liu (2014) found that high degrees of extraversion and high degrees of emotional stability were often found to be correlated with job engagement symptoms. These findings indicate that personality does influence job engagement (O'Neill et al., 2014; Reinke & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014; Woods & Sofat, 2013).

Employees experiencing neuroticism (low degrees of emotional stability) will easily lose their temper with problem customers, lose self-confidence after a bad experience with a customer and will experience a lot of strain having to work in a pressurised work environment. Research has consistently illustrated that employees expressing high degrees of emotional stability have a greater chance of experiencing job engagement than employees low in emotional stability (O'Neill et al., 2014; Reinke & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014; Woods & Sofat, 2013).

Kim, Shin and Swanger (2009) found that agreeableness have a positive relationship with certain sub-dimensions of job engagement. They found that openness to experience has little or no relationship, but tend to be slightly negative. No study undertaken has measured honesty-humility relationship with job engagement. Due to a lack of evidence the researcher hypothesised that there will be a negative relationship between honesty/humility and job engagement.

The following hypotheses are introduced to determine which personality dimensions are responsible for experiencing job engagement:

Hypothesis 8: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 9: Extraversion (ξ_3) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 10: Agreeableness (ξ_4) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 11: Conscientiousness (ξ_2) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 12: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 13: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

2.3.4 Emotional Labour and Job Burnout

Bui et al. (2011) found that job demand variables such as stress levels, call duties, hours worked and workload all had a significant positive relationship with job burnout. The conclusion can be drawn that emotional labour will affect job burnout, since emotional labour can be seen as a job demand construct. A growing body of evidence has proven that emotional labour can be stressful and cause burnout symptoms, especially when employees express certain emotions contrary to their genuine emotions, known as surface acting (Diestel & Schmidt, 2011; Rogers, Creed & Searle, 2014).

Naring et al. (2006) found that emotional labour is especially ruthless on employees in the service industry (Pugh et al., 2011). The explanation for this phenomenon is the consistent positive emotions and bodily display expected from the employees

towards clients. It was also found that surface acting, a dimension of emotional labour, was positively related with job withdrawal, which can be linked to job burnout (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Take note that surface acting generally leads to emotional dissonance, since the emotions displayed are not the same as the real emotions felt by the waitron. Diestel and Schmidt (2011) show that emotional dissonance has repeatedly been found to have the strongest effect on job burnout symptoms. They also found that the person-environment fit is crucial for determining the degree of emotional labour experienced. The person-job fit is based on employing an individual who has the ideal personality traits for the job. This ensures that employees experience less emotional dissonance, since their personality traits are more aligned with the demands of the job (Diestel & Schmidt, 2011; Rogers et al., 2014).

Job burnout is caused by repeated and continuous stress. Surface acting, which is a dimension of emotional labour, causes individuals to experience high degrees of stress. Therefore the link can be drawn between emotional labour and job burnout. Since high degrees of emotional labour cause stress, it is the continuous and repeated stress experienced by emotional labour that causes job burnout. Emotional labour therefore is partially responsible for the amount of job burnout experienced by employees. Limiting the degree of surface acting required from waitrons in the restaurant industry will partially assist in reducing the amount of job burnout experienced by individuals, which will lead to better well-being and less ill-health among employees (Akin, Aydın & Erdogan, 2014; Rogers et al., 2014).

Research has provided several reasons why surface acting is expected to be positively associated with emotional exhaustion and dissatisfaction. Firstly, self-concept perspectives on emotional dissonance emphasise that employees who engage in surface acting experience a lack of control over their emotions and experience in authenticity (Pugh et al., 2011). The lack of control over emotions is caused by the inability to experience one's true feelings. Secondly, work on the resource-depleting effects of emotional regulation suggests that suppressing emotions, as done in surface acting, depletes cognitive resources and thus can have detrimental effects on well-being (Pugh et al., 2011). Finally, emotional dissonance is conceptualised as a negative affective state. Consistent with this, Pugh et al. (2011) found that surface acting was associated with negative mood. They also found that

negative mood partially explains the association between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, which is a sub-dimension of job burnout (Akin et al., 2014; Rogers et al., 2014).

Deep acting, a sub-dimension of emotional labour, has a negative relationship with job withdrawal, which can be linked to job burnout, although it was not a significant relationship (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Deep acting was partially negatively related to job burnout affecting lack of personal accomplishment (Cheung, Tang & Tang, 2011). Bartram, Djurkovic, Leggat, and Stanton (2012) and Pugliesi (1999) claim that emotional labour is positively associated with both burnout and intention to leave. Deep acting has been proven to have a positive effect on job performance (Hulsheger et al., 2010). It is worthwhile to note that, when emotional labour is not present, a form of emotional consonance is experienced. Emotional consonance has been proven to be positively related to personal accomplishment. Emotional consonance is a term that describes inner feelings being in equilibrium with the outer emotional display. From the above we can conclude that surface acting is positively related to job burnout. On the other hand, research has illustrated that deep acting is negatively related to job burnout. According to previous research, restaurant management therefore should aspire to employ waitrons who make use of deep acting rather than surface acting. This will ensure that waitrons will make use of genuinely felt emotions rather than faking emotions to adhere to the bodily display rules from restaurant management (Rogers et al., 2014).

Take note that emotional labour has two sub-dimensions, namely deep acting and surface acting. Emotional labour is usually regarded as a negative construct, since it is associated with negative outcomes such as job burnout and ill-health. However, deep acting has been illustrated to have positive outcomes, such as job engagement and job satisfaction. Therefore, the construct of emotional labour in itself cannot be seen as a negative construct, since it has positive and negative outcome sub-dimensions (Rogers et al., 2014).

The following hypotheses are introduced:

Hypothesis 14: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

Hypothesis 15: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

2.3.5 Emotional Labour and Job Engagement

The performance of emotional labour appears to have diverse consequences for workers – both negative and positive (Pugliesi, 1999). Although early studies of the consequences of emotional labour emphasised its harmful effects on workers, studies of workers in a variety of occupations suggest that the consequences of emotional labour are not uniformly negative. Ethnographic studies of emotional labour in particular occupations reveal complexity in workers' experiences of emotional labour, related to the context and meaning in relation to the self (Pugliesi, 1999). Research found that emotional labour may have positive consequences when it is experienced as self-enhancing, or when employees are in control of their emotional management (Pugliesi, 1999). Emotional management is accomplished in the context of prevailing "feeling rules", which prescribe emotional states, and "display rules", which guide the expression of emotion (Pugliesi, 1999). Strategies of emotional management can be cognitive (reinterpreting an event or situation), behavioural (controlling emotional displays) or physical (reducing arousal through the use of psychoactive substances) in character (Pugliesi, 1999). Some research has illustrated that there is a positive relationship between emotional labour and empowerment, which can lead to job engagement. However, the majority of research shows that emotional labour has mostly negative outcomes. It is important to analyse the two primary dimensions of emotional labour, namely surface acting and deep acting.

Research has shown that the majority of outcomes of surface acting lead to negative outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction, poor health, disengaged employees, burned-out employees and poorly committed employees (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Hulsheger et al., 2010; Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011; Pugliesi, 1999). Deep acting may have positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction, good well-being, job engagement and job commitment, and may even result in organisational citizenship

behaviour (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Hulsheger et al., 2010; Pugh, Groth, Groth & Hennig-Thurau, 2011; Pugliesi, 1999). Restaurant management has realised the importance of emotional labour and the abilities of employees to cope with emotional labour. Research indicates that surface acting will result in employees who are not experiencing job engagement. Deep acting, however, can be associated with job engagement (Lu & Guy, 2014).

According to the research mentioned above, the following hypotheses have been introduced:

Hypothesis 16: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

Hypothesis 17: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

2.3.6 Personality Type and Emotional Labour

Judge, Woolf and Hurst (2009) maintain that personality differences play an important role in understanding the impact of emotional labour on employees. Management must consider the importance of the implications when selecting employees who interact with customers on a regular basis. Research done by Kiffin-Peterson et al. (2011) has illustrated that only one dimension of the Big Five Personality Model, namely emotional stability, has a negative relationship with surface acting. Agreeableness and extraversion are positively related to deep acting (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011).

People who are high in Conscientiousness tend to be careful, dependable, organised and hard-working and this may result in these individuals performing better. Studies of conscientious employees vary, but illustrates that these employees prefer surface acting to deep acting (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011). Basim, Begenirbas and Yalcin (2013) found that openness to experience has a positive relationship with deep acting. No study undertaken has measured honesty-humility relationship with emotional labour. Due to a lack of evidence the researcher hypothesised that there will be a positive relationship between honesty-humility and surface acting.

Research done by Basim et al. (2013) found that extroverts can easily adopt the utilisation of both surface acting and deep acting, which are sub-dimensions of emotional labour. Individuals with low scores on emotional stability commonly utilise surface acting. Individuals with high scores of emotional stability commonly utilise deep acting.

Therefore, according to research done on these constructs, we can conclude that personality types have an influence on the type of emotional labour employees' express. Introverted, disagreeable, emotionally unstable employees and employees displaying low degrees of conscientiousness are less able to experience positive emotions during service encounters and therefore have more need to surface act (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011). Their increased surface acting may be associated with high degrees of emotional labour, which results in increased emotional exhaustion.

According to research already done, the following hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 18: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 19: Extraversion (ξ_2) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 20: Agreeableness (ξ_3) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 21: Conscientiousness (ξ_4) has a significant positive effect on surface acting (η_3) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 22: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 23: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant positive effect on surface acting (η_3) among waitrons.

2.3.7 Moderator Variables

There potentially are moderator variables present in the current study. Personality type may influence whether an individual experiences job burnout or job engagement. The sub-dimensions of emotional labour, namely deep acting and surface acting, might influence the relationship between personality type and job burnout or/and job engagement. Research has illustrated that emotional labour, i.e., utilising deep acting or surface acting, can be observed as a moderator variable between personality type and job engagement and/or job burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Hypothesis 24: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between emotional stability (ξ_1) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 25: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between extraversion (ξ_2) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 26: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between agreeableness (ξ_3) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 27: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between conscientiousness (ξ_4) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 28: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between openness to experience (ξ_5) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 29: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between honesty/humility (ξ_6) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 30: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between emotional stability (ξ_1) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 31: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between extraversion (ξ_2) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 32: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between agreeableness (ξ_3) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 33: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between conscientiousness (ξ_4) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 34: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between openness to experience (ξ_5) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

Hypothesis 35: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between honesty/humility (ξ_6) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

2.4 Conceptual Model

The conceptual model, illustrated in Figure 2.2, represents the latent variables applicable to the current study and the relationships between them. The conceptual model illustrates hypotheses 1 - 23.

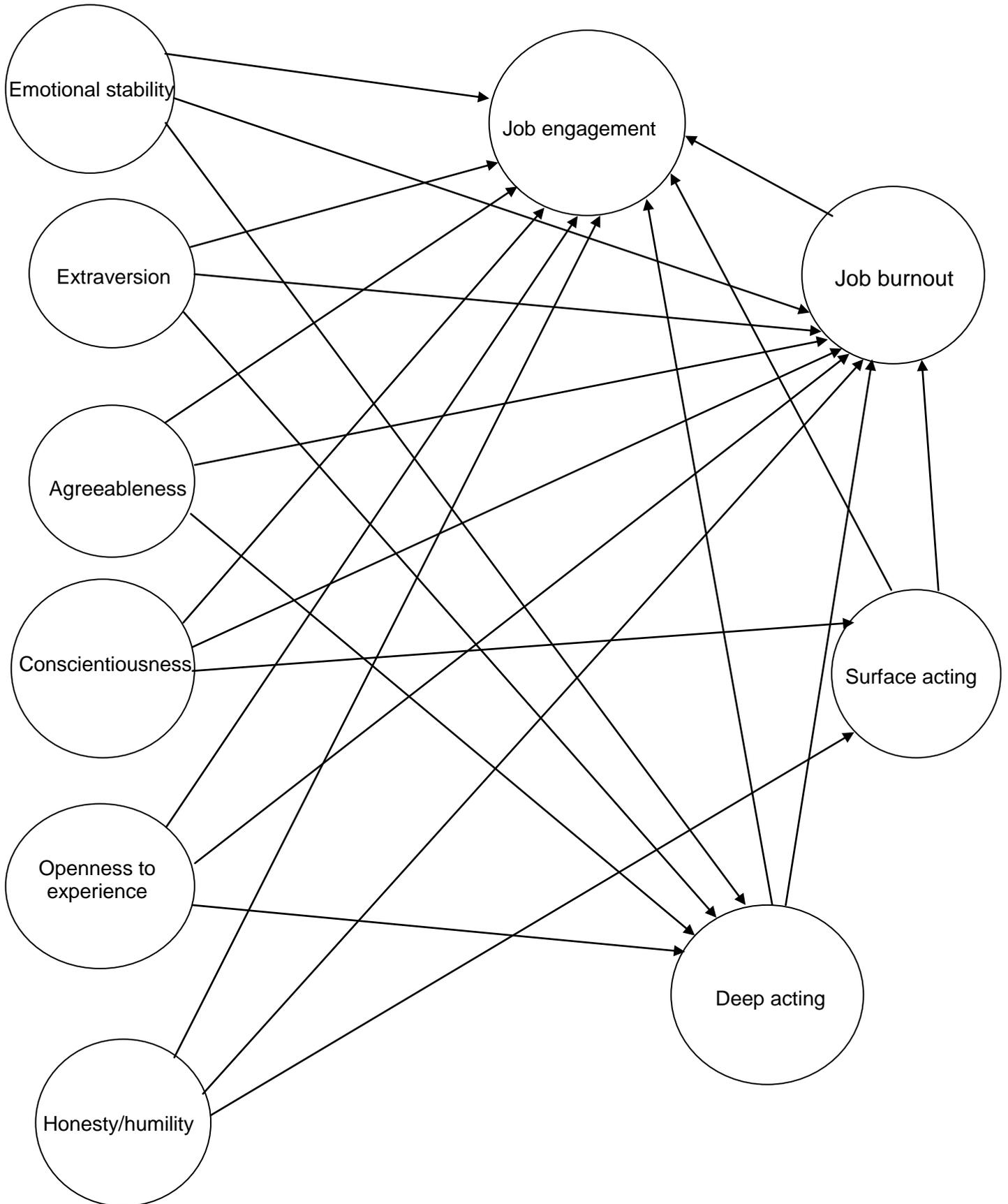


Figure 2.2 Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology applied throughout the research process to obtain answers to the research-initiating question. The tools and procedures utilised in the study are explained and clarified in the research methodology. A research methodology serves the epistemic ideal through two characteristics, namely rationality and objectivity. Take note that explicitly concentrating on reducing error determines the credibility and validity of inferences (Babbie & Mouton, 2006; Theron, 2013).

In this chapter the research design chosen for the study will be explained. The selected participants and relevant sample will be described. Measurement instruments used in the current study will also be discussed. Attention will also be given to the validity and reliability of the separate measurements. Data collection and data capturing will be discussed, followed by a discussion on the statistical analysis which was utilised in the study.

3.2 Structural Model Expressed in LISREL Notation

The formulation of the structural model, illustrated in Figure 3.1, is explained briefly. The personality traits are represented by ξ_1 to ξ_6 . The emotional labour dimensions, namely surface acting and deep acting, are represented by η_3 and η_4 respectively. Job engagement is presented by η_1 , while job burnout is presented by η_2 . The latent variables can be summarised as follows:

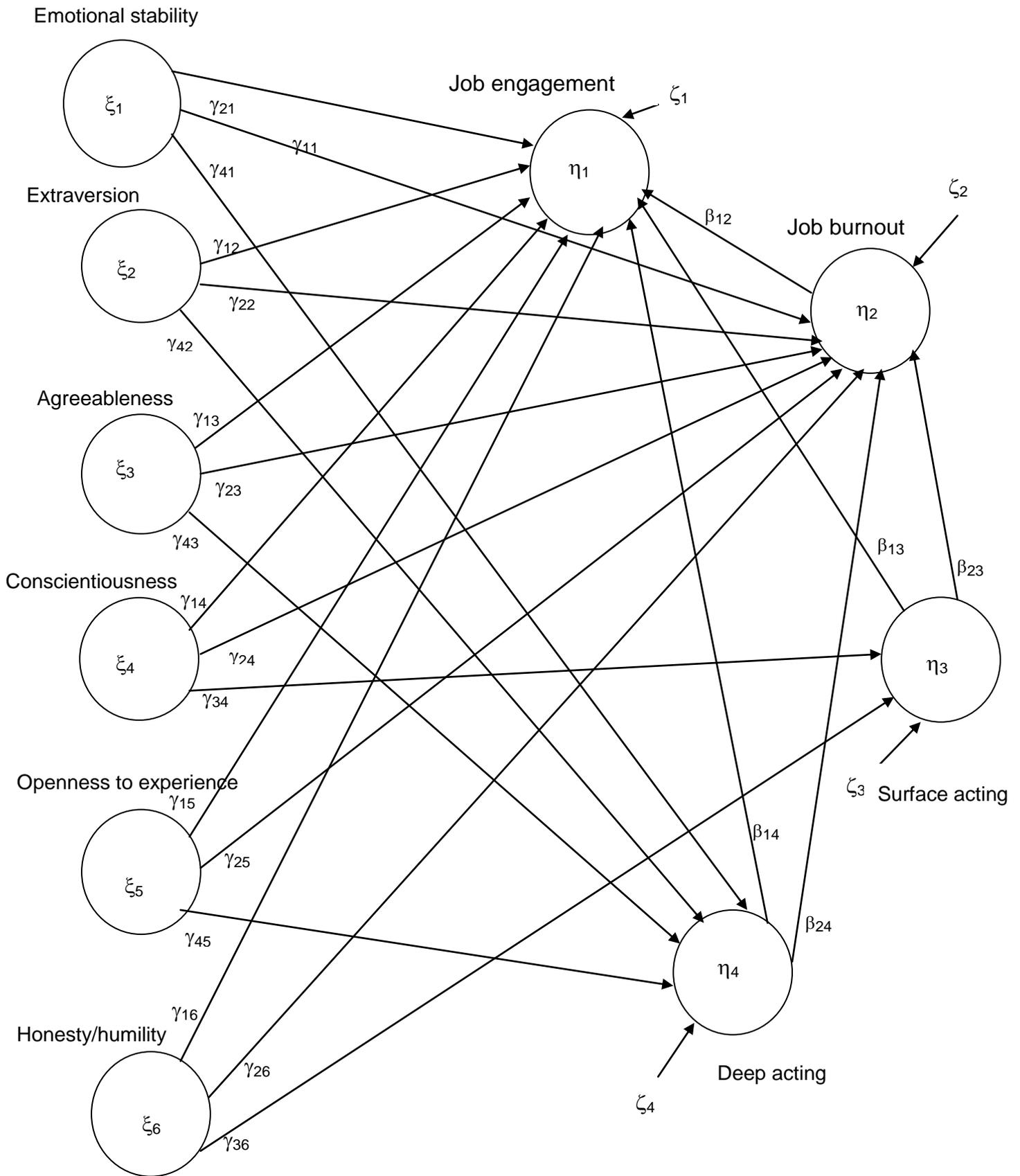


Figure 3.1 Structural model

3.3 Statistical Hypotheses

In Chapter 2, the ten latent variables were introduced, namely emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, honesty-humility, job engagement, job burnout, deep acting and surface acting. Each latent variable was discussed in broad terms and afterwards was narrowed down to the degree to which these latent variables influence one another, according to the literature. Below are the statistical hypotheses that can be correlated with the formulated hypotheses in Chapter 2. The statistical hypotheses were formulated using the structural model depicted in Figure 3.1.

Hypothesis 1

- $H_{01}: \beta_{12} = 0$
 $H_{a1}: \beta_{12} < 0$

Hypothesis 2

- $H_{02}: \gamma_{21} = 0$
 $H_{a2}: \gamma_{21} < 0$

Hypothesis 3

- $H_{03}: \gamma_{22} = 0$
 $H_{a3}: \gamma_{22} < 0$

Hypothesis 4

- $H_{04}: \gamma_{23} = 0$
 $H_{a4}: \gamma_{23} < 0$

Hypothesis 5

- $H_{05}: \gamma_{24} = 0$
 $H_{a5}: \gamma_{24} < 0$

Hypothesis 6

- $H_{06}: \gamma_{25} = 0$
 $H_{a6}: \gamma_{25} > 0$

Hypothesis 7

- $H_{o7}: \gamma_{26} = 0$

$$H_{a7}: \gamma_{26} > 0$$

Hypothesis 8

- $H_{o8}: \gamma_{11} = 0$

$$H_{a8}: \gamma_{11} > 0$$

Hypothesis 9

- $H_{o9}: \gamma_{12} = 0$

$$H_{a9}: \gamma_{12} > 0$$

Hypothesis 10

- $H_{o10}: \gamma_{13} = 0$

$$H_{a10}: \gamma_{13} > 0$$

Hypothesis 11

- $H_{o11}: \gamma_{14} = 0$

$$H_{a11}: \gamma_{14} > 0$$

Hypothesis 12

- $H_{o12}: \gamma_{15} = 0$

$$H_{a12}: \gamma_{15} < 0$$

Hypothesis 13

- $H_{o13}: \gamma_{16} = 0$

$$H_{a13}: \gamma_{16} < 0$$

Hypothesis 14

- $H_{o14}: \beta_{23} = 0$

$$H_{a14}: \beta_{23} > 0$$

Hypothesis 15

- $H_{o15}: \beta_{24} = 0$

$$H_{a15}: \beta_{24} < 0$$

Hypothesis 16

- $H_{o16}: \beta_{13} = 0$
 $H_{a17}: \beta_{13} < 0$

Hypothesis 17

- $H_{o17}: \beta_{14} = 0$
 $H_{a17}: \beta_{14} > 0$

Hypothesis 18

- $H_{o18}: \gamma_{41} = 0$
 $H_{a18}: \gamma_{41} > 0$

Hypothesis 19

- $H_{o19}: \gamma_{42} = 0$
 $H_{a19}: \gamma_{42} > 0$

Hypothesis 20

- $H_{o20}: \gamma_{43} = 0$
 $H_{a20}: \gamma_{43} > 0$

Hypothesis 21

- $H_{o21}: \gamma_{34} = 0$
 $H_{a21}: \gamma_{34} > 0$

Hypothesis 22

- $H_{o22}: \gamma_{45} = 0$
 $H_{a22}: \gamma_{45} > 0$

Hypothesis 23

- $H_{o23}: \gamma_{36} = 0$
 $H_{a23}: \gamma_{36} > 0$

3.4 Research Design

3.4.1 Research Approach

The research design utilised in this study was quantitative explanatory research. According to Oehley (2007), a research design is the plan and structure of investigation in order to obtain answers to research questions. The research plan is the overall scheme or programme of the research, while the structure is the framework, organisation or configuration of elements of the structure related in specific ways. A research design therefore can be described as a strategy for gathering evidence of the knowledge desired. The plan and structure of the research design for this study was achieved within the realms of the quantitative explanatory research paradigm. According to Oehley (2007, p. 53), “a quantitative design is defined as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true”. Within this model, the data are collected empirically and presented in the form of numbers.

The way in which researchers develop research designs is fundamentally affected by whether the research question is descriptive or explanatory. Since the research-initiating question of the present study is of explanatory nature, the study followed an explanatory research design. The explanatory design aims to explain the relationships experienced between variables. According to De Vaus (2001), explanatory research focuses on *why* questions. The primary outcome of explanatory design is to develop explanations why and how certain variables influence one another. Answering the *why* questions involves developing causal explanations. Causal explanations argue that phenomenon Y (e.g. income level) is affected by factor X (e.g. personality) (De Vaus, 2001). In this study the aim was to determine if, and to what degree, the ten latent variables inter-correlate, and to give explanations for the research results.

The research design represents the strategy utilised to direct data collection, control variance, test hypotheses and develop answers to the research-initiating question. This approach minimises error variance, maximises systematic variance and controls

extraneous variance. Take note that the research design was not selected randomly. The research design is a product dependent on the type of research-initiating question and the outcome of careful planning (Babbie & Mouton, 2006; Kerlinger, 1973; Theron, 2013)

This study utilised an ex post facto correlational research design to test the overarching substantive research hypothesis. In terms of the logic of the ex post facto correlational design, the researcher obtains measures of the observed variables and calculates the observed covariance matrix. Estimates for the freed structural and measurement model parameters are obtained in an iterative fashion with the objective of reproducing the observed covariance matrix as closely as possible (Smuts, 2011).

An ex post facto correlation design is a systematic empirical study that does not utilise random assignment or experimental manipulation. The researcher therefore does not have direct control over independent variables. Observing the variation in a specific variable when other variables change, was the primary objective of the current research design. Observations of variations with regard to dependant and independent variables result in the ability to make inferences concerning the hypothesised relationships between endogenous (η) and exogenous (ξ) latent variables. Calculated observed covariance matrices result in observed variables being obtained (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

The ex post facto correlation does have weaknesses, namely the inability to manipulate independent variables, the risk of erroneous interpretation and the lack of power to randomise. Considering that most phenomena in the field of psychology are not open to a controlled environment or manipulation, the ex post facto design is quite often utilised as the preferred research design method (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

3.4.2 Research Method

This section includes discussions on the research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analyses.

3.4.2.1 Research Participants

For the purpose of this study, the target population was the frontline waitrons employed at franchise x restaurants in South Africa. Waitrons at restaurants work in a highly stressful work environment. They must ensure that good quality service is delivered at a consistent rate to ensure happy and satisfied customers. A list of restaurant employees can easily be obtained from each participating restaurant, since it is common practice to have a detailed, accurate and up-to-date list of all employees working at restaurants.

A sectorial breakdown of the restaurants can be done according to the location and quantity of waitron staff. Franchise x's human resource (HR) manager provided the researcher with the e-mail addresses of the company's frontline waitrons. The HR manager requested the e-mail addresses of the frontline waitrons from each store's manager. The HR manager received the e-mail addresses of frontline waitrons from the store managers of each franchise x restaurant in South Africa. The researcher and franchise x's HR manager came to the combined decision that by increasing the sample size to include the entire country would be more beneficial to franchise x and the researcher. The reason for this is the increased sample size and greater representation of their entire workforce throughout South Africa.

For the purpose of the study, stratified random sampling was utilised. At the end of the sampling procedure, the aim was to have a representative sample of the total population, with a final sample size of at least 500 frontline waitrons from the entire franchise x restaurants throughout South Africa. According to Babbie (2013, p. 27), "stratified random sampling is a sampling procedure where the population is divided into sub-populations or strata based on one or more stratification variables and from which n_i elements are selected randomly such that $\sum n_i = n$ ". Stratified sampling is a method for obtaining a greater degree of representativeness by decreasing the probable sampling error. In stratified sampling, rather than selecting a sample from the total population at large, the researcher ensures that appropriate numbers of elements are drawn from homogeneous subsets of the population. The ultimate function of stratification is to organise the population into homogenous subsets and to select the appropriate number of elements from each (Babbie, 2013).

Employees from every restaurant were selected by using systematic sampling, where every k^{th} element (employee) from the total list was selected. To ensure against possible selection bias, the first element was chosen at random.

3.4.2.2 Research Participants (Reality)

The researcher initially hoped to receive 500 completed online surveys from franchise x's restaurants. These participants would have completed the surveys online. However, due to circumstances outside the control of the researcher, the participants had to be approached personally. The final sample consists of 333 of franchise x's frontline waitrons who completed the surveys.

Unfortunately systematic sampling was not a viable option and every individual willing to participate in the study was selected and considered. A total of 44 surveys were discarded as they were incomplete. A total of 1 050 surveys were distributed in hard copies, from which the final sample of 333 was retrieved. Therefore, 377 individuals completed surveys, but the final sample was 333. This is a response rate of 35.9% with regards to individuals completing surveys. The success rate with regard to the surveys utilised for the data analysis is 31.71%. Below is Table 3.1, which is the summary of the demographic profile of the participants in the study.

Table 3.1
Profile of the Sample Population

Age		
Minimum and maximum age	Mean	Standard deviation
18; >40	26.68	5.23
Gender		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	145	44%
<i>Female</i>	188	56%
Ethnic group		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>African</i>	223	67%
<i>Indian</i>	0	0%
<i>Coloured</i>	46	14%
<i>White</i>	60	18%
<i>Other (not specified)</i>	4	1%
Home language		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>English</i>	106	32%
<i>Afrikaans</i>	62	19%

<i>isiXhosa</i>	81	24%
<i>isiZulu</i>	9	3%
<i>Sesotho</i>	12	4%
<i>Other (not specified)</i>	63	19%
Highest level of education completed		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Primary school</i>	10	3%
<i>High school (not matric)</i>	71	21%
<i>Matric</i>	168	50%
<i>Diploma</i>	66	20%
<i>Degree</i>	13	4%
<i>Honours</i>	5	2%
Industry tenure		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Less than 1 year</i>	99	30%
<i>1 to 2 years</i>	53	16%
<i>2 to 5 years</i>	99	30%
<i>More than 5 years</i>	82	25%

3.4.2.3 Measuring Instruments

The survey comprised of five sections. Section 1 covered biographical information and consisted of seven questions. Section 2 was the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), consisting of 17 questions. Section 3 was the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), consisting of 22 questions. Section 4 was the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS), consisting of two biographical questions and 14 ELS questions. Section 5 was the HEXACO-PI-R, consisting of 60 questions. Appendix A contains the survey the participants had to complete.

3.4.2.3.1 *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) Questionnaire*

Job engagement is measured using the UWES questionnaire. As mentioned earlier, engagement has three sub-dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Originally, the UWES included 24 items – nine vigour items, eight dedication items and seven absorption items. After psychometric evaluation in two different samples of employees and students, seven items appeared to be unsound and therefore were eliminated so that 17 items remained: six vigour items, five dedication items and six absorption items. This resulted in a 17-item version of the UWES questionnaire. A 15-item UWES version also exists after another two items were found to be psychometrically poor. Currently the, 15-item

and 17-item versions of the UWES are the main surveys utilised when measuring job engagement. The 17-item questionnaire was utilised in the current study.

The UWES questionnaire uses a seven-point Likert scale. The possible answers vary from '0' to '6', with '0' representing 'Never', '1' representing 'Almost never (A few times a year or less)', '2' representing 'Rarely (Once a month or less)', '3' representing 'Sometimes (A few times a month)', '4' representing 'Often (Once a week)', '5' representing 'Very often (A few times a week)' and '6' representing 'Always (Every day)'. An example of a vigour item is 'At my work, I feel bursting with energy'. An example of a dedication item is 'I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose'. An example of an absorption item is 'Time flies when I am working'.

The internal consistency of the three scales of the UWES is good. That is, in all cases, values of Cronbach alpha (α) are equal to or exceed the critical value of 0.70. Usually, values of Cronbach alpha (α) for the scales ranging between 0.80 and 0.90 are sufficient (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The UWES therefore was a reliable and valid survey to utilise for the purpose of the current study.

As mentioned above, the UWES questionnaire contains 17 questions, with six items linked to vigour, five items linked to dedication and six items linked to absorption. The scoring keys for the UWES questionnaire are as follows:

Vigour is tested in questions 1, 4, 8, 12, 15 and 17. All the questions regarding vigour are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 1, 4, 8, 12, 15 and 17 should provide an individual with a high score in vigour.

Dedication is tested in questions 2, 5, 7, 10 and 13. All the questions regarding dedication are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 2, 5, 7, 10 and 13 should provide an individual with a high score in dedication.

Absorption is tested in questions 3, 6, 9, 11, 14 and 16. All the questions regarding absorption are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 3, 6, 9, 11, 14 and 16 should provide an individual with a high score in absorption.

3.4.2.3.2 Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is the most widely utilised job burnout survey used by researchers. The MBI measures three sub-scales, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment (Poghosyan, Aiken & Sloane, 2009). The MBI contains 22 questions. The Cronbach's alpha (α) for all three subscales was above 0.7. Also, they established the convergent validity of the MBI by correlating individual MBI scores with: 1) measures of various outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction, which were hypothesised to be related to burnout subscales; 2) job characteristics that were expected to contribute to the development of burnout, such as difficult workloads; and 3) behavioural ratings provided by other people who knew the individuals scored very well (e.g. spouses and co-workers). All correlations provided evidence of the validity of the MBI and its dimensions (Poghosyan et al., 2009).

Initial research conducted on the MBI-HSS yielded reliability coefficients of 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.79 for depersonalisation and 0.71 for personal accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). In a study done on educators and business owners in the USA, researchers found Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients of 0.89 and 0.90 for emotional exhaustion, 0.70 and 0.80 for depersonalisation and 0.76 and 0.78 for personal accomplishment for the educators and small business owners respectively (Naude & Rothmann, 2004).

Studies on the test-retest reliability of the MBI-HSS seem to confirm the stability of the MBI-HSS scales over time. Coefficients of 0.82 for emotional exhaustion, 0.60 for depersonalisation and 0.80 for personal accomplishment were found after two to four weeks for a sample of social welfare graduate students and health agency administrators. Although the coefficients were found to be low to moderately high, they still were statistically significant at the 0,001 level (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Naude & Rothmann, 2004).

In the South African context, research evidence seems to confirm these findings. Naude and Rothmann (2004) found internal consistencies of 0.67 for depersonalisation, 0.73 for personal accomplishment and 0.89 for emotional exhaustion in a sample of pharmacists. In their sample of psychiatric nurses, the

results illustrated Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.74 for depersonalisation, 0.75 for personal accomplishment and 0.78 for emotional exhaustion (Naude & Rothmann, 2004).

The MBI questionnaire uses a seven-point Likert scale. The possible answers vary from '0' to '6', with '0' representing 'Never', '1' representing 'Almost never (A few times a year or less)', '2' representing 'Rarely (Once a month or less)', '3' representing 'Sometimes (A few times a month)', '4' representing 'Often (Once a week)', '5' representing 'Very often (A few times a week)' and '6' representing 'Always (Every day)'. An example of an emotional exhaustion item is 'I feel emotionally drained from my work'. An example of a personal accomplishment item is 'I can easily understand how clients feel about things'. An example of a depersonalisation item is 'I feel I treat some clients as if they were impersonal objects'.

As mentioned before, the burnout questionnaire contains 22 questions, with nine questions regarding emotional exhaustion, eight questions on personal accomplishment and five questions with regard to depersonalisation. The scoring keys for the burnout questionnaire are as follows:

Emotional exhaustion is tested in questions 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16 and 20. All the questions regarding emotional exhaustion are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 13, 14, 16 and 20 should provide an individual with a high score in emotional exhaustion.

Personal accomplishment is tested in questions 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19 and 21. All the questions regarding personal accomplishment are scored negatively. Scoring low on questions 4, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 19 and 21 should provide an individual with a high score in personal accomplishment.

Depersonalisation is tested in questions 5, 10, 11, 15 and 21. All the questions regarding depersonalisation are scored negatively. Scoring high on questions 5, 10, 11, 15 and 21 should provide an individual with a high score in depersonalisation.

3.4.2.3.3 *HEXACO-PI-R*

The HEXACO-PI-R contains 200 items in its full-length version (HEXACO-200), or 100 items in its half-length version (HEXACO-100). Demands for a shorter version of the HEXACO-PI-R have resulted in a 60-item survey. The 60 item-survey is known as the HEXACO-60 (Lee & Ashton, 2009). In constructing the HEXACO-60, the decision was made that each of the six scales, measuring extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, emotional stability and honesty-humility, will contain 10 items (Lee & Ashton, 2009). This survey provides scale scores for the six personality dimensions of the HEXACO framework and for four narrower facet-level traits within each of the broad dimensions. All the items are administered using a five-point Likert response scale (Ashton et al., 2010; Emmen, 2011).

Note that the facet scales of the 100-item and 60-item versions of the HEXACO-PI-R are very short and reduced compared to the HEXACO-PI-R. The HEXACO-60 survey can be completed in 12 minutes (Lee & Ashton, 2009). The little time needed to complete the survey ensures that more individuals agree to participate in the study (Lee & Ashton, 2009). The 60-item questionnaire was utilised, since the reliability is satisfactory and the time advantage was very beneficial.

Each of the six HEXACO scales indicated acceptable internal reliability scores in previous studies. The Cronbach's alphas of the six dimensions were 0.75 or above. The following is a summary of the Cronbach's alpha score achieved by each dimension of the HEXACO 60 scale: honesty-humility scored 0.82, emotional stability scored 0.75, extraversion scored 0.78, agreeableness scored 0.78, Conscientiousness scored 0.80, and openness to experience scored 0.66.

The HEXACO questionnaire uses a five-point Likert scale. The possible answers vary from '1' to '5', with '1' representing 'Strongly disagree', '2' representing 'Disagree', '3' representing 'Neutral', '4' representing 'Agree', '5' representing 'Strongly agree'. An example of an honesty-humility item is 'I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed'. An example of an emotionality item is 'I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions'. An example of an extraversion item is 'In social situations, I'm usually the one who

makes the first move'. An example of an agreeableness item is 'I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me'. An example of a conscientiousness item is 'I plan ahead and organise things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute'. An example of an openness to experience item is 'If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert'.

As mentioned above, the HEXACO-60 survey contains 60 questions, with 10 questions for each personality dimension – honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. The scoring keys for the HEXACO-60 are as follows:

Honesty-humility is tested in questions 6, 30, 54, 12, 36, 60, 18, 42, 24 and 48. Questions 6, 54, 36 and 18 are scored positively. Questions 30, 12, 60, 42, 24 and 48 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 6, 54, 36 and 18 and scoring low on questions 30, 12, 60, 42, 24 and 48 should provide an individual with a high honesty-humility score.

Emotionality is tested in questions 5, 29, 53, 11, 35, 17, 41, 23, 47 and 59. Questions 5, 29, 11, 17, 23 and 47 are scored positively. Questions 53, 35, 41 and 59 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 5, 29, 11, 17, 23 and 47 and scoring low on questions 53, 35, 41 and 59 should provide an individual with a high emotionality score.

Extraversion is tested in questions 4, 28, 52, 10, 34, 58, 16, 40, 22 and 46. Questions 4, 34, 58, 16, 40 and 22 are scored positively. Questions 28, 52, 10 and 46 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 4, 34, 58, 16, 40 and 22 and scoring low on questions 28, 52, 10 and 46 should provide an individual with a high extraversion score.

Agreeableness is tested in questions 3, 27, 9, 33, 51, 15, 39, 57, 21 and 45. Questions 3, 27, 33, 51, 39 and 45 are scored positively. Questions 9, 15, 57 and 21 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 3, 27, 33, 51, 39 and 45 and scoring low on questions 9, 15, 57 and 21 should provide an individual with a high agreeableness score.

Conscientiousness is tested in questions 2, 26, 8, 32, 14, 38, 50, 20, 44 and 56. Questions 2, 8, 38 and 50 are scored positively. Questions 26, 32, 14, 20, 44 and 56 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 2, 8, 38 and 50 and scoring low on questions 26, 32, 14, 20, 44 and 56 should provide an individual with a high score in conscientiousness.

Openness to experience is tested in questions 1, 25, 7, 31, 13, 37, 49, 19, 43 and 55. Questions 25, 7, 13, 37 and 43 are scored positively. Questions 1, 31, 49, 19 and 55 are scored in reverse. Scoring high on questions 25, 7, 13, 37 and 43 and scoring low on questions 1, 31, 49, 19 and 55 should provide an individual with a high score in openness to experience.

3.4.2.3.4 Emotional Labour Scale (ELS)

Items measuring surface and deep acting derive from the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). These items were based on a review of emotional labour literature and tapped the ideas of regulating emotions by hiding feelings, faking feelings, and modifying feelings as part of the work role. Three items measure deep acting. With a reliability score of Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.84$, and refer to the degree to which an employee displays true and really felt emotions. Originally there were three items measuring surface acting, but this has since been expanded to five items with reliability scores of Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.74$. These measure the degree to which employees modify and fake their expressions (Van Gelderen, Konijn & Bakker, 2011). Participants respond to the Emotional Labour Scale on a five-point Likert scale (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Take note that there are various versions of the ELS questionnaire. The ELS questionnaire that was utilised in the current study has sub-dimensions of frequency, intensity, variety, deep acting and surface acting.

The ELS questionnaire uses a five-point Likert scale. The possible answers vary from '1' to '5', with '1' representing 'Never', '2' representing 'Rarely', '3' representing 'Sometimes', '4' representing 'Often', '5' representing 'Always'. An example of a vigour item is 'At my work, I feel bursting with energy'. An example of a deep acting item is 'Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show'. An example of a surface acting item is 'Pretend to have emotions that I do not really have'.

As mentioned above, the ELS survey contains 14 questions, with three questions regarding frequency, two regarding intensity, three regarding variety, three regarding deep acting and three questions regarding surface acting. The scoring keys for the ELS questionnaire are as follows:

Frequency is tested in questions 1, 2 and 3. All the questions regarding frequency are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 1, 2 and 3 should provide an individual with a high score in frequency with regards to emotional labour.

Intensity is tested in questions 4 and 5. All the questions regarding intensity are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 4 and 5 should provide an individual with a high score in intensity with regards to emotional labour.

Variety is tested in questions 6, 7 and 8. All the questions regarding variety are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 6, 7 and 8 should provide an individual with a high score in variety with regards to emotional labour.

Deep acting is tested in questions 9, 10 and 11. All the questions regarding deep acting are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 9, 10 and 11 should provide an individual with a high score in deep acting with regards to emotional labour.

Surface acting is tested in questions 12, 13 and 14. All the questions regarding surface acting are scored positively. Scoring high on questions 12, 13 and 14 should provide an individual with a high score in surface acting with regard to emotional labour.

3.4.2.4 Research Procedure (Planned)

The data analysed in this study will be collected from frontline waitrons at franchise x restaurants throughout South Africa. Ten variables will be considered in the study, namely emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, honesty/humility, agreeableness, surface acting, deep acting, job burnout and job engagement. The data collection on the latent variables will be done by means of a web-based questionnaire utilising SURveys. SURveys is a Stellenbosch University web-based questionnaire service provided to the researcher. The questionnaires will be introduced to waitrons holding the same position within the

restaurant. Employees, better known as frontline waitrons, will be asked to complete the questionnaires. The final sample was planned to be at least 500 waitrons from franchise x restaurants in South Africa.

Data for this research study was planned to be collected by means of a self-administered, web-based questionnaire. According to Oehley (2007, p. 63), a survey is “a structured set of questions or statements given to a group of people in order to measure their attitudes, beliefs, values, or tendencies to act”. Oehley (2007, p. 63) says “self-administered questionnaires (filled out by the participant in the absence of an investigator) have the advantage of being easily distributed to a large number of people at low cost”. Another advantage of surveys is being able to collect lots of information from a large sample in a relatively short time.

The research procedure was planned to be as follow: The researcher will contact the participants via e-mail. The e-mail addresses will be received from franchise x’s HR manager, as mentioned earlier. The e-mail will contain a web-based ‘link’ that will transfer the employee to the questionnaire portal. The first page of the questionnaire portal relates to informed consent. The structure, purpose and rights of the participant are explained in this section. At the bottom of the page the participant can decide whether to participate or not. A participant who decides to reject the invitation to participate will automatically be transferred out of the informed consent portal and will not have access to the questionnaire. A participant who agrees to participate in the study will be transferred to the web-based questionnaire. Below are the different questionnaires that will be combined into one questionnaire for the current study.

In the current research study, the UWES questionnaire, MBI questionnaire, ELS questionnaire and the HEXACO-60 questionnaire will be distributed via e-mail to the e-mail addresses of frontline waitrons that will be collected from the HR manager of franchise x and forwarded to the researcher. The questionnaire is a 105-item web-based survey that will take about 15 minutes for frontline employees to complete. Demographic questions are also included in the survey. There are a total of 10 questions that represent the demographic variables of the survey. It will not be expected of employees to complete the survey within working hours. Therefore operations will not be influenced in any way. However, managers initially agreed to

make the free wi-fi they provide to clients available to the waitrons to complete the survey in the store at no cost.

3.5.2.5 Research Procedure (Reality)

The web-based surveys system unfortunately was a failure. There was only limited response on the online survey platform after six weeks. The researcher realised that the desired sample size would not be achieved via this form of survey distribution. Take note that the online survey was available to all the restaurants of franchise x throughout the country.

There were numerous problems with regard to the online survey. The human resource manager of franchise x had the contact details of the franchise's managers throughout South Africa, but could not reveal these to the researcher, since legal documentation prevented him from doing so. This was the first major obstacle, since the researcher was unable to contact every manager from each franchise x branch personally to collect the e-mail addresses of their waitrons. The human resource manager did try to collect e-mail addresses, but the pace at which they were received was not sufficient.

There were waitrons that did complete the online survey. Franchise x made the managers aware of the surveys through their intranet. However, only a few managers responded and made this information available to frontline waitrons. There were a surprisingly high number of waitrons who completed the surveys showing clear inconsistencies in their answers. The online survey was a failure and the researcher had to improvise.

The researcher decided the best alternative was to personally deliver hard copies of the surveys to franchise x's restaurants throughout the Cape Peninsula. A total of 28 franchise x restaurants were approached, of which 24 participated in the survey. The researcher delivered a set amount of surveys to each franchise x restaurant and returned a week later to collect the completed surveys. These surveys were processed to be prepared for the statistical procedure to be able to analyse the data.

The hardcopy surveys were delivered and left at each franchise x branch's manager to give to the waitrons. The same procedure was in place for the hard copy version

as for the online survey regarding the ethical considerations. An individual was required to provide informed consent if they desired to complete the survey. The hard copy of the survey is attached in Appendix A. The managers were requested to be present when the waitrons completed the surveys, since this would eliminate a lot of blatant fraud by participants. The researcher gave the branch managers a week to distribute the surveys and collect them. In this period the researcher sent three reminders to the managers, and the day before collection a reminder that the surveys would be collected.

The hard copy the researcher distributed was exactly the same as the copy that was made available online. The hard copy consisted of four double-sided pages. Waitrons had no time limit to complete these surveys, as was the case with the online surveys.

3.4.2.6 Partial Least Squares Regression

Partial least squares was utilised in the current study. SEM can be insufficient when the sample population is not big enough. PLS can be seen as a soft modelling approach and utilises partial least squares (PLS), in contrast to the hard modelling approach of SEM, which utilises maximum likelihood. PLS models are formally defined as two sets of linear equations, namely the inner model and the outer model. The outer model analyses the relationships between latent variables and their observed or manifest variables. The inner model analyses the relationships between unobserved or latent variables (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). The outer model in PLS can be compared to the measurement model used in SEM. The inner model in PLS can be compared to the structural model used in SEM.

The motivation for utilising PLS modelling is its exploration and prediction value, since PLS path modelling is recommended at an early stage of theoretical development in order to test and validate exploratory models. PLS path modelling has another advantage since it is very suitable for prediction-oriented research. Therefore, PLS assists researchers focusing on the explanation of endogenous constructs (Henseler et al., 2009).

Moderating effects are applicable to the current study and was analysed utilising the PLS path modelling. The process can be explained in two steps: The process commences with an iterative process. This process is characterised by latent variable scores estimated for each latent variable. The latent variable scores are then entered as dependent and independent variables into one or more regressions. Owing to the nature of the second step, most of the the recommendations for testing moderating effects in multiple regression hold for PLS path modelling as well. When the researcher mentions moderating effects it is in the context of PLS path modelling, which means it is the moderating relationships withing the structural model. The researcher is interested in the moderating effect of latent variables on the direct relationships between latent variables (Henseler & Fassott, 2010)

Being a components-based structural equation modeling technique, PLS is similar to regression, but simultaneously models the structural paths (i.e. relationships among latent variables) and measurement paths (i.e. relationships between latent variables and indicators). Rather than assuming equal weight for all indicators, the PLS algorithm allows each indicator to vary in how much it contributes to the composite score of latent variables. Therefore, indicators with weaker relationships to related indicators and to the latent construct are given less weight (Chin, Marcolin & Newsted, 2003).

PLS delivers latent variable scores, which can be measured by many indicator variables. A trademark of PLS is that it can assist in avoiding small sample problems and can be utilised in situations where other methods cannot be utilised (e.g. SEM). PLS has the benefit of being able to estimate and analyse very complex models with many latent and manifest variables present. An assumption should not be made that PLS is not as trustworthy as SEM, since it can be applied to smaller samples. Henseler et al. (2009) mention that PLS path modelling does not have less stringent assumptions about the representativeness of the sample than does covariance-based SEM. PLS is therefore a very sufficient and reliable statistical analysis tool.

The SEM was preferred, but eventually the sample size was not big enough to make SEM practically feasible to utilise. PLS was utilised instead.

3.4.2.7 Bootstrapping

The nonparametric bootstrap procedure was used in PLS modelling to provide confidence intervals for all parameter estimates, building the basis for statistical inference (Davison & Hinkley, 2003; Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The bootstrapping technique provides an estimate of the shape, spread and bias of the sampling distribution of a specific statistic. Bootstrapping treats the observed sample as if it represents the population. The PLS results for all bootstrap samples provide the mean value and standard error for each path model coefficient. If a bootstrapping confidence interval for an estimated path coefficient does not include zero, the null hypothesis will be rejected and a significant relationship can be concluded between hypothesised variables.

3.4.2.8 Evaluation of PLS Path Model Results

PLS path modelling does not provide for any goodness-of-fit criterion. A consequence of this, is a catalogue of criteria to assess partial model structures that were created. This two-step process includes, firstly, the assessment of the outer model, and secondly, the assessment of the inner model. At the beginning of the two-step process, model assessment focus on the measurement model. A systematic evaluation of PLS estimates reveals the reliability and validity of the measurement model according to certain criteria. It only makes sense to evaluate the inner path model (structural model) when the calculated latent variable scores of the measurement model indicate sufficient reliability and validity (Chin, 1998).

3.5 Ethical Considerations

The current study can be seen as a low-risk study. However, a few issues are discussed below that could alter the rights and privileges of participants. One major concern is the anonymity of participants. The researcher wanted to gain valuable information from the survey and this might have put certain individuals at risk of being dismissed on the basis of the results of the study. The researcher did not want to negatively impact any current employee who participated in the study because of the results of the study. Therefore, keeping the answers and profiles of individuals anonymous was crucial. The individuals' anonymity was guaranteed because only the researcher, the study leader and the statistical analyst had access to the web-based survey home page, which was protected by a username and password. These

individuals signed confidentiality forms ensuring that legal action could be taken against them if personal information was found to have been leaked. The web-based survey home page could only be accessed by the individuals mentioned.

The researcher had been made aware of professional codes of ethics and guidelines for ethically responsible research applicable to the current study. The company on which the study was conducted would not be disclosed. This was requested by the franchise from the onset.

There was no forced completion of any survey. Each individual who received an e-mail containing the link to the web-based could choose whether or not to participate in the survey. The option to participate or not was viewed as their informed consent. Once again there was anonymity regarding who agreed and rejected the invitation participate in the survey. Agreeing or disagreeing to participate would not benefit or disadvantage any individual.

The gathering of data excluded individuals who were minors (individuals under the age of 18), people with disabilities, prisoners or any other group deemed as vulnerable. The researcher was the only individual who was actively involved in the gathering of the survey data. The researcher and the statistical analyst were actively involved in the data analysis. The supervisor ensured that the researcher followed the right procedures and interpreted the data correctly.

There were no major ethical threats in the current study. The above procedures were introduced to ensure the protection and anonymity of individuals. With these procedures in place the researcher was confident that all ethical and legal requirements were complied with.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the statistical results obtained through the various analyses performed. Item analyses were performed to determine the psychometric integrity of the measuring instruments utilised to represent the latent variables. The partial least squares (PLS) path analyses were utilised, since the sample size was not sufficient to fit the measurement model and structural model utilising structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM statistical analysis was planned to be used for data analysis, but due to the limited sample size it was not possible to do so. PLS is a very reliable and sufficient statistical analysis tool, as mentioned in Chapter 3.

4.2 Partial Least Squares Path Analyses

PLS regression, according to Guo, Zhao, Huang, Wang and Guo (2014), is commonly utilised as a multivariate technique. This technique is considered to be able to deal with a large amount of variables and to correlate variables in the case of small sample sizes. The current study made use of PLS regression to produce results.

Following the recommended two-stage analytical procedure as indicated by Anderson and Gerbring (1988), the measurement model was tested (reliability and validity measures) and the structural model was tested (hypothesised relationships). To test the significance of the path coefficients and the loadings, a bootstrapping method was utilised. This entails 1 000 resamples to determine the significance levels for loadings, weights and path coefficients (Surienty, Ramayah, Lo & Tarmizi, 2014).

4.2.1 Measurement Model

The measurement model was analysed to determine the quality of the items that were utilised in the survey. The objective of the PLS measurement model analysis is to determine to what extent items measure what they are supposed to measure and their relationship with the latent variables. The measurement model is also known as

the 'outer model', since it determines factors outside the structural model (Kidd, 2014).

4.2.1.1 Reliability Analyses

Reliability analyses give a preliminary indication of the value with regard to the subsequent statistical analyses. Table 4.1 is a summary of the reliability analysis conducted as part of the PLS path analysis. The composite reliability score measures the reliability of the latent variable scales. A value of above 0.70 is sufficient and represents excellent reliability. The Cronbach's alpha scores also are a reliability measurement. Scores of above 0.70 are satisfactory. The average variance extracted (AVE) of above 0.50 was satisfactory. The AVE score can be compared to the other reliability scores, although the AVE is a stricter measure of reliability. The AVE value measures the amount of variance in the indicator variables, explained by common factors. A score of above 0.50 indicates that the indicator variables do indeed measure the relevant construct. The inter-item correlation determines the correlation between items. A higher score for inter-item correlation can be regarded as a good score, since it will illustrate that these items are measuring the same construct to a certain degree.

4.2.1.2 Engagement

Engagement has three sub-dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker, 2011; Bledow et al., 2011; Gan & Gan, 2014; Inoue et al., 2014; Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie & Mao, 2014; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Sarti, 2014; Van Doornen et al., 2009; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2009). The Cronbach's alpha reliability scores were satisfactory, since they were above 0.70 (vigour = 0.77, dedication = 0.85, absorption = 0.77). This indicates that the items did indeed measure the latent variable 'engagement' satisfactorily. The Cronbach's alpha for engagement was above the critical value with a score of 0.90. This indicates that engagement represents what the sub-dimensions were measuring. The average inter-item correlation score for engagement was very good, with a score of 0.77.

Table 4.1

Reliability and AVE Scores for the PLS Measurement Model

Latent variables	Sub-scale	Cronbach's alpha	Average inter-item correlation	Composite reliability (outer model)	Average variance distracted (AVE)
<i>Engagement</i>		0.90	0.77	0.94	0.85
	Vigour	0.77	0.37		
	Dedication	0.85	0.54		
	Absorption	0.77	0.37		
<i>Burnout</i>		0.58	0.32	0.771	0.56
	Emotional exhaustion	0.83	0.36		
	Personal accomplishment	0.72	0.25		
	Depersonalisation	0.65	0.27		
<i>Emotional labour</i>		0.68	0.3	0.87	0.69
	Deep acting	0.78	0.54		
	Surface acting	0.68	0.41		
<i>Personality</i>		0.61	0.22	0.68	0.20
	Openness to experience	0.56	0.11		
	Conscientiousness	0.61	0.13		
	Agreeableness	0.53	0.10		
	Extraversion	0.47	0.09		
	Emotional stability	0.52	0.98		
	Honesty-humility	0.50	0.09		

This indicates that the sub-dimensions correlate satisfactorily with one another when measuring the same construct. The AVE score was also very good, with a score of 0.85. The AVE score is also a reliability analysis, but is stricter than the reliability analysis done above. The score of 0.85 is above the critical score of 0.5, and therefore the engagement construct can be seen to be very reliable. The AVE score indicates that a large amount of variance in the items can be explained by the construct engagement (Kidd, 2014).

4.2.1.3 Burnout

Burnout has three sub-dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalisation (Bianchi et al., 2014; Bui et al., 2011; Peltzer et al., 2014; Utami & Wacana, 2013; Volpone et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). The

Cronbach's alphas were satisfactory to a certain extent, since two of the three sub-dimensions were above 0.70 (emotional exhaustion = 0.83, personal accomplishment = 0.72, depersonalisation = 0.65). Depersonalisation is slightly below 0.70, but since it is very close to 0.70 we can critically assume depersonalisation to be satisfactorily reliable as well. This indicates that the items did indeed measure the latent variable 'burnout' satisfactorily. The Cronbach's alpha of burnout is not good, with a score of 0.58. This indicates that burnout does not quite represent what the sub-dimensions were measuring. This low reliability score might reflect in results that will be discussed at a later stage. The average inter-item correlation score for burnout was not very good, with a score of 0.32. This indicates that the sub-dimensions correlated with one another when measuring the same construct, but not very highly. The AVE score was surprisingly good, with a score of 0.56. The AVE score is also a reliability analysis, but is stricter than the reliability analysis done above. The score of 0.56 is above the critical score of 0.5 and therefore the burnout construct can be seen as reliable. The AVE score indicates that a large amount of variance in the items can be explained by the construct burnout (Kidd, 2014).

4.2.1.4 Emotional Labour

Emotional labour has two sub-dimensions, namely deep acting and surface acting (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Li et al., 2014; Wrobel, 2013). The Cronbach's alpha scores were satisfactory to a certain extent, since one of the two sub-dimensions was above 0.70 (deep acting = 0.78, surface acting = 0.68,). Surface acting is slightly below 0.70, but since it is very close to 0.70 we can critically assume surface acting to be satisfactorily reliable as well. This indicates that the items did indeed measure the latent variable 'surface acting' satisfactorily. The Cronbach's alpha of emotional labour was above the critical value of 0.60 (0.68). This indicates that emotional labour does represent what the sub-dimensions were measuring. The average inter-item correlation score for emotional labour was not very good, at 0.32. This indicates that the sub-dimensions correlate with one another when measuring the same construct, but not very highly. The AVE scores were surprisingly good, with a score of 0.69 for deep acting and 0.59 for surface acting. The AVE score is also a reliability analysis, but is stricter than the reliability analysis done above. The scores of 0.69 and 0.59 are above the critical score of 0.5 and therefore the deep acting and

surface acting latent variables can be seen as reliable. The AVE score indicates that a large amount of variance in the items can be explained by the latent variables' applicable deep acting and surface acting items (Kidd, 2014).

4.2.1.5 Personality

Personality has six sub-dimensions, namely openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability and honesty-humility (Aghababaei et al., 2014; Ashton & Lee, 2009; Lee & Ashton, 2006; Lee et al., 2005; Rolison et al., 2013). The Cronbach's alpha reliability scores were not satisfactory, since none of the six sub-dimensions scored above 0.70 (openness to experience = 0.56, conscientiousness = 0.61, agreeableness = 0.53, extraversion = 0.47, emotional stability = 0.52, honesty-humility = 0.50). It is quite problematic that not one sub-dimension could score above the critical value of 0.70. This indicates that the items did not measure their applicable 'personality sub-dimension' latent variables satisfactorily. The Cronbach's alpha of personality also was not good, with a score of 0.61. This indicates that personality did not quite represent what the sub-dimensions were measuring. These low reliability scores for personality and personality sub-dimensions might reflect negatively in the results, which will be discussed at a later stage. The average inter-item correlation score for personality was not very good, at 0.22. This indicates that the sub-dimensions correlated with one another when measuring the same construct, but not very highly. The AVE score was surprisingly good, with a score of 0.56. The AVE score is also a reliability analysis, but is stricter than the reliability analysis done above. The AVE scores of the dimensions were not satisfactory since none of the six sub-dimensions scored above the critical value of 0.50 (openness to experience = 0.20, conscientiousness = 0.24, agreeableness = 0.20, extraversion = 0.18, emotional stability = 0.43, honesty-humility = 0.19). As all these scores were below the critical value, the personality sub-dimensions can be seen as unreliable. The AVE scores of the dimensions indicate that a small amount of variance in the items can be explained by the construct personality sub-dimensions (Kidd, 2014).

Potential reasons for the low reliability scores may be manipulation of the surveys. The HEXACO-60 questionnaire was situated at the end of the survey. The researcher witnessed that participants did not read the questions anymore and

randomly completed the last bit. This might be a possible reason for the low reliability scores, but this is also discussed in Section 5.4 ('Limitations and Recommendations').

4.2.1.6 Outer Loadings

Table 4.2 illustrates the strength of the relationships between latent variables and the relevant items measuring them in the survey. Bootstrapping was utilised on a 95% confidence interval. It can be concluded that the path between items and relevant latent variables engagement, burnout and emotional labour were significant (illustrated by yes in Table 4.2). The paths between questions 43, 10, 18, 42, 54, 6, 50 and 45 and the relevant latent variables in the HEXACO-60 section of the survey were insignificant. These items tended to display a small relationship with their relevant latent variables.

Table 4.2

Outer loadings

Latent variable	Path	Original sample (O)	Confidence interval low	Confidence interval up	Significant
Engagement	Absorption <- Engagement	0.918	0.896	0.934	yes
	Dedication <- Engagement	0.915	0.893	0.933	yes
	Vigour <- Engagement	0.926	0.906	0.939	yes
Burnout	Depersonalisation <- Burnout	0.83	0.786	0.876	yes
	Emotional exhaustion <- Burnout	0.914	0.891	0.937	yes
	Personal accomplishment <- Burnout	0.374	0.145	0.524	yes
Emotional Labour	Frequency 10 <- Deep acting	0.840	0.756	0.894	yes
	Frequency 11 <- Deep acting	0.866	0.782	0.92	yes
	Frequency 9 <- Deep acting	0.785	0.686	0.866	yes
	Frequency 12 <- Surface acting	0.559	0.279	0.712	yes
	Frequency 13 <- Surface acting	0.926	0.872	0.967	yes
Personality	Frequency 14 <- Surface acting	0.766	0.618	0.851	yes
	Feel about job 1 <- Emotional stability	0.684	0.59	0.749	yes
	Feel about job 13 <- Emotional stability	0.704	0.621	0.771	yes
	Feel about job 14 <- Emotional stability	0.587	0.495	0.668	yes
	Feel about job 16 <- Emotional stability	0.623	0.545	0.699	yes

Feel about job 2 <- Emotional stability	0.707	0.655	0.759	yes
Feel about job 20 <- Emotional stability	0.574	0.495	0.653	yes
Feel about job 3 <- Emotional stability	0.657	0.576	0.731	yes
Feel about job 6 <- Emotional stability	0.619	0.531	0.703	yes
Feel about job 8 <- Emotional stability	0.751	0.684	0.81	yes
Self 1 (reversed) <- Openness to experience	0.54	0.301	0.665	yes
Self 13 <- Openness to experience	0.315	0.013	0.548	yes
Self 19 (reversed) <- Openness to experience	0.555	0.334	0.696	yes
Self 25 <- Openness to experience	0.205	-0.1	0.439	no
Self 31 (reversed) <- Openness to experience	0.425	0.14	0.607	yes
Self 37 <- Openness to experience	0.436	0.169	0.6	yes
Self 43 <- Openness to experience	0.093	-0.175	0.357	no
Self 49 (reversed) <- Openness to experience	0.613	0.395	0.729	yes
Self 55 (reversed) <- Openness to experience	0.503	0.229	0.668	yes
Self 7 <- Openness to experience	0.483	0.221	0.628	yes
Self 10 (reversed) <- Extraversion	0.122	-0.126	0.336	no
Self 16 <- Extraversion	0.379	0.139	0.53	yes
Self 22 <- Extraversion	0.649	0.444	0.769	yes
Self 28 (reversed) <- Extraversion	0.292	0.064	0.487	yes
Self 34 <- Extraversion	0.391	0.108	0.566	yes
Self 4 <- Extraversion	0.633	0.484	0.725	yes
Self 40 <- Extraversion	0.469	0.221	0.603	yes
Self 46 (reversed) <- Extraversion	0.271	0.008	0.471	yes
Self 52 (reversed) <- Extraversion	0.441	0.215	0.654	yes
Self 58 <- Extraversion	0.313	0.1	0.48	yes
Self 12 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.807	0.663	0.853	yes
Self 18 <- Honesty-humility	0.095	-0.164	0.32	no
Self 24 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.3	0.011	0.49	yes
Self 30 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.474	0.197	0.633	yes
Self 36 <- Honesty-humility	0.335	0.088	0.525	yes
Self 42 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.241	-0.055	0.446	no

Self 48 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.385	0.121	0.547	yes
Self 54 <- Honesty-humility	-0.067	-0.288	0.161	no
Self 6 <- Honesty-humility	0.131	-0.126	0.33	no
Self 60 (reversed) <- Honesty-humility	0.749	0.587	0.828	yes
Self 14 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.39	0.232	0.527	yes
Self 2 <- Conscientiousness	0.593	0.451	0.69	yes
Self 20 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.536	0.385	0.651	yes
Self 26 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.388	0.228	0.513	yes
Self 32 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.505	0.358	0.609	yes
Self 38 <- Conscientiousness	0.56	0.405	0.657	yes
Self 44 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.684	0.583	0.75	yes
Self 50 <- Conscientiousness	-0.043	-0.22	0.124	no
Self 56 (reversed) <- Conscientiousness	0.287	0.126	0.439	yes
Self 8 <- Conscientiousness	0.595	0.463	0.697	yes
Self 15 (reversed) <- Agreeableness	0.477	0.22	0.628	yes
Self 21 (reversed) <- Agreeableness	0.617	0.308	0.755	yes
Self 27 <- Agreeableness	0.679	0.441	0.792	yes
Self 3 <- Agreeableness	0.409	0.077	0.65	yes
Self 33 <- Agreeableness	0.142	-0.165	0.377	no
Self 39 <- Agreeableness	0.343	0.087	0.55	yes
Self 45 <- Agreeableness	0.17	-0.099	0.375	no
Self 51 <- Agreeableness	0.356	0.062	0.564	yes
Self 57 (reversed) <- Agreeableness	0.536	0.294	0.674	yes
Self 9 (reversed) <- Agreeableness	0.477	0.129	0.657	yes

4.2.2 Structural Model

The structural model was analysed to determine the quality of the relationships between the latent variables that were utilised in the survey. The objective of the PLS structural model analysis was to determine to what extent the latent variables were related to each other. The relationship and influence of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables and the endogenous variables on one another were determined. The structural model is also known as the 'inner model', since it determines factors inside the structural model (Kidd, 2014).

4.2.2.1 Multi Co-linearity

When regression analysis is being done, many predictor variables are present and one assumes that all the predictors are correlated with each other. Sometimes the predictors are correlated too highly with one another, and this result in unstable regressions determined by estimated coefficients. A score of 10 or higher can be seen as problematic. Table 4.3 illustrates the multi co-linearity between the endogenous variables. It can be concluded that all the variables listed in the table illustrates scores below 10. There were two slightly higher scores, namely burnout with engagement (7.84) and emotional stability with engagement (6.68). However, these scores are below the critical value and are not seen as problem values (Kidd, 2014).

Table 4.3
Multi co-linearity between latent variables

Latent variables	Deep		Surface	
	acting	Engagement	acting	Conscientiousness
Deep acting		1.139		1.136
Engagement				
Surface acting		1.187		1.181
Agreeableness	1.296	1.412		1.41
Burnout		7.836		
Conscientiousness		2.137	1.296	2.068
Emotional stability	1.166	6.683		1.228
Extraversion	1.312	1.534		1.501
Honesty-humility		1.373	1.296	1.355
Openness to experience	1.257	1.434		1.429

4.2.2.2 R Square

The R square value determines how much variance in the endogenous variables is explained by the exogenous variables. Table 4.4 illustrates the R square scores for the endogenous variables.

Table 4.4

R Square

	R Square
Deep acting	0.051
Engagement	0.265
Surface acting	0.081
Burnout	0.872

The engagement score is 0.27 and the burnout score is 0.87. This indicates that 27% of the variance in engagement can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables. 87% of the variance in burnout can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables. The deep acting score of 0.051 and surface acting score of 0.081 are relatively lower than the score of engagement and burnout. This indicates that 5% of the variance in deep acting can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables. 8% of the variance in surface acting can be explained by the effect of exogenous variables.

4.2.2.3 Path Coefficients

PLS path coefficients indicate the strength of relationships hypothesised between latent variables. In general, a PLS path coefficient ranges from -1.00 to +1.00. A value closer to zero indicates the absence of a relationship between latent variables. 95% Bootstrap confidence intervals were used to determine significance of the path coefficients. Table 4.5 indicates the factor loading obtained for the hypothesised relationships. The inner structural model indicated that 14 hypotheses were not statistically significant.

Table 4.5

Factor loadings obtained for the PLS Model and Pearson Correlation (structural model)

Path	PLS Path			Description
	Coefficient	95% lower	95% upper	
DA → EE	0.13	0.28	0.24	Significant
DA → BO	-0.02	-0.07	0.03	Not significant
SA → EE	0.04	-0.06	0.14	Not significant
SA → BO	0.03	-0.02	0.07	Not significant

AG → DA	0.09	-0.13	0.29	Not significant
AG → EE	0.02	-0.13	0.18	Not significant
AG → BO	-0.01	-0.07	0.04	Not significant
BO → EE	-0.48	-0.76	-0.01	Significant
CS → EE	-0.02	-0.15	0.15	Not significant
CS → SA	-0.20	-0.35	-0.07	Significant
CS → BO	-0.09	-0.14	-0.04	Significant
ES → DA	0.04	-0.07	0.14	Not significant
ES → EE	0.09	-0.28	0.32	Not significant
ES → BO	0.83	0.79	0.88	Significant
EX → DA	0.20	0.03	0.34	Significant
EX → EE	0.16	0.03	0.29	Significant
EX → BO	-0.06	-0.12	-0.01	Significant
HH → EE	0.08	-0.07	0.21	Not significant
HH → SA	-0.12	-0.26	0.02	Not significant
HH → BO	-0.05	-0.10	-0.01	Significant
OE → DA	-0.15	-0.29	0.01	Not significant
OE → EE	-0.08	-0.23	0.05	Not significant
OE → BO	-0.03	-0.08	0.02	Not significant

DA = Deep Acting; EE = Engagement; BO = Burnout; SA = Surface Acting; AG = Agreeableness; CS = Conscientiousness; ES = Emotional Stability; EX = Extraversion; HH = Honesty-Humility; OE = Openness to Experience

The significance of the hypothesised relationships was determined by evaluating whether the value zero (0) falls between the lower and upper values of the bootstrap confidence intervals. The analysis was done in a 95% confidence interval. This was the case on fourteen occasions, which indicated that these relationships were not statistically significant. These insignificant relationships were between deep acting and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.02), surface acting and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.04), surface acting and burnout (PLS path coefficient = 0.03), agreeableness and deep acting (PLS path coefficient = 0.09), agreeableness and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.02), agreeableness and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.01), conscientiousness and engagement (PLS path coefficient = -0.02), emotional stability and deep acting (PLS path coefficient = 0.04), emotional

stability and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.09), honesty-humility and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.08), honesty-humility and surface acting (PLS path coefficient = -0.12), openness to experience and deep acting (PLS path coefficient = -0.15), openness to experience and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.08), and openness to experience and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.03).

The statistically significant relationships were deep acting and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.13), burnout and engagement (PLS path coefficient = -0.48), conscientiousness and surface acting (PLS path coefficient = -0.20), conscientiousness and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.09), emotional stability and burnout (PLS path coefficient = 0.83), extraversion and deep acting (PLS path coefficient = 0.20), extraversion and engagement (PLS path coefficient = 0.16), extraversion and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.06), and honesty-humility and burnout (PLS path coefficient = -0.05).

These values indicate that not all the path coefficients represented a statistically significant relationship. Nine of the reported PLS path coefficients were significantly high, while 14 PLS path coefficients were not significantly high at a 95% confidence interval. The conclusion can be drawn that hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 17, 19 and 21 were statistically significant, and hypotheses 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22 and 23 were not statistically significant.

4.2.2.4 Interpreting the Proposed Hypotheses

Path coefficients were utilised to determine the strength, significance and direction of the hypothesised relationships as proposed in the structural model. The significance of a hypothesised path is determined by whether zero is present between the lower and upper bootstrapping values. The analysis was done with a 95% confidence interval. In situations where zero is present, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the relationship will be regarded as statistically insignificant. In circumstances where zero is not present, the alternative hypothesis will be accepted and it can be concluded that the relationship is statistically significant. Take note that the zero value is applicable to the span between the lower bootstrap value and the upper bootstrap value. The data utilised to determine the relationships of hypotheses are presented in Table 4.5.

Hypothesis 1: Job burnout (η_2) has a significant negative effect on work engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between job burnout and work engagement **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.48), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between job burnout and job engagement was negative. This corroborates previous research conducted by Makikangas et al. (2012) and Gan and Gan (2014). It can be concluded that frontline waitrons experiencing job burnout symptoms will not display or experience job engagement symptoms. The more job burnout symptoms experienced and displayed, the less job engagement will be experienced.

Hypothesis 2: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between emotional stability and job burnout **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.83), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between emotional stability and job burnout was positive. This deviates from previous research done by Bowling, Eschleman and Wang (2010). The predicted hypothesised relationship was a negative relationship between emotional stability and job burnout. The results indicate a statistically significant positive relationship between emotional stability and job burnout. Therefore experiencing emotional stability symptoms will result in individuals experiencing increased job burnout symptoms.

Hypothesis 3: Extraversion (ξ_2) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between extraversion and job burnout **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.06), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between extraversion and job burnout was negative. This corroborates previous research conducted by Bowling, Eschleman and Wang (2010). It can be concluded that frontline waitrons experiencing high levels of extraversion will experience lower levels of job burnout.

The results indicate that increased levels of extraversion will result in a decrease in job burnout symptoms experienced.

Hypothesis 4: Agreeableness (ξ_3) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between agreeableness and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.01), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This deviates from previous research and propositions (Alarcon et al., 2009). Previous research indicated that agreeableness has a negative relationship with burnout. The result indicates that there are no significant relationship between agreeableness and job burnout.

Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness (ξ_4) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between conscientiousness and job burnout **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.09), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between conscientiousness and job burnout was found to be negative. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between conscientiousness and job burnout (Armon et al., 2012; Hurt et al., 2013). The results indicate that increased conscientiousness experienced will result in a decrease in job burnout symptoms. Employees experiencing high degrees of conscientiousness therefore can be seen as a benefit to the organisation.

Hypothesis 6: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between openness to experience and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.03), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Armon et al., 2012; Hurt et al., 2013). Previous research indicated that agreeableness has a negative relationship with burnout. The result

indicates that there is no significant relationship between agreeableness and job burnout.

Hypothesis 7: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between honesty/humility and job burnout **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.05), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between honesty-humility and job burnout was found to be negative. No previous research has been done on the relationship between honesty/humility and job burnout. The result differs from the proposed hypothesis. The researcher therefore made a prediction from the literature knowledge when hypothesis 7 was introduced initially. The results indicate that an increased amount of honesty/humility will result in a decrease in job burnout symptoms experienced

Hypothesis 8: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between emotional stability and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.09), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Li et al., 2014). Previous research indicates that emotional stability has a positive relationship with job engagement. The results of this study indicate that there is no significant relationship between emotional stability and job engagement.

Hypothesis 9: Extraversion (ξ_3) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between extraversion and job engagement **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.16), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between extraversion and job engagement was found to be positive. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between extraversion and job engagement (Li et al., 2014).

The results indicate that an increased amount of extraversion experienced will result in an increase in job engagement. Employees experiencing high degrees of extraversion can therefore be seen as a benefit to the organisation.

Hypothesis 10: Agreeableness (ξ_4) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between agreeableness and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.02), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between agreeableness and job engagement (Inceoglu & Warr, 2011; Li et al., 2014). Lee et al. (2014) indicated that there was no significant relationship between agreeableness and job engagement, which these results also found.

Hypothesis 11: Conscientiousness (ξ_2) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between conscientiousness and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.02), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between conscientiousness and job engagement (Inceoglu & Warr, 2011). Inceoglu and Warr (2011) indicated that there was no significant relationship between conscientiousness and job engagement, which is the same as what was found in this study.

Hypothesis 12: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between openness to experience and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.08), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. No previous research has been done on the relationship between openness to experience and job engagement. The researcher therefore made a prediction from the literature knowledge when hypothesis 12 was introduced initially. The results deviate from the

hypothesised relationship. The results indicate a statistically insignificant relationship between openness to experience and job engagement.

Hypothesis 13: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised negative relationship between honesty/humility and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.08), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. No previous research was found on the relationship between honesty/humility and job engagement. The researcher therefore made a prediction from the literature knowledge when hypothesis 13 was introduced initially. The results deviate from the hypothesised relationship. The results indicate a statistically insignificant relationship between honesty/humility and job engagement.

Hypothesis 14: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant positive effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

The hypothesised positive relationship between surface acting and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.03), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Akin et al., 2014; Rogers et al., 2014). Previous research indicated that surface acting has a statistically significant positive relationship with job burnout. The results indicate that there was no significant relationship between surface acting and job burnout.

Hypothesis 15: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant negative effect on job burnout (η_2) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

The hypothesised negative relationship between deep acting and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.02), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between deep acting and job burnout (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Scott and Barnes (2011) and Hulsheger and Schewe

(2011) indicate that there is no significant relationship between deep acting and job burnout, as do these results.

Hypothesis 16: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant negative effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

The hypothesised negative relationship between surface acting and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.04), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Hulsheger et al., 2010; Pugh et al., 2011; Pugliesi, 1999). Previous research indicated that surface acting had a statistically significant negative relationship with job engagement. The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between surface acting and job engagement.

Hypothesis 17: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant positive effect on job engagement (η_1) among waitrons in the restaurant industry.

The hypothesised positive relationship between deep acting and job engagement **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.13), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between deep acting and job engagement was found to be positive. This corroborates previous research on the relationship between deep acting and job engagement (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011; Hulsheger et al., 2010; Pugh et al., 2011; Pugliesi, 1999). The results indicate that an increased amount of deep acting experienced will result in an increase in job engagement symptoms. Employees experiencing high degrees of deep acting can therefore be seen as a benefit to the organisation.

Hypothesis 18: Emotional stability (ξ_1) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between emotional stability and deep acting **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.04), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011). Previous research indicated that

emotional stability had a statistically significant positive relationship with deep acting. The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between emotional stability and deep acting.

Hypothesis 19: Extraversion (ξ_2) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between extraversion and deep acting **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.20), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between extraversion and deep acting was found to be positive. This corroborates previous research done on the relationship between extraversion and deep acting (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011). The results indicate that an increased amount of extraversion will result in an increase in deep acting symptoms experienced. Employees experiencing high degrees of deep acting therefore can be seen as a benefit to the organisation.

Hypothesis 20: Agreeableness (ξ_3) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between agreeableness and deep acting **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.09), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011). Previous research indicated that agreeableness had a statistically significant positive relationship with deep acting. The results indicate that there is no significant relationship between agreeableness and deep acting.

Hypothesis 21: Conscientiousness (ξ_4) has a significant positive effect on surface acting (η_3) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between conscientiousness and surface acting **was found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.20), with zero not falling within the 95% confidence interval. The relationship between conscientiousness and surface acting was found to be negative. This differs from previous research and the proposed hypothesis (Kiffin-Peterson et al., 2011).

Previous research indicated that emotional stability had a statistically insignificant positive relationship with deep acting. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between conscientiousness and surface acting.

Hypothesis 22: Openness to experience (ξ_5) has a significant positive effect on deep acting (η_4) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between openness to experience and deep acting **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.15), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. There was no previous research done on the relationship between openness to experience and deep acting. The researcher therefore made a prediction from the literature knowledge when hypothesis 22 was introduced initially. The results deviate from the proposed hypothesised relationship, as they indicate a statistically insignificant relationship between openness to experience and deep acting.

Hypothesis 23: Honesty/humility (ξ_6) has a significant positive effect on surface acting (η_3) among waitrons.

The hypothesised positive relationship between honesty/humility and surface acting **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.12), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. There was no previous research on the relationship between honesty/humility and surface acting. The researcher therefore made a prediction from the literature knowledge when hypothesis 23 was introduced initially. The results differ from the proposed hypothesised relationship, as they indicate a statistically insignificant relationship between honesty/humility and surface acting.

4.2.2.5 Interpreting the Proposed Moderating Hypotheses

Path coefficients were utilised to determine the strengths, significance and direction of hypothesised moderating effects in the structural model. The significance of a hypothesised path is determined by whether zero is present between the lower and upper bootstrapping values. The analysis was done using a 95% confidence interval. In situations where zero is present, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the moderating effect will be analysed as statistically insignificant. In circumstances

where zero is not present, the alternative hypothesis will be accepted and it can be concluded that the moderator effect is statistically significant. Take note that the zero value is applicable to the span between the lower bootstrap value and the upper bootstrap value. The data utilised to determine the relationships of hypotheses are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Moderating Path Coefficients

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Confidence interval (Low)	Confidence interval (Up)	Significant
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Agreeableness → Burnout	0.008	0	-0.018	0.063	no
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Conscientiousness → Burnout	-0.008	-0	-0.053	0.027	no
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Emotional stability → Burnout	0.013	0	-0.023	0.036	no
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Extraversion → Burnout	0	-0	-0.039	0.023	no
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Honesty-humility → Burnout	-0.034	-0	-0.075	0.026	no
Interaction effect: Surface acting → Openness to experience → Burnout	0.007	0	-0.031	0.03	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Agreeableness → Engagement	-0.066	-0	-0.207	0.054	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Conscientiousness → Engagement	-0.182	-0	-0.316	0.039	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Emotional stability → Engagement	0.058	0	-0.062	0.115	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Extraversion → Engagement	-0.129	-0	-0.223	0.075	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Honesty-humility → Engagement	0.128	0	-0.056	0.255	no
Interaction effect: Deep acting → Openness to experience → Engagement	0.058	0	-0.148	0.142	no

Hypothesis 24: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between emotional stability (ξ_1) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on emotional stability and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.013), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous

research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting can be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 25: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between extraversion (ξ_2) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on extraversion and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.00), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 26: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between agreeableness (ξ_3) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on agreeableness and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.008), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 27: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between conscientiousness (ξ_4) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on conscientiousness and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.008), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 28: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between openness to experience (ξ_5) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on openness to experience and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.007), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 29: Surface acting (η_3) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between honesty/humility (ξ_6) and job burnout (η_2) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of surface acting on honesty-humility and job burnout **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.034), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that surface acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 30: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between emotional stability (ξ_1) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on emotional stability and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.058), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 31: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between extraversion (ξ_2) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on extraversion and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.129), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This deviates from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 32: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between agreeableness (ξ_3) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on agreeableness and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.066), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 33: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between conscientiousness (ξ_4) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on conscientiousness and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = -0.182), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This deviates from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout. It is noteworthy that conscientiousness showed tendencies of potentially being a moderating variable. Conscientiousness was a successful moderating variable if only the p-value were considered ($p = 0.02$). When the p-value was smaller than 0.05, the researcher could accept the alternative hypothesis and confirm that conscientiousness was a moderator variable. However, the researcher had introduced the bootstrapping analysis, which indicated that conscientiousness was not a significant moderating variable.

Hypothesis 34: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between openness to experience (ξ_5) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on openness to experience and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.058), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

Hypothesis 35: Deep acting (η_4) has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between honesty/humility (ξ_6) and job engagement (η_1) among waitrons.

The hypothesised moderating effect of deep acting on extraversion and job engagement **was not found to be statistically significant** (PLS path coefficient = 0.128), with zero falling within the 95% confidence interval. This differs from previous research and propositions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Previous research indicated that deep acting could be a moderator between personality sub-dimensions and job burnout.

4.3 Graphic Model

Figure 4.1 provides a conceptual image of the statistical results. Take note that the graphic model represents aspects of the structural model results. The scores on the lines between latent variables are representative of the path coefficients. The path coefficient scores represent whether hypotheses were accepted or rejected. The scores with an asterisk (*) represent the significant relationships between variables on a 95% confidence interval and also indicate whether the relationship is positive or negative. The scores within the endogenous variables (engagement, burnout, deep acting and surface acting) are represented by the R square values. Therefore the graphic model is a summary representing certain aspects of the structural model results discussed in this chapter.

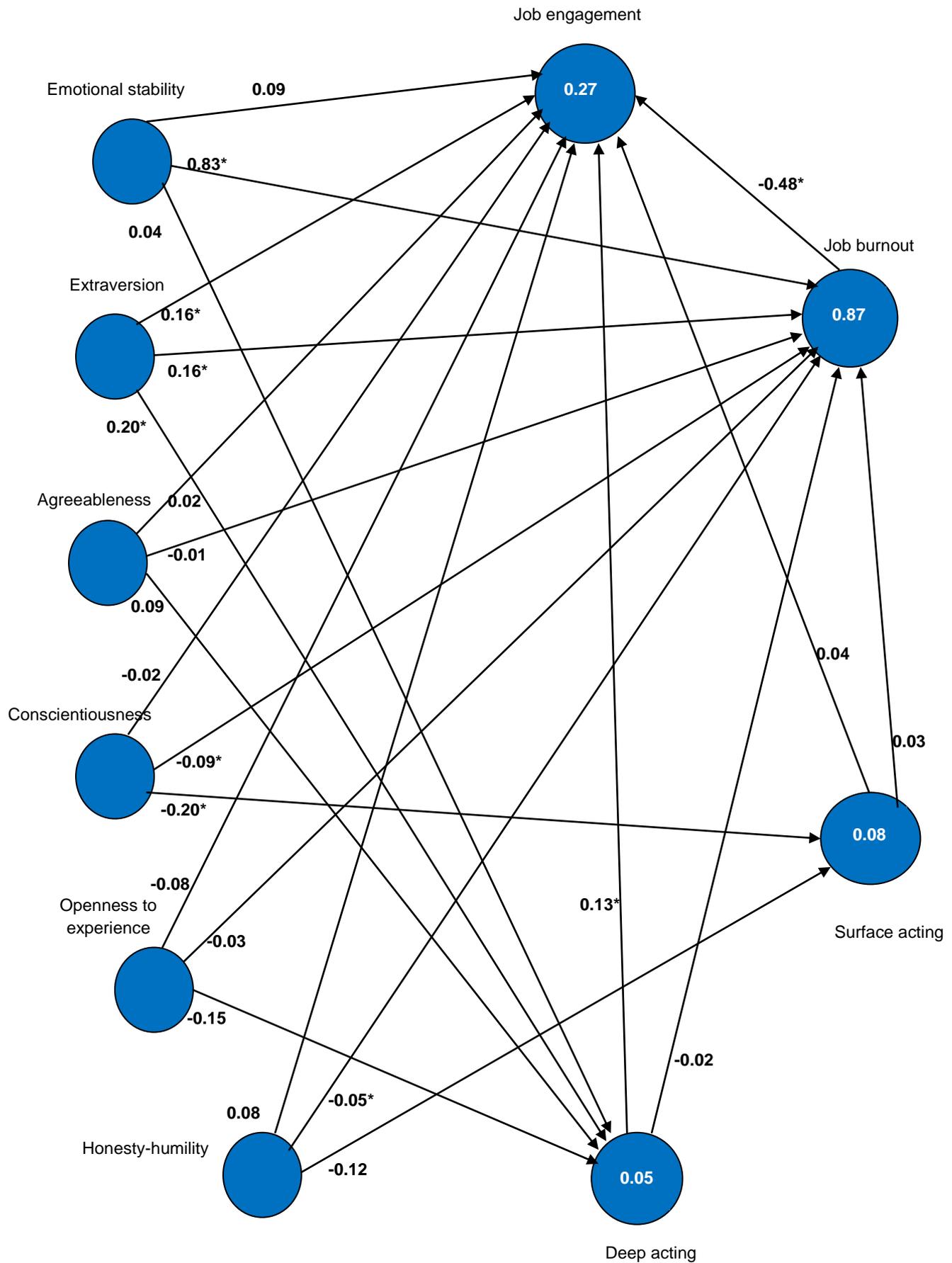


Figure 4.1 Graphic Model

4.4 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the results of the statistical analyses that were performed. The PLS was utilised to determine the statistical results for the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model was examined by evaluating the reliability of items included in the latent variable scales. The reliability of the personality construct, as well as the six sub-dimensions of personality, namely emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and honesty humility, was found to be questionable. It therefore is difficult to say whether these items are very good predictors of personality sub-dimensions. Job burnout and emotional labour were slightly below the critical value, but not by much, and therefore are critically accepted as reliable. The researcher therefore holds reservations about these scales and the results of these latent variables hence should be interpreted with caution. PLS was utilised to evaluate the significance of hypothesised paths in the structural model. The PLS analysis indicated that hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 17, 19 and 21 were significant.

CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to develop and empirically test a proposed structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in job engagement and job burnout among frontline waitrons in the hospitality industry. The objective of Chapter 5 is to provide information on the managerial implications of the research findings and to recommend practical interventions to increase frontline waitron job engagement and decrease job burnout in the hospitality industry in South Africa. The limitations of the study will be discussed and recommendations will be made

5.2 Managerial Implications

The findings of the current study provide valuable ways in which job engagement can be increased and job burnout decreased among frontline waitrons in the hospitality industry. The PLS path analysis indicated an R square value of 0.27 for engagement and 0.82 for burnout. This means that a large amount of the variance in these two variables can be explained by the applicable latent variables. This section will focus on interventions and proactive behaviours management can engage in to increase engagement symptoms and decrease burnout symptoms.

5.2.1 Job Burnout

The hypothesised negative impact of job burnout on job engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS = -0.48). The research finding indicates a strong negative relationship between job burnout and job engagement. It can be concluded that displaying high levels of job burnout will result in low levels of job engagement. Job burnout or job engagement can be outcomes from certain combinations of job resources, personal resources and job demands that employees experience at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Taking this into consideration it is clear that management should implement interventions that promote job engagement and reduce job burnout. Management might consider a three-level intervention for job engagement, namely individual-based interventions, team-based interventions and organisation-based interventions.

Individual-based interventions include addressing employees' behaviour, cognition and motivational state. Behavioural interventions include encouraging acts of kindness, showing gratitude towards one another and sharing positive news. Cognitive interventions encourage appreciating one's blessings and cultivating optimism. Motivational interventions encourage setting goals and pursuing meaningful goals (Gómez-Gascón et al., 2013; King, Currie & Petersen, 2014).

Team-based interventions encourage participants to take a participative, strengths-based approach when working. The intervention encourages transformational leadership from the entire workforce to increase collective team-efficacy utilising team cooperation (Gómez-Gascón et al., 2013; King et al., 2014).

Organisation-based interventions encourage organisations to make use of job redesign to increase their employees' job resources. Leadership training is part of the organisation-based intervention and the focus is on taking a contagiousness approach. Career development is addressed and organisations are motivated to ensure that jobs remain challenging for employees. This will increase positive job demands in the form of challenging demands and decrease hindrance demands (Gómez-Gascón et al., 2013; King et al., 2014).

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) mention that there are a number of ways managers can increase employee engagement. These include the following: a sustainable workload, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work environment, fairness, justice and meaningful, valued work. A sustainable workload is necessary, since work overload might decrease engagement and trigger burnout symptoms. Appropriate, specific and continuous feedback might enhance engagement, since it will clarify company objectives, and provide role clarity and job autonomy. Managers therefore should focus on allocating tasks that are manageable and that appropriate resources and support are available during peak hours when waitrons experience the most job demands and job challenges (Maslach et al., 2001).

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) introduced social exchange theory (SET). SET represents the notion that relationships evolve over a time period into trusting, loyal

and mutual commitments as long as both parties obey certain 'rules' of exchange. An example is employees who are being given economic and socio-emotional resources by their organisations will feel obliged to respond in kind and repay the organisation by being fully engaged in their work. This approach takes the stance that employees' level of engagement is highly dependent on the amount of job resources received.

Engagement can be promoted by sufficient performance management systems. Less than a third of employees believe their company's performance management system assists them in increasing performance and being more productive (Pulakos, 2009). Gruman and Saks (2011) propose that the objective of performance management systems should be to promote engagement. This can be achieved if managers and employees align individual goals with organisational goals. Managers should be clear and specific when explaining organisational goals, since employees formulate their goals from their understanding of organisational goals.

Workplace factors have generally been found to play more important role in the development of job burnout. According to Yip and Rowlinson (2009), the six dominant job predictors of job burnout are working hours, role overload, role conflict, role ambiguity, autonomy and job security. Yip and Rowlinson (2009) say that job redesign and leadership are the primary interventions organisations should implement to increase job resources and reduce job burnout (Lloyd, Bond & Flaxman, 2013).

Individual-focused programmes have been found to be more prominent than organisation-focused interventions. Individual-focused programmes aim to help employees deal more effectively with stress that result from emotional burnout. Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) has been found to be reasonably effective (Lloyd et al., 2013). Individual-focused interventions can be very expensive and time consuming for companies.

Gómez-Gascón et al. (2013) argue that burnout interventions should be applied at various organisational levels. Organisational-level interventions include organisational development and change training. The interpersonal interventions

take into account working groups and social interaction, and therefore training programmes include themes such as social support, social skills, self-efficacy and leadership. The individual-level interventions should provide solutions for personal coping with stress, since exposure to stress has the potential to result in job burnout. Stress is unavoidable and should therefore be addressed by providing effective strategies to cope with stress.

Techniques for coping with stress should aim to modify any aspects of the triple response (psycho-physiological, cognitive and behavioural) generated by one's body when facing stress. Control over activation of the psycho-physiological component can enable an individual to cope with daily stressors by controlling physical symptoms resulting from the generated anxiety (dizziness, palpitations, muscle tension etc.) (Gómez-Gascón et al., 2013).

Techniques for controlling the start of the response are easily learned strategies that do not require much training and can be acquired at any age. These techniques can be applied wherever the individual is, without needing special conditions for applying the strategy. With adequate learning and internalising, the techniques will result in the ability to control stress and anxiety almost immediately. These interventions can be done by a facilitator or a voice recording on a cell phone or PC (Gómez-Gascón et al., 2013).

Yip and Rowlinson (2009) promote time management training. This will ensure that employees do not waste time and experience stress from deadlines approaching. This intervention can be done on a regular basis by a franchise x manager acting as the facilitator.

5.2.2 Emotional Labour

The hypothesised positive impact of deep acting on job engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS = 0.13). The research finding indicates a strong positive relationship between deep acting and job engagement. It therefore can be concluded that engaging in deep acting will result in increased job engagement. Deep acting is a sub-dimension of emotional labour. Emotional labour is an example of a job demand for frontline waitrons in the restaurant industry. Bakker and Demerouti

(2014) claim there are two ways to intervene to reduce job demands or increase job resources to reduce negative symptoms resulting from job demands. These interventions can be summarised broadly as job redesign and job crafting.

Job redesign is an intervention from an organisational level with the objective to change employee well-being by utilising job demands and job resources. Bakker and Demerouti (2014, p. 18) describe job design as “how jobs, tasks and roles are structured, enacted, and modified, as well as the impact of these structures, enactments, and modifications on individual, group, and organisational outcomes”. Job design represents a top-down process in which organisations create conditions for jobs that employees must accept and execute their jobs accordingly. Job redesign is seen as the process in which the organisation or manager changes certain processes, tasks and conditions of a job for an individual. A practical example of job redesign is a manager providing an employee or a team with more job autonomy. Job redesign includes the adaptation of job structure and content by the organisation or employees. The objective of job design is to improve outcomes such as employee well-being, work engagement and job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Job redesign is an organisation-level approach aiming to decrease job demands and increase job resources. Job crafting is an individual-level approach to increase job resources and decrease job demands. Job crafting is the process in which employees actively change the design of their jobs by choosing tasks, negotiating different and more preferred job content, and assigning more meaning to the jobs or tasks they do. The ideal would be if organisations stimulate job crafting behaviour. Organisations can be proactive and demonstrate to their employees how it is possible to craft certain aspect of a job. Job crafting utilised correctly is beneficial to the organisation as well as to the individual. Van den Heuvel, Demerouti and Peeters (2012) developed and tested such an intervention among police officers. The police officers were trained on how job crafting could be implemented and, at the conclusion of the intervention; they had to design their own personal job crafting plan. The study illustrated that, within four weeks from the intervention, the participants indicated that they had increased their job resources, increased their challenge demands and decreased their hindrance demands.

5.2.3 Personality

The hypothesised positive impact of extraversion on deep acting was found to be statistically significant (PLS = 0.20). The research finding indicates a strong positive relationship between extraversion and deep acting. It can be concluded that experiencing extraversion will result in increased deep acting. Extraversion is therefore a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry since it enforces positive deep acting behaviour. Extraversion is a sub-dimension of personality. Personality is a personal resource for frontline waitrons in the restaurant industry.

The hypothesised positive impact of extraversion on engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS = 0.16). The research finding indicates a strong positive relationship between extraversion and engagement. It can be concluded that experiencing high levels of extraversion will result in increased engagement. Extraversion therefore is a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry since it enforces positive job engagement behaviour.

The hypothesised negative impact of extraversion on job burnout was found to be statistically significant (PLS = -0.06). The research finding indicates a strong negative relationship between extraversion and burnout. It can be concluded that experiencing high levels of extraversion will result in decreased levels of burnout. Extraversion therefore is a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry since it counters negative job burnout symptoms.

The hypothesised positive impact of honesty-humility on job burnout was found to be statistically significant (PLS = -0.05). The research finding indicates a strong negative relationship between honesty-humility and burnout. The research findings indicate a strong negative relationship between honesty-humility and job burnout. Honesty-humility can be regarded as a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry since it counters job burnout symptoms.

The hypothesised negative impact of emotional stability on job burnout was found to be statistically positive significant (PLS = 0.83). The research findings indicate a strong positive relationship between emotional stability and job burnout. In this study emotional stability was not found to be a desirable characteristic since it results in

increased job burnout. Take note that previous research is in contrast with the findings of this study regarding the relationship of emotional stability with job burnout.

The hypothesised positive impact of conscientiousness on surface acting was found to be statistically significant (PLS = -0.20). The research findings indicate a strong negative relationship between conscientiousness and surface acting. Conscientiousness can be regarded as a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry since it counters surface acting behaviour.

The hypothesised negative impact of conscientiousness on job burnout was found to be statistically significant (PLS = -0.09). The research findings indicate a strong negative relationship between conscientiousness and job burnout. Conscientiousness therefore can be regarded as a desirable characteristic in the hospitality industry.

From the above it is clear that the results of the study indicate that certain personality types are more suitable to the restaurant industry. Extraversion had the most significant relationships with endogenous variables. Extraversion had positive relationships with deep acting and job engagement, and a negative relationship with job burnout. Extraversion therefore is the most sought after personality type for a waitron. Honesty-humility has a negative relationship with job burnout and therefore also is a desirable personality type to employ as a waitron. Conscientiousness has a negative relationship with surface acting and job burnout and therefore is a desirable personality type to employ as a waitron. Emotional stability has a positive relationship with job burnout and therefore is not a desirable personality type to employ as a waitron.

Managers should consider determining the personality types of applicants. This will ensure that the most desirable personality types can be selected. Management should not base its selection decisions only on the personality type of applicants. Management should be aware of personality type differences if there is not much separating candidates and they need criteria to make the best employment decision. The ideal would be if managers utilised personality knowledge as supplementary information when appointing candidates.

Bakker and Demerouti (2014) argue that individuals can be trained to improve their personal resources. Take note that personality is not the only personal resource individuals can utilise to increase personal resources to experience more job engagement and less job burnout. Bakker and Demerouti (2014) claim that personal resources can be improved by utilising training interventions implemented by management and strengths-based interventions implemented by individuals themselves.

As mentioned earlier, management should utilise the knowledge of preferred personality types as supplementary information. Management already has a workforce and the objective is to produce the most productive and efficient workforce with what management has available. Bakker and Demerouti (2014) argue that training interventions are a proactive strategy by management to increase employees' personal resources.

Training and development interventions can be seen as one of the most important cornerstones of human resource management. Training interventions can equip employees with new skills, technical knowledge and problem-solving abilities. Increased knowledge and skills can facilitate personal resources such as self-efficacy, resilience and optimism. Management might consider training and developing waitrons by means of customer service training and emotional management training. Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa and Zhang (2011) have illustrated that positive change in personal resources (they call this "psychological capital") is related to positive change in supervisor-rated performance and financial performance of the organisation. Demerouti, Van Eeuwijk, Snelder and Wild (2011) claim personal resources are malleable and can be increased in order to improve job engagement and job performance. Training interventions usually focus on group discussions designed to have an impact on the participants' levels of efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. The facilitator in a training intervention focusing on personal resources generally assists participants in setting goals, parcelling large goals into manageable units and in considering multiple pathways to accomplishing each goal (Bandura, 2008; Peterson et al., 2011).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), work engagement is probably dependent on the match between individual strengths possessed by employees and the degree to which they can draw on their strengths in their daily work activities. Individual strengths can be identified as positive traits reflected in thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Park, Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Research has indicated that working with one's strengths is fulfilling and increases job engagement. A feeling of acting in an authentic manner or a feeling of being true to oneself is some outcomes of working within one's strengths. It is argued that employees who have the capability to utilise their strengths at work are expected to be self-efficacious. This intervention of utilising personal strengths and applying it to work can be seen as an individual-level intervention aimed at increasing personal resources. Strengths-based interventions have been linked to positive well-being outcomes. Strengths-based interventions are characterised by participants being instructed to apply their personal strengths to their work in a different way every day for at least one week. The results of these strengths-based interventions were increased happiness and a significant reduction of depressive symptoms. Managers can be active strengths-based intervention facilitators by providing strengths-based feedback to employees on a regular basis. This intervention is very applicable to the restaurant industry. Research indicates that sufficient strengths-based training interventions result in increased personal resources and increased job engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

5.3 Practical Implications for Franchise X

The managerial implications of this study are a need for strategies and interventions regarding good practice. However, in reality not all of these strategies and interventions are practical and/or feasible. This section will briefly discuss the interventions that will be practical and feasible for franchise x in South Africa.

The results have indicated that personality influences the level of job engagement a frontline waitron experiences. The researcher suggests that management does a quick HEXACO-60 test on applicants, which they can use as supplementary criteria if they have trouble selecting the best individual to fit the job.

The study focused on frontline waitrons at franchise x. However, the results, in combination with the recommended interventions in the literature, have placed the spotlight on management. The researcher takes this stance since personal resources, job resources and job demands can be managed successfully by proactive management. Here are a few practical interventions to support this stance:

- Managers can take a leadership role and be the ‘face’ of behavioural interventions. If the manager always encourages acts of kindness, gratitude to one another and being optimistic it can have a ripple effect. These behaviours will result in a favourable and supportive culture, which is known to be antecedent factors for experiencing job engagement. This will result in increased job resources.
- Managers have to be actively involved in the restaurant. This will ensure that managers have knowledge about the strengths and weaknesses of their employees and who can manage difficult customers. This will enable the manager to be a strengths-based training facilitator. Having knowledge about employees will provide managers with the ability to give appropriate, meaningful and supportive feedback. These actions have been linked to increase personal and job resources, which are linked to increased job engagement.
- Managers should be extra supportive of their frontline waitrons. These employees experience the most emotional labour in the restaurant. Supportive remarks always lift morale and can enhance employee’s self-efficacy if managers have the ability to compliment good performance during service delivery.
- Management can provide training on coping with stress. There are many techniques for coping with stress that can be mastered relatively quickly. These techniques can be made available by loading these interventions on the cellular phones or computers of the employees. This might have a cost implication for franchise x, but the long-term benefits might be more significant than the initial cost. This intervention will equip individuals with personal resources to counter job demands.
- Franchise x’s top management might consider training their managers in time management and customer service. The researcher realises that training

every frontline employee will cost franchise x a lot of money. However, centralising the training to managers will enable them to share what they have learned with the entire workforce of their restaurant. This intervention will ensure that the training will reach the entire workforce, but will be a lot cheaper. For example, instead of training 25 000 frontline employees, franchise x could train 500 managers. These managers train their employees as need or top management requires. Another option would be to appoint a few facilitators that have the skills to present a large variety of training and who can travel between branches in South Africa and present applicable interventions at each branch. This intervention will increase frontline employees' personal resources.

- Emotional labour is a very difficult construct in which to intervene. This is due to the fact that the restaurant industry is a very stressful environment and there is not much one can do to make it easier for frontline waitrons. For this reason the extensive focus on increasing personal and job resources. The current study supported this stance with waitrons scoring on average '4' on a five-point Likert scale when asked how frequent they are exposed to emotional labour.

Research has indicated that workplace factors generally have been found to have a greater impact on the development of job burnout than individual factors (Lloyd et al., 2013; Yip & Rowlinson, 2009). This is why it is very important for franchise x to realise the importance of the managers they employ. Managers set the tone and culture for various workplace factors. Managers have the ability to provide employees with ample job and personal resources. Unfortunately, they also have the ability to mismanage their employees, which can result in very negative consequences. This line of arguing is what made the researcher turn his focus extensively to the manager in this last section and highlight the importance of superior managers at each branch for franchise x to guarantee its long-term success.

5.4 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Studies

There were limitations in the current study. The online survey was a major disappointment and failed completely. The online survey could have been completed via an e-mail sent to the participants or by them accessing the survey utilising a smartphone. Many of the frontline waitrons did not have an e-mail address or smartphone and therefore were unable to complete the survey. The online survey would have been the ideal way to collect data, since it would not have required any effort from the branch managers.

The data-capturing process was problematic, since it was clear that many participants were indiscriminately completing the questionnaire towards the end of the survey. The HEXACO personality questions were situated at the end of the survey. This was very problematic and might explain why the results of the statistical analysis of personality sub-dimensions were not very good.

The data-capturing procedure followed was to deliver hard copies to store managers and collect the surveys a week later. The problem with this strategy was that only the productive and efficient managers made their frontline waitrons complete the survey. There were a few branches that did not manage to complete any surveys. Another problem related to this strategy was that frontline waitrons did not receive time to complete the surveys. Some waitrons were rushing through the survey, since they had to complete it whilst serving customers. A recommendation to address this problem is more proactive support from top management. This will result in a standardised procedure followed across branches. The best results were obtained where managers gave waitrons the opportunity to complete the surveys before opening or after closing the restaurant. This enabled frontline waitrons to peacefully complete their surveys without being concerned about anything else.

The researcher received some resistance from certain managers regarding the study. The main concern of managers was how their personal store would benefit from the research. The researcher explained to them that the research was being done on a single franchise and would indicate to top management the state of well-being of their frontline waitrons. There were some managers who did not want to

agree to this approach and refused to participate. The researcher left these branches and did not debate the issue if it was clear that the manager was not going to support the study.

There were many waitrons who resisted participating in the survey. This can be ascribed to many factors, such as fear of being dismissed, not being interested and taking a decision not to disclose personal information. This is problematic, since it can be argued that a certain personality type group did not participate in the study. This will always be a potential problem, since no one can be forced to complete a survey. A recommendation is clear communication and support from managers to convince certain individuals that there are no threats regarding their confidentiality and employment.

The ideal would have been to have a population sample of a thousand completed surveys or more. This would have enabled the researcher to do structural equation modelling (SEM). Since the population sample was not big enough, SEM was not possible for the entire measurement and structural model. The only way to achieve a big sample like a thousand completed surveys is if you do the research on a franchise throughout the entire country. Take note that one needs great support from top management with regard to the franchise being researched. Standardised procedures will have to be in place if there is any probability of obtaining such a large sample. A potential problem is the financial implications. The travel and printing expenses will be immense if the researcher is required to distribute the hard copies personally across South Africa.

Since the latent personality variables illustrated very weak statistical results, future researchers might consider including other exogenous variables. Latent variables such as emotional labour or psychological capital can be considered, as they might be significantly related to the endogenous variables measured in the current study. These variables might yield more statistically significant results. There are many other factors potentially influencing job engagement and job burnout, such as environmental factors and personal factors (Bakker, 2011). Future researchers might consider some of these variables to form part of their research studies.

5.5 Summary

By exploring the factors that give rise to job engagement and job burnout among frontline waitrons in the hospitality industry in South Africa, this study has made a positive contribution to the theoretical framework of job engagement and job burnout. The reported research findings illustrate the impact of personality traits (personal resources) and emotional labour (job demands) on job engagement and job burnout. The research findings will assist industrial psychologists in South Africa to improve job engagement and decrease job burnout by increasing job and personal resources and decreasing job demands. This will be achieved by utilising proactive management strategies in the hospitality industry. By referring to the highlighted managerial implications and interventions, industrial psychologists can ensure a more engaged and productive workforce in the hospitality industry.

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Appendix A



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jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

The relationship between emotional labour, HEXACO personality traits, work engagement and burnout for the hospitality industry

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Charl de Villiers from the Department of Industrial Psychology at Stellenbosch University. The research forms part of my master's thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a frontline waitron within the hospitality industry.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The objective of the study is to determine the influence of certain personality types on the level of emotional labour that front-line waitrons experience in the hospitality industry. The level of emotional labour experienced is hypothesized to determine the level of job engagement and job burnout the employee will experience. Therefore the purpose of the study is to determine the level of engagement and burnout, and the main causes thereof within the hospitality industry.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would kindly ask you to do the following:

Consent to voluntarily participate in this research study. Complete a web-based questionnaire through following a link to the questionnaire. The questionnaire should preferably be completed in one single session. The factors to be covered in the questionnaire are personality, emotional labour, job burnout and job engagement. It is estimated that a participant will take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire only needs to be completed once. The participant is not requested to disclose his/her name in the questionnaire. The individual results will be kept confidential and only used for the purpose of the project.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no specific or problematic risks or discomforts. Since the questionnaires will be kept confidential privacy is not an issue. There will be two lucky draw cash prizes (R1 000 each) in which case there will be a random selection of two e-mail addresses. However, the prizes will in no way be linked to questionnaire results, but merely the random selection of two e-mail addresses from the entire list of completed questionnaire e-mail addresses. The prominent discomfort is the amount of time it may take to complete the questionnaire.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The participating restaurants will receive feedback regarding the researcher's generic results. This will empower restaurants to effectively apply new strategies in the workplace if necessitated by the study results. The restaurant at which you work will, however, only receive aggregated results from the study and will not receive feedback on your specific responses. The researcher will brief management with regards to the results of the waitrons as a whole.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The restaurants or individuals will not receive payments. The reward for the restaurant is the feedback that will be provided to them. However, there will be two lucky draws for participants to win prizes (Two R1 000 cash prizes). As mentioned above the lucky draw will not compromise the confidentiality of participants.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be linked to you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of utilising the secure online data collection system provided by the University of Stellenbosch (Surveys). Data will be kept safe within this system and is only accessible by the researcher.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. If you volunteer to take part in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so, for example if a respondent shows blatant inconsistency in answering questions, responses will be withdrawn.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Charl de Villiers (researcher) at 15756033@sun.ac.za or 082 400 1962 or his supervisor Dr. B. Boonzaier at bb@sun.ac.za.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw at any time and discontinue participation without any penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

I have read and understood the information provided above and voluntary consent to participate in the research study under the stipulated conditions

Yes

No

Age

Under 20

20-24

25-29

30-34

35-40

Over 40

*Ethnic group

African

- Indian
- Coloured
- White
- Other (not specified)

Home language

- English
- Afrikaans
- isiXhosa
- isiZulu
- Sesotho
- Other (not specified)

***Gender**

- Male
- Female

Highest level of education completed

- Primary School
- High School, but not Matric
- Matric
- Diploma
- Degree
- Honors degree
- Masters degree

The restaurant you are currently working at is situated in

- Western Province
- Eastern Province
- KwaZulu Natal
- Gauteng
- Northern Cape Province
- Mpumalanga
- Limpopo
- North West Province
- Free State

***How long have you been a waitron?**

- less than one year
- One year or more, but less than two years
- Two to five years
- More than five years

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, click on the 'Never' option in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by clicking on the number (0 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

*

	<u>Almost never</u> (1)	<u>Rarely</u> (2)	<u>Sometimes</u> (3)	<u>Often</u> (4)	<u>Very often</u> (5)	<u>Always</u> (6)
	(A few times a year or less)	(Once a month or less)	(A few times a month)	(Once a week)	(A few times a week)	(Every day)
	<u>Never</u> (0)					

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy

 2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose	<input type="radio"/>						
 3. Time flies when I am working	<input type="radio"/>						
 4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	<input type="radio"/>						
 5. I am enthusiastic about my job	<input type="radio"/>						
 6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me	<input type="radio"/>						
 7. My job inspires me	<input type="radio"/>						
 8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	<input type="radio"/>						
 9. I feel happy when I am working intensely	<input type="radio"/>						
 10. I am proud of the work that I do	<input type="radio"/>						
 11. I am immersed in my work	<input type="radio"/>						
 12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time	<input type="radio"/>						
 13. To me, my job is challenging	<input type="radio"/>						
 14. I get carried away when I'm working	<input type="radio"/>						
 15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally	<input type="radio"/>						
 16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job	<input type="radio"/>						
 17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well	<input type="radio"/>						

Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, click on the '0' (zero) in the space following the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by clicking on the number (from 0 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

-

	<u>Almost never</u> (1)	<u>Rarely</u> (2)	<u>Sometimes</u> (3)	<u>Often</u> (4)	<u>Very often</u> (5)	<u>Always</u> (6)
	<u>(A few times a year or less)</u>	<u>(Once a month or less)</u>	<u>(A few times a month)</u>	<u>(Once a week)</u>	<u>(A few times a week)</u>	<u>(Every day)</u>
	Never (0)					

 1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	<input type="radio"/>						
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2. I feel used up at the end of the day	<input type="radio"/>						
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at work	<input type="radio"/>						
4. I can easily understand how clients feel about things	<input type="radio"/>						
5. I feel I treat some clients as if they were impersonal objects	<input type="radio"/>						
6. Working with people all day is a real strain for me	<input type="radio"/>						
7. I deal effectively with the problems of clients	<input type="radio"/>						
8. I feel burned out due to my work	<input type="radio"/>						
9. I feel I am positively influencing other peoples' lives through my work	<input type="radio"/>						
10. I have become more callous (insensitive/cold) toward people since I took this job	<input type="radio"/>						
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally	<input type="radio"/>						
12. I feel very energetic	<input type="radio"/>						
13. I feel frustrated by my job	<input type="radio"/>						
14. I feel that I am working too hard in my job	<input type="radio"/>						
15. I don't really care what happens to some clients	<input type="radio"/>						
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me	<input type="radio"/>						
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with clients	<input type="radio"/>						
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with clients	<input type="radio"/>						
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job	<input type="radio"/>						
20. I feel like I am at the end of my tether (chain/leash)	<input type="radio"/>						
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly	<input type="radio"/>						
22. I feel clients blame me for some of their problems	<input type="radio"/>						

On a typical day I serve customers

less than 10

- 10 to 30
- 31 to 50
- 51 to 80
- 81 to 110
- More than 110

***A typical interaction I have with a customer from arrival to departure takes about minutes**

- less than 30
- 30 to 45
- 46 to 60
- 61 to 90
- more than 90

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

-

*

	<u>Never</u> <u>(1)</u>	<u>Rarely</u> <u>(2)</u>	<u>Sometimes</u> <u>(3)</u>	<u>Often</u> <u>(4)</u>	<u>Always</u> <u>(5)</u>
 1. Interact with customer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 2. Adopt certain emotions as part of your job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 3. Express particular emotions needed for your job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 4. Express intense emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 5. Show some strong emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 6. Display many different kinds of emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 7. Express many different emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 8. Display many different emotions when interacting with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 9. Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 10. Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show	<input type="radio"/>				
 11. Really try to feel the emotions that I have to show as part of my job	<input type="radio"/>				
 12. Resist expressing my true feelings	<input type="radio"/>				
 13. Pretend to have emotions that I do not really have	<input type="radio"/>				
 14. Hide my true feelings about a situation	<input type="radio"/>				

Below you will find a series of statements about you. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Please answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your response.

- *

	<u>Strongly disagree</u> <u>(1)</u>	<u>Disagree</u> <u>(2)</u>	<u>Neutral</u> <u>(3)</u>	<u>Agree</u> <u>(4)</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u> <u>(5)</u>
 1. I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 2. I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 3. I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 4. I feel reasonably satisfied with myself overall	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 5. I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 6. I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 7. I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 8. I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 9. People sometimes tell me that I am too critical of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 10. I rarely express my opinions in group meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 11. I sometimes can't help worrying about little things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 12. If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million rand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
 13. I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

 14. When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details	<input type="radio"/>				
 15. People sometimes tell me that I'm too stubborn	<input type="radio"/>				
 16. I prefer jobs that involve active social interaction to those that involve working alone	<input type="radio"/>				
 17. When I suffer from a painful experience, I need someone to make me feel comfortable	<input type="radio"/>				
 18. Having a lot of money is not especially important to me	<input type="radio"/>				
 19. I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time	<input type="radio"/>				
 20. I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought	<input type="radio"/>				
 21. People think of me as someone who has a quick temper	<input type="radio"/>				
 22. On most days, I feel cheerful and optimistic	<input type="radio"/>				
 23. I feel like crying when I see other people crying	<input type="radio"/>				
 24. I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is	<input type="radio"/>				
 25. If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert	<input type="radio"/>				
 26. When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized	<input type="radio"/>				
 27. My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is "forgive and forget".	<input type="radio"/>				
 28. I feel that I am an unpopular person	<input type="radio"/>				
 29. When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful	<input type="radio"/>				
 30. If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes	<input type="radio"/>				
 31. I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopedia	<input type="radio"/>				
 32. I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by	<input type="radio"/>				
 33. I tend to be lenient in judging other people	<input type="radio"/>				
 34. In social situations, I'm usually the one who makes the first move	<input type="radio"/>				
 35. I worry a lot less than most people do	<input type="radio"/>				
 36. I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.	<input type="radio"/>				
 37. People have often told me that I have a good imagination	<input type="radio"/>				
 38. I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time	<input type="radio"/>				

 39. I am usually quite flexible in my opinions when people disagree with me	<input type="radio"/>				
 40. The first thing that I always do in a new place is to make friends	<input type="radio"/>				
 41. I can handle difficult situations without needing emotional support from anyone else	<input type="radio"/>				
 42. I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods	<input type="radio"/>				
 43. I like people who have unconventional views	<input type="radio"/>				
 44. I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act	<input type="radio"/>				
 45. Most people tend to get angry more quickly than I do	<input type="radio"/>				
 46. Most people are more upbeat and dynamic than I generally am	<input type="radio"/>				
 47. I feel strong emotions when someone close to me is going away for a long time	<input type="radio"/>				
 48. I want people to know that I am an important person of high status	<input type="radio"/>				
 49. I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type	<input type="radio"/>				
 50. People often call me a perfectionist	<input type="radio"/>				
 51. Even when people make a lot of mistakes, I rarely say anything negative	<input type="radio"/>				
 52. I sometimes feel that I am a worthless person	<input type="radio"/>				
 53. Even in an emergency I wouldn't feel like panicking	<input type="radio"/>				
 54. I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me	<input type="radio"/>				
 55. I find it boring to discuss philosophy	<input type="radio"/>				
 56. I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan	<input type="radio"/>				
 57. When people tell me that I'm wrong, my first reaction is to argue with them	<input type="radio"/>				
 58. When I'm in a group of people, I'm often the one who speaks on behalf of the group	<input type="radio"/>				
 59. I remain unemotional even in situations where most people get very sentimental	<input type="radio"/>				
 60. I'd be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it	<input type="radio"/>				

Thank you for completing the survey