EMOTIONAL LABOUR IN THE MALAYSIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

A thesis submitted to the University of Manchester for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)
in the Faculty of Humanities

2018

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ABSTRACT

Emotional labour concerns the management of feelings as part of a person’s job role. Studies on emotional labour have mostly focused on the role played by the focal worker (or agent) who is expected to engage in the management of feelings, neglecting the possibility that the recipient of emotional labour (or target) might play a more active and extensive role in shaping the process. Moreover, research in this field has largely concentrated on how agents manage their own feelings to meet organisational expectations, rather than also considering how the management of other people’s feelings might be a core part of emotional labour.

This doctoral thesis aimed to address the roles played by both agents and targets in the emotional labour process and to examine the use of strategies to manage one’s own and others’ feelings during emotional labour. An additional aim was to explore factors that influence emotional labour, including agents’ gender and seniority and the type of institution they work within. The central questions in this thesis were applied to a specific context: higher education. In particular, academics were studied as the agents of emotional labour, with their students as the targets. Emotional labour is highly salient in this context because academics’ emotion management has been suggested to play an important role in getting students engaged in their learning.

I adopted a qualitative case study approach to study these issues. Data were generated from interviews, focus groups, and observations involving 44 participants comprising of academics, students, and heads of teaching staff from four case study universities (two teaching-focused and two research-focused university) in Malaysia. The interviews, focus groups, and observations generated rich accounts, examples, and reflections on participants’ experiences relating to emotional labour in relation to lectures. The resulting data were analysed using template analysis.

Findings suggested that students are not passive recipients of emotional labour; instead, they are active participants whose emotional responses play an integral aspect in shaping how academics feel and are an important driver of the academics’ subsequent emotional labour. Moreover, students also discussed initiating and reciprocating the regulation of emotion during lectures, driven by motives such as achieving personal goals (e.g., higher grades). There was clear evidence of academics (as well as students) using strategies to manage others’ feelings as well as their own, suggesting that ‘interpersonal emotion regulation’ is a core mechanism for achieving emotional labour requirements. In addition, I found that a key area in which emotional labour is used is ‘backstage’, outside of face-to-face interactions with targets, in order to prepare before and recover after performing emotional labour. Finally factors such as gender, seniority, and institution type were seen to have a profound impact on the emotional labour process, affecting the type of strategies that academics and students use and how these strategies were received and responded to by others.

Based from these findings, a conceptual model of emotional labour is presented that places greater emphasis on the active roles played by both agents and targets of emotional labour. The model recognises that emotional labour is a two-way process where both the agent and target regulate each other’s emotions in the emotional labour process. This thesis ends with a presentation of key theoretical and practical contributions followed by limitations of this research and directions for future research.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Before embarking on my PhD journey, I was told by many that PhD is a very lonely journey. This may ring true to some but for me, during the period of my research, I have been blessed with some extraordinary people who have spun a web of support around me.

First on the list is my PhD supervisor, Dr. Karen Niven, whose guidance and advice kept (and keeps) me on the right track. I have been extremely lucky to have her as my supervisor – someone who cared so much about my work, and who responded to my questions and queries so promptly. She is truly a role model and I am amazed at her ability to handle her busy work life yet balance it so beautifully with her amazing family (plus baby number 2 on the way)! I would also like to express my gratitude to Dr. Gail Hebson who supervised me during the first year of my PhD. Although it was a short experience, I am truly blessed to have had her in my supervisory team.

I would also like to thank my husband Azmin, whose unconditional love, patience, and continual support of my academic endeavours over the past few years enabled me to complete this thesis. Also, a big thank you to my daughter Zahra who provided the final impetus needed to finish the thesis. Thank you both for being part of this journey especially in a foreign land. It means the world to me. Of course to my family in Malaysia – my dad, stepmom, siblings, my in-laws, and everyone else, thank you for encouraging me to “go for it!”. I look forward to spending more time with all of you post-PhD.

Not to forget, I would like to thank my PhD friends – Sharina, Lucia, Kara, Daina, and everyone else in C1 and the PMO division for your love and support. Thank you for keeping me sane throughout the PhD process. Also, thank you to my friends and colleagues in Malaysia for believing in me. Not to forget, a special thank you goes to all of the participants who participated in this study. Without data, there would be no thesis. Thank you for sharing your unique experiences and opinions. Last but not least, I would like to thank the Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia and Universiti Teknologi MARA for supporting me financially.

PhD is not a lonely journey after all!
CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1 Introduction

In many types of jobs, people are subject to expectations about how they ought to behave around others. Some of those expectations specifically relate to the feelings that are appropriate for people to display or to elicit in others. Such expectations are particularly prevalent in service work, where employees are often told that the “customer is always right” and so they must “serve with a smile” no matter what customers do or say to them. The process whereby employees are expected to manage their own or others’ feelings as part of their job role is termed by researchers as ‘emotional labour’. Over the years, researchers have paid great attention to the concept of emotional labour in the workplace (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hochschild, 1983; Shuler & Sypher, 2000). It began with Hochschild's (1983) seminal work on flight attendants and bill collectors, where she coined this term to refer to “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (p. 7). She examined how workers actively regulate their emotions in order to generate a publicly observable facial and bodily display that produces a desired emotional state in other people (i.e. customers) as part of their job role (Hochschild, 1983). This is done through both surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983).

Surface acting refers to ‘suppressing’ or ‘faking’ one’s true emotions that are inappropriate to display to customers. Deep acting refers to the modification of an existing emotions to express genuinely felt emotions that align with the emotions that are expected by the customers (Hochschild, 1983). For instance, in her study of flight attendants, Hochschild observed how flight attendants were expected to manage any feelings of irritation or anger that might emerge when dealing with demanding passengers in order to meet the airline’s demands and expectations in return for a wage (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild’s work sparked much interest by researchers from different fields (e.g., communications, sociology, psychology) to study this topic (Briner, 2004; Ward & McMurray, 2016). Indeed, her research is thought to have led to a “plethora of publications, studies, and alternative definitions” (Ward & McMurray, 2016, p.16) over the past three decades (see Table 1.1).
Table 1.1. Some alternative definitions of emotional labour

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<td>Ashforth and Humphrey (1993)</td>
<td>‘display of expected emotions by service agents during service encounters’ (p. 88).</td>
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<td>Mann (1999)</td>
<td>‘the state that exists when there is a discrepancy between the emotional demeanour that an individual displays because it is considered appropriate, and the emotions that are genuinely felt but that would be inappropriate to display’ (p. 353).</td>
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<td>Kruml and Geddes (2000)</td>
<td>‘what employees perform when they are required to feel, or at least project the appearance of, certain emotions as they engage in job-relevant interactions’ (p. 9).</td>
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<td>Grandey (2000)</td>
<td>‘process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals’ (p. 7).</td>
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Among the many perspectives on emotional labour, one of the most influential, particularly in the field of organisational psychology, has been that of Grandey (2000). Grandey built on Hochschild’s work by offering a “new way” to conceptualise emotional labour. She drew upon Gross’s (1998a) psychological process model of emotion regulation to understand the underlying mechanisms of emotional labour. Emotion regulation is defined as “the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998b, p. 275). According to Grandey, emotional labour can be seen as emotion regulation in the workplace that is conducted as part of a person’s job role (Grandey, 2000). In Gross’s work (1998a), he identified two forms of emotion regulation that is, antecedent-focused and response-focused. Antecedent-focused emotion regulation (which Grandey likened to deep acting) includes strategies such as reappraisal or positive refocus, and is considered as the “regulation before the emotion is triggered” (Gross, 1998a, p. 226). An example might be a doctor reminding himself or herself to feel sympathetic towards a rude patient. Meanwhile response-focused emotion regulation (which Grandey likened to surface acting) includes strategies such as suppression or faking emotions, and involves the “inhibition of emotional response tendencies once the emotion already has been generated” (surface acting) (Gross, 1998a, p. 226). An example here might be a flight attendant faking a smile when dealing with a demanding passenger.
Although early work in the field focused on emotional labour with respect to people’s management of their own emotions, within the broader literature on emotion regulation, researchers contend that there are two distinct forms of emotion regulation which can be distinguished according to whether people (referred herein as agents) attempt to regulate or control their own emotional experiences (intrapersonal emotion regulation) or deliberately attempt to shape the way others feel (i.e., the target) (interpersonal emotion regulation) (Devonport & Lane, 2013; Friesen, Devonport, & Lane, 2017; Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009a; Niven, Totterdell, Holman, & Cameron, 2013) (explained further in Chapter 2). Within the field of emotion regulation research, most studies to date have focused on intrapersonal emotion regulation, but in recent years attention has been drawn to the need to study interpersonal emotion regulation (Dixon-Gordon, Bernecker, & Christensen, 2015; Niven et al., 2009a; Zaki & Williams, 2013). While there have been few efforts to explicitly consider the use of interpersonal emotion regulation in order to achieve emotional labour (for exceptions, see Niven, Totterdell and Holman (2009b)), considering that Hochschild’s original definition placed production of a desired emotional state in others at the heart of the emotional labour process, it is likely that emotional labour is also achieved through the use of interpersonal emotion regulation.

1.1 Identifying the gaps within the emotional labour literature
This study seeks to narrow several existing research gaps in emotional labour research. The first gap is the lack of studies exploring both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. The majority of research on emotional labour has focused on one approach to fulfilling display rules, which is to manage one’s own emotions (intrapersonal emotion regulation) (e.g., Grandey, 2000). However, as noted above, a recent stream of psychological and sociological research suggest that agents may also intentionally regulate their own and their target’s emotions (interpersonal emotion regulation) (Gabriel, Cheshin, Moran, & Van Kleef, 2016; Niven et al., 2009b; Niven, Totterdell, Holman, & Headley, 2012). So far, however, there is very little published research that explores the agent’s use of both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies concurrently (Horn & Maercker, 2016).
A second important gap in the literature pertains to the role that those traditionally framed as ‘targets’ or ‘recipients’ of emotional labour play in the process. Emotional labour has largely been studied as a ‘linear’ or ‘one-way’ transaction where agents manage their own emotional displays in order to produce particular emotions (e.g., happiness) in targets (Hochschild, 1983; Niven et al., 2013). However, recent studies suggest that emotional labour is considered ‘transactional’ or ‘two-way’ where the target is not merely a passive recipient of emotional labour but, instead, an active participant in the emotional labour process. For example, researchers have established that agents’ emotional labour might have interpersonal consequences for those whose emotion they regulate or those who they regulate their emotions for the benefit of targets (Côté, Van Kleef, & Sy, 2013), and more recently it has been suggested that how targets respond to emotional labour might influence the effects that emotional labour has (e.g., Holman, 2015). A theoretical review of the field from Niven and colleagues argued that targets may actually play an even more active role in emotional labour than previously recognised, in that targets might actually instigate the use of emotional labour by the agent and/or use emotion regulation themselves in order to achieve their own goals during emotional labour interactions (Niven et al., 2013). However, this possibility has yet to be investigated empirically.

Finally, a third key gap relates to the factors that influence the effects of emotional labour. Over the years, literature has provided some insight into factors that may influence emotional labour, such as age and culture (Allen, Diefendorff, & Ma, 2014; Dahling & Perez, 2010; Lively, 2013; Mesquita & Walker, 2003). Most of the studies have focused on differences in the experience of emotions (e.g., Mesquita & Walker, 2003), and how these factors shape the way agents regulate their own emotions (e.g., Tsai & Lau, 2013). In an organisational context, studies have also looked at factors such as organisational support (Schat & Kelloway, 2003), job characteristics (Pugliesi, 1999), and job autonomy (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005) that influences the way employees perform their emotional labour. However, there is overall a lack of clear understanding about which factors influence how people use both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation to achieve emotional labour and how these same factors might influence the effects of this process.
1.2 Research context

The context for the research in this thesis was higher education, with a focus on the emotional labour conducted during academics’ lectures to their students. While research on emotional labour is often conducted on front-line workers in non-professional service jobs (Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010; Resnikoff, 2013), such as sales and customer service work (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002), studies have also been conducted on emotional labour within professional occupations such as doctors, lawyers, and teachers (Anleu & Mack, 2005; Kinman, Wray, & Strange, 2011; Martínez-iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). An occupation that is given less attention among emotional labour researchers is the academic profession in higher education institutions (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Mahoney, Buboltz, Doverspike, & Buckner, 2011). Indeed, in the past, academics seem to have concentrated on researching the work of other occupational groups’ emotional process while disregarding their own (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). However, there are some researchers who have examined emotional labour among academic workers (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Hagenauer, Gläser-zikuda, & Volet, 2016; Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010; Mahoney et al., 2011; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). Berry and Cassidy (2013) for example, found that academics experience “higher levels of emotional labour than other occupations” (e.g., mental health nurses and both front-line and back office employees) (p. 22).

The high levels of emotional labour may be due to the ubiquitous nature of emotions in higher education institutions (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Trigwell, 2012). Emotions are central ingredients in academics’ teaching and learning (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Trigwell, 2012). The ubiquity of emotions may stem from the fact that academic work involves “frequent people contact”, especially with students who are considered increasingly demanding (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Constanti & Gibbs, 2004). Another reason why emotional labour may be so central to the academic role is the increasing importance of student engagement to higher education institutions. Student engagement involves the behavioural, emotional, and cognitive participation (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Trowler, 2010) in the “learning experience” (Marks, 2000, p. 155) and “educational activities” (Coates, 2005, p. 26). Student engagement has been widely recognised as an important construct that is positively linked with outcomes such as academic achievement, well-being, students’ learning, and social interaction in the
classroom (Carini, Kuh, & Klein, 2006; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Goetz, Pekrun, Hall, & Haag, 2006; Kahu, 2013; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, & Salovey, 2012). Coates (2005) suggested that student engagement is a reliable indicator of a university’s quality of education. That is, the more students are engaged in their studies, the better the university will be (Harper & Quaye, 2014).

In order to achieve student engagement, academics may need to engage in emotional labour. For instance, existing studies show that academics’ positive emotions are associated with student engagement (Postareff & Lindblom-ylänne, 2011). Moreover, unlike many non-professional service workers who are expected to be cheerful and friendly towards their customers, academics are expected to display varying types of emotions such as happiness, sympathy, and sternness (Tunguz, 2016), in order to engage their students. For a task like delivering a lecture, this may then require academics to display and regulate varying degrees of emotions for extended periods of time, thus making the profession complex and emotionally demanding (Hagenauer & Volet, 2014a; Martin & Lueckenhausen, 2005; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004).

The data for this study comes from academics and students from higher education institutions in Malaysia. A developing country, Malaysia is striving to become a developed nation by year 2020 (see Chapter 5 for more details) (Ibrahim, 2007; Transformasi Nasional 2050, 2017). Part of this vision is to transform the country into an education hub for the Asian region, and to internationalise the country’s higher education sector to compete in the global market (Bajunid & Wong, 2016; Grapragasem, Krishnan, & Mansor, 2014; Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017; Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). In order to achieve this, Malaysian universities are expected to improve the quality of their education, and to prove that their quality is improving (Wan et al., 2016).

1.3 Current study

Based on the gaps presented, the present case study aims to look at how emotional labour is performed in the professional occupation of academics within Malaysian higher education, exploring how different strategies are used to get students engaged in lectures. This study employed a qualitative case research approach involving the triangulation of data from interviews, observations, and focus groups. Case studies
are defined as “the preferred strategy when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context” (Yin, 2003, p. 1). The aim of the specific methods chosen within this approach was to acquire rich descriptions from the study participants from each case.

A convenience sampling method was used to recruit samples from four universities (two teaching-focused and two research-focused universities) in two major cities in Malaysia. In total, 44 participants comprising of academics, students, and the head of teaching from these universities were selected. One major point of difference between higher education institutions is the priority universities place on teaching versus research (discussed in Chapter 5) (Dany, Louvel, & Valette, 2011; Darabi, Macaskill, & Reidy, 2016; Menon, 2003). Research-focused universities are institutions that prioritise research over teaching (Steffensen, Rogers, & Speakman, 2000), while teaching-focused universities devote their energy mainly towards teaching (Ahmad, Farley, & Soon, 2014). These universities were sampled in order to establish whether the institution type was a relevant factor in influencing the emotional labour process.

In order to organise and analyse textual data in this study, a template analysis was applied. Template analysis involves building a theoretically-derived template (King, 2012), which is then tested against raw data from sources such as interview transcripts (e.g. Dredge, Gleeson, & de la Piedad Garcia, 2014; Slade, Haywood, & King, 2009), focus groups (e.g. Kirkby-Geddes, King, & Bravington, 2013; Orbaek, Gaard, Fabricius, Lefevre, & Møller, 2015), and diary entries (e.g. Hawe & Riley, 2005; Waddington & Fletcher, 2005) to produce a final set of themes. NVivo 11 software was used to assist in the management of the data.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis contains nine chapters which will be summarised here briefly to allow a clear overview of the whole thesis. The current chapter (Chapter 1 - Introduction) has presented a brief overview of the background, and gaps in the literature. This is followed by the study’s research context and an overview of the research approach. The literature review is presented in the following two chapters. Chapter 2 (Literature review on emotional labour) offers a more detailed discussion on the research focus. The chapter begins broadly by discussing on emotions, followed by
emotional labour. I then discuss emotional labour as a form of emotion regulation, followed by the central processes investigated – intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. The chapter then moves to describing the theoretical approaches that have informed research in this area and in my study. Here, I also present this study’s broad research questions. In Chapter 3 (Literature review on emotional labour and student engagement in higher education), I begin with broadly discussing the higher education context from a global perspective. The chapter then narrows down to describing academics’ job role. Within this chapter, I also discuss the concept of emotional labour in academia. I then end this chapter by narrowing down the research questions that were presented in Chapter 2 based on the literature on emotional labour in higher education.

Chapters 4 and 5 go on to discuss the methods and context used in the present research. Chapter 4 (Research methodology) describes and justifies the research paradigm and method applied in this study. The chapter then discusses the pilot study that was conducted. This is followed by the discussion and justification of the methods for the main study. This chapter also justifies and describes template analysis as the method of analysis. Also, ethical considerations associated with the study are acknowledged in this chapter. Finally, I present a section on the evaluation of the quality of research. Chapter 5 (Research context) then discusses the specific research context of the study: higher education in Malaysia. Within this chapter, I provide a brief description of the Malaysian culture followed by the Malaysian education. I then discuss the differences between the two types of universities selected in this study that is, research-focused and teaching-focused universities. This is followed by the descriptions of the four case studies (two teaching-focused and two research-focused universities) located in two major cities in Malaysia.

The findings of this study are then divided into three chapters. The first chapter, Chapter 6, presents the research findings that addressed research question 1 – ‘How do academics perform emotional labour (via regulation of their own and their students’ emotions) in order to engage students?’ This is followed by the second chapter (Chapter 7) which looks at findings that answer both research question 2 and 3 – ‘How do students respond to academics’ emotional labour, and how do they initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation themselves in the emotional labour process?’ and ‘How do students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour and students’ emotion regulation influence academics’ well-being and subsequent
emotional labour?’ The final findings chapter (Chapter 8) on the other hand, answers research question 4 – ‘What factors influence how academics perform emotional labour and how students respond to such efforts?’ All of the three findings chapters provide a detailed discussion of the findings from both academic and student data. The findings are also linked to some of the literatures reviewed. Chapter 9 (General discussion) provides a summary of findings in relation to the four research questions. A new model is also presented here and discussed in relation to existing models of emotional labour. The limitations of this study, as well as recommendations for future studies, are also presented in this chapter.
CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW ON EMOTION REGULATION

2 Introduction
The previous chapter briefly introduced the main theoretical background of this
thesis that is, the theory of emotional labour, as well as noting the research questions
and gaps that this study aims to address. This chapter is intended to examine further
the literature to support the design of this thesis. I begin this chapter with a brief
review of the emotion literature, followed by emotion in the workplace. I then
introduce the concept of emotional labour and explain the key components of the
theory such as surface acting, deep acting, and display rules. The following part of
this chapter goes beyond the original notions of emotional labour, linking emotional
labour research with Gross' (1998b) process model of emotion regulation. Following
this, the chapter explores the concepts of intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion
regulation. I then discuss the relevant theoretical approaches that have informed
research in this area and guided this study namely Van Kleef's (2009) theoretical
model – the emotion as social information (EASI) model, Holman, Martinez-Inigo,
and Totterdell's (2008b) emotional labour process model, and Hareli and Rafaeli's

2.1 Emotions in the workplace
For many years researchers have looked at studies on affect, emotions, and moods
(e.g., Barsade & Gibson, 2007). While these terms are closely intertwined and
sometimes used interchangeably (Russell, 2003), affect is an umbrella concept that
consists of emotions and moods (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-
Garcia, 2014) and covers a wide range of feelings that people experience (Robbins,
Judge, Millett, & Boyle, 2014). Emotions and moods are commonly distinguished by
their intensity, duration and specificity (Frijda, 1993; Frijda & Mesquita, 1994). The
literature has characterised emotions as short-term feelings state that last for a few
seconds or at most, minutes (Ekman, 1994; Gross, 2015). Emotions also tend to be
directed at something, someone, or an event (Ekman, 1994; Frijda, 1993; Robbins et
al., 2014). Examples of emotions include feeling happy, angry, and afraid (Totterdell
& Niven, 2014). Moods such as feeling calm and tense on the other hand, are
normally experienced over longer periods of time, lasting for hours or even days
(Ekman, 1994; Frijda, 1993; Gross, 2015). Moods are also not usually directed to any specific event (Totterdell & Niven, 2014). In this thesis, I focus on emotions.

In the past few decades, there has been a surge of interest in the study of emotions in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Emotion is a natural part of daily organisational life and it plays a powerful role in workplace settings (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Studies have looked at how emotions influence work outcomes (e.g., job performance and satisfaction) (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987), and how workers’ emotions influence other people’s emotions, attitudes, and behaviours (Van Kleef, Homan, & Cheshin, 2012; Zapf, 2002). Researchers have also conducted studies to understand how leaders’ emotions influences workers’ behaviour, and team performance (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; George, 2000; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015; Van Kleef et al., 2009).

2.2 The concept of emotional labour

Although workplace emotions have been the focus of research for many decades, arguably the most influential study on emotions in the workplace was conducted by sociologist Arlie Hoshschild in 1983. Hochschild drew attention to the fact that many workers are subject to expectations and rules regarding their emotions as part of their job. She coined this type of work as ‘emotional labour’ in her seminal book, entitled The Managed Heart: The Commercialization of Feeling. In the book, Hochschild (1983, p. 7) distinguished emotional labour from related concepts: “I use the term emotional labor to mean the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labor is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value. I use the synonymous terms emotion work or emotion management to refer to these same acts done in a private context where they have use value”.

Other researchers have offered complementary definitions. For instance, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) took a more behavioural approach when describing emotional labour. They defined it as “the act of displaying the appropriate emotion (i.e., conforming with a display rule)” (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 90). Grandey (2000) on the other hand, defined the term as “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organisational goals” (p. 97).

Hochschild’s perspective on emotional labour was grounded in Goffman’s (1956) dramaturgical ‘impression management’ perspective. Impression
management refers to “active self-presentation of a person aiming to enhance his image in the eyes of others” (Sinha, 2009, p. 104). Goffman (1956) depicted the presentation as a performance undertaken in two distinct areas: 1) front region or frontstage; and 2) back region or backstage. Frontstage is where the performance is taken place in the presence of others that leads to the audience forming an impression. Goffman also notes that in the front, the performer tries to avoid ‘losing face’ by observing prescribed rules (Goffman, 1956). Meanwhile backstage is a hidden or private region where the performer can “step out of character” and “relax” (Goffman, 1956, p. 105). This is also where the performer prepares for their front stage performance, and also where the performance is often perfected (Goffman, 1956). Hochschild expanded on Goffman’s idea and suggested that there are two key strategies by which workers frequently use to experience organisationally-desired emotions, that is, surface acting and deep acting.

Workers who engage in surface acting tend to portray emotions that are not actually felt (e.g., faking a smile to an annoying customer) (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). As such, a worker choosing to surface act may control their emotional expression on the surface but not internally (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) refer to surface acting as the “bad faith” approach to emotional labour (p. 32). Surface acting also arises when the internal emotion is in “full swing” but the worker experiencing it attempts to express external emotions that are acceptable to others (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, 2013, p. 15). This is accomplished by “careful presentation of verbal and nonverbal cues, such as facial expression, gestures, and voice tone” (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 92). To illustrate, customer service representatives may force a smile throughout the day even if they do not feel like doing so due to the job requirement that requires them to express positive emotions towards their customers (Hochschild, 1983). Another example of people engaging in surface acting is when they attempt to hide their anger and disappointment by expressing humour and displaying enthusiasm (Trigwell, 2012).

By contrast, a worker is said to engage in deep acting or “faking in good faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, p. 32) when he or she attempts to express authentic and acceptable feelings by modifying the inward and outward emotions (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). This can be done by altering felt emotions so that a genuine emotion is displayed (Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009). When
engaging in deep acting, workers make an effort to align their expressed emotions with their true feelings (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) by actively inducing, suppressing, or shaping their feelings (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). For instance, in Hochschild’s (1983) study, she illustrated deep acting by citing flight attendants who cope with misbehaving passengers by perceiving them as frightened children. The main difference between the two strategies is that for surface acting, workers regulate their outward emotion only while for deep acting, workers regulate their inner as well as their external emotional display (Zapf, 2002).

2.2.1 Emotional labour in different contexts
Since *The Managed Heart*, emotional labour research has grown tremendously. Researchers have explored the emotional labour of workers in a broad range of contexts, mainly among samples of shop-floor or frontline workers (Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010). Interactive service work comprises of jobs with different levels of prestige (Leidner, 1999). Typically these jobs involve short-term, face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers or clients (Leidner, 1993) in exchange for financial gains (Hochschild, 1983; Schneider, Parkington, & Buxton, 1980). During these interactions, service workers are often obligated to manage their emotions at work in accordance with organisational norms or ‘display rules’ set by their employers (Ekman & Friesen, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Pugh, Dieffendorff, & Moran, 2013; Wharton, 2009).

Display rules inform workers how they are supposed to feel and act on the job, regardless of their inner feelings during service interactions (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, 1989). For instance, some of the service jobs that require workers to display positive emotions include flight attendants who are expected to act cheerful when dealing with misbehaving passengers (Hochschild, 1983), tour leaders who are required to appear enthusiastic on the job (Wong & Wang, 2009), and supermarket cashiers who are expected to be courteous when interacting with their customers (Tolich, 1993). Researchers have also described jobs that require workers to exhibit neutral or negative emotions (e.g., anger and hostility) such as police officers when dealing with criminals (Van Gelderen, Heuven, Van Veldhoven, Zeelenberg, & Croon, 2007; Van Gelderen, Konijn, & Bakker, 2017), and bill collectors when dealing with debtors (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991).
In recent years, researchers have argued that emotional labour exists beyond shop-floor service oriented groups (Harris, 2015; Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010). Researchers have started to examine professional occupations such as legal workers (Kadowaki, 2015; Westaby, 2010), doctors (Gray, 2010; Martínez-iñigo et al., 2007; Rogers, Creed, & Searle, 2014), and teachers (Kinman et al., 2011; Rayner & Espinoza, 2015), arguing that people within these professions are similarly subject to norms and rules about the emotions that are appropriate and required in order to successfully execute their work (Erickson & Grove, 2008; Harris, 2015). For instance, lawyers are required to suppress undesirable expressions such as frustration and anger when dealing with clients (Kadowaki, 2015). Although professional occupations such as those outlined above involve emotional labour, studies remain relatively scarce in comparison to the body of literature regarding shop-floor service occupations.

2.2.2 Consequences of emotional labour
Research on the consequences of emotional labour on service workers has been burgeoning in the past decades (Chu, Baker, & Murrmann, 2012; Hochschild, 1983; Pugliesi, 1999; Zapf & Holz, 2006; Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001). Emotional labour can be considered as a “double-edged sword” (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p.107). It can potentially be functional and dysfunctional for the employee, organisation, and also customer.

2.2.2.1 Effect on employees
Researchers have examined both the negative and positive effect of emotional labour that can bring to employees especially in terms of employees’ psychological well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Pugliesi, 1999). Hochschild (1983) linked emotional labour to problems such as absenteeism, lower job satisfaction, and self-esteem while other researchers (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Näring, Briët, & Brouwers, 2006) indicated that carrying out prolonged emotional labour can lead to psychological health problems such as stress, and emotional exhaustion.

According to Mann (1999), those who perform emotional labour a long period of time may suffer from what she calls ‘Have a Nice Day’ (HAND) syndrome (p. 84). Some of the harmful effects associated with this syndrome include employees
experiencing less job satisfaction, employees having a greater intention to quit and employees wanting to take time off from work.

Burnout is the most cited negative effect of emotional labour (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Kinman et al., 2011). Burnout occurs when workers are not able to manage their own and other’s emotions to the degree that is expected by the organisation (Copp, 1998). Emotional exhaustion, a dimension of burnout, is thought to be prevalent in service occupations such as nursing (Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, & Dahling, 2011; Kinman & Leggetter, 2016) Burnout can be divided into three components that is, “emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and diminished feelings of accomplishment” (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 192). Another negative consequence of emotional labour is alienation (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Welch, 1997). Cropanzano et al. (2004) explained that employees who are required to display or feel emotions which they may not genuinely feel, would lead to “alienation” from one’s own feelings, and causing psychological damage to their health. In addition, emotional labour can also cause deterioration in service quality, high job turnover, and low morale (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Though extensive literature on emotional labour has shown negative consequences, there are researchers who have also highlighted the positive consequences of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, Chi, & Diamond, 2013; Hochschild, 1983; Wharton, 1993). Wharton (1993), for example, found that the more service employees engaged in emotional labour, the more satisfied they were. Some of the other positive outcomes include financial compensation (e.g., tips from customers) (Grandey, Chi, et al., 2013), and task effectiveness (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983).

The divergence in apparent consequences of emotional labour appears to stem from differences in terms of strategies. In particular, studies have suggested that the outcome of emotional labour vary depending on the type of strategy selected (i.e. deep or surface acting) to achieve emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bono & Vey, 2005; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Surface acting is believed to be the most draining for employees as this type of emotional labour entails the largest amount of emotional dissonance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Zammuner and Galli (2005, p. 22) explain:
... frequent surface acting is a psychologically ‘unproductive’, dysfunctional regulation process in that, instead of reducing emotional dissonance (between the felt and the prescribed emotion), it aggravates it because the worker expresses an ‘untrue’, ‘false’ emotion (dissonant with the felt one), causing turn distress, psychological ill-being. Instead, the worker’s activation of deep acting, a process of intra-psychic regulation whose goal is to feel the context-required emotions, not only is effective in reducing emotional dissonance, but facilitates the ongoing social exchange, making it both subjectively more pleasant, and more in line with the organization’s prescriptions; therefore, deep acting is functional to the worker’s well-being because of its implications for his/her role as a worker.

Consistent with this, most emotional labour research has found that surface acting tends to exert negative effects on those performing emotional labour. For instance, two meta-analyses found that surface acting is negatively linked with indicators of job-related well-being, such as job satisfaction and organisational attachment (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Surface acting is also positively linked with emotional exhaustion (Bono & Vey, 2005; Kruml & Geddes, 2000), physical complaints and burnout (Bono & Vey, 2005), and job stress (Hochschild, 1983). The positive link between surface acting and emotional exhaustion suggests that “faking it” is detrimental to employee’s well-being (Kruml & Geddes, 2000) due to the display of inauthentic emotions (Grandey, Diefendorff, et al., 2013). Surface acting also leads to diminished well-being among employees because the continuous regulation of emotions may be seen as a job demand that consumes an employee’s personal resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Pugliesi, 1999).

Meanwhile, deep acting tends to exert positive effects (Hochschild, 1983; Trigwell, 2012). Some of the positive effects include greater self-authenticity and more positive relationships (Holman, Martinez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008a). Deep acting is also negatively associated with emotional exhaustion (Bono & Vey, 2005), and greater authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Philipp & Schüpbach, 2010). To illustrate, in Philipp and Schüpbach’s (2010) study, they found that engaging in deep acting not only increases teachers’ feelings of authenticity but also, teachers are likely to be perceived as more genuine by their students.
2.2.2.2 Effect on customers

Emotional labour can also influence customer service quality and customer satisfaction (Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2006; Groth et al., 2009; Hur, Moon, & Jung, 2015). Previous research has supported that “service with a smile” influences customers’ impressions of the service encounter (Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001) and their decision to provide higher ratings to the employees (Daus, 2001). Also, when employees smile at their customers even if they don’t feel like it, it will create a pleasant and friendly environment that will make the customers feel good and want to smile back (Mann, 1999b). Furthermore, in a study conducted by Tsai (2001 involving shoe store sales clerk, he found that employees’ positive emotions helps increase customer willingness to return to the shoe store and pass positive comments to friends. When employees express negative emotions to customers, it may likely have a negative impact on the feelings and behaviours of customers, which can also produce harmful effects on employees’ well-being (Côté, 2005). Emotions that are inauthentic may also appear phony to customers (Mann, 1999) and they may also interpret such inauthenticity as the employee’s dishonesty and lack of interest in their work (Côté, 2005).

The outcome of emotional labour depends on the type of emotional labour strategies (i.e., surface acting and deep acting) employees choose to engage in. For instance, in a study conducted by Hur, Moon, and Jung (2015), they found that employee deep acting functions as a direct driver of customer satisfaction. Also, deep acting is positively related to job performance (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Holman et al., 2002; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Furthermore, Zhan, Wang, and Shi (2016) reported that employees engaging in more deep acting were more likely to receive positive treatment from customers. This is in line with other studies that demonstrates how deep acting influences service delivery outcomes such as perceived customer orientation and service quality (Groth et al., 2006, 2009). Meanwhile employees engaging in surface acting are likely to receive negative treatment from customers which in turn leads to emotional exhaustion (Zhan et al., 2016).

2.3 Emotional labour as emotion regulation

Different conclusions about the consequences of emotional labour may be formed not only because of the different strategies that can be used to achieve emotional
labour, but also due to the various perspectives on emotional labour offered by researchers (Totterdell & Holman, 2003), as noted in Chapter 1. To unify these perspectives together, Grandey (2000) developed an emotion regulation model of emotional labour grounded on Gross’s (1998a, 1998b) emotion regulation theory. Gross (1998, p.275) referred emotion regulation as:

... the processes by which individuals influence the emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions. Emotion regulatory processes may be automatic or controlled, conscious or unconscious, and may have their effects at one or more points in the emotion generative system.

He also simplified the term in a recent work by defining emotion regulation as, “Our efforts to influence emotions in ways we think will increase the chance that they will be helpful rather than harmful” (Gross, 2015, pg. 20). Grandey (2000) argued that emotional labour is a special type of emotion regulation performed to support goals that are prescribed by a work organisation. She defined emotional labour as, “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organisational goals” (Grandey, 2000, p. 97). As she later elaborated, emotional labour is emotion regulation that is performed “for a wage” (Grandey, Diefendorff, et al., 2013). As she and her colleagues explained, “First, this speaks to paid employment; however persons may have a formal work role that requires emotion management but is volunteer work” (Grandey et al., 2013, p. 18). She also clarified the distinction between surface acting and deep acting where she contended that deep acting is achieved using antecedent-focused regulation strategies (Grandey, 2000). Antecedent-focused strategies are employed by manipulating the early stages of emotion (e.g., reframing a situation) (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998a). Meanwhile, surface acting is achieved using response-focused strategies (Grandey, 2000). Response-focused strategies involve manipulating the later stages of emotion (e.g., suppressing an unwanted emotion) (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998a).

In Grandey’s latest work, she sought to apply insights from the emotion regulation literature back into the field of emotional labour, in order to advance research (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Most notably, drawing from developments over the last ten or so years within the emotion regulation literature, Grandey and
colleague argued that emotional labour strategies are not just distinguished according to the stage of the emotion process at which they act, but also according to the target of regulation. In particular, the strategies used to achieve emotional labour can be oriented towards regulating the agent’s own emotions (i.e., intrapersonal emotion regulation) or towards regulating the target’s emotions, wherein the target is the person who emotional labour is performed for the benefit of, e.g., the customer (i.e., interpersonal emotion regulation) (Grandey, Diefendorff, et al., 2013).

2.4 Interpersonal emotion regulation

Early work on emotion regulation has traditionally been done from an “intraindividual” or “within-person” perspective (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009a, p. 498), examining the ways in which people influence their own emotions and moods for the benefit of others (i.e. intrapersonal emotion regulation) (e.g., Gross, 1998a). However, researchers have increasingly emphasised the importance of recognising emotion regulation as an “interpersonal phenomenon” (Troth, Lawrence, Jordan, & Ashkanasy, 2017, p. 1). Interpersonal emotion regulation, which often occurs during interpersonal relationships (Niven, Macdonald, & Holman, 2012), concerns on deliberate attempts to influence others’ feelings (e.g., customers, clients, patients) for different purposes ranging from pursuing goals to enhancing the quality of relationships (Gross & Thompson, 2007; Niven, 2016; Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012; Troth et al., 2017).

One of the first models of interpersonal emotion regulation argued that there are two main forms of interpersonal emotion regulation, distinguishable by their focus in terms of the direction of regulation of the target’s emotions. Specifically, Niven and colleagues (2009a) distinguished between strategies used to improve (affect-improving) and worsen (affect-worsening) how targets feel (Niven et al., 2009a). Affect-improving strategies include affective engagement (i.e., engaging directly with the target’s feelings such as making time for the target, and praising the target’s work), cognitive engagement (i.e., engaging with the target’s cognition to change the way he or she feels such as giving the target advice), humor (i.e., improving the target’s mood by laughing with the target, and acting silly), and attention (i.e., strategies that imply that the target is being given attention such as spending time with the target) (Niven et al., 2009a).
Meanwhile, affect-worsening strategies were clustered under two categories that is, negative engagement and rejection. Negative engagement refers to the agent involving the target with a situation or affective state in order to worsen his or her affect” such as challenging the target’s behaviour, and asking the target to do boring tasks (Niven et al., 2009a, p. 504). Rejection on the other hand comprises of behaviours that “communicate snubbing of the target” for instance, being rude and unfriendly to the target (Niven et al., 2009a, p. 504). In a different study, Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009b) highlighted that the most common strategies used to improve targets’ feelings include “listening, joking, and complimenting” (p. 8) meanwhile most common strategies used to worsen targets’ feelings include “ignoring, mocking, and criticising” the target (Niven et al., 2009b, p. 8).

In a more recent model of interpersonal emotion regulation, Zaki and Williams (2013) distinguished types of interpersonal emotion regulation further. Within their work, they refer to interpersonal emotion regulation as defined in this thesis as ‘extrinsic emotion regulation’ and argued that this could take one of two key forms: response-independent versus response-dependent. According to Zaki and Williams (2013), “response-dependent processes rely on the particular qualities of another person’s feedback” (p. 805). Troth et al. (2017) further refers this process as a “dynamic regulation process” where “verbal and/or non-verbal feedback loop(s) from the target (receiver) act as a signal to the actor (sender) to either maintain or to modify her or his ER strategy” (p. 3). In contrast, response-independent processes do not require the other person to respond in any particular way (Zaki & Williams, 2013). For these processes, feedback loops are not considered and goals can still be accomplished without the target’s response (Troth et al., 2017).

A further model of interpersonal emotion regulation, proposed in a recent article by Dixon-Gordon, Bernecker, and Christensen (2015), sought to explain why problems may arise during interpersonal emotion regulation process. They presented four categories of problems associated with process: 1) problematic emotion regulatory goals of the agent (e.g., unrealistic goals); 2) problems with behaviour (e.g., unskilled implementation of intended strategy); 3) problems with encoding on the part of the agent (e.g., low emotional awareness); and 4) problems with decoding on the part of the target (e.g., interpretive biases). The researchers defined ‘encoding’ as ‘choosing an interpersonal behavioral strategy to achieve one’s
goal(s), while ‘decoding’ as ‘interpreting the other person’s behavior’ (Dixon-Gordon et al., 2015, p. 39).

2.4.1 Outcomes of interpersonal emotion regulation

Regulating one’s own emotions can produce socially desirable emotions (Hochschild, 1983) and it is also a key determinant of individual’s emotional well-being (Gross & John, 2003). But studies have suggested that performing interpersonal emotion regulation can also lead to various outcomes. One of the outcomes of interpersonal emotion regulation is that it can influence on longer-term affective states such as well-being of the target (regulated person) (Diamond & Aspinwall, 2003; Niven et al., 2009b), and the agent (regulating person) (Martínez-Ínigo, Poerio, & Totterdell, 2013; Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012). Interpersonal emotion regulation can be used to improve or worsen the target’s emotions. For instance, a worker who might be frustrated with a colleague’s lazy attitude might use strategies that can make the person feel bad such as ignoring the person (Niven et al., 2009b). Also, in a study conducted by Pierce (1999), she indicated that paralegals are frequently expected to improve their lawyers’ moods and emotions. A strategy may be successful if the target is unaware that the agent is attempting to improve or worsen the target’s emotions (Little, Kluemper, Nelson, & Gooty, 2012).

Engaging in strategies that can improve others’ emotions such as joking may lead to the target experiencing positive emotions (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2007) while emotion-worsening strategies such as mocking might lead to the target experiencing negative emotion and behaviour (Niven et al., 2007). The effect of interpersonal emotion regulation on the agent also depends on the agent’s anticipation of targets’ responses to interpersonal emotion regulation (Van Kleef, 2009). For instance, people might change others’ emotions (e.g., help them feel less anxious) with the expectation that in the future, others will reciprocate (Lively, 2000). Studies also show that people’s use of interpersonal emotion regulation can have an impact on the quality of the relationship between the agent and the target (Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016; Niven, Holman, & Totterdell, 2012). For instance, attempting to improve other people’s emotions may boost the quality of existing relationships (Niven, Holman, et al., 2012) and also form new relationships (Niven, Garcia, van der Löwe, Holman, & Mansell, 2015). In a study conducted by Niven, Totterdell, et al. (2012) in a high-security prison, they found that agents who tried to
improve others’ emotions can positively influence the quality of their relationship with the target. In addition, interpersonal emotion regulation is also linked to customer satisfaction and service quality (Barger & Grandey, 2006; Côté, Hideg, & Van Kleef, 2013; Hur, Moon, & Jung, 2015). Smiles and friendliness offered by employees to their customers is also linked to positive in-store moods in customers, which in turn contributed to customers’ greater intentions to return to the store and to recommend the store to friends (Tsai & Huang, 2002).

Studies have also demonstrated that using interpersonal emotion regulation toward others can also have an impact on targets’ behaviour (Little et al., 2016; Niven et al., 2009a). For instance, Little and colleagues (2016) described that a leader may attempt to direct his or her behaviour at distracting the follower in order to induce positive emotions. Strategies leaders can use to distract the followers to improve their emotions include humour (Little et al., 2016; Niven et al., 2009a).

2.4.2 Interpersonal emotion regulation in the emotional labour process

In theory, interpersonal emotion regulation ought to be a key way that workers can achieve emotional labour goals. However, to date very few studies have empirically explored interpersonal emotion regulation as an explicit form of emotional labour, and that the literature so far does not offer a great deal of insight into how both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation are used within the emotional labour process.

Given that emotional labour is a type of emotion regulation, it may be that both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies are used in order to achieve emotional labour goals (Grandey, Diefendorff, et al., 2013). Indeed, the broader literature from sociology and psychology has now started to shift the emphasis from Hochschild’s (1983) original concern, (i.e. the management of one’s own emotions) to recognising that interpersonal emotion regulation may also be part of the emotional labour process (Niven, 2016, 2017; Niven et al., 2013; Troth et al., 2017). In emotional labour, an employee is required to manage his or her emotions as part of their job. But because employees also have to manage the emotions of their customers as part of their job, interpersonal emotion regulation is performed as a form of emotional labour (Niven et al., 2013).

One of the main motivations that underlies people’s use of interpersonal emotion regulation in the workplace is emotional labour (Niven, 2016). People
engage in interpersonal emotion regulation to fulfill their job’s emotional labour requirements (Niven et al., 2013). Also, interpersonal emotion regulation is being used because it is expected as part of their job (Niven et al., 2013). For instance, retail salespeople are expected to increase customers’ enthusiasm during service interactions in order to secure sales (S. Lee & Dubinsky, 2003) and debt collectors are expected to induce anxiety in customers to increase compliance (R. Sutton, 1991). Rafaeli and Sutton (1990) also examined the use of interpersonal emotion regulation by cashiers towards customers in supermarkets. In their study, they found that cashiers used their emotional displays to effectively control their demanding customers (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990).

2.5 Motives for emotion regulation
Existing theories and research have suggested that service employees perform emotion regulation in customer interactions not just to adhere to display rules but they also have varying motives that drive their regulation of emotions (Niven, 2016; Tamir, 2016; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). Below, the existing literature on the motives underlying emotion regulation at work is summarised.

2.5.1 Bolton's (2005) four types of work-related motives
Bolton (2005) suggested in her work that understanding the reasons behind why service employees regulate their emotions can be complex as it is done not just for the purpose of receiving a wage. To gain a better understanding, Bolton introduced a typology of four motives for managing emotions. The first motive is pecuniary which suggests that service employees regulate their emotions in order to present a desirable image that complies with organisational display rules (Bolton, 2005). Those who manage their emotions for pecuniary reasons see management of emotional display as an instrumental step toward receiving their wage (Bolton, 2005). For instance, Bolton and Boyd (2003) indicated that flight attendants are required to display pleasant emotions when dealing with angry customers as part of their job. This motive closely corresponds to Hochschild's (1983) original terms of ‘emotional labour’ and ‘emotion work’ (Bolton, 2005; Bolton & Boyd, 2003).

The second motive is prescriptive. Those who regulate their emotions for prescriptive reasons attempt to comply with norms of the profession, either to maintain or attain status (Bolton, 2005; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). For instance, this
type of emotion management can be seen when a teacher displays excitement during class, not because the school expects him or her to do so, but because it is consistent with the teacher’s professional role to engage students and share knowledge. The third motive is **presentational**. Bolton (2005) suggested that emotional displays that result from this motive incorporate appropriate social displays learned from culture and experience so that the worker conforms to his or her conception of the implicit social rules rather than explicit organisational display rules (Bolton, 2005). In other words, service workers regulate their emotions a certain way because they believe that it is the right thing to do rather than doing it for a wage (Bolton, 2005).

Examples given by Bolton and Boyd (2003) include being happy at a wedding and sad at a funeral.

Finally, **philanthropic** motive is a special case of the presentational motive that occurs when a service worker is motivated to display his or her emotions as a “gift” to their interaction partner and at the same time, according to general social feeling rules (Bolton, 2005). For instance, a flight attendant takes his or her time to show empathy to a passenger who is scared of flying. Showing empathy to a scared passenger may not be part of their work role but some may do so as a gift to those who are in need. In a series of article, Bolton (Bolton, 2005; Bolton & Boyd, 2003) also argued that Hochschild’s theory of emotional labour is ‘absolutist’ because it assumes that organisations are able to control employees’ emotions. Instead, she believes that employees’ emotions are not a commodity that belongs to the organisation but the employee him or herself can control their own emotions.

### 2.5.2 Von Gilsa and Zapf's (2013) three basic motive categories

In the work of Von Gilsa and Zapf (2013), they suggested that people regulate their emotions to achieve short-term and long-term goals. They also indicated that there are three basic motive categories that consist of instrumental (to conform to organisational display rules), pleasure (to feel good, have pleasing relationships) and prevention (to keep control of a situation, prevent arguments) motives. The instrumental motives are partly based on work goals whereas the pleasure and prevention motives are based on personal goals (von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). Often service employees engage in emotion regulation when dealing with their customers to serve personal goals (pleasure motives) such as making themselves and their customers feel good (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013).
Service workers who regulate their emotions because of *instrumental* motives may not necessarily change the way they *feel* to attain instrumental goals (von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). Instead, they are likely to engage in surface acting to achieve these goals (von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). Those with *pleasure* motives on the other hand, often attempt to try to feel pleasant emotions rather than unpleasant emotions (von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). For instance, service workers may attempt to have quality interactions with their customers to increase pleasure while trying to avoid discomfort (von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013).

Finally, in terms of *prevention*, those who regulate their emotions because of this type of motive may attempt to prevent from a negative situation from occurring by faking their emotions (or surface acting). For instance, a service worker may try to fake his or her true emotions to avoid from any harmful events from occurring (e.g., customer complaints) when dealing with their customers.

### 2.5.3 Tamir’s (2016) taxonomy of motives

Tamir (2016) developed a taxonomy of motives for emotion regulation and suggested that people are motivated to regulate their emotions by *hedonic* goals and *instrumental* goals. People regulate their emotions to feel pleasure and avoid pain (hedonic) (Tamir, 2009, 2016). For instance, people often take steps to increase their feelings of happiness as it makes them feel good and try to decrease their feelings of sadness as it makes them feel worst.

Not only that, people tend to regulate their emotions according to the goals they want to achieve (Tamir, 2009). Normally these are long-term goals that may not provide them immediate pleasure but longer-term benefits (instrumental) (Tamir, 2016). For instance, Tamir (2009) suggested that although studying hard can be unpleasant, it can provide them with future academic success. Within the instrumental classification, Tamir (2016) further indicated that there are four main types of instrumental motives: performance, epistemic, social, and eudaimonic. Performance motives refers to the optimisation of performance to address one’s own goal such as increasing anger when it is expected to enhance one’s performance in a task (Tamir, 2016; Tamir, Mitchell, & Gross, 2008).

Epistemic motives relates to the desire to experience a particular emotion for the purpose of obtaining information about the world and oneself (Tamir, 2016). People may be encouraged to display positive emotions if happiness signals success
Next, social motives influence emotion regulation processes as a way of maintaining and developing better relationships with others (Tamir, 2016). To illustrate, individuals with a goal to be intimate with someone may display emotions that could increase closeness to others. Finally, eudaimonic motives capture the need to have a sense of meaning in life by being in control and feeling competent (Tamir, 2016). For instance, some people may watch sad movies that could induce unpleasant emotions as it could bring pleasure to them (Tamir, 2016). Although Tamir presented these motives, her theory assumes that the only reason why people regulate emotion is for personal benefit. Her theory fails to consider that people might regulate their emotions to benefit others and/or out of obligation.

2.5.4 Niven's (2016) dimensions of motivations for interpersonal emotion regulation

A more recent work by Niven (2016) suggested that employees regulate the emotions of others according to motives connected to three basic psychological needs of autonomy (intrinsic vs. extrinsic), relatedness (prosocial vs. egoistic), and competence (performance- vs. pleasure-oriented). These three needs which comes from Ryan and Deci’s (2000) self-determination theory were combined and she further developed eight motives for interpersonal emotion regulation and they are: coaching, compassion, instrumentality, hedonism, emotional labour, impression management, and identity construction.

The first motive is coaching. Those who regulate their emotions with coaching motives normally do so to boost other people’s performance (Niven, 2016). Also, one of the type of person who might be driven by this motive either hold formal or informal roles that involves leadership or mentoring (Niven, 2016). For instance, teachers regulate their students’ emotions when trying to improve their students’ learning (R. E. Sutton, Mudrey-Camino, & Knight, 2009). The second motive is compassion where Niven (2016) indicated that emotions are regulated for the benefit of others’ well-being.

Instrumentality motive on the other hand is similar to Tamir's (2009, 2016) instrumental motive. Those with instrumental motives engage in emotion regulation to benefit their own performance (Niven, 2016). The fourth motive identified by Niven (2016) is hedonism. She suggested that people regulate their emotions for their own pleasure rather than for performance. This motive is also similar to Tamir's
hedonistic motive, and Von Gilsa and Zapf's (2013) pleasure motive. Niven (2016) provided an example from Lively's (2000) study of paralegals to show that paralegals with hedonistic motives attempt to improve their colleagues’ emotions with the expectation that they would reciprocate in the future.

In terms of emotional labour motives, Niven (2016) suggested that employees would regulate their emotions for the benefit of others other than the self because they feel obligated to do so. For instance, flight attendants who try to remain pleasant when dealing with unruly passengers (Hochschild, 1983). Again, this reflects previous theories and research such as Bolton's (2005) pecuniary motives and Von Gilsa and Zapf's (2013) instrumental motives. The sixth motive which is conformity relates closely to Bolton's (2005) presentational motive. Similarly, emotions are regulated to conform to social norms (Bolton, 2005; Niven, 2016). For instance, expressing happiness when someone shares a positive news (Bolton & Boyd, 2003).

In terms of impression management, people are most likely to be driven by external expectations on how they should behave (Goffman, 1956; Niven, 2016). For instance, a leader may regulate their subordinate’s emotions according to what they feel is appropriate to maintain their image as a ‘good’ leader (Niven, 2016). The final category of motive is identity construction. People with such motive tend to build a socially desired identity according to expectations of others (Niven, 2016).

2.5.5 Summary of emotion regulation motives
The similarities between these organisational theories and research is that it extends Hochschild's (1983) conceptualisation of emotional labour which suggests that the motivation of service employees to regulate their emotions is not only driven by organisational pressure. Instead, service employees regulate their emotions due to various other reasons such as to make themselves feel good, to avoid conflict, and to form good relationships with others (e.g., von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). Furthermore, the existing literature universally suggests that service employees use different types of strategies to regulate their own and their target’s (e.g., customer) emotions to achieve these short-term or longer-term goals. However, these sources focus mainly on the service employees’ motives for emotion regulation. But very little is known about the motives of customers that may also drive the employees to regulate their
emotions. In the following sections, I suggest that targets are active and they too play an important role in the emotional labour process.

2.5.6 The role of targets in the emotional labour process

In the past, targets were traditionally seen as passive recipients of emotional labour. The focus of most research on emotional labour lies on the experience of the ‘agent’, that is the employee who is expected to perform emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Niven et al., 2013). These theories and studies mostly view the agent as a key figure in the emotional labour process (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Leidner, 1999; Niven et al., 2013). The agent plays a typical role as someone who is expected to experience and express certain feelings during service interactions in order to influence customers’ emotions, attitudes, and behaviours (Cropanzano et al., 2004; Hochschild, 1983; Pugh, 2001). Also, studies have mostly looked at two prevailing emotional labour strategies that agents perform when serving customers that is, surface acting and deep acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Furthermore, most studies have also focused on the damaging consequences of emotional labour on the agent (Hochschild, 1983; Pugliesi, 1999). For instance, in Hochschild’s study of flight attendants, she reported that flight attendants who performed emotional labour suffered from burnout, sense of inauthenticity, and loss of feelings. This has led to a relative neglect of the role potentially played by the ‘target’, that is the recipient of the employee’s emotional labour efforts, in the process.

Some theories now suggest that how targets respond to agents’ emotional labour influences the effects that it has. Several theoretical pieces more recently even suggested that targets might engage in emotion regulation during the emotional labour process themselves (Niven et al., 2013). Emotional labour can no longer be considered as a linear process whereby an agent engages in emotion regulation in the presence of, or directed towards a passive target (Côté, Van Kleef, et al., 2013; Niven, 2016; Niven et al., 2013). Instead, emotional labour should be viewed as a reciprocal process where both the agent and target are active in the process (Gracia & Ashkanasy, 2014; Niven et al., 2013). In Niven et al.’s work (2013), they explained, “both the employee and target actively engage in emotion regulation, and the regulatory efforts and expressed emotions of both parties feed forward to influence their own emotions and regulatory behaviors and those of the other party.
involved.” (p. 109). Targets’ response to emotional labour influences the effects emotional labour has on agents (Côté, 2005; Martínez-iñigo et al., 2007). Targets may also provide feedback to the agent whether they should maintain or modify their future emotion regulation strategy (Gracia & Ashkanasy, 2014). However, no empirical work has yet sought to study the potentially active target role.

2.6 Factors influencing emotional labour

Although studies have pointed out that the outcomes of emotion regulation depends on the strategies used to regulate one’s own and others’ emotions, researchers have also stressed the importance of being cognisant of other factors that may influence the emotional labour process. Prior research suggests that factors such as age and culture are associated with emotional labour (e.g., Allen, Diefendorff, & Ma, 2014; Dahling & Perez, 2010; Mesquita & Walker, 2003). Most of the studies have focused on differences in the experience of emotions (e.g., Mesquita & Walker, 2003), and how these factors shape the way agents regulate their own emotions (e.g., Tsai & Lau, 2013). Also, studies suggest that as workers grow older, they become more concerned with enhancing their well-being thus they engage more in deep acting to change from feeling negative or neutral to feeling positive (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Mather & Carstensen, 2005).

In an organisational context, studies have also looked at factors such as organisational support (Schat & Kelloway, 2003), job characteristics (Pugliesi, 1999), and job autonomy (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey et al., 2004, 2005) that influences the way employees perform their emotional labour. Yet, factors that influence how people use both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation to achieve emotional labour and how these same factors might influence the effects of this process remain unclear.

2.6.1 Gender

One of the factors that have been looked at by past emotional labour researchers is gender. A large body of studies have concluded that men and women in frontline service occupations and also professional jobs perform and experience emotional labour differently (Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2015; Hochschild, 1983; Simpson & Stroh, 2004; Timmers, Fischer, & Manstead, 1998), and with different outcomes (Guy et al., 2015; Hochschild, 1983). Women are
expected to take on more relational and emotionally draining duties (Hochschild, 1983; Pugliesi, 1999; Wharton & Erickson, 1993) that involves dealing with others such as children, intimate partners, colleagues, and customers that require more emotional labour effort (Lively, 2013; S. E. Martin, 1999).

Women are also more likely to express organisationally desired emotions and suppress felt emotions that are inappropriate during customer interactions compared to men (Grandey, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Flight attendants, most of whom are women and bill collectors, most of whom are men, offer an example. Female flight attendants are routinely expected to suppress negative emotions such as anger when dealing with misbehaving passengers in favour of positive emotions such as warmth and friendliness (Hochschild, 1983). In contrast, bill collectors are expected to display negative emotions, such as anger and irritation when dealing with debtors, while suppressing positive emotions such as sympathy (R. Sutton, 1991).

People also have different expectations regarding emotional displays for men than for women (Mann, 2007). For instance, women are expected to be emotionally expressive (e.g., express warmth, empathy), and nurturing (Guy et al., 2015; Guy & Newman, 2004; Hochschild, 1983) toward others. In terms of nurturing, Hochschild (1983) noted in her seminal work, “… some women are motherly; they support and enhance the well-being and status of others. But in being motherly, they may also act motherly and may sometimes experience themselves using the motherly act to win regard from others” (p. 182). In Martin's (1999) study of police officers, she indicated that female police officers are generally tasked with duties that require displays of support, compassion, or empathy such as dealing with distraught victims.

Also, studies have reported women using a wider range of emotion regulation strategies than men (Cottingham, Erickson, & Diefendorff, 2015; Nolen-Hoeksema & Aldao, 2011). In a meta-analysis conducted by Tamres, Janicki, and Helgeson (2002) they found that women were highly likely to use coping strategies that involved verbal expressions to others or the self for the purpose of seeking emotional support and ruminate about problems. Women were also more likely to distract themselves from feeling angry (Rusting & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998). Men on the other hand are stereotyped as emotionally detached (Erickson & Grove, 2008; Wharton & Erickson, 1993) and less affectively involved (Guy et al., 2015; S. E. Martin, 1999; Pierce, 1999). They are also more likely to stay affectively neutral, rational, and professional in their interactions with others (Lively, 2013).
According to Gross and John (2003), men tend to suppress their emotions more compared to women. They are also more likely to confront a problem, and deny a problem exists (Tamres et al., 2002). When regulating their emotions, men may engage “more automatic, less deliberate processes” compared to women (McRae, Ochsner, Mauss, & Gross, 2008). They are seen as less concerned with the negative consequences of failing to express positive emotions towards others compared to women (Stoppard & Gruchy, 1993). In addition, women and men also demonstrate different patterns of emotional expression even within the same job (Leidner, 1991, 1993; Rafaeli, 1989). Rafaeli’s (1989) study on store clerks for example, found that female clerks displayed higher levels of positive emotions to their customers than the male clerks.

Men and women have different motivations for regulating their emotions (Timmers et al., 1998). Men are more motivated to stay in control and display emotions that display power such as pride or anger, while women are more concerned with relationships and more likely to express emotions that express negotiation (Timmers et al., 1998). More positive emotional expressions from women may be due to the different goals and motives that women aim to achieve (Timmers et al., 1998). Women are more concerned with maintaining relationships by making others happy compared to men who were more motivated to display emotions that signalled power (Timmers et al., 1998). Men also tend to avoid from being seen as “emotional” as it may signal them as “powerless” (Timmers et al., 1998, p. 975). Studies have also shown that customers tend to respond differently to men and women who perform emotional labour. For instance, in Hochschild's (1983) seminal work, she found that female flight attendants are easier targets of verbal abuse from passengers.

2.6.2 Setting
Another factor that may influence the emotional labour process is the type of organisation that agents work within. Most organisations have implicit or explicit requirements concerning the way employees express their emotions (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). People may engage in different kinds of emotion regulation to fulfil these requirements. But the emotional expectations or requirements of one organisation could be very different than another organisation in the same sector (Diefendorff et al., 2011; Rayner & Espinoza, 2015). Even in specific units,
emotional expressions may differ to another unit within an organisation (Diefendorff et al., 2011). For example, often service organisations have display rules that specify the exact greetings that service workers should use (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Like workers in fast food restaurants, they may have scripts that they are required to say to their customers such as “thank you” or “have a nice day” while other types of restaurants, workers may be given greater freedom to express themselves (Humphrey et al., 2008). Furthermore Humphrey et al. (2008) provided an example of how flight attendants in one airline (i.e., Southwest Airlines) are required to display their emotions differently compared to other airlines. They indicated that flight attendants are required to tell jokes or act spontaneously when dealing with their customers (Humphrey et al., 2008).

Also, other studies that have made comparisons between different settings are mostly conducted in clinical settings. For instance, Gray and Smith (2009) explored the emotional labour of nurses in three different clinical settings (i.e., primary care, mental health, and children’s oncology) in a hospital in the United Kingdom. In their study, they reported that nurses engage in emotional labour differently and this is due in large part to the differences such as the patients that the nurses had to care for, the clinical guidelines, and also the cultures of care within each setting (Gray & Smith, 2009). Also, in a similar setting, Diefendorff et al. (2011) found that nurses in specific hospital units who deal with certain types of patients (e.g., children) or certain types of illness (e.g., cancer), are expected to express different forms of positive emotions to patients, and their families. This may differ to nurses in other units who encounter different work environment (Diefendorff et al., 2011). To illustrate further, nurses in units such as Level-1 trauma emergency rooms are expected to show empathy and compassion towards their patients and their patients’ families during high emotional times compared to nurses in units such as childbirth education (Diefendorff et al., 2011).

2.6.3 Seniority

Studies suggest that when an employee’s job position increases in seniority, he or she will experience emotional labour differently. This may be due to factors such as greater position power and autonomy (Humphrey et al., 2008; Morris & Feldman, 1997), and even the different job roles and expectations of the workers (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2011). Another reason is due to the wider range of
emotions (i.e., more freedom to express emotions) that senior workers can display when they are given a higher position (S. Ma, Silva, Trigo, & Callan, 2015).

The level of responsibility between those in a junior level versus senior level may vary too. For instance, in a clinical study conducted by Baldwin and Daugherty (2004) they suggested that junior doctors work longer hours, have demanding patient loads, and suffer from sleep deprivation and fatigue than other groups of doctors. Meanwhile, in a study conducted in a television station, Hesmondhalgh and Baker (2011) found that junior employees are required to tolerate the negative outcomes of emotional labour which was necessary to sustain a television program. Furthermore, they indicated that the pressure to deliver work has a strong influence on the worker’s ability to perform emotional labour (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2011).

2.6.4 **Methodological approaches in emotional labour research**

Methodologically, emotional labour researchers have used different approaches to understand the nature of emotional labour. However, a number of researchers have claimed that most studies have been qualitative and interpretive in nature, exploring how service employees regulate their emotions during employee-customer interactions. It started with Hochschild's (1983) qualitative study of flight attendants and bill collectors. This was continued by others such as Rafaeli and Sutton's (1990) work involving cashiers, Tolich (1993) who explored supermarket clerks, Martin's (1999) study on police officers, and Shuler and Sypher's (2000) work on 911 dispatchers.

Although these studies have been regularly cited, the current literature suggests that emotional labour research has graduated itself from a mere qualitative approach to a quantitative approach. Many researchers have used a more systematic, quantitative approach to measure the dimensions and nature of emotional labour among workers such as nurses, bank tellers, clerks, and university staff (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugliesi, 1999) despite existing studies have suggested that the qualitative approach allow researchers to explore the individual experiences of those who perform emotional labour (e.g., Anleu & Mack, 2005; Houben & Wüstner, 2014). For instance, Pugliesi's (1999) work looks at the consequences of emotional labour on university staff job satisfaction and well-being. She reported that emotional labour was a cause of psychological distress (Pugliesi, 1999).
Furthermore, since the publication of Hochschild’s work on emotional labour, the majority of emotional labour research use a narrow subset of measures of emotional labour that focus on intrapersonal emotion regulation processes. These studies focus on service workers’ attempt to regulate their own emotional experience. However, there are newly developed measures for interpersonal emotion regulation but has not been applied much to the emotional labour literature.

2.7 Theories that have informed this research
To make better sense of the emotional labour process, and in particular how the intra- and interpersonal emotion regulation used by a worker in accordance with emotional labour expectations can affect outcomes such as the worker’s well-being and the satisfaction or engagement of the intended target(s), this study draws from several existing theories. The existing theories I draw from are Van Kleef’s (2009) emotions as social information (EASI) theory, Holman and colleagues’ (2008b) emotional labour process model, and Hareli and Rafaeli’s (2008) emotion cycle. I begin this section by outlining each of these theories, emphasising in particular the key elements that have informed this study.

2.7.1 Emotion as social information (EASI) model
A model of emotion that has emerged in recent years and is particularly relevant to this study is the emotions as social information (EASI) (see Figure 2.1) (Van Kleef, 2009, 2016; Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2010). Van Kleef (2009, 2016) introduced this model to describe the interpersonal effects of emotions in social and organisational life. A foundational assumption of this model is that social life is often “ambiguous” (Van Doorn, Van Kleef, & Van der Pligt, 2015, p. 1) and that emotional expressions help to “disambiguate social situations” by providing essential information to others (e.g., about agent’s feelings and attitudes) during interpersonal interactions (Van Kleef, 2017, p. 213). These emotional footprints that are left may shape how the target interprets and reacts upon receiving them (Friesen et al., 2013; Van Kleef, Homan, & Beersma, 2010; Van Kleef, Van Doorn, Heerdink, & Koning, 2011). For instance, negotiators make sense of their counterpart’s preferences and priorities via the emotions displayed by them and use this to develop appropriate strategies to find mutually agreed outcomes (Pietroni, Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Pagliaro, 2008).
Figure 2.1. Emotions as social information model (Van Kleef, 2009, 2016)

The EASI model originated as a theory about how one person’s emotional expression can influence the behaviour of those who observe it. However, the ideas from the theory are more widely applicable to understanding the emotional labour process. Specifically, EASI can be used to understand how the intra- and interpersonal emotion regulation used by an employee, in performance of emotional labour, can affect the behaviour and outcomes of others (e.g., the recipients or targets of emotional labour). EASI distinguishes two broadly defined ways in which agents’ emotion regulation, as engaged during emotional labour, could influence the behaviour and outcomes of targets: affective reactions or inferential process (Côté, Van Kleef, et al., 2013; Van Kleef, 2009, 2016).

The first way in which an agent’s emotion regulation can influence the behaviour and outcomes of targets, according to the EASI model, is through activating affective reactions in targets, which may subsequently influence their behaviour (Van Kleef et al., 2011). Affective reactions refer to relatively automatic, emotional responses to emotional processes, such as emotion regulation (Van Kleef, 2009). This pathway operates by influencing targets’ impressions of others that may be triggered through the effects of emotional contagion (Van Kleef, 2009) in which targets “catch” or mimic the emotions of another person during social interactions (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993, p. 96) through different forms of “affective feedback” (Van Kleef, 2016, p. 39), resulting in a change in the targets’ experienced emotion (Pugh, 2001). Studies on emotional contagion have shown that targets’ emotional state can change when they are exposed to an agent’s positive or negative emotions (Hatfield et al., 1993; Pugh, 2001). In addition to emotional contagion,
affective reactions may take the form of favourable and unfavourable impressions (Hareli & Hess, 2010; Knutson, 1996). Van Kleef et al. (2011) suggested that such impressions may in turn shape social behaviour. For instance, people have the tendency to help others if they like them but deny help if they feel otherwise (Clark & Taraban, 1991).

The second way in which EASI explains that an agent’s emotion regulation can influence the behaviour and outcomes of targets is through the inferential pathway. This pathway involves the target of emotion regulation making a series of inferences or appraisals relating to the agent’s internal states (e.g., feelings, attitudes, behavioural intentions) based on the agent’s emotional processes, such as their emotion regulation (Van Kleef, 2009). These inferences may shape subsequent behaviour (Van Kleef, 2016) as targets may distil useful pieces of information from the agent’s emotion regulation to better understand the situation and help them decide on how to act (Furley, Moll, & Memmert, 2015; Van Kleef, 2009, 2016). To illustrate, Van Kleef (2009) reported that work teams use the emotions of their group leaders to infer the quality of their performance. When the leader expressed anger, the work teams inferred that they were performing poorly, and when the leader was happy, the work teams inferred that they were performing well (Van Kleef, 2009).

One of the potential limitations to using EASI alone as a guiding framework when trying to better understand the process of emotional labour is that while the model does explain some key factors that might influence the effects of emotional labour, these factors are micro-level, relating to information processing motivations or tendencies of the target, and social-relational context (e.g., whether an act of emotion regulation is considered appropriate in a given interaction). Other factors like characteristics of the regulator and the type of organisational context are not considered within the model, but may also be important. A further limitation is that the EASI model can be seen as static and linear. The model lacks consideration of the dynamics of the emotional labour process, such as how the changes of the target’s behaviour can affect the agent, and how the agent performs subsequent emotional labour. Moreover, the possibility of the target playing a more active role still in the emotional labour process is not evident from EASI. With these weaknesses in mind, two other theories are considered.
2.7.2 Emotional labour process model

A second relevant theoretical framework is the process model of emotional labour (see Figure 2.2) (Holman et al., 2008a). In an integrative review of emotional labour, Holman and colleagues (2008) presented this model suggesting that using emotion regulation is an effortful process that can be exhausting for employees when performing emotional labour because it consumes valued resources (especially when particular strategies are chosen) and that feedback from customers via their responses to emotional labour can either bolster resources (and so mitigate exhaustion) or further threaten resources (and so exacerbate exhaustion). Consequently, the employee who engages in emotional labour may experience a decrease in his or her well-being.

Figure 2.2. A model of emotional labour and its outcomes (Holman et al., 2008a)

In their model, Holman and colleagues highlight several resources that are likely to be affected by emotional labour. One such resource is effort. Researchers have identified that the process of regulating emotions as effortful, and consumes valuable resources such as energy (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Holman et al., 2008a; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). When in a situation where effort is needed to regulate (one’s own or others’) emotions, energy reserves can be depleted, thereby leading to lower well-being (e.g., feeling exhausted) (Holman et al., 2008a). The amount of effort may vary depending on whether emotions are regulated spontaneously or with conscious awareness.
(Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Zapf, 2002), and the strategy that is chosen (e.g., in Holman and colleagues’ model, which focuses on intrapersonal emotion regulation, deep acting is posited to be less effortful than surface acting), and whether the emotions regulated are positive or negative (e.g., to display negative emotion is thought to require more effort than to display positive emotion; Holman, Martínez-Iñigo, et al., 2008).

Another such resource is rewarding relationships. Resources are gained from rewarding relationships, and thereby leading to an improvement in well-being (i.e., lower emotional exhaustion) (Holman et al., 2008a; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). This model does not suggest the role of the target but feedback or reactions of the target may threaten the agent’s relationship with the target. According to Holman et al. (2008a), negative expression of emotions has negative consequences for the agent for instance, the agent may experience more negative customer reactions and less rewarding relationships. Meanwhile emotional displays that are perceived positive and authentic are likely to create rewarding relationships (Holman et al., 2008a).

Two further resources – self-efficacy and self-authenticity are also affected by employees’ use of emotional labour. Bandura (1995) refers self-efficacy to “beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (p. 2). Emotional labour reduces self-efficacy (Holman et al., 2008a). The inauthenticity of faking expressions, or surface acting, reduces self-efficacy (Holman et al., 2008a). Emotional labour may also expend or threaten to expend self-authenticity, which is an important predictor of well-being (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997). Self-authenticity may be threatened through the use of strategies that alienate the employee from his or her true feelings and/or true sense of self (Holman et al., 2008a). Low self-authenticity is linked to emotional exhaustion, low mood, and low well-being (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Gross & John, 2003; Sheldon et al., 1997). Feedback from the target may influence each of the four resources highlighted (i.e., effort, rewarding relationship, self-efficacy and self-authenticity and rewarding relationship). When an agent performs emotional labour (using intrapersonal or interpersonal emotion regulation), this model suggests that feedback from the target plays a major role in determining the agents’ well-being and the resources that they have left to engage in further emotional labour. Other models such as Côté’s (2005) social interaction model similarly recognise the idea that feedback from targets can influence agents’ well-being and emotional labour.
This model builds on Van Kleef’s EASI model by closing the feedback loop. The model explains how the effects of emotional labour on targets may in turn translate into effects for agents. However, the model still does not acknowledge a fully active and intentional role for targets in the emotional labour process. Moreover, while some factors that might influence the effects of emotional labour are noted in the model (e.g., the type of strategy used), these are more micro level factors. Because of this, I turn to Hareli and Rafaeli’s (2008) emotion cycles.

2.7.3 Emotion cycles
With interest in how emotions are “caught” by the target, and how emotions are managed between the agent and the target, I examined Hareli and Rafaeli’s (2008) theoretical proposition “emotion cycles”. Hareli and Rafaeli (2008) argue that emotions have interpersonal effects. Individual’s emotions can elicit responses in others, which in turn can influence the future emotions of the individual (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). For instance, an angry person may induce others to become angry, and in turn, others can return anger back to the person, resulting a cyclical process (Hareli & Hess, 2008).

Hareli and Rafaeli (2008) also pointed out that agents can evoke feelings on others through three processes: mimicking, emotion interpretation, and drawing inferences. Targets can automatically and unconsciously mimic agent’s emotions (i.e., emotion contagion) (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). The expression of anger, for example, may create anger to the target of the expressed anger (emotion mimicking), which may lead to further anger of the original expresser (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). In terms of emotion interpretation, targets may also interpret the emotions of the agent without directly mimicking the emotions. For instance, targets may react to an agent’s anger with a complementary emotion such as fear (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). This may lead to the agent feeling embarrassed and the target feeling relieved (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Finally, targets make various inferences of the agent’s emotions, and these inferences affect themselves and the agent’s subsequent emotions (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Here, Tiedens, Ellsworth, and Mesquita (2000) and Hareli and Rafaeli (2008) suggested that power or status of the agent can shape how targets infer and react to the emotional displays of the agent. Emotion cycles tend to begin with less powerful people who mimic the emotional behaviour of those with high power (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). For instance, targets may infer the agent’s
expression of anger as high power and lead to the target distancing from the agent (and the agent attempting to reduce his or her anger) (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008).

This theory is useful for framing the current study as it suggests that targets are active in the process – targets make sense of and interpret the emotions of the agent, and in return, the targets’ response influence the subsequent behaviour of the agent. Also, the theory suggests that factors such as the differences in power can influence how emotions affect one’s emotions.

2.7.4 Developing the research questions
Based on the available theoretical and empirical literature, emotions not only influence those who feel and express them but also those who perceive those expressions (i.e., the target) (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Van Kleef, 2009). Yet, there appear to be areas and omissions that require more interrogation. For instance, it is known that people use intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies in the emotional labour process but there is not much information about interpersonal emotion regulation. There are a few existing measures that have been mentioned in the approaches to studying emotional labour but they haven’t been widely adopted and the focus on quantitative methods have restricted people’s understanding of various different methods and strategies that may be used. Likewise, there isn’t much insight on how people combine these different strategies. This argument leads to the development of my first research question: ‘How do people use intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation in emotional labour?’

The development of research question 2 – ‘How do targets respond to emotional labour?’ and research question 3 – ‘How do targets’ responses influence agent’s well-being and subsequent emotional labour?’ is based on the idea that target is more active and agent’s emotional labour initiates feedback from the target. I argue that there is an emerging literature that talks about this theoretically but empirically there is very little research looking at this in practice. The final research question ‘What factors influence how agents perform emotional labour?’ is posed and developed based on the idea that there are various factors that could influence the emotional labour process.

Summary
This chapter has explored the literature on emotional labour using the work of
Hochschild (1983) as a theoretical base. This review established a conceptual starting point for an empirical understanding of emotional labour. The review emphasised the main parts and ideas of Hochschild's (1983) theory such as surface acting, and deep acting. The review then presented recent literatures that suggest emotional labour as a form of intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. The chapter ends with three theoretical approaches that guide this study. In the following chapter, I will shift the focus to another important concept in this study that is, student engagement in higher education, in order to apply the theoretical approaches described here more specifically to understanding emotional labour and how it can influence student engagement in the higher education context. The research questions are also refined in this chapter.
CHAPTER 3 - EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

3 Introduction

As presented in Chapter 2, emotional labour is a feature of many jobs (e.g., flight attendants, tour leaders), and may be crucial to the success of people in a range of professions. In this chapter, the focus shifts from understanding the process of emotional labour in general, to understanding emotional labour and its implications in the context of higher education. In particular, the relevance of emotional labour for student engagement is central to this chapter. I will first provide a general overview on the higher education context and the nature and role of academics in higher education institutions, highlighting also the changing landscape, current pressures, and demands on universities. I then explore how academics manage their own and their students’ emotions as part of the emotional labour process, ultimately in pursuit of student engagement, and consider how students might play an active role in emotional labour.

3.1 The higher education context

The landscape of higher education in both developed and developing countries continues to change at an accelerating rate. Scholars have found that the decline in government funding (Molesworth, Scullion, & Nixon, 2011), increase in tuition fees (J. Williams, 2013), competition to attract students (Molesworth, Nixon, & Scullion, 2009), as well as strong emphasis on achieving high university rankings (Locke, 2014), are some of the factors that have led many universities to make significant changes and improvements in their higher education system. The pressures and challenges that universities face force them to change the way they provide their services, engage with their stakeholders (e.g., students), and rethink their role (Molesworth et al., 2011). While the fundamental goals of higher education institutions include contributing to a country’s economic growth and providing high quality in teaching and learning for potential students (Schuller, 1996), universities are increasingly responsible for meeting the demands of students who are now perceived as ‘consumers’ (Hazelkorn, 2015; Lawless, 2018; Maringe, 2011; Molesworth et al., 2011; J. Williams, 2013).
Over the past three decades, studies have revealed that student experience in universities has changed considerably (Tomlinson, 2017). McInnis (2002) claims that students are even in a powerful position to shape and develop their academic experience. This is due to the rise of student consumerism in higher education institutions where students who hold consumerist attitudes towards their education feel that they are entitled to get the best possible experience in higher education in exchange for tuition payments (Finney & Finney, 2010). This has led to universities placing more emphasis on students’ worth rather than what students learn (Fitzgerald, 2012). In the United Kingdom (UK), for example, students have been defined as customers since tuition fees had been introduced (Bunce, Baird, & Jones, 2016).

Universities in the UK and those across the world are being affected by marketisation that require them to become competitive and efficient in both teaching and research (Lesnik-Oberstein, 2015). According to Trowler (2010), the pressures faced by higher education institutions mean that attracting, retaining, satisfying, and developing students so that they are able to graduate successfully is now a top priority for universities. The continuous change in the university system is contributing to the shift in the nature of work among academics as the responsibility to constantly maintain the quality of higher education is mainly borne by them (Fitzgerald, 2012; Maringe, 2011; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004; J. Williams, 2013).

3.1.1 Academics’ job roles
The work of an academic typically involves teaching, research, administrative, and leadership duties (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). Academics are also expected to help students equip with the necessary skills to enter the labour market (Bellas, 1999; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). But not all academics perform the same amount of duties. The amount of time spent, and how academics perform these duties may vary depending on the type of institution the academics are working for (Altbach, 2011; Enders & Tiechler, 1997; Menon, 2003). Every university will have its own particular focus (e.g., research versus teaching) and specific mission, and needs of the faculty, department, and even stakeholders (e.g., students, employers) that could influence how academics perform these role (Menon, 2003). For instance, academics in research-focused universities are expected to spend more time conducting research than academics in teaching-focused universities (Altbach, 2011; Menon, 2003).
Also, it is possible that the type of institution might influence expectations on academics to perform emotional labour (from both the organisation and students) as well as how academics respond to such expectations. A key aspect of institution type may be the focus of the university, specifically, whether its main focus is on research or teaching (research-focused versus teaching-focused). Academics may be required to adhere to different expectations that are set by the institutions. For instance, academics in teaching-focused universities may be required to engage in more emotional labour due to the high teaching hours compared to those in research-focused universities.

Academics are also expected to help students mature intellectually and emotionally, as well as motivate and stimulate them during lectures (Bellas, 1999) in an engaging way (Antoniadou, Sandiford, Wright, & Alker, 2015). It is likely that a higher proportion of academics’ time involves interacting and dealing with students (Berry & Cassidy, 2013). The tasks that academics are expected to perform may require them to display different types of emotions over a prolonged period (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). Due to the different roles and responsibilities, academics are prone to feeling emotionally exhausted (Johnson et al., 2005; Zapf, 2002), and stress (Barcan, 2013). This is partly due to the pressuring workloads and lack of support from their institutions (Davies & Bansel, 2005), as well as the need to frequently maintain and project a positive ethos for others to view them as professional (Barcan, 2013). As a consequence, academics’ roles and responsibilities may be hard to clarify and execute.

3.1.2 Student engagement

Another particularly important task for academics relates to student engagement. Student engagement involves students’ behavioural, emotional, and cognitive participation (Fredricks et al., 2004; Trowler, 2010) in the learning experience (Marks, 2000) and educational activities (Coates, 2005). Behavioural engagement refers to the effort and participation of students in academic, social or extracurricular activities (Fredricks et al., 2004). Meanwhile, cognitive engagement involves students’ psychological investment in learning such as their willingness to engage in learning. Finally, emotional engagement focuses on the positive and negative reactions to instructors, peers and the academic context, such as belonging and liking (Ablard & Lipschultz, 1998; Fredricks et al., 2004).
Student engagement has been widely recognised as an important construct that is positively linked with outcomes such as academic achievement, well-being, students’ learning, and social interaction in the classroom (Carini et al., 2006; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Goetz et al., 2006; Kahu, 2013; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Reyes et al., 2012). Conversely, a lack of student engagement can be a threat to learning; disengaged students may lead to student alienation, dissatisfaction, low academic achievement, and student drop out (Fredricks et al., 2004). Students who are not engaged are generally passive, and tend to show boredom, anger and also anxiety in class (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Also, McInnis (2002) had previously indicated that student disengagement causes difficulties for academics on a daily basis. For such reasons, Coates (2005) suggested that student engagement is a reliable indicator of a university’s quality of education. That is, the more students are engaged in their studies, the better the university will be (Harper & Quaye, 2014).

The university environment where learning takes place requires not only the use of learning strategies, self-discipline, and self-knowledge on the part of the student but also the careful implementation of various strategies on the part of the academic that can encourage student engagement. In a study conducted by Harper and Quaye (2014), they indicated that universities cannot expect that students are responsible for engaging themselves, but it is the responsibility of the whole university staff including the faculty and student affairs educator. Meanwhile, Kahu (2013) described in detail that the responsibility for improving student engagement lies with the student, academic, institution, and also the government. Most universities have strategies to address student engagement, and they are constantly reviewing and updating these strategies (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2015; Harper & Quaye, 2014; Zepke & Leach, 2010). For instance, in the United States and Canada, the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) is used to help measure the level of student participation and engagement in universities. Also, enhancing student engagement is viewed as an important skill for academics but may be a difficult responsibility for them to fulfil (Zeki et al., 2012).

Zepke and Leach (2010) had proposed 10 ways to improve student engagement. The suggestions include, recognising that “teaching and teachers are central to engagement,” and creating “learning that is active, collaborative and fosters learning relationships” (p. 169). Also, they suggested to enhance students’ educational experiences so that it becomes more challenging, enriching, and help
enhance the students’ academic abilities and students’ self-belief (Zepke & Leach, 2010). In their study, they also described student engagement as a transactional process where both the student and educator play a major role in the process. This means that not only are academics responsible for engaging students, but students also play an active part in the process.

A further key factor that influences student engagement is thought to be students’ emotional experience, as educational environments are considered as social settings that are infused with emotional experiences. Indeed, Linnenbrink-Garcia and Pekrun (2011) suggest emotions to be the key mediator between individual differences and levels of engagement. In a study conducted by Goetz, Pekrun, Hall, and Haag (2006), they indicated that emotions that are directly linked to learning, classroom instruction, and achievement can either benefit or undermine students’ engagement. This suggests that one important way in which academics can play an influential role in student engagement is via their impact on students’ emotions.

3.2 The concept of emotional labour in academia

It seems likely that that the academic job role satisfies Hochschild's (1983) description of emotional labour. That is, academics are required to deal with the demands of customers (in this case, students) and the organisation (higher education institution) on a frequent basis, and at the same time, they may be expected to display appropriate expression of emotions to meet these demands. Evidence for this expectation can mostly be found in studies of educators within the school context (e.g., kindergarten, primary school, and high school), with teachers forming the main sample (Brown, Vesely, Mahatmya, & Visconti, 2017; Kinman et al., 2011; Näring et al., 2006; Richardson, Alexander, & Castleberry, 2008). For example, studies show that teachers experience high levels of emotional labour, and that teachers put a great deal of effort to express desired emotions (Hargreaves, 2000; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Kinman et al., 2011). Also, teachers who regulate their emotions are seen as more effective in teaching (R. E. Sutton & Harper, 2009), management, discipline, and their relationship with their students (R. E. Sutton et al., 2009).

A study by Sutton and Harper (2009) suggested that teachers felt the need to self-regulate their own emotions as part of their duty, believing that emotion regulation was crucial for successful teaching. Teachers regularly find suitable ways to control their negative emotions when they face situations that may make them feel
angry, frustrated, and sad (Hargreaves, 2000), and when their goals of promoting student learning are disrupted (e.g., due to student misbehaviour) (Sutton, 2004). Negative emotions such as yelling, can provoke harmful emotions in students such as shame, guilt, and embarrassment (R. E. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). In general, teachers tend to down-regulate (i.e., reduce) unpleasant emotions more than up-regulate (i.e., increase) pleasant emotions (Jiang, Vauras, Volet, & Wang, 2016). Some of the strategies used include reappraisal, self-talk, and empathy (Jiang et al., 2016). For instance, in a study conducted by Jiang et al. (2016), one of the teachers reported that he employed the self-talk strategy by dealing with his own negative emotions internally. Also, teachers recall humorous memories to reduce the feeling of anger when dealing with a disobedient student (R. E. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The purpose of emotion regulation in this context is to manage the classroom (R. E. Sutton et al., 2009), to maintain order (Averill, 1982; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015), and above all to increase student motivation and engagement (R. E. Sutton, 2004; Webster & Hadwin, 2015).

While these studies concentrate on emotional labour in the school context, studies in the higher education context is growing slowly, but still remain limited (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Hagenauer & Volet, 2014b; Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017). Studies have suggested that academics may share some of the emotional labours that school teachers experience but a better understanding of the emotions experienced by academics in higher education institutions is needed (e.g., Hagenauer & Volet, 2014). As Sutton (2004) previously noted, different educational settings may have different emotional display expectations. For instance, academics may be required to suppress different types of emotions due to the varying tasks that they are expected to perform compared to teachers (Mahoney, Buboltz, Doverspike, & Buckner, 2011).

### 3.2.1 Academics’ emotional labour

Like teachers, higher education institutions are considered as service providers, with academics seen as frontline workers who must regulate emotions in order to meet the conflicting demands of consumers (i.e., students) and the organisation (i.e., institution) (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Koster, 2011; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Not many studies have been conducted in the higher education context compared to schools, but available studies have pointed out that academics perform higher levels of emotional labour than other service sector jobs (e.g., Berry & Cassidy, 2013). As
Koster (2011) describes, emotional labour is “… an invisible, unacknowledged and unrewarded part of the lecturer’s job that has to be self-managed” (p. 70).

Available studies suggest that academics use a range of intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies (i.e., surface acting and deep acting) to control their negative emotions in the classroom (Bellas, 1999). This is evident in a recent study by Krishnan and Kasinathan (2017), where they found that most academics employed both surface acting and deep acting during student interactions. During these interactions, they reported that the academics had faked their emotions by masking their true emotions to satisfy their students (Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017). They further claimed that this was induced by the demands made by their institution to keep students happy (Krishnan & Kasinathan, 2017). Academics also tend to exaggerate their emotions when dealing with students in order to perform their tasks well (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004). In Ogbonna and Harris’ (2004) study, they found that an academic participant had described teaching like “pantomime” (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004, p. 1192). The academic said:

*The audience don’t give a s**t that you’ve got a hangover, your wife’s just left you and the dog’s just puked on your best tie — they want entertainment.*

*Students expect a well-staged and rehearsed performance that entertains. They want a comic not a teacher.*

Ogbonna and Harris (2004) also found that the academic participants also commonly perform ‘deep acting’ where they actively and consciously attempt to “arouse or repress” their emotions (p. 1993). Meanwhile in a study conducted by Zhang and Zhu (2008), they found that Chinese academics favour deep acting over surface acting. The academics try to fake in *good faith* by trying to experience the emotions they show to their students (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). They also found that surface acting had negative effects on the academics’ satisfaction and also contributed to burnout in oppose to deep acting which had positive effects (i.e., greater satisfaction) (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Whether or not interpersonal emotion regulation is also a key part of the emotional labour process among higher education academics remains to be explored.
Gendered nature of emotional labour in academia

Available studies suggest that male and female academics perform emotional labour differently (Bellas, 1999; Haron, Syed Mustafa, & Alias, 2010; Tunguz, 2016). In a study conducted by Bellas (1999), she found that female academics are expected to perform more emotional labour than men. Female academics tend to have a higher level of emotional self-regulation (Haron et al., 2010), and they tend to engage in deep acting (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004) as compared to the male counterparts. One of the reasons found is that female academics are expected to perform ‘feminine’ tasks that require emotional labour such as student advising, and counselling as opposed to men who are expected to perform ‘masculine’ tasks such as research and administration (Bellas, 1999, p. 107). Male academics are typically viewed as assertive, firm, and authoritative (Tunguz, 2016). Female academics on the other hand are pressured to conform to traditional gender roles such as expressing nurturing emotions (Tunguz, 2016). For example, Bellas (1999) found that students expect female academics to express more compassion (e.g., warmth) than male academics, and they would judge them more harshly when they are not. Female academics are also expected to invest more time and energy when dealing with their students (Sinclair & Kunda, 2000).

Furthermore, studies suggest that academics’ gender may have a profound impact on how academics are evaluated by their students. For instance, in a study conducted by Sinclair and Kunda (2000) involving students in a university in the United Kingdom, they reported that students who received better grades gave their academics higher evaluations whereas those who received lower grades, evaluated their female academics with a low mark in comparison to male academics.

The influence of seniority in academia

Aside from the differences in gender, literature suggests that there may also be differences based on seniority especially within national cultures in which there is a large power-distance. At present, there are surprisingly little theoretical and empirical pieces concerning the differences in strategies that junior and senior academics use to manage their own, and their students’ emotions. Schueths, Gladney, Crawford, Bass, and Moore (2013) indicated that those in a higher academic position may find it easier to resist emotion labour than those with lower status. This may be due to the difference in culture (e.g., Baltic countries; Luptáková,
Vargic, & Kincel, 2005) where typically those with power (e.g., leaders) are seen superior. Followers are expected to do more work and required to constantly report to the leader (Luptáková et al., 2005).

Studies that have looked specifically at leaders’ use of emotional labour include the work of Humphrey (2012) and Humphrey et al. (2008). These studies suggest that leaders use emotional labour to regulate their own emotions and to manage the emotions and performance of their followers. But in terms of emotional labour in the academic context, available studies have looked at the differences in tenure (academics with tenure and without) (Tunguz, 2016), and length of service (shorter versus longer) (Berry & Cassidy, 2013). For instance, in the study of Tunguz (2016), she found that those who were untenured exhibited higher levels of emotional labour compared to those with tenure. Meanwhile, academics with less experience or shorter service tend to perform more emotional labour (Berry & Cassidy, 2013).

### 3.2.2 The link between academics’ emotional labour and student engagement

As previously described, student engagement is part of academics’ duty. The studies available in this area suggest that the emotions that academics display (and therefore how they self-manage their emotions) and the emotions that they elicit in their students may greatly influence students’ engagement in learning (Hargreaves, 1998; (Jaskani, Ameen, Hussain, Farooq, & Omair, 2014; Martin & Lueckenhause, 2005; Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Schutz & Lanehart, 2002). Time spent in the classroom is particularly salient in this sense, because students spend a significant amount of time in the classroom, and it is an interactive setting which is full of emotions (Meyer & Turner, 2002; Stephanou & Kyridis, 2012). In the classroom, the pleasant (e.g., hope and pride) and unpleasant (e.g., anxiety and shame) emotions that students develop can shape how they learn and engage (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009, p. 705), and the development of these emotions can be strongly influenced by academics’ emotional labour. For instance, the emotions that academics regulate and express can provide the appropriate energy and passion to get students engaged, and make them feel comfortable during lectures (Rowe et al., 2015).

A strategy that has been reported to be effective for generating positive emotions and promoting student engagement is humour (Rowe et al., 2015). In
Zhang and Zhu's (2008) study, they described that some of the academic participants were more willing to conceal their true feelings by showing humour and enthusiasm instead. Rowe et al. (2015) further highlighted that academics recognised the importance of appearing enthusiastic in lectures to promote engagement among their students but also noted that appearing enthusiastic is not sufficient to get all students engaged as the emotion that is accompanied with the delivery should be genuine. They also found that some of the students who participated in the study felt obligated to reciprocate their academics’ energy when academics showed excitement or interest in their lectures (Rowe et al., 2015). Furthermore, Rowe and colleagues found that academics use various strategies such as humour, personality, and teaching style to evoke positive emotions when getting students engaged. They also reported that academics who were in a positive mood were more likely to help students learn better (Rowe et al., 2015).

Student engagement depends highly on the interpersonal emotional transaction between the academic and student. In particular, getting students engaged depends on how academics regulate their own and their students’ emotions during interactions. The drive to keeping students engaged depends on how students react to these displays via feedback. In this sense, students, as customers, play a somewhat active role in the emotional labour process.

### 3.2.3 Students’ role in the emotional labour process

As mentioned in the previous chapter, targets are also active constituents in the emotional labour process. But no studies to date have explored on how students respond to academics’ emotional labour, and how their responses influence the outcomes of the process. In particular, the way in which students responds to academics’ emotional labour appears to have important implications for academics’ well-being and future emotional labour efforts.

Existing literature have suggested that student emotion regulation is linked to academic performance (Hafiz, 2015; Valiente, Swanson, & Eisenberg, 2012). Students who suppress their positive emotions are more likely to experience motivation to carry out their task or assignment while students who suppress negative emotions are more likely to feel demotivated and subsequently, affecting their performance in class (Hafiz, 2015). Also, students tend to reciprocate the positive energy invested by their academics such as excitement and interest (e.g.,
Rowe et al., 2015). But they are more inclined to express displeasure when academics do not express genuine emotion (faking their emotion) (Rowe et al., 2015). Furthermore, students’ response may influence academics’ well-being. According to Lutovac, Kaasila, Komulainen, and Maikkola (2016), academics who interpret their students’ feedback negatively may evoke negative outcome emotions such as anxiety and stress. They added that the negative outcomes require academics to learn how to cope with interpreting the feedbacks (Lutovac et al., 2016). Roxå and Mårtensson (2011) described a few studies in the Swedish university context that showed academics experiencing emotional tension and frustration when receiving negative feedback from their students.

Moreover, students also facilitate their own engagement through the active role they play in the emotional labour process. For instance, Goetz and colleagues (2006) suggested that students who show enthusiasm in class may help motivate their instructors in teaching, thus improving the quality of their lessons. Becker and colleagues concur, suggesting that students’ feelings shape academics’ emotions and how they teach in class (Becker, Goetz, Morger, & Ranellucci, 2014).

### 3.3 Developing the final research question

Based on the literature on emotional labour in higher education presented in this chapter, I further refine the broad research questions presented in Chapter 2. The first question is refined as: ‘How do academics perform emotional labour (via regulation of their own and their students’ emotions) in order to engage students?’ Due to the uniqueness of the higher education context and more specifically the unique demands of the students, the first question focuses on how academics perform emotional labour and the type of strategies they use to get students engaged during lectures.

The second and third research question is also refined as: ‘How do students respond to academics’ emotional labour, and how do they initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation themselves in the emotional labour process?’ and ‘How do students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour and students’ emotion regulation efforts influence academics’ well-being and subsequent emotional labour?’ Both research questions deal with students’ feedback or response when academics perform emotional labour. The questions aim to explore the active role of
students (or targets) in the emotional labour process and how their response affect the academics’ future behaviour.

The final research question is further refined to: ‘What factors influence how academics perform emotional labour and how students respond to such efforts?’ The question aims to explore factors that could influence the emotional labour in a higher education context. As reviewed in Chapter 2 and the present chapter, there are many factors that could influence the emotional labour process (e.g., gender, seniority). However, these studies have looked at the factors that could influence how the service worker or agent perform emotional labour, neglecting the possibility that these factors could also influence how targets respond to the agent’s emotional labour.

**Summary**

The present chapter provided an overview of the higher education context and the nature and role of academics in higher education institutions. The chapter also introduced to the reader to the concept of student engagement, and emotional labour in academia. Furthermore, the active role of students in the emotional labour process is also highlighted. Factors such as gender, seniority, and institution type are also identified as factors that may influence the process of emotional labour. Research questions are also refined in this chapter. In the next chapter, I will present the research approach, methods of the sampling plan, and data collection procedures. The analysis will also be discussed in this section followed by the pilot study process and also ethical issues that require consideration when conducting this research.
CHAPTER 4 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4 Introduction
In the previous chapters, the concept of emotional labour as a form of emotion regulation was discussed extensively, with the emphasis drawn on the paucity of research exploring intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation within a higher education setting. The objective of this chapter is to provide a description and justification of the methods and procedures that were used to conduct this study. This chapter begins with a brief description about the epistemological and ontological alternatives concerning the research topic of this study. I then describe the approach taken for this study, which is the qualitative case studies approach. This is followed by an in-depth discussion on the selection of the research samples and setting involved in this study, as well as a description of this study’s data analysis techniques. I then end this chapter with a description of the ethical issues that were taken into consideration during the course of this study.

4.1 Research paradigms
Research paradigms represent a set of basic beliefs that describes an individual’s assumptions about “the nature of the “world”, the individual’s place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). Paradigms guide researchers on how to conduct their research (Waller, Farquharson, & Dempsey, 2016). There are different research paradigms in social science research. However, two popular paradigms among the social science researchers are positivism and phenomenological (constructivism) approach. Therefore in this study, I will focus on these two approaches. The positivists approach are related to the development of science and the scientific method (Waller et al., 2016). Positivists believe that a ‘single’ reality exists and can be measured and known (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Waller et al., 2016). Typically, researchers with this view tend to rely on quantitative data collection methods (e.g., surveys) and statistical analyses in their research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Meanwhile, constructivists believe that there is no single reality or truth (Waller et al., 2016). Researchers with this view tend to individually construct their own reality leading to multiple realities (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sobh & Perry, 2006). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), “multiple “knowledges” can coexist
when equally competent (or trusted) interpreters disagree, and/or depending on social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors that differentiate the interpreters” (p. 113). Constructivists are also more likely to use qualitative methods in their research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sobh & Perry, 2006). Based on the above descriptions, I believe that in emotion regulation research where there is a need to explore human behaviour in-depth, the constructivist approach should be taken. As described, this approach suggests that the world can be viewed as a subjective reality rather than an objective reality, and that multiple realities exist (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Waller, Farquharson, & Dempsey, 2016). Therefore this approach was seen as best fit for this study and logically led to a qualitative methodology.

Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of materials such as case study, interview, observation, and visual text (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). This approach was carried out to address the gaps and research questions for several compelling reasons. In general, qualitative research methods are especially useful in acquiring a deep understanding of people’s perception of some phenomenon experienced (Bell, 2010; Miles & Huberman, 2006). Qualitative approach is described as an effective method to collect rich non-numerical data (words) (King, 2004a), and useful when the nature of the research questions requires exploration (Agee, 2009; Stake, 1995). The general aim of qualitative research is to understand “experience as nearly as possible as its participants feel it or live it” (Sherman & Webb, 1988, p. 7). Prior to initiating a full-scale study, I chose to conduct a pilot study to examine the feasibility of the selected approach on a small number of participants.

4.2 Pilot study
A pilot study is described as a small-scale version of the main study done in preparation for the anticipated study (Kim, 2010; Prescott & Soekan, 1989). It allows researchers to find issues and barriers related to recruiting potential participants, and identify modifications needed in the research design (Kim, 2010). Other reasons for conducting a pilot study include (Kim, 2010):

- To establish whether the interview questions are comprehensible and appropriate for the participants;
- To evaluate the appropriateness of two of the key methods planned for use in the main study, that is, semi-structured interviews and focus groups;
• To provide initial findings and themes to guide in developing the initial template for the template analysis approach;
• To establish whether the interview questions are appropriate to answer the study’s research questions; and
• To make necessary modifications to the interview schedules upon completion of the pilot study.

Some of the reasons listed above are relevant to the pilot study of the current research. The pilot study was very specifically conducted to identify any practical problems in the process, and methods used that might have a negative influence on the success of the research. The pilot study could prevent from potential “disastrous” consequences before conducting the study on a larger scale (Thabane et al., 2010, p.1).

The pilot study was conducted from April to May 2016 in Malaysia (see Appendix 3 for pilot study findings). A convenience sampling method was adopted in data collection. I selected samples that were able to meet the research requirements for participating in the case study. The study involved a small number of samples comprising of four academics (two male and two female) teaching undergraduate courses, one head of teaching staff, and eight undergraduate students (four male and four female) from a teaching-focused university in the country. The university involved in the pilot study also participated in the main study. The participants were selected from one of the faculties under the Social Sciences and Humanities. The academics and head of teaching staff were personal contacts. Meanwhile the students were reached through one of the selected academics. The teaching-focused university was selected as a case study on the basis of the university being one of the largest public universities in the country. Also, the university was selected due to its accessibility, and close proximity to my hometown that is, in the heart of a major city in Malaysia. Access to the selected faculty was made easy due to my prior engagement with the faculty. Once access was granted, I began to approach the participants via e-mail to arrange a date, time, and location for the interview.

The participants were each given a consent form and information sheet before the interviews were conducted. The information sheet explained in detail the nature of the study, and gave assurance that all of the participants’ personal details, and the
audio and written information obtained during the study are kept strictly confidential. To ensure that their names are not revealed, I replaced them with pseudonyms. For instance, the first female academic participant interviewed was replaced with ‘PSFA1’, which is a short form for ‘Pilot Study Female Academic 1’, the first student participant was identified as ‘PSFGS1’, which referred to ‘Pilot Study Focus Group Student 1’, and so on. They were also given an option to withdraw at any given point without giving a reason.

4.2.1 Pilot study for interviews

For the purpose of pilot testing the interview questions, four academics were selected. The interviews were semi-structured and conducted on a one-on-one basis in their office rooms, ranging from one to two hours in length. Questions were more open-ended to encourage the participants to answer freely, and elicit longer response. Some of the questions were formulated based on the review of the literature. For instance questions on whether gender and culture influences the way academics display their emotions towards their students were derived from the emotional labour literature. The literature suggests that there may be differences in the way emotions are displayed between male versus female, and those from different cultures (e.g., Western, Asian). Meanwhile other questions were designed to understand areas such as the academics’ job experience and satisfaction, student engagement, and academic-student relationship (see Appendix 1 for full list of the academics’ pilot study questions). For instance, the questions asked include, “How do you get students to engage in class?” and “Are there any particular teaching strategies that you think encourages student engagement in class?”

The concept of emotional labour was not directly introduced or defined for participants in the pilot study. However, the mixture of questions asked was intended to gain insights on how academics manage their own, and their students’ emotions to get them engaged during lectures. Also, questions asked was intended to seek their view on the general changes and challenges that universities have gone through over the years, as well as the internal and external pressures faced by the academics that may shape the way they display their emotions towards their students. Although emotional labour does occur in other settings such as in formal or informal meetings, tutorials, and seminars, however this study focuses on lectures. This is because one of the main ways universities in Malaysia teach students is through lectures or
referred by some universities as ‘classes’. The focus was the same for the main study conducted (see 4.3 Methods of the main study). During the interview, probes were also used to learn more about the participants’ response. Encouragers such as “Ah, OK”, “Right”, or “I see” were also used to encourage the participants to continue talking while signalling that I was showing interest, and listening attentively.

Other than academics, the head of teaching staff was also included as one of the participants in the pilot study. The purpose of including the staff was to gain a deeper understanding of the university selected and the academics’ roles and expectations that may not be available in secondary sources (e.g., the university’s website). Some questions were similar to those asked to the academics such as, “Are you aware whether this university formally recognises itself as a ‘research-focused’ or ‘teaching-focused’ university?” and “In your own opinion, what are the main priorities of this university? Is it teaching or research? Or both?” Other questions asked intended to gain insights on the general changes and challenges that universities have gone through over the years and the job proportions of academics in the teaching-focused university.

4.2.2 Pilot study for focus group

Meanwhile student participants took part in a focus group. I was given permission by one of the academic participants to approach any of her students from one of her lectures. As the academic had six lectures per week, I selected a lecture that was conducted on a day that I had no interview appointments. During the selected day, the academic briefly explained to her students on my behalf regarding the focus group that was going to be conducted after her lecture. Upon completion of the 3-hour lecture, the academic immediately left the hall to make way for my research. I first introduced myself and then explained to the students again regarding the purpose of the focus group, and the safety measures taken to protect the students’ identities. Before calling for volunteers to participate in the study, I gave room for students to ask questions related to the study.

Once all questions were answered, I asked all of the students for six volunteers comprising of three male and three female. As the selected lecture had no more than 30 students, it was estimated that half of the students in the hall raised their hands to volunteer. I randomly selected only three male and three female students who were sitting at different rows of the lecture hall. Students who were not
selected were politely asked to leave the hall. Although six students were selected however, two other students expressed strong interest in participating in the interview. They were then invited to join the group adding the number of participants to eight. The two students were included as they found the topic interesting and wanted to share their thoughts and feelings on the issue.

The focus group lasted for one hour and a half in the unoccupied lecture hall in the faculty building. During the focus group session, students were asked a wide-range of open-ended questions (see Appendix 2 for full list of students’ pilot study questions). In total, 13 pre-determined questions were asked during the session. Probing questions were also asked whenever students provided vague or ambiguous answers. At the start of the focus group, I asked some general questions about the student participants such as their age, course of study, and where they were from. The intention was to break the ice and make the students feel comfortable. This was then followed by questions that sought the students’ view on their academics’ teaching approach and the strategies often used to get them engaged in lectures. For instance, one of the questions asked was, “What are the things that academics do that often grabs your attention or gets you engaged in class?” Students were also asked to recognise the specific emotions used by their academics during lectures, and how students normally respond to these emotions. Questions asked to elicit these information were, “What kind of emotions do you want your lecturers to show in class?”, “How do you feel whenever your lecturers express positive emotions in class?”, and “How about whenever they express negative emotions?”

Other than that, students were asked whether they were aware of any differences between the way male versus female academics behave and react. The interview then ended with me thanking the students and treating them with some hot food and drinks. All of the data from the interviews were recorded by a digital recorder and were later individually transcribed into Word files. As the interviews were individually transcribed, I did preliminary identification of key quotes and themes manually on each transcript. Once all of the interviews were transcribed, I grouped the interview quotes into common themes according to what I felt was appropriate. The qualitative data analysis software NVivo 11 assisted in the management of the data. The pilot study findings are presented in the following section.
4.2.3 Pilot study findings

The findings from the pilot study provided considerable insight into the basic issues being studied. Some of the key findings from the pilot study were used to design the main study interview questions and produce the initial template for the thematic analysis selected that is, the Template Analysis (see section 4.5 Data Analysis). During the analysis, five superordinate themes and three sub-themes were identified (see Table 4.1 below).

Table 4.1. Themes generated from the pilot study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overview of superordinate themes with sub-themes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academics’ role in the university</td>
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<tr>
<td>Academics’ emotional display with students</td>
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<tr>
<td>Factors influencing academics’ emotional experiences and displays</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workload issues</td>
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<td>Students’ behaviour</td>
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<td>Strategies used to engage students emotionally</td>
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<td>Students’ response to academics’ efforts</td>
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<td>Coping mechanisms</td>
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The first theme that emerged from the pilot study was ‘Academics’ role in the university’. This theme refers to the type of academic work done at the university, and the time spent doing it. These findings were essential to understand the job proportion of academics in a teaching-focused university, and whether it comprises more teaching than research work. Based on the findings, all of the academic participants in the selected teaching-focused university indicated that they spend most of their time teaching, and dealing with students on a daily basis. Their average teaching hours are 15 hours but some have experienced teaching for up to 21 hours. Administrative work also takes up a large proportion of their work time followed by research. When asked on the average hours they spend on teaching, conducting research, and do administrative work on a weekly basis, one of the female academic answered:

As mentioned, I have an average of 15 hours of teaching, I do probably three or four hours worth of admin work and whatever that I have left in a day or even the week, I try my best to do research. Between you and me, honestly, I end up not doing it unless I am being pushed! (PSFA2)
Another academic replied with percentage, “OK research like five to 10 percent. I would say 10 percent just updating myself on what are the courses that I’m teaching. 40 percent teaching and 50 percent admin.” These statements were further supported by the head of teaching staff who was also interviewed during the pilot study process. According to her, the selected university is a university that focuses on teaching but aspires to become a research-intensive university in the near future. However, the differences between the selected university versus other universities that focuses on research is that the university gives more teaching hours to the academics. She observed,

Other universities such as research universities, they are given less credit hours. The standing time to teach will be like one class or two classes that’s it and the rest of the time are spent doing research. But for us, we want to aspire to be a research-intensive university but we ask people to do research, we ask people to teach for many-many hours, we ask people to be involved in committees and events and this is taxing and tiring. (PSHOT)

The following theme that emerged from the pilot study was ‘Academics’ emotional displays with students’. This theme describes academics’ perspectives, experiences, and emotional displays encountered when dealing with students in lectures. Based on the findings, it revealed that different emotions are often displayed by the academics. Often positive emotions (e.g., joy, happiness) are preferred to ensure that students are engaged in lectures. One of the questions asked that elicited this information was, “Do you feel that you have consciously or unconsciously modified your display of emotions in your lecturer relations with students?” Some of the responses were:

Oh yes definitely. I don’t think I’m the only one who consciously does that. I think it’s pretty much a requirement these days just to make your students happy and engage in class? They don’t like moody lecturers. (PSFA2)

Yes of course. I guess there are times I am genuine and there at times where we have to act and lie according to the situation. (PSMA2)
Other academic participants also stated that they are expected to display certain types of emotions by their students. For instance, a female academic stated that students often expect her to be constantly enthusiastic and happy when giving a lecture. Showing positive emotions is seen as a requirement to make her students feel relaxed and interested in learning but she admits that at times, her outward expression does not usually match with her true inner feeling. Meanwhile during data collection, I discovered that all of the students who participated in the focus group shared similar experiences and concerns about their academics’ emotions. One of the male students (PSFGS3) revealed that academics tend to behave differently, and they often express different types of emotions during lectures. According to him, “Sometimes we’re afraid to approach lecturers because sometimes within five minutes, they can have so many different characters and emotions.”

When asked the type of emotions students want their academics to show in lectures, some of the responses were:

Lecturers who are always happy. I don’t like it when they don’t smile. It scares me. It scares all of us. (PSFGS2)

We like lecturers who can balance their emotions well. (PSFGS4)

Definitely positive emotions. I understand that lecturers need to be professional but professional doesn’t mean being angry at us all the time. They need to learn to be patient with us especially when we are only first year students. Not all of us are fast learners. A little smile and laughter every now and then wouldn’t harm, would it? (PSFGS7)

Two out of the eight students also stated that they prefer academics who are professional, able to tell jokes, and are approachable. Other issues emerged from the pilot study was on gender. Half of the students described female academics as more ‘emotional’ than male academics during lectures. One of the students also described that male academics tend to be more relaxed compared to female academics. While another said that a number of female academics were ‘predictable’. According to him, “…female lecturers but not most of them but some of them are predictable.
Sometimes at first you can get along with them and suddenly they will get angry at you” (PSFGS1).

The third key theme identified in the pilot study was ‘Factors influencing academics’ emotional experiences and displays’. Within this major theme, two subthemes were created. The first is ‘Workload issues’. A great majority of the academics identified that they have long teaching hours resulting them spending more time teaching and interacting with students on a daily basis compared to performing on other tasks such as research and administrative work. Some of them revealed that they have heavy workloads and this influences their emotions, causes them to experience stress, and also affects their teaching. When asked whether the amount of workload given may have influenced their emotions and emotional displays, one of the academic participants’ responded, “Yes” and further explained that, “There are times when I feel that I have so much burden to do work until I feel like giving up. I felt like I don’t want to do anything and I just want to leave the work there. Another female academic expressed:

Yes. I once had over 20 hours worth of classes per week. It was hard to juggle between classes and also all the admin work that was thrown at you at the very last minute. There was this one time I just couldn’t handle my emotions. I was so stressed up due to the huge pile of work. So I kind of snapped at a student who was talking in class. Normally I don’t snap. I would just do the ehem throat clearing sound. But that particular moment, I scolded the student and I think I made the student’s face pale. That was the first and the last. Never again. (PSFA2)

The second subtheme identified is ‘Students’ behaviour’. All of the academics revealed that the way students respond to the academics’ efforts to engage them in lectures, influences their subsequent emotions. One participant remarked:

How they act in class influences my emotions. If they are portraying negative emotions like they are feeling irritated, or they are angry, I would portray the same way. So it’s really important that students feed me with positive emotions. If they show that they are excited, they are happy, I would be more than happy to show and feel the same way even if I feel otherwise. (PSFA1)
She also added that she would feel very motivated and energetic whenever students show that they are engaged. Also, whenever students respond positively, she further explained that it keeps her going and it helps fuel her with energy. Another on the other hand said:

_You know when I talked about students who were really-really rude? Of course I have to put up a face. I need to put a brave face. I refuse to get these students to get to me. Otherwise it would affect me the entire day._ (PSMA1)

The fourth key theme emerged from the pilot study findings was ‘Strategies used to engage students emotionally’. Findings revealed that all of the academics acknowledged the importance of getting students engaged as the outcome of student engagement can influence their own, and their students’ emotions. One of the strategies used for student engagement is ‘humour’. Three of the four academic participants stated that humour is an effective tool to get students engaged in lectures. One claimed “I know what the youngsters are doing and thinking and what they like. I try as much humour as I can. I don’t know if they find me humourous or not, but yeah, I try as much as I can. The two other responded with:

_I try to give real life examples and joke around with them to spice things up._ (PSFA2)

_by now I think you should know that I'm very animated. I cannot stand pacing around in class or sit around and do nothing and expect them to learn. That is the reason why there's caffeine in my body. It's just that I'm always so energetic everyday. I need to be energetic. I need to remain myself as a clown. I always see myself as an actor going to an audition because I have a group of young adults who has the attention span of an ugly duckling. Seriously. They only have the attention span for 10 minutes. After 10 minutes are up, they go back to their phone or they would daydream._ (PSMA1)
Another strategy used by a male academic to get students engage in lectures is through deception. He believes that by making up stories about himself will make students feel better. He revealed:

...I really like to give them real life situations. This is where I usually just take my own life example. For example I talk about my love experience. I talk about my ex or previous love life and they laugh about it. I try to connect with them. I must be honest that sometimes I create the stories because I want them to know that "Hey, I've been where you've been. I know what you're doing now?" So the interaction I guess comes from them knowing that they can say "We lead the same life and I can connect with you and you can connect with me so alright I will engage more. (PSMA2)

Other strategies used to get students engage include Question and Answer (Q&A) sessions. A great majority of the academics claimed that they often encourage students to ask questions in lectures. However, findings revealed that more than half of the students revealed that some of their academics do not encourage student engagement in lectures. Most of the time lectures are conducted ‘one-way’. One of the students said:

... some lecturers just give us lectures and they tend to not ignore, but they tend to avoid from Q&A sessions. They do encourage questions from students but they would often tell us to wait until the lecture ends before asking a question and when the lecture does end, they pretend to forget about it. (PSFGSI)

A final subtheme was formed under the fourth theme named as ‘Students response to academics’ efforts’. Based on the focus study findings, students revealed that they try their best to match the academics’ emotions in their lecture. When academics are enthusiastic, they would often respond to their academics’ emotion regulation efforts with positive responses. For instance, some of the things that they often do include smiling in class, look interested, nodding, responding to questions, and writing notes. However, they also revealed that at times they would respond in a negative way by deliberately looking bored, playing with their phone, and talk during class.
One of the female academics observed the same. She indicated that she can tell when students are engaged when they ask questions, respond to questions, and stare at the academic. When asked how they normally would feel whenever their academics express positive emotions, one of the students indicated that they become more excited to learn. Meanwhile when asked on negative emotions, three students responded negatively. One student said: “I feel like getting angry back”, while another said that it makes them become very lazy. The third student participant replied, “I don’t feel like asking questions to the lecturers”.

The final theme identified from the pilot study findings was “Coping mechanisms”. During the pilot study process, academics identified different strategies they use to manage their own emotions. One of them is through prayers. A female academic indicated that praying helps her manage her own emotions. She shared, “As a Muslim, I pray five times a day to God. After every prayers, somehow I always become relaxed and positive. It’s the only time I get my little me time and forget about work. Praying only takes about five to 10 minutes but what it does to me, it makes me feel very calm and happy throughout the day.” Other than praying, she also said that having coffee with colleagues also help her feel relaxed.

Another academic believes that the best way to manage her own emotions is through rationalisation. Whenever she is faced with a negative situation with her students, she would defend her internal emotions by rationalising the experience. She said:

\[\text{I just let go of this. I assume that they are young and not much experienced like me as an adult. I be the bigger person and let go of it. I would listen to music to let go of negative thoughts. (PSFA1)}\]

This was however the opposite for a male academic. According to him, it took him longer to manage his emotions when experiencing a negative situation. Any negative felt emotions during lectures are often carried outside of lectures. He explained:

\[\text{Please understand that I have extremely high anxiety level. When unfortunate things happen to me, I would always always always overplay it. This is one of the things that I hate so much about being me. So what I did was that I set in my mind that I need three days or a week to get over this. I usually distract}\]
myself with grading papers, watching TV, do things. Just to make sure I don't think about it any anymore.

4.2.4 Outcomes and application of the pilot study to the main study

Upon completion of the pilot study, I discovered several issues that needed to be addressed before conducting the main study. The issues are in terms of the lengthy interview session and also the interview schedule. Also, there is a need to conduct observations and debriefs to elicit more information from the participants. I explain these further below:

(a) Interview session

During the pilot study, I found that some interviews lasted for up to two hours. Although none of the academic participants complained but one of the academics had suggested reducing the number of questions asked so that the interviews would last for a maximum of one hour. She further indicated that limiting to an hour interview was essential as academics are often busy. To address this issue, the total number of pre-determined questions was reduced. From over 40 questions asked during the pilot study, the number was then reduced significantly resulting to a total of 9 main questions with two to five probes under each question (see Appendix 4 for interview schedule for academics). As the focus group session lasted within a reasonable timeframe, no changes were made for the main study.

(b) Interview schedule

Based on the pilot study findings, I found that some crucial issues were left unanswered for both the interviews with academics, and focus group with students. For instance, I did not ask questions that could determine whether the academics had ever tried to change the way their students feel during lectures, and how students typically respond to the academics when they try to get them engaged. Also, several academics had highlighted about using humour as an effective strategy to improve their students’ emotions. However, there were no other questions that tried to elicit more information on this and no questions were asked on the strategies academics use to worsen their students’ emotions.

Questions asked during the pilot study were mostly general questions to gain insights into the emotions involved in teaching, and the academics’ job roles and
duties. There were too many questions pre-determined during the pilot study and I also found myself relying too much on the interview schedule rather than asking probing questions that could elicit more information from the academics. Therefore the results of the pilot study interviews helped finalise the interview questions for the main study. Questions that elicited similar responses were either eliminated or combined, and new questions were also added. Questions that were deemed too general were slightly modified to help elicit more descriptive answer to the question. For instance questions such as, “How do you get students to engage in class?” and “Are there any particular strategies that you think encourages student engagement in class?” elicited similar answers from the academics and required me to take action before the main study.

Rephrasing of certain questions was also deemed necessary to allow the participants to gain a better understanding of the information that was needed for the study. Also, as previously noted, the concept of emotional labour was not introduced to the academic participants during the pilot study and more general questions on their emotions were asked. As a result, more questions on how academics manage their own and their students’ emotions were asked during the main study.

(c) Observations and debriefs

Other than limiting the time for each interview session, and making changes to the interview schedule, the pilot study results brought to change the methods used to develop and to analyse the rich data of the current study. I found that there is a need to observe how academics and students interact within a lecture. While observations were not conducted during the pilot study, observations were considered in the original proposal. Conducting observations were seen useful for me to gain insight into the teaching process, the interactions and relationships between the academic and students, as well as other actions and events that occur in the lecture hall that may Thus for the main study, observations were conducted and it allowed me to gather ‘live’ data from ‘live’ situations (see 4.3.1 Primary data for more information on the observation conducted during the main study). Also, I was able to get a firsthand account on the way academics engage with their students in lectures, and how students respond to this rather than relying solely data collected from the interviews.

An additional method that was included in the main study based on the pilot
study findings was post-observation debrief. Debriefs were seen essential to conduct after the observation. The purpose was to raise any issues or seek clarification from the academics that occurred during the observation (see Appendix 8 for debrief questions). The purpose was also to get the observed academics to reflect on how they felt the lecture went.

4.3 Methods of the main study

Following the completion of the pilot study, I initiated the full-scale study. The multiple case study strategy used in the present study relied mainly on primary data collection using three key methods: (a) Interviews; (b) focus groups; and (c) observations (see Figure 4.1). In addition to this, secondary data such as information from university websites and brochures were also collected. Case studies are defined as “the preferred strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context” (Yin, 2003, p. 1).

Figure 4.1. Methods of collecting data

I selected the methods for the purpose of triangulation. Triangulation is a method used by qualitative researchers to establish verification and validation in their studies, and is often achieved through the use of multiple methods (e.g., interviews, focus groups, observations), or data sources to develop a comprehensive
understanding of phenomena (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1999). According to Laws, 
Harper and Marcus (2003) “the key to triangulation is to see the same thing from 
different perspectives” (p. 281). Denzin (1978) outlines four types of triangulation: 
1) data triangulation including time, space, and person; 2) investigator triangulation; 
3) theory triangulation; and 4) methodological triangulation. In this study, I adopted 
the methodological triangulation by using a combination of three qualitative 
methods, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations. The methods 
were chosen as they were believed to collectively minimise the weaknesses of the 
individual methods. I also adopted the data triangulation. In terms of location or 
spatial, I included academics and students from different universities, and different 
locations in Malaysia. Meanwhile in terms of person, I included participants of 
different gender, different years of service, and also age, which can be useful in 
providing different perspectives.

4.3.1 Primary data
Primary data are sources that are gathered by the researcher ‘first hand’, often 
directly from the research participants (Verma, 2013). Primary data can be collected 
using number of ways such as structured or semi-structured questionnaires, 
interviews (individual or group), and observations (Saunders et al., 2009). Also, 
primary data are collected to provide the researcher data that would produce answers 
to the research objectives. For this research, the primary data were collected in three 
ways: (a) interviews; (b) observations; and (c) focus groups.

(a) Interviews
The prime means of data collection in this study was through interviews. Interviews 
can be conducted in a formal or informal way through various methods such as face-
to-face interaction, phone interviews, surveys, and via the Internet (Brinkmann, 
2014). The structure of interviews can also be either structured, semi-structured, or 
even unstructured based on the questioning strategy that could range from using 
open-ended questions to close-ended questions, or both (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 
2009). The present study relied on in-depth, semi-structured interviews. Semi-
structured interviews were selected for four reasons. First, they are useful as a 
‘guide’ to address research questions using a list of pre-determined questions. 
Second, the structure encourages some form of flexibility in the sequence of
questions (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). Third, the structure allows the researcher to ask probing questions to the participants in order to encourage them to elaborate further on their original response when required (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). Finally, the structure was selected as it is most relevant for exploratory studies (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002).

The decision to not use structured interview was because the structure is considered too rigid, and it requires me to follow orderly patterns of content-specific questions. This may prevent participants’ freedom of direction to respond to the interview questions and also, I will not be able to modify questions during the interview to suit the participants’ responses (Waller et al., 2016). Meanwhile, I did not consider unstructured interview as the structure suggests that interviews should be treated “completely like a conversation” (Waller et al., 2016, p. 77). Although this may be seen as a positive characteristic however, this means that I will not be guided with any pre-determined questions, and the interview conducted may lead to an uncertain direction and lack of focus required to address the research questions (Bell, 2010). In this study, the interviews were conducted face-to-face (in-person) with academics, and heads of teaching in four universities in Malaysia between March and April 2017. Three interview processes were involved in this study: (i) preparing for the interview; (ii) conducting the interview; and (iii) post-interview procedures.

i. Preparing for the interview
Once I decided on conducting semi-structured interviews, two interview schedules were prepared: one for use with academic participants, and one for use with the heads of teaching participants. Open-ended questions were largely used to allow participants to express their views (Creswell, 2003). Dichotomous (closed-ended) questions were not considered, as it does not encourage participants to respond in the level of depth and detail that is needed (Creswell, 2003). Before the start of the interview, participants were reassured that their data would be used for academic purposes only and they were free to end the interview at anytime without providing any reason.

Interview schedule: Academics
Interview questions were generated during the literature review process and initial findings from the pilot study to address the research questions. The number of
questions asked to the participants was pre-determined to ensure that they were sufficient for a one-hour interview with some room for additional probing questions. In total, nine main questions with a range of two to five probes under each question were developed. Although the questions were pre-determined, they were mostly used as a guide to ensure that the interview covered critical issues. I also made sure that the prepared questions were simply worded, clear, and straightforward. This was accomplished by using terminology and language that the participants were familiar with.

The interview questions began with ice-breaker questions with the purpose of making the academic participants comfortable when talking with me. These questions were about their job roles, their daily and weekly routine in the university, and some general background about their university. The questions were also important to shed light on the meaning of the academics’ work and whether differences between the role of academics in teaching-focused universities versus research-focused universities exists. The questions then moved to asking broad open-ended questions about their relationship with their students such as, “Can you tell me in general your relationship with your students?” and “How do you think your students see you, and how do you want them to see you?” Academics were asked these questions to understand whether there were any differences in academic-student relationships between teaching- and research-focused universities.

The subsequent questions were specifically tailored to elicit responses that described the emotions academics experience in their university, factors that influences their emotions, and how they handle their own emotions. The concept of emotional labour was also not introduced or defined in the main study but I ensured that the questions designed implicitly answered the study’s research questions. In this section, I asked on how academics get their students engaged in their lectures, and whether the behaviour of their students during interactions affects them. The purpose of these questions were to answer research question 2 and 3: “How do students respond to academics’ emotional labour, and how do they initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation themselves in the emotional labour process?” and “How do students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour and students’ emotion regulation efforts influence academics’ well-being and subsequent emotional labour?” Academics were encouraged to express how they felt when students responded to their efforts to engage them in their lectures.
Participants were also asked whether there were features of their work environment or job roles that interfered with or enhanced their ability to engage with their students. If features were named, further explanation from the participants was sought by asking probing questions. The next couple of questions asked about whether they saw any differences in the way students respond to them compared to other academics. Also, whether academics’ gender, and seniority plays a role in influencing the way students respond to the academics. An example of a question in this section is: “Do you think students respond differently to you as compared to any other academics?” The second last question formulated sought to gain the academics’ view on whether their university supports or hinders them from engaging with their students. The purpose of this question was to see whether there were differences between the selected universities in encouraging and prioritising student engagement among the academics. This was followed by a final question to wrap-up the interview: “Is there anything that you would like to add that you might think is important?” The intention was to provide an opportunity for the academics to add or share any information that they felt important, and was not covered during the interview. Necessary adjustments were also made during the course of the interview especially in terms of the order of the questions, and the way the questions were framed. Additional (probing) questions were asked to elicit more detailed and elaborate responses from the participants. Questions such as “Why do you think this is?” and “Can you elaborate further?” were some of the common questions asked to seek clarification from the participants.

*Interview schedule: Heads of Teaching*

Other than the academics, one of the staff holding the head of teaching post in each of the universities involved in this study was selected. This was mainly to support the primary and secondary data collected. A total of 11 main questions with two to four probes in almost all of the questions were included in the interview schedule. The number of pre-determined questions were also set to ensure that they were sufficient for a one-hour interview with room for more spontaneous questions during the course of the interview. The developed questions were based on existing literatures on higher education, and formulated to gain additional insights and background of understanding on areas such as the academics and students’ roles and responsibilities in the university, the pressures academics face on a daily basis, how academics deal
with students, and also the changes occurred over the past few years involving the academics’ work tasks and university’s rules and regulations.

Similar to the academic participants, I prepared ice-breaker questions for the heads of teaching to ensure that the participants felt comfortable. Two questions asked were: “Before we begin, can you please tell me a little bit about yourself and what you do at your job?” and “How long have you been working in the university?” The interview questions then moved to asking questions such as: “What are currently the main pressures on universities?” “Are you aware whether this university formally recognises itself as a research-focused or teaching-focused university?”, and “Do you believe that the amount of work that the academics are required to do may influence the way they perform their job with students?” The full interview schedules for academics and heads of teaching can be seen in Appendix 2 and 3.

ii. Conducting the Interview
The next interview process is conducting the interview. I scheduled the interview times and dates via e-mail with academics and heads of teaching participants. As the interviews were conducted in Malaysia at a restricted timeframe – March until April 2017, I provided an option of five dates with specific times for the academics to select according to their availability and convenience. The different dates and times allocated for each participant was to help avoid any interview overlaps, and to ensure that I was able to complete the data collection within the one month period. If none of the schedules given suited them, they were then given three more options to choose which included weekends, and also an option to conduct the interview online via Skype. All but two participants had selected their preferred time and date based on the first option given. Meanwhile the two participants requested to schedule at a different date and time as they had to attend a conference.

All interviews were held in a natural setting based on the request and comfort of the respondents. Miles and Huberman (2006) claim that the natural setting is vital in order to avoid me from controlling or manipulating the environment. Most of the interviews were conducted in the participants’ personal office in the university and the rooms were quiet with a minimal background noise (e.g., sound of air-conditioning unit) that does not make the recording inaudible. Only two interviews with academics were conducted in public settings as requested by both academics. One was conducted in a half occupied restaurant outside of the university premise.
while the other was conducted in a small café located in the academics’ faculty building. Although both settings were not as quiet as the personal offices, they were both adequate for recording the interviews. Also, as the location was not as private as the participants’ personal office, to maximise privacy, the participant and I sat away from other customers.

Although I had mentioned about audio-recording the interview in the information sheet given previously, they were asked for permission again during the day of the interview. None of the participants declined from being audio-recorded as they did not feel threatened or uncomfortable by the interview topic. The interviews took place mainly in English. However, participants were not prevented from speaking in their Malay native language in an attempt to reduce any factors that might hinder their fluency, and clarity of expression during the interview. As a result, seven out of 16 academic participants spoke in full English while the remaining participants used small portion of phrases in Malay during the interviews.

All of the interviews lasted between one to two hours. For interviews that were not anyway close to completion within the one hour timeframe due to the long responses from the participants, I briefly stopped the interview to check whether the participants were willing to continue talking, and to see whether they required any short break. At the end of each interview, I thanked all participants for their participation. As I had clearly stated in the information sheet that participation in the study was voluntary and no monetary compensation was offered for their time, at the end of each interview, I handed over a small gift for the participants as a token of appreciation for their time and commitment.

iii. Post-interview Procedures

Within 24 hours after the each of the interviews ended, I reviewed the voice files by listening to it in full. Each of the audio-recorded interviews were listened to and checked for audibility and completeness. Upon listening to the first recording, I attempted to improve the interview style for the subsequent interviews by eliminating fillers such as “um”, and “uh”. The questioning strategy and types of questions (e.g. open and closed) were slightly modified and improved overtime in order to have the interview data captured more effectively. I also made notes of any hard to hear parts of the interview. All interviews were transcribed verbatim (i.e. recorded word for word) including any nonverbal sounds and interruptions (e.g.,
laughter, coughs, phone ringing) using interview transcription symbols such as: (.) for a short pause, and underline text when the participants emphasised a word. During the transcription process, all personal and place names were immediately replaced with pseudonyms.

As there were less than half of the academic participants who did not speak in full English, the Malay phrases required translation and this was achieved through two phases. First, I translated the Malay phrases into English according to my own understanding of both languages. Second, to verify the accuracy of the translation and to preserve the original meaning of the phrases, a native Malay speaker who has high level of English assisted with the translation. The assistant used the back-translation method (Brislin, 1970) where he blindly translated my translation back to the original language. The Malay phrases were maintained in the interview transcripts and English translations were placed beside it. Interview transcription symbols were also used and example of this is: <LA1ma> sejam setengah hari isnin dan sejam setengah hari selasa {one and a half hours on Monday and one and a half hours on Tuesday} </LA1ma>. “LA1” means the first language used by the participant and “ma” is a short form used for Malay. After completing the transcriptions, I read through the transcripts for any mistakes such as typo errors. I then listened to the entire audio files again while referring to the hard copy transcripts to ensure that the interview was transcribed accurately.

(b) Observations
In order to gain more in-depth understanding of the study, participant observations were also carried out in this study. Participant observation is considered as one of the effective ways for researchers to acquire not just text, speech, and numerical forms of information but also to observe the gestures and body movements considered by the participants during the data collection process (Brannan & Oultram, 2013). Also, it allows me to discover “what people actually do, how they do it, and the norms that shape their actions” rather than relying on interview-based findings (Waller et al., 2016, p. 109). Generally participant observation is categorised into four types: complete participation, participant as observer, observer as participant, and complete observer (Gold, 1958). In this study, I played the role as complete observer to prevent from interfering with the findings. Complete observer is a technique where I play the role as a spectator or observer in the social situation without taking part
(Gold, 1958). This differs from the other three classifications, as they involve the researcher participating in the social situation either partially or fully, and the need for me to balance the role as participant and observer (Gold, 1958).

Observation was also carried out in this study. Only four academics (one from each university) were observed. Participants who were observed were selected based on those who responded ‘Yes’ during the initial contact. I negotiated an observation schedule with the selected academics as soon as they agreed to be observed. Those involved in the observation were observed for the full duration of a single lecture selected by the academic participants. Each of the observed lecture consisted of not more than 30 students. The observation was primarily done to observe how emotions were expressed and regulated ‘live’ by the academics and students involved in the specific lecture. During the observation, I sat quietly in an unobtrusive part of the lecture hall or classroom. The lecture was audio-recorded (with permission), and I also took notes on a pre-determined ‘Observation Criteria’ sheet.

The Observation Criteria sheet was designed based on literature and pilot study data regarding observable signs of emotion and emotion regulation. The sheet consisted of five open-ended sections and covered areas such as how the academic and students felt during the lecture (and what evidence is there for this), what the academic did to regulate his or her own emotions and the students’ emotions, and lastly the effectiveness of academic’s emotion regulation. Since audio-recording limits to only verbal recordings, I also paid particular attention to both the academics’ verbal and nonverbal expressions, the types of methods used by the academics to teach the students, and the students’ responses to the academics in general. For example, whenever I notice an academic making jokes or use threats during the lecture, I would record them immediately and also observe the students’ response(s) to this.

Both academics and students were aware of my presence and to minimise the effect of being ‘observed’, and to control other factors that could potentially affect their responses, I took two measures: (a) I reassured both the academics and students that they were not observed on the quality of their teaching and learning, and that the outcomes of the observation will not be shared to their university; and (b) I conducted the observation during the academic and students’ original lesson time, and in their usual environment – the original lecture hall or classroom. Upon
completion of the observation, a short 15 minutes post-observation debriefing session was conducted on the same day with the academics observed. This was to elicit further information about the academics’ emotional experience during the lecture. Only three main questions were asked during this debrief, with two probing questions. The questions included: “How do you think the lecture went?” and “Did you try to manage the emotions you displayed to the students and if so, how?” The full observation criteria sheet and debriefing questions can be seen in Appendices 4, 5 and 6.

(c) Focus Groups
The final method for primary data collection in this study is the focus groups interview with students. Focus groups are usually small structured groups with participants that have been readily selected by the researcher (Litosseliti, 2003) and their main aim is to help explore the participants’ feelings, experiences, and understanding in a more in-depth way compared to survey methods (Kandola, 2013). Due to the large number of students across the four universities, focus group was considered in order to capture the “spontaneous reactions” and experiences of a larger number of students in a restricted timeframe (Waller et al., 2016, p. 97). In this particular study, focus group sessions with four groups of six students were held. The number of students in the focus group was determined based on the description by Waller et al. (2016) that typically a focus group should have “six to eight participants” (p. 97). Students who were selected in the current study were among those who had attended the lecture that I observed earlier. Each of the four groups of students consisted of undergraduate students of mixed gender (male and female). Although first year undergraduate students were targeted to participate in the focus group however, only one group of students were in their second year. I only had access to the group of students as the academic who agreed to be observed only taught second year students during that semester. The recruitment was also justified acceptable by me as although the students were in their second year however, they were considered in their ‘first year’ bachelor’s degree as they had previously completed their diploma studies, which allowed them to fast track into the second year. Also, the reason why first year students were considered in this study was because Foster, McNeil, and Lawther (2013) claims that students’ experience in their first year at the university is “very influential in shaping students’ engagement.
throughout the rest of their studies” (p. 33).

The students were told by their academic prior to the start of their lecture that they were expected to be involved in a focus group after the lecture. As the lecture ended, their lecturer left the classroom and I asked for volunteers to participate in the focus group. At least 10 students raised their hand. However, this time I only selected six students comprising of three male and three female. Those who were not selected were given permission to leave the hall. The method used to select the students were the same for all of the focus group. The reason behind conducting focus groups with the students was to encourage them to reflect on and voice their views and opinions regarding their interpersonal exchanges with their academics during the lectures and also to reflect on any emotional experiences that they had felt during the lecture. Each of the focus group session lasted between one to one and a half hours in an unoccupied classroom or hall in the students’ faculty.

During the focus group, the students and I sat in comfortable chairs positioned in a loose circle. Students were given a sticker nametag with nicknames prior to the start of each focus group sessions to ensure that I was able to identify the participants during the transcription process. None of the focus group sessions were video-recorded to protect the identity of the students. Instead, the sessions were only audio-recorded. I ensured that I was able to identify each of the students’ voices by mentioning the given nickname when they responded to a question. Students were also briefed with some ground rules before the start of the focus group that highlighted their expectations as participants. Some of the things the students were asked to do include to take turns when speaking, and to avoid side conversations. They were also allowed to withdraw from the session if at any point they felt uncomfortable, and also they were allowed to take toilet breaks. The interview questions for the focus group were pre-determined from an earlier reviewed literature as well as from the modified version of the pilot study questions.

Overall there were 10 main questions asked to the students. Several probes were also developed to help elicit further information from the students. While the academics’ interview questions focused mainly on how they engage their students in their lectures, and how they manage their own and their students’ emotions, the student participants on the other hand were asked on their feelings and experience during the lecture. Some of the questions asked include. “How do you feel after this class?”, “Do you generally feel engaged during lectures?”, and “Do you think you
show it in any way when you feel engaged (or disengaged) during lectures?’”. These questions were purposely asked to understand how the students felt during the lecture, and how they responded to their academics’ emotional efforts. The full schedule of questions for the focus groups can be seen in Appendix 9. During the main study, I had also asked questions that were not pre-determined to explore the students’ perspectives. The focus group sessions ended with me thanking the students and providing them with a 10 Malaysian Ringgit food voucher each as incentives for participating in the research.

4.3.2 Secondary data
This study also incorporated other forms of data (secondary data source). Unlike primary data that were collected ‘first hand’ through interviews and observations, the secondary data for this study were collected from pre-existing or ‘readily available’ information sources that were collected by others other than the researcher (Saunders et al., 2009). These data were considered for triangulation purposes. Supporting information for this study include document and information about the universities through websites and public domain material, for example mission statements, marketing information, government reports from the Ministry of Higher Education and also internal documents such as academics’ job descriptions and student handbook. These sources were useful to help me understand the differences between teaching-focused universities and research-focused universities, the universities’ culture, and also the general rules and regulations that the students and academics need to abide by.

4.4 Obtaining Access and Agreement for the Study
Arguably the most challenging aspect of any interview initiative was to secure access to suitable respondents. There were several steps involved with recruitment. The first step involved me obtaining informed consent from the Dean or Head of Department of each Faculty involved in this study. This was done via e-mail where I briefly informed them about the nature of the study, and also attached a participation information sheet. As this study was considered not sensitive, the Dean and Head of Department of the faculties were not hesitant to give approval. Once approved, the second step involved me inviting the academics and head of teaching staff to participate in the study. For the first university, I had no issues accessing the
participants as the same university that was involved during the pilot study was again included. Three of the four academic participants who participated in the pilot study were again approached with an addition of three new academic samples. The remaining three samples who took part in the study were accessed through my own personal contacts. Meanwhile I selected the academics from the other universities through the university’s academic staff directory in the university’s website. The selection was made between one to two months prior to the main study. As I had no prior contacts with the three remaining universities, I attempted to e-mail the first five male and female academics in the directory list from each of the universities with an invitation letter and participation information sheet attached informing what the study is about.

To ensure that I had enough participants, I provided a two-week period for the participants to decide whether or not to participate in the study. A follow-up e-mail was sent after the cut of time for those who did not respond within two weeks. An additional 10 academics from each university were approached via e-mail until the number of participants was enough. It took me between four to six weeks to achieve the total number of participants required as the average response rate for the academics was three per week. Next, I invited a selected number of participants (one from each university) who agreed to participate in the study to participate in an observation. If they responded favourably, the next step was to ask for their assistance in gaining access to their students. Potential participants who were approached but did not respond were excluded after two e-mails had been left. A participant was also excluded if they cancelled an interview and were not able to reschedule an interview within the month of March and April 2017. Once participants agreed to participate, I e-mailed the participants again to arrange a date, time, and location for the interview. During the day, all of the participants were given a consent form to sign. Participants decided independently whether to participate in the study or not. Participants were provided a two-week period to decide.

4.5 Research Setting and Participants
This study was conducted in April to May 2017 within two major cities in Malaysia. The two cities were within the vicinity of my hometown. Four public universities were selected as case studies on the basis of the universities’ ranking, and its focus
(teaching versus research). The universities are currently ranked in the Top 10 universities in Malaysia, and in the Top 200 QS Asia Ranking for the year 2017. Also, location of the universities also played a large role in the selection process. Participants were selected from the Division of Social Sciences and Humanities. The decision to select the samples from this division is to hold as much constant as possible between universities to enable greater comparisons to be drawn. The universities that were involved in the study were two teaching-focused and two research-focused universities (explained in detail in Chapter 5). I deliberately selected participants from two types of universities – teaching-focused and research-focused. This was to explore the insights of academics from different types of universities. Due to the large population in each university, the convenience sampling method was mainly used as a sampling procedure for this study. This method was selected as I only required a small selection of informative samples who were able to answer the research questions and meet the aims of this study (Neuman, 2006; R. Saunders, 2013). In this case, the target population were academics, students, and heads of teaching in four public universities in Malaysia.

While it is recognised that a larger sample group could have been sought from a wider population, the participants selected for this research is small. I recruited 16 academics, 24 students, and four heads of teaching to participate in this study (see Table 4.2 and 4.3). According to R. Saunders (2013), the optimal sample size for qualitative studies is ambiguous and often depends largely on the aim of the study. Several researchers have provided some form of guidance in selecting the number of participants for instance, a sample size of 5-25 for studies involving interviews (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), 20-35 for grounded theory studies (Creswell, 1998), 35-36 for ethnographic studies, and 15-30 for template analysis studies (King, 2012). The criteria for participating in this study were as follows: (1) male or female academics, (2) teach first year undergraduate students, (3) junior or senior position in the university, and (4) working at a teaching-focused or research-focused university in two major cities in Malaysia.

During the study, two academics cancelled at the very last minute. As a result, I used the snowball sampling technique to further connect with potential participants that could replace the academics. Academics who had earlier accepted to be part of the study were asked to assist with recommending other potential academics who could participate in the study at the last minute, and who also met the
criterion. A total of four academics from each university agreed to participate in the study, two male and two female, ranging in age from 30 to 60 years old, and 2 to 28 years of service in the university. The participants selected represent the academic disciplines in which I aim to acquire – business and communication, and they were selected based on accessibility.

Table 4.2. Academic participants’ demographic data by selected universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years of service</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>HE institution type</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TF1FA1</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Junior lecturer</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
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<tr>
<td>TF1FA2</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Junior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>30-35</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Senior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF1MA2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF2FA1</td>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Junior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF2FA2</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Senior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF2MA1</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Junior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF2MA2</td>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Senior lecturer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Research-focused</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Participant names have been replaced with pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.

Nine academics in this study held the senior academic position in their university while the remainder held the junior position. Academics with ‘senior’ status in this study are mainly those who hold a doctoral degree while junior academics are those who have a Master’s degree. Most of the academic participants worked for more than five years in their university. Only one academic involved worked for only two years. The selection of these criteria, were intended to ensure that the participants’
narratives remain diverse, and in order to gain a broad and unique insight on the phenomenon studied. Meanwhile the criteria for inclusion in this study sample were students (1) taught by participating academics, and (2) first year undergraduate students. Table 4.3 depicts the student sample for the current study.

Table 4.3. Student participants’ demographic data by selected universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Current year in the university</th>
<th>HE institution type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>TF1S1M</td>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF1S2F</td>
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<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
</tr>
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<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
</tr>
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<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>Teaching-focused University 2</td>
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<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>20-25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
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<tr>
<td>TF2S3F</td>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>Female</td>
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<tr>
<td>TF2S4F</td>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>TF2S5M</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Teaching-focused</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research-focused University 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>RF1S1M</td>
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<tr>
<td>RF1S2F</td>
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<tr>
<td>RF1S3F</td>
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<td>RF1S4M</td>
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<td>RF1S5F</td>
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<td>RF1S6M</td>
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<td>Research-focused University 2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>RF2S6M</td>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Research-focused</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Participant names have been replaced with pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.
As previously mentioned, only six students who participated in this study were in their second year while others were in their first year. All of the students were between the age of 20 to 25 and the samples composed an equal number of male and female.

### 4.6 Data Analysis

The technique considered for this study was the template analysis technique, which is based on the work of King (2004b). Template analysis is the process of organising and analysing textual data according to themes from sources such as interview transcripts (e.g. Dredge, Gleeson, & de la Piedad Garcia, 2014; Slade, Haywood, & King, 2009), focus groups (e.g. Kirkby-Geddes, King, & Bravington, 2013; Orbaek, Gaard, Fabricius, Lefevre, & Møller, 2015), and diary entries (e.g. Hawe & Riley, 2005; Waddington & Fletcher, 2005). Template analysis is a flexible technique that is not bounded by heavy procedures, and is useful for analysing large data groups when exploring relationships and trends, as well as comparing the participants’ different responses (King, 2012). A template is referred to the collection of codes and categories that signify the themes revealed from the data collection (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). It involves “creating and developing a hierarchical template of data codes or categories representing themes revealed in the data collected and the relationships between these” (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 602).

Template analysis generally consists of seven steps (King & Brooks, 2017): 1) familiarisation with the data (immersion in the raw data); 2) preliminary coding (noting data pertinent to answering research question(s)); 3) clustering (grouping the data and ordering it hierarchically); 4) producing an initial template (groups of themes are used to produce an initial version of the coding template); 5) developing the template (data set further coded – applied, revised, refined, and reapplied); 6) Applying the final template (full data set coded to the final version of the template when no more changes required) and 7) Writing up (final template used to organise the way analysis is presented) (see Figure 4.2 for a flowchart of the template analysis process).
Several researchers have pointed out that codes and themes can be identified either in an inductive or deductive way (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). For template analysis, the codes and themes are identified through the combination of inductive and deductive approach (King & Brook, 2017; Saunders et al., 2009). According to King and Brook (2017, p. 6):

*Template analysis does not have a single fixed position in the induction-deduction balance; this will vary according to the kind of methodological approach within which it is being used ... However, it is fair to say that it is usually neither at the most strongly inductive nor most strongly deductive ends, and can therefore be seen as tending to occupy the mid-range of this continuum.*

For this study, one of the reasons for the selection of this technique is because it allows me to develop a template from predetermined themes even before the main data collection is conducted (King, 2012).
4.6.1 Justification of Other Alternatives

There are other possible methods of data collection and analysis that could have been used in the current study including grounded theory and interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). Grounded theory was considered in great detail before selecting template analysis. The theory which resembles template analysis, enables researchers to generate theory inductively through the process of systematically gathering, and analysing qualitative data during their studies (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Strauss and Corbin (1990) claim that “theory derived from data is more likely to resemble “reality” than is theory derived by putting together a series of concepts based on experiences or solely through speculation” (p. 12).

One of the drawbacks of grounded theory is that unlike template analysis, grounded theory does not start with a detailed review of the literature (Kenealy, 2013, p. 408). Meaning that grounded theory research begins after data collection (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and researchers must reject any predetermined ideas, and allow theories to emerge directly from the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Urquhart, (2007) claims that because of this major setback, there is a lack of use of grounded theory among researchers. Another disadvantage of grounded theory is that it is more structured compared to template analysis, giving researchers less freedom to work with the data and more procedures to follow (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The strict regime of data collection and coding would not leave the data sufficiently open for the researcher to explore its truth. This however differs from template analysis where predetermined ideas are encouraged, and the structure is deemed flexible making these some of the advantages for researchers using template analysis.

Another data analysis technique that was considered but not selected in this study is interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). IPA seeks to provide an understanding on how people make sense of their everyday lives (King & Brooks, 2017; Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009). According to Smith, Flowers, and Larkin (2009), “IPA shares the view that human beings are sense-making creatures, and therefore the accounts which participants provide will reflect their attempts to make sense their experience” Similar to grounded theory, IPA is considered as highly inductive (Smith et al., 2009). One of the major setbacks of IPA is the issue of ‘bracketing’. Bracketing is when theoretical assumptions are “put to the back of
one’s mind” (Cronin-davis, Butler, & Mayers, 2009, p. 336). Researchers are required to suspend any presuppositions and develop interpretation based on what is presented in the transcript data that is, the individual participant’s lived experience.

Researchers considering the use of IPA are required to consider this process and this is considered very difficult by Cronin-davis, Butler, and Mayers, (2009) as disregarding prior knowledge and understanding when the “analysis is dependent on theoretical interpretation” is not easy (p. 337). Another limitation of IPA is that the researcher needs to generate codes from the data rather than using pre-existing theories (Larkin, Watts, & Clifton, 2006). Predetermined ideas are not encouraged in this process (King, 2012). Therefore the coding structure is built up by the researcher during the analysis process rather than prior to the process (King & Brooks, 2017). This is the opposite for template analysis as it allows researchers to generate themes while developing a template compared (King, 2012).

4.6.2 Template development

Unlike the previous mentioned methods, template analysis does not specify at what stage a template should be formulated (King & Brooks, 2017). Thus in this study, the formulation of an initial provisional template took place after I familiarised myself with the literature, and conducted the pilot study (see Figure 4.3). Upon completion of the full-scale study, I went through the similar process as the pilot study. First, I highlighted sections of text in the interview transcripts that are relevant and might contribute toward my understanding. Then I carried out coding of the data. King, (2012) defined a template code as a “label attached to a section of text to index it as relating to a theme or issue in the data which the researcher has identified as important to his or her interpretation (p. 257)”. According to King and Brooks (2017) there are two methods to code the template and this has already been employed by me in this study.

The first method used is the hierarchical coding, where groups of similar codes are grouped together to produce broad higher-order themes (King, 2004b; King & Brooks, 2017). The higher-order themes are elaborated further through the use of lower-order themes that contains more detailed information (King, 2004b; King & Brooks, 2017). The higher-order themes were derived from the primary interview questions and the literature reviews while the lower-order codes were derived from secondary questions (probes) and the initial interview data. The second
method used in this study is the parallel coding. The method was used to code “the same segment of text with two or more distinct themes” (King & Brook, 2017, p. 35). The codes were selected, and modified by reading, and re-reading the interview transcripts. This iterative process involved several template modifications every time a new interview was coded which include adding new themes that is not present in the template but crucial to answering the research questions, deleting themes that are redundant and not relevant, redefining existing themes, merging the themes, and changing the order of the themes (e.g. switching a higher-order theme to a lower-order theme) (King, 2004b, 2012; King & Brooks, 2017).

The labels given in this study were considered important in helping unravel the phenomena. The broad themes are situated at the highest level while the narrow-focused themes are organised below the broad themes. The data analysis phase produced a total of three template revisions before resulting in the final template. According to King and Brook (2017), it is often hard to decide when it is time to stop constructing a template as the process can be never-ending. Nonetheless, the decision on when a template is ‘good enough’ is always unique in each research (King, 2012). For this study, once I covered all sections of the data, the text corresponded to the research questions, and the template required no more minimal modifications (Brooks, McCluskey, Turley, & King, 2015) the template became final.
4.7 Ethical Considerations

Prior to conducting the fieldwork, several measures were used to ensure that the study proceeded in a professional and ethical manner. Ethics refers to a “set of principles that embody or exemplify what is good or right, or allow us to identify what is bad or wrong” (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012, p. 16). Before the data collection stage commenced, I had applied for ethical approval from The University of Manchester Ethics Committee. The university’s ethics committee plays a crucial role in determining whether the research conforms with general ethical principles and standards and that the research is not badly designed or harmful towards the participants (Bell, 2010).

Upon approval, I then approached the participants and asked for their permission to participate in the research. To ensure participants were able to make an informed consent about their participant in the study, copies of all relevant information about this study was provided to them in writing in soft-copy via e-mail, and also hard-copy when I met them for the interview. The participants were also given two weeks to think about whether they would like to participate in the study.
and also, they were given the opportunity to ask questions before I embarked on the main study. The current study also addressed the following issues:

**Assuring privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality**

Before conducting the interviews, I provided participants with an information sheet detaining the nature of the study, their right to confidentiality, and their option to withdraw at any given point during the study without having to give any reason. The information sheet assured the participants about the legitimacy of the study conducted and that their identity are protected. To maintain participants’ privacy and ensure full confidentiality, I ensured that the name of the participants, and the university that they are currently attached to will not be disclosed. Their identification were first replaced using codes such as Academic A, Academic B, Academic C for academic participants, Student A, Student B, Student C for student participants, Staff A, Staff B, Staff C for the heads of teaching staff, and finally University A, University B, University C, for the universities. These pseudonyms were immediately applied at the time of consent to replace personal identifiers.

Although the codes were written in the information sheet, however, slight changes to the codes were later made during fieldwork. In the end I decided to use numbers and alphabets that were chosen based on the turn of the participants’ interview, their gender, and type of university that they are currently working (e.g., the first participant who was interviewed was coded as TF1MA1 that referred as the first teaching-focused university, and first male academic interviewed, and so on). These identifications were carried throughout the thesis especially in the results and discussion section. The pseudonym given provided no other identification especially that could give away the participants’ names or initials.

It is possible that what participants said during their interview has been quoted in the research and they may recognise their words should they choose to read the research, but no part of this thesis and other publication(s) will mention their name or any other identifying information. Since this research discusses the academics and students’ emotions, there was a risk that participants may feel uncomfortable to share their views and perceptions. To address this, I ensured all participants that they were not being involved in a monitoring exercise administered by their university. Data collected were only used for the purpose for which it was provided.
Data storage

Interviews were recorded on a digital voice recorder and after conducting the interviews, each voice file was transferred and stored securely on my password protected laptop. The only person who has access to the laptop is me. The voice files were then deleted from the recorder as soon as they were safely transferred into the laptop. The audio files were also backed-up in a password protected external storage. This was also accessible to only me. All other hardcopy materials (e.g., copies of signed consent form and written notes), and data collection tools (e.g., digital voice recorder, and notebook) were stored in a locked cabinet in my home.

4.8 Evaluation of the quality of research

It is essential to demonstrate the quality and integrity of a research if it is to have any value. Lincoln and Guba (1985) determine that the quality for qualitative research depends on the trustworthiness of the study and its findings. Barbour (1998) referred trustworthiness as the extent to which a study’s findings reflect the personal lived experiences of the participants. Therefore to enhance trustworthiness, four trustworthiness criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Following the four criteria listed, this study is evaluated against these criteria and will be described in detail in the subsections below.

4.8.1 Credibility of the study

Credibility establishes whether or not a study’s findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants’ original data and interpreted by the researcher correctly (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, two techniques were used to establish credibility of the interpretation of the data. The first technique is triangulation as briefly mentioned in the earlier part of this chapter (see 4.3 Methods of the main study) (Denzin, 2012; Mathison, 1988; Shenton, 2004). Triangulation involves the use of multiple different methods of data collection and analysis to obtain corroborating evidence (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1990). Four types of triangulation as developed by Denzin (1978) is summarised in Table 4.4 below:
Table 4.4. Four types of triangulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of triangulation</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methods triangulation</td>
<td>Using different data collection methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data/informants triangulation</td>
<td>Using multiple sources of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigator triangulation</td>
<td>Using multiple investigators to explore the same problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory triangulation</td>
<td>Using different theories and alternative theories to the data set</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Here, I used multiple qualitative methods such as individual interviews, focus groups, and participant observations (methods triangulation) in order to gain a more complete understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The different use of qualitative methods was also to ensure that the findings are rich, and well-developed (Denzin, 2012; Guba, 1981; Mathison, 1988; Shenton, 2004). Other than using multiple qualitative methods, my study involved a wide range of participants (data triangulation). For instance, my participants were academics and students of mixed gender (male and female). The academics were also from different levels of seniority (junior versus senior) and both the academics and students were selected from four different universities in Malaysia that consisted of two research-focused and two teaching-focused universities. With the diverse selection of participants, I could gather different viewpoints and experiences, which can then create a rich picture of the attitudes, need or behaviours of the participants.

*Member checking* was the most crucial technique utilised in this study to establish credibility (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Symon & Cassell, 2013). Credibility is used to help accurately capture the participants’ views during the research process (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Symon & Cassell, 2013). During the interview session with the academics, I often say things like, “Is this what you mean?” or “So you’re saying that..” to ensure that I’ve interpreted their response accurately. Furthermore, I made sure that I read the interview transcripts, field notes, and observation notes multiple times and communicated with the participants after transcribing the interviews in order to ensure that I did not draw my own conclusions. Participants were given a copy of their own interview transcripts via e-mail to check whether I’ve accurately reported their stories and intended meaning. All of the selected academics responded, and confirmed the accuracy of the transcripts.
4.8.2 Transferability

Qualitative studies are not typically conducted with the intent for generalisation as the purpose is generally to explore the lived experiences of the participants in more depth (Miles & Huberman, 2006). Although generalisability is not applicable in this study, I have ensured that I’ve taken appropriate measures so that my findings may be ‘transferable’ or applicable to other research settings (M. Saunders et al., 2009). To allow transferability, I ensured that I provided rich, thick descriptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2002) of the research context and setting so that future researchers can make comparisons with other contexts and settings. In my methods section, I’ve explained in detail this study’s research processes that is from data collection, context of the study to production of the final thesis. Also, I’ve provided appropriate quotations throughout the three findings chapter to help enhance transferability.

4.8.3 Dependability

Another criteria of trustworthiness is dependability. Dependability refers to demonstrating how ‘methodological changes and shifts in constructions’ (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 242). In this study, the dependability criteria was achieved through an audit trail. I’ve ensured that the decisions and changes made during the data collection and analysis process are well documented and described in the thesis (Bryman, 2008; Mertens, 1998). This is to allow other researchers to replicate the study in another setting, including how the study was accomplished, how the data was gathered and the effectiveness of the methods used (Shenton, 2004).

4.8.4 Confirmability

The final criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is confirmability. Confirmability emphasises the importance of accurately representing the voices of the participants in the findings and also, the findings should not be shaped by the researcher’s motivation or interest (Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004). To ensure the trustworthiness of my findings, I made sure that I maintained a reflective journal. Although I did not treat my journal like a diary-style daily journal but instead, I wrote important notes from time to time. For instance, notes were written when emerging questions arise during the data collection process, when problems arise that
may have a potential impact on the study, and when there was a need to clarify certain issues to the participants during data analysis.

Summary
In this chapter, a description and justification of the methods and procedures used in this study was provided. It included the descriptions of the participants (i.e., academics, students, and head of teaching staff), the method of data collection (i.e., semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and observations), and the methods used to analyse the data (i.e., template analysis). Also, the criteria used to judge the quality of the research process was also explained in this chapter. In the following chapter, I present the research context.
CHAPTER 5 – RESEARCH CONTEXT

5 Introduction
This chapter extends the discussion on the qualitative methodology adopted in this thesis from the preceding chapter. As the previous chapter had briefly highlighted on the research setting, this chapter offers further descriptions of the Malaysian culture, and the Malaysian education system. The four case studies involved in this study are also explained in this chapter.

5.1 Malaysia and its national cultural values
The setting of this study is the Southeast Asian country of Malaysia. Malaysia is known as a multi-cultural country where the society mostly consists of three major ethnicities – the Malays, Chinese, and Indians however, other indigenous ethnic groups also live in the country such as the Kadazan Dusuns, Dayaks, and Ibans. The Malays are the predominant ethnic group and regard themselves as Bumiputera, which literally translates as ‘sons of the soil’. Despite the large number of ethnic groups in the country, people living in Malaysia are commonly known as ‘Malaysians’.

Each ethnicity has maintained its cultural heritage, including their language, codes of dress, religion, customs, and behavioural norms and patterns (Gomez, 1998; Merriam & Mohamad, 2000). While their unique identity are often preserved, certain values are apparent across all Malaysian ethnic groups. According to Abdullah (1996), Malaysians share five similar cultural values. The first value is Malaysians are typically known for their collectivistic culture (Abdullah, 1996). Malaysians have strong sense of in-group, organisational belonging, and attachment (Abdullah, 1996). This was also identified by Geert Hofstede (1980) in his work on culture and cultural dimensions. According to Hofstede (1980) and Ting-Toomey (1999), those who belong in this category often communicate indirectly. Also, harmony of groups are often maintained, and open conflicts tend to be avoided (Hofstede, 1983; Ting-Toomey, 1999). Malaysia is not the only country that belongs in the collectivist category. Hofstede (1983, 2011) also identified other “collectivistic” countries such as Singapore, Japan, and Hong Kong.
The second value is Malaysians are hierarchical in power (Abdullah, 1996). Hofstede (1980) described that those who fall in the high power distance category, practices hierarchy in their lives where inequalities are often present and those who hold a higher position are often respected and unchallenged. In other words, inequality in power is generally accepted by the Malaysian society compared to other countries such as the United Kingdom and Australia (Hofstede, 1983, 2011). Those in power, in terms of position and ranking, as well as seniority in age, are highly respected by their subordinates and their juniors (Abdullah, 1996). Furthermore, so much respect is given to those with power, questioning or challenging them is considered rude as they are seen as the wise elders (Abdullah, 1996). Third, Malaysians are relationship oriented. Malaysians are described as closely knit and usually have strong ties to their family and community (e.g., village, country, social group) (Abdullah, 1996). Also, mutual and reciprocal obligations are often understood and acted upon within these web of ties (Abdullah, 1996).

Next, face (or air muka in Malay) – a vital element of Malaysian culture refers to a value that suggests Malaysians often maintain other people’s dignity by not embarrassing or humiliating him or her in front of others (Abdullah, 1996; Gannon & Pillai, 2016). Saving face is an important aspect to maintain harmonious relationship (Abdullah, 1996). Losing face (i.e., losing control of one’s emotions) is perceived as a negative display of behaviour (Gannon & Pillai, 2016). The final value identified by Abdullah (1996) is religious. Malaysians are also known as religious and happiness comes from within oneself through prayers and meditations (Abdullah, 1996). It could be said that these similarities make up the identity of a Malaysian citizen. Therefore, in this study the participants are viewed as Malaysian although it is acknowledged that there may be differences in ethnicity, religious belief, economic class and so on. In the following section, I present a detailed account of the Malaysian education system.

5.2 The Malaysian education system
The Malaysian education system has gone through vast changes and transformation since the country attained its independence from Great Britain in 1957. During the period of British colonisation, Malaysia (formerly known as Malaya) had an education system that was strongly influenced by the British education system (Altbach, 1989; M. Lee, Sirat, & Wan, 2017; Selvaratnam, 1985; Sirat & Kaur,
The entire academic structure (e.g., teaching and learning) was managed by the British, and even the Malaysian universities functioned mainly in the English language (Altbach, 1989). During the colonial period, the British had also implemented a ‘divide and rule’ policy that largely affected the country’s multi-ethnic society of Malay, Chinese, and Indian (Ibrahim, 2007).

Ethnic groups who lived in rural areas were not allowed to interact with one another as they were socially and physically segregated by economic sectors, education, and non-professional occupations (Hirschman, 1986). But those who worked in professional occupations, and attended English language schools in urban areas, were allowed to interact with one another (Hirschman, 1986). Back then, Hirschman (1986) explains that education was run differently and that, “education was not meant to be a national institution that fostered common knowledge, a common language, or even acquaintance of the difference communities of society” (p. 353).

When Malaysia gained its independence, the government made many major changes to the education system. Malaysia moved away from the British education system that had divided the country’s citizens. Efforts were made by the Malaysian government to reshape the education system that could fulfil the needs of a newly independent country (Altbach, 1989; Haji Ahmad, 1998), and to face the challenges of globalisation (Ariffin, Ahmad, Ahmad, & Ibrahim, 2008). Also, based on the diversity of the Malaysian ethnic groups, the government had to ensure that the Malaysian education system is designed to be culturally sensitive and fits within the multicultural context (Ibrahim, 2007). Malaysia placed a top priority in providing an education system that promoted national unity (Hirschman, 1986). Moral values derived from religions, traditions, and customs of the different people in the country are now infused into the country’s education system from elementary level up to higher education (Haji Ahmad, 1998). The system also emphasised on the importance of balancing between ‘ethics and morality’ (akhlak) and ‘knowledge and skills’ (ilmu). Malaysian students are also required to have some form of pride towards the country (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015) and at the same time, they are expected to be culturally competent, emotionally intelligent, resilient, good in communicating, and also socially responsible (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015).
5.3 The Malaysian higher education context

As a developing nation, Malaysia has not only seen a substantial growth in its pre-tertiary education system (i.e. from primary to secondary education) but also its tertiary education. This is a result of continuous efforts taken by the Malaysian government under the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) that has been supporting, improving, and expanding the sector over the years due to its belief that there is a positive link between the expansion of higher education and the country’s economic growth and national development (Ministry of Education, 2011; Wan et al., 2016). In one of the government reports on education - Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (Preschool to Post-Secondary Education), it had indicated that:

There is no better predictor of a nation’s future than what is currently happening in its classrooms. In today’s global economy, a nation’s success depends fundamentally on the knowledge, skills, and competencies of its people. It is no surprise that nations with higher education levels tend to enjoy greater economic prosperity. (Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 2)

The report also stressed on the importance of education to nation building and unity as education helps enable the citizens to have a better life (Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 2). One of the major efforts taken by the Malaysian government to improve the quality of education is through financial support. Over the years, the government devotes of its national funds for education. This is due to education being seen as a key to the country’s rapid development (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). In a report conducted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), they suggested that Malaysia invests more than its neighbouring countries in tertiary education (OECD, 2016).

In 2017, Malaysia had allocated one-fifth of the nation’s budget on education similar to the previous year (Surendra, 2016). While schools had benefited from the budget, most of the money was channelled to the Malaysian public universities, and also scholarships (Surendra, 2016). Other efforts include the increase in establishment of local and foreign public and private universities, and colleges in the country (Ariffin et al., 2008; Tham & Kam, 2008), and the increase in hosting international students (Bernama, 2015). In return, universities are expected to meet
the directions of the Malaysian government, especially in terms of fulfilling the country’s aspirations (Ariffin et al., 2008; Ming, 2011).

5.3.1 Malaysian higher education policies

Some of the education legislations that govern the provision of higher education in Malaysia are: (a) the *Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996* (amended 2009) – to regulate the establishment and management of private and foreign higher education institutions in the country (Grapragasem et al., 2014), (b) the *Universities and University Colleges Act 1971* (amended 2009) – to corporatise and modernise the management of public institutions (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015), (c) the *National Council on Higher Education Institution Act 1996* – to establish a council that formulates policy for the Malaysian higher education sector, (d) the *National Higher Education Funding Act 1997* – to establish student funding to facilitate access to public and private higher education institutions (Mukherjee & Wong, 2011), and (e) the *Malaysian Qualifications Agency Act 2007* – to unify and harmonise the quality of all Malaysian qualifications (Azman, Pang, Sirat, & Yunus, 2014).

The Malaysian government has also created frameworks to assist with the development of the country’s higher education. For instance, the release of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education) in April 2015 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015), and the previous launched plans such as the National Higher Education Strategic Plan beyond 2020 and National Higher Education Action Plan 2007-2010 in 2007 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015), has resulted in the dramatic expansion and development of the sector (Ariffin et al., 2008). In the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education), it indicated other measures made by the government to expand the higher education sector. They include, “increasing ‘democratisation’ of the higher education sector, expanding the private education sector, establishing international branch campuses, and increasing research productivity among research universities and academic staff” (p. 213).
5.3.2 The future of Malaysian higher education

Malaysia aspires to become a developed nation by year 2020. A vision named ‘Wawasan 2020’ or Vision 2020 was introduced by the government in 1991 as an aim to turn the country into a developed nation in its “own mould” by year 2020 (Ibrahim, 2007, p. 159; Transformasi Nasional 2050, 2017). One of the measures taken is to transform Malaysia into an education hub for the Asian region, and internationalise the country’s higher education sector to compete in the global education market (Bajunid & Wong, 2016; Grapragasem et al., 2014; Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). Universities are expected to improve the quality of their education (e.g., research and teaching) and to prove that their quality is improving to achieve the vision (Wan et al., 2016). The recently former Prime Minister of Malaysia Dato’ Sri Najib Tun Razak had declared, “…if we want to achieve our goal of becoming a developed nation by 2020, we must increase both access to and the quality of higher education in Malaysia” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015, p. 4).

As the year 2020 is drawing closer, in October 2016, Prime Minister Najib Razak announced a new 30-year transformation plan for the country called the 2050 National Transformation or ‘Transformasi Nasional 2050’ (TN50), (NST Online, 2016b). The purpose of the plan is to further transform, and improve the country beyond year 2020 that is, from the year 2020 to 2050. TN50 aims to place the country in the “top 20 nation in economic development, social advancement and innovation” with the help of extensive input from the public including university students and academics (Transformasi Nasional 2050, 2017). The policy document will only be unveiled by the latest, early 2019 (Ahmad & Spykerman, 2017).

5.3.3 Pressures and challenges in Malaysian higher education

Despite the many efforts to improve the education sector, Sengupta (2015) believes that Malaysia faces similar struggles to other developing countries in meeting the increasing and changing demands of the higher education sector. Pressures are placed on universities, especially academics, as their performance is now being measured not only in teaching but other areas such as research, public service, and management (Haron et al., 2010). This ‘new academic norm’ is said to bring new challenges in the role of academics (Haron et al., 2010). In the Malaysia Education Blueprint, academics are promised with the rights and support needed to face the
changes and developments of the higher education sector. But in return, academics are asked to “stay open to and adopt” to the new changes in their work role and to work collaboratively with their stakeholders during the journey and, “to model the holistic, entrepreneurial, and balanced mindsets, values, and behaviours expected of students” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015, p. 9).

**Ranking and research**

Over the past few years, the government has emphasised the importance of conducting research, and the need to attain high rankings in the world (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Universities are expected to achieve world-class university status and also increase their standing in the world university rankings (Hazelkorn, 2015). This can be seen in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education) where the word ‘rank’ has been emphasised over 100 times. By the year 2025, the government aims to have one local university placed in Asia’s Top 25 university ranking, two in the Global Top 100, and four in the Global Top 200 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). While the expectation may be achieved by this deadline, Malaysian universities are currently struggling to respond to the expectations due to the difficulties in encouraging and eliciting more research and publication output from their academics, as the increasing pressure for publications is topped with other academic workload (Wan et al., 2016, p. 2). Other than that, Altbach (2006) believes that the drawback of focusing on rankings is that it ignores the main roles of academics which is teaching and it does not look at “how students are affected by their academic experience” (p. 3).

**Budget cuts**

Another major challenge facing Malaysian universities is budget cuts. In late 2016, the Ministry of Higher Education had announced that public universities were expected to experience a cut of 20% or 1.5 billion Malaysian Ringgit in their combined operating budgets in 2017. One public university faces the biggest cut in its operating expenditure of around 30% compared to the previous year’s allocation (Ching, 2016), while another is said to have lost the most in terms of absolute value, with 563 million Malaysian Ringgit (around 100 million GBP) removed from its operating budget (“Budget 2017: Public universities suffer almost 20pc spending cut,” 2016).
The purpose of cutting funds from the public universities is so that they become less reliant on public funding and collaborate more with the private sector (Ching, 2016). The budget cut has resulted in an increase in pressure for the universities to run on their own and the need to find funds from private sectors. The implication for academics is that they are still expected to do more research, but with less funds supporting them (NST Online, 2016a). With the lack of funds to hire research assistants and purchase research materials, many researchers have decided to abandon their studies (NST Online, 2016a).

Matching the demands of employers

Universities are also facing an increase in pressure to meet the demands of employers by the government. Mohd Don (2016) indicated, “the government is in position to ensure that public universities respond to employers’ demands, as it provides a large portion of the funding” (p. 136). In the Malaysian Education Blueprint, it highlighted that currently there is a “mismatch in the supply and demand of graduates” that universities need to address (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Employers are facing difficulties in finding the right talent as it is reported that Malaysian graduates lack the needed skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed for employment (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Universities are expected to supply a ‘trained workforce’ that matches the employers’ needs in order for graduates to be employed within six months of their graduation in their respective fields (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2012).

5.4 Types of higher education institutions in Malaysia

There are a lot of higher education institutions in Malaysia that offers programmes from certificates and diplomas to degrees (Loke & Hoon, 2011). Higher education institutions in Malaysia are divided into two: 1) public institutions (government-funded); and 2) private institutions (private-funded) (Ministry of Higher Education, 2016). The different types of public institutions in the country are public universities, polytechnics, and community colleges. Meanwhile the types of private institutions are private universities and colleges and foreign branch campus universities. Malaysia currently has 20 public universities that are funded by the Malaysian government (see Appendix 9 for a complete list of the universities). These universities comprises of five research universities, four universities categorised as
comprehensive or teaching universities, and 11 technical or focused universities. In the present research, the focus was on research and teaching universities, as opposed to technical or focused universities, which concentrate on studies in specific fields such as technical, defence, management, and education.

5.4.1 Research-focused universities
Research-focused universities (RU) are defined as institutions that devote their energy towards research and teaching (Altbach, 2011; Steffensen et al., 2000). Although teaching remains important, research is highly prioritised and rewarded in research universities (Altbach, 2011; The Boyer Commission on Education Undergraduates in the Research University, 1998). Academics here typically have modest teaching responsibilities, and most of their time are given to undertake and publish research (Altbach, 2011). Some of the common goals of research-focused universities in Malaysia and abroad include to become leaders in innovation, produce high impact research publications, attract and graduate students of high standards, and to secure research funds from various organisations (e.g., government, charitable, corporate bodies) (Altbach, 2011; Parker, 2008; Ramli et al., 2013).

Research-focused universities in Malaysia are competitive in terms of student admission, and they have an average ratio of 50% undergraduate students and 50% postgraduate students (Ahmad et al., 2014). They also have higher proportions of postgraduate and doctoral students compared to non-research universities (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Based on the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education), it can be seen that the government puts higher emphasis on the country’s research-focused universities. The five research universities are recognised by the Malaysian government as “leading research and educational hubs” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015, p. 171).

5.4.2 Teaching-focused universities
Teaching-focused universities (also referred to as comprehensive universities in Malaysia), offer multi-disciplinary fields of study at all educational levels, including pre-undergraduate, undergraduate, and postgraduate (Ahmad et al., 2014). These universities are generally competitive in terms of student admission, and have a 70:30 split between undergraduate and postgraduate students (Ahmad et al., 2014). Unlike research-focused universities, teaching-focused universities focus mainly on
teaching (Ahmad et al., 2014). However, the way these universities are running is expected to change to face the challenges of higher education in the 21st century (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Teaching-focused universities may no longer focus mainly on teaching (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). This was pointed out in the Malaysian Education Blueprint, where the Ministry indicated, “The traditional model of a bricks-and-mortar comprehensive university may no longer be the most effective way to deliver education” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015, p. 10-2).

5.5 Overview of the Cases
Universities involved in this study were selected to reflect a good spread of different types of public universities within Malaysia. The selected universities are situated across two major cities in the country. The sample includes two research-focused universities and two teaching-focused universities. One of the teaching-focused universities is from one of the cities and the three other universities are from the other. Each of the universities are unique in terms of goals and objectives. They are also established during different years ranging between late 1940s to early 1980s, and vary in terms of size.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the universities are referred in this study as teaching-focused university 1 (TF1), teaching-focused university 2 (TF2), research-focused university 1 (RF1), and research-focused university 2 (RF2) to protect the identity of the universities – and participants – involved. The study had used TF1 to pilot the interview questions and to make adjustments before undertaking fieldwork. The interesting findings from this case led to the university’s inclusion in the main study. The descriptions of the case studies, presented below, were developed by combining the information from interviews with academics and head of teaching staffs, and secondary data such as government reports, online databases, and internal documents from the universities (e.g., student handbook). The descriptions of the cases follow a similar format with variation depending on the depth and breadth of information gathered for each case. They start with information such as a brief history of the universities, descriptions of the universities’ character and direction, and the roles and expectations of academics.
5.6 Case Study 1

Teaching-focused university 1 (TF1) is a Malaysian public university established in the 1950s. The main hub of the university operates in one of the two major cities selected in this study and the university has over 30 campuses spread across the country. Currently the university as a whole has a population of more than 18,000 academic and non-academic staff members (local and international), with an enrolment of around 160,000 students, making it the largest university in Malaysia (Website from TF1, 2017). Around 80% of the student population are undergraduate students while the remainder are postgraduate. Unlike the three other public universities selected in this study, TF1 is created exclusively to educate Bumiputras and a limited number of international students (Samuel & Yew Tee, 2013; Selvaratnam, 1985). Bumiputra, which means ‘sons of the soil’, is a Malaysian term to refer Malays and non-Malay indigenous groups of Sabah and Sarawak (e.g., Iban, Dayak) (Barr et al., 2007). The university’s website indicated that the university aims to develop Bumiputras by enhancing “the knowledge and expertise of Bumiputras in all fields of study through professional programmes, research work and community service based on moral values and professional ethics” (Website from TF1, 2017). Since it’s establishment, TF1 has already created over 600,000 graduates filling jobs in various sectors locally and abroad such as engineering, science, accountancy, education, and healthcare (Said, 2016).

Like other universities, TF1 offers a wide-range of programmes in various faculties across three clusters that is, Social Sciences and Humanities, Business and Management, and Science and Technology. These faculties include Art and Design, Administrative Science and Policy, Communication and Media Studies, and Business and Management. Although the university is exclusive for Bumiputras, all of the programmes taught in the university are in English (Samuel & Yew Tee, 2013) and by both Bumiputra and non-Bumiputra academics (“Q & A with Tan Sri Arshad Ayub,” 2015). Meanwhile in terms of ranking, TF1 was recently ranked in the Top 800 in the world and Top 200 in Asia based on the QS World University Rankings 2018. The university is also in its quest to become a world-renowned research university. The university’s Vice-Chancellor had indicated in a media interview that the university “was centred on teaching” but it now aims to be “immersed in applied research and innovation” to help contribute to the growth of the country’s economy, and industrial sector (Said, 2016). However, he also assured that the move to “foster
a culture of research and innovation” would not compromise teaching and the curriculum of the university.

5.6.1 The faculty
The participants who took part in this study were from the Faculty of Communication and Media Studies under the Social Sciences and Humanities cluster. Based on the selected faculty’s website, there are around 150 staff members serving the faculty in which close to 100 are academics and the remainder are non-academic staff (e.g., administrators). The faculty is run by the Dean and supported by academics holding the top management post. The management team which comprises of three Deputy Deans, three head of Centres, and eight Course Coordinators are responsible for managing, and overseeing the overall aspect of teaching, learning, and research activities in the faculty, as well as other academic and student affairs.

The academics are segregated into three main departments referred to as Centres. Each centre is managed by an academic staff who is appointed as the Head of Centre. Within the centre, there are two to three courses that are each run by a Course Coordinator. Academics also hold different academic rank based on their qualifications, contributions, and years of experience. In the faculty, there is a mixture of academics who hold the title of lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor, and professor status. Based on the pilot and main study findings, those who hold the lecturer status are mainly young and just started working at the university. Senior lecturers on the other hand comprise of more experienced academics either with or without a doctorate. Meanwhile those who hold the associate professor and professor status are those with a doctoral degree who have made significant contributions to the university such as in the area of teaching and scholarly activities.

The academics’ typical job responsibilities in the faculty and university as a whole involves teaching, conducting research, and administrative activities. However, according to the head of teaching staff who participated in this study, she revealed that the responsibilities are not the same for all academics. It highly depends on the position that they hold in the faculty and/or university. Those holding the management post are given less teaching hours so that they can assist the Dean with managing the faculty to achieve the university’s aim. Although the university aims to
become a research university however, academics who participated in this study claims that the university is still considered as a teaching-focused university. This is due to the teaching hours that academics are expected to perform on a weekly basis are relatively high compared to the norm for Malaysian universities. The pilot study and main study findings also suggested that the average number of in-class teaching hours is 15 hours per week. The number can also rise up to 21 hours as indicated by one of the academics. He expressed:

*I have a lot of credit hours this semester. 21 in total. Which means in a week, I have to go to class 7 times. It’s pretty tiring. Exhausting. I don’t know why we have so many teaching hours when other universities are moving towards becoming a research university (TF1MA2)*.

The high teaching hours is considered by the head of teaching staff as “many”. This was made in comparison with academics in other public universities who are given less teaching hours. She lamented: “We want to aspire to be a research-intensive university but we ask people to do research, we ask people to teach for many-many hours”.

5.7 Case Study 2

Another Malaysian public university that operates in one of the two main cities selected in this study is referred to here as teaching-focused university 2 (TF2). The university was established in the early 1980s and has several campuses located in the country. TF2 has been categorised as a comprehensive university and prioritises “more on teaching and learning” (Website from TF2, 2017b). However similar to TF1, it aims to become a research-intensive university. The university offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes integrated with Islamic knowledge. All Malaysian and International students are invited to enrol in the university as long as they are eligible for the programmes selected.

Currently there are close to 40,000 students and 2000 academic staff working at the university. More than 80% of the academics are Malaysian while the remainder are from other countries. Meanwhile 80% of the students are undergraduate students and 20% are postgraduate. The university is divided into 14 faculties called “Kuliyyah”. The faculties include, Education, Engineering,
Languages and Management, and Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences. A great majority of the programmes offered in the university are taught in English with few are taught in Arabic language.

In terms of university ranking, the recent QS World University Rankings 2018 ranked TF2 as Top 800 in the world and Top 200 in Asia. Since it’s establishment, the university has produced over 75,000 graduates and postgraduates serving both public and private sectors locally and worldwide (Website from TF2, 2017a). TF2 had also outlined four statements under the ‘Client Charter’ in its website to indicate its commitment towards its customers. They are:

- To ensure effective teaching and learning.
- To promote quality research and publication.
- To offer quality consultancy services.
- To provide a conducive learning environment.

5.7.1 The faculty
The participants who took part in this study were from the Kulliyyah of Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences. The faculty offers 10 types of undergraduate programmes, including English Language and Literature, Communication, Political Science, and Psychology. Postgraduate programmes are also offered where students can choose among 10 different specialisations such as Education, Law, Islamic Revealed Knowledge and Human Sciences, and Economics and Management Sciences.

Based on the university’s website, there are more than 250 academic staff and over 4000 students under the selected faculty (Website from TF2, 2017b). Similar to TF1, the faculty is managed by a Dean who is supported by three Deputy Deans and 12 Head of Departments. A great majority of the academics hold a doctoral degree. Those with a doctoral degree hold the assistant professor, associate professor, or professor position. Those without a doctoral degree hold the position of lecturer or fellow.

Academic work in the university involves juggling between teaching, research, and administrative work. The staff members who participated in this study described TF2 as a ‘teaching university’. This is due to the average teaching hours that academics are expected to fulfil are around 15 in-class teaching hours per week.
One of the male academics who participated in this study had explained:

*I’ve studied at the university since I did my undergraduate studies. So obviously I can say that this university is a teaching university. But lately in 2017, when I joined in 2015, um, the management started talking about research, and MyRA [Malaysia Research Assessment] scores that we need to achieve. But when there are things that we need to achieve, our work becomes hectic and messy. Now I don’t know what’s the university’s direction. If it wants to become a research university, of course it needs to focus on research. But we have pillars in this university. The management needs to identify who’s going to focus on research and who’s to do teaching. If everyone focuses on just one thing, I think it’s going to be difficult (TF2MA1).*

He also suggested for the university to reduce the number of classes if it aspires to become a research university. He added: “If we’re a research university, those who are new only teaches for about 3 hours a week.” When asked whether academic work involves more teaching versus research, two academics described their daily routine comprises of around 60% teaching and 40% research. One of them explained:

*To be honest, I don’t have much time to do research. This university is a teaching-focused university. Our work comprises of 60% teaching and 40% research (TF2MA2).*

Another academic had explained in length that the reason why she wanted to become an academic in the university is because of her passion for teaching and also conducting research. She indicated that she has less time to conduct research due to the high teaching hours which can influence her mood. She also explained:

*We need to produce enough for our KPI. This semester, I don’t have enough time to focus on research. But anyway, it does feel like I spend around 60% teaching and 40% research and do admin work (TF2FA2).*

### 5.8 Case Study 3

Meanwhile the third case study involves a university that is referred in this thesis as
research-focused university 1 (RF1). The university was formed during the colonial period in 1949 and considered one of the oldest public universities in Malaysia. Like the previous universities, RF1 is located in a major city in Malaysia. The university is well-known for its strong research culture and activities, and is categorised as one of the five research universities in the country (“Five Malaysian public research varsities listed in top 1% universities worldwide,” 2017).

The university claims in its website that it is currently one of Malaysia’s premier research universities and one of the leading research universities in Asia. It was also ranked in the Top 200 world ranking and Top 30 Asian university ranking in the recent QS World University Rankings 2018, beating other public university in the country. The ranking is expected to improve in the coming years as predicted in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education). The Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education has the intention of making the university as “one of the world’s best research universities” (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015, p. 172). RF1 is also gearing up to be listed amongst the world’s top 100 universities.

Major steps taken by the university to reach its current goal are:

- continuously improve basic infrastructure and amenities for research
- recruit lecturers or researchers with a good research track record
- provide sufficient and competent support for staff
- devise an appropriate rewards system for staff to encourage a culture of excellence in research (Bonn, 2016)

The university currently has an enrolment of approximately 15,000 students, and with an employment of around 3000 staff (academic and non-academic) (Website from RF1, 2017b). Students and staff are spread across 12 faculties that include the Faculty of Education, Arts and Social Sciences, and Business and Accountancy (Website from RF1, 2017a). Unlike TF1 and TF2, the student in the university comprises of 54% undergraduate students and 46% postgraduate.

5.8.1 The faculty

The Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences was selected in this study. The faculty is known to have “an excellent international reputation for the development of arts and social sciences studies” (Website from RF1, 2017a), and it is managed by the Dean and supported by three Deputy Deans, 12 Head of Departments, and around 100
academics. According to the faculty’s website, one of its two missions is “to facilitate Faculty members to undertake the relevant and quality research in order to spearhead the Faculty's role in the development of the field of Social Sciences and Humanities in Malaysia” (Website from RF1, 2017a). Research is said to be the main priority of the university and this can also be reflected in one of the faculty’s objectives that is, “To produce graduates who are sensitive and understand the theory of knowledge in various disciplines and able to apply it in research, and then write the results in a more systematic manner”. This clearly shows the university’s high priority in research.

As the faculty offers a wide range of programmes, I had chosen the Department of Media Studies under the faculty to select the samples. This was so that the samples were within the same discipline as the rest of the selected universities. Each department is managed by the Head of Department and supported by academic staff under the specialisation. The department offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Based on the main study findings, the academics and head of teaching indicated that academic staff are require to produce a significant amount of research for their annual performance review. Academics are given less time to teach with some indicating that they are required to only teach for six or eight in-class teaching hours per week. According to the head of teaching staff, the faculty often supports academics to conduct research based on the requirements of the university. Students are also encouraged to produce research during their studies with the help of their academic or supervisor. However, not all of the selected academics are happy with the pressure to conduct research. One of the academics who participated in this study indicated that he faces high pressures to publish work. He explained:

_We are one of the few research universities in the country. Um, in terms of priorities and pressures, well obviously we have to publish, publish, publish. It’s also all about ranking. We want to climb the ranking ladder. But to do so, we have to do a lot of research. (RF1MA1)_

Meanwhile in terms of academic qualification, the head of teaching indicated that academics are required to possess a doctoral degree to be qualified as an academic in the university. Those who do not possess one are required to obtain one. Currently at
least 80% of the academic staff possess a doctoral degree. Based on the department’s organisational chart, academics are appointed in various positions. Those who do not have a Ph.D. are likely to hold the lecturer position (considered as junior academic) while other academics are awarded with either the senior lecturer, associate professor, or professor position.

5.9 Case Study 4
The final university involved in this research is also one of the public research universities in Malaysia. Referred to in this thesis as research-focused university 2 (RF2), the university is located in one of the main cities in Malaysia. The university was established in the early 1970s with an aim to play an important role in preserving and promoting the Malay culture and language (Azman & Kutty, 2016). Since its establishment, the university managed to make its way in the Top 300 world ranking and Top 100 Asian university ranking in the recent QS World University Rankings 2018. The university claims to be a “premier research university that is on the forefront of research” in the country (Website from RF2, 2017b). Also, according to their website, RF2 had managed to produce over 100,000 graduates among whom are ministers, medical specialists, media leaders, and entrepreneurs (Website from RF2, 2017b).

Currently there are around 12,000 university staff (academic and non-academic) and 18,688 students (local and international) in the university (QS Quacquarelli Symonds, 2017). A total of 65% of students who are currently enrolled with the university are undergraduates, while the remainder are postgraduate students. The students are spread across 13 faculties including the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Faculty of Education, and Faculty of Economics and Management. Unlike the three other universities selected in this study, the medium of instruction in the university is both in Bahasa Malaysia and English.

5.9.1 The faculty
The participants who took part in this study are from the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, one of the 13 faculties in the university. The selected faculty offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes including Social Work, Psychology, Political Science, and Media Communications. The faculty is led by the Dean and supported by four Deputy Deans, and around 300 academics (Website
The faculty has a clear aim of focusing on research. In its website, the faculty highlighted that it aims “to create an area of study and academic discussion through specific courses for candidates to conduct academic research.” The faculty is divided into six schools in which the School of Media and Communications was selected in this study due to its focus on communication.

The school is managed by five academic staff appointed in the management team as Chairperson and also Heads. In total, the school consists of 21 academic staff and 10 support staff. Among the 21 academics, 15 of them have a doctoral degree and are given the senior lecturer or associate professor status. Those who do not hold a doctoral degree are referred as a lecturer. The academics and head of teaching staff who participated in this study clearly indicated that the university focuses more on research compared to teaching. A large proportion of their time are spent on research. The average time spent on teaching is around six to nine hours per week.

One of the female academics had said:

_OK. As you are aware, [RF2] is a research university. So at the end of the day, I have about (.) more than 10 research students, so at the end of the day, it is related so much to research and also um, definitely I have to teach. So that is the core work. Both are the core things that I have to do.. As for undergraduate classes, my typical teaching hours is six hours a week. At the end of the day, research is a must for me because you have to do research. If not, you can be queried. As an associate professor, you need to publish at least minimum two per year (RF2FA2)._"
Although some academics in RF1 felt that they are being pressured to produce more research to help improve the university’s ranking, however, based on the main study, the academics were not being pressured in their university. Some felt that producing research is part of their job role.

Summary
This chapter provided the research context in which this study was carried out. First I presented a brief background of the Malaysian culture followed by an illustration of the past and current Malaysian education system. This chapter also provided details of the four universities involved in this study. Two teaching-focused and two research-focused universities were selected. All four of the universities are located in two major cities in Malaysia. In the next chapter, I will present the findings of research question 1.
CHAPTER 6 - FINDINGS OF RESEARCH QUESTION 1 CONCERNING THE TYPES OF EMOTION REGULATION STRATEGIES USED BY ACADEMICS

6 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings relating to Research Question One, that is, ‘How do academics perform emotional labour (via regulation of their own and their students’ emotions) in order to engage students?’ In line with the chosen method of data analysis that is, the template analysis, a template of preliminary themes was generated based on two sources: 1) the dominant theoretical perspective on intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies, originating from Gross’s (1998) process model and applied to the emotional labour context by Grandey (2003); and 2) a comprehensive classification of interpersonal emotion regulation strategies developed by Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009). While the intention was to refine this template, on the basis of the findings from the pilot study (described in Chapter 4), the findings were largely in line with the theoretical template and so the template was not altered. The initial template, which was used as a starting point for analysis of this research question, is illustrated below in Figure 6.1. Each of these strategies is also briefly explained in Table 6.1.

**Figure 6.1. Intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies from Grandey, (2003), Gross (1998) and Niven et al. (2009)**
Table 6.1. Strategy type and definition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy type</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrapersonal emotion regulation</strong></td>
<td>The process of initiating, maintaining, modulating, or changing the occurrence, intensity, or duration of a person’s own experienced or expressed feeling states (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, &amp; Reiser, 2000; Gross, 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep acting</td>
<td>Employees regulate their emotions by trying to actually experience the emotions they are supposed to display (Ashkanasy &amp; Humphrey, 2011).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface acting</td>
<td>Employees regulate their emotions by changing their outward displays of emotion that do not match what the actor is really feeling (Ashkanasy &amp; Humphrey, 2011).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal emotion regulation</strong></td>
<td>The process of initiating, maintaining, modulating, or changing the occurrence, intensity, or duration of another person’s experienced or expressed feeling states (Niven et al., 2009b).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion-improving</td>
<td>Strategies used with the intention to improve another person’s emotion (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Acceptance</td>
<td>Employees regulate another person’s emotions by communicating validation and acceptance of the person (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Positive engagement</td>
<td>Employees regulate another person’s emotions by attempting to positively engage the person with a situation or affective state (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion-worsening</td>
<td>Strategies used with the intention to worsen another person’s emotion (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Negative engagement</td>
<td>Employees regulate another person’s emotions by attempting to negatively engage the person with a situation or affective state (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Rejection</td>
<td>Employees regulate another person’s emotions by communicating snubbing or rejection of the person (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis procedure, described in more detail in Chapter 4, involved generating key words and terms to search for in the data that would represent each of the categories represented in the initial template, followed by rigorous reading and re-reading of participant transcripts to identify further examples and additional strategy types. As the data were analysed further, more strategy types were identified. Some of the strategies were categorised into existing themes and sub-themes from the literature while others formed distinctive categories. The data provided by academics in their one-on-one interviews were analysed initially and a refined template was created. This refined template was then applied to the analysis of the data provided.
by students in their focus groups. No further changes to the template were needed during the analysis of the students’ data; all examples mentioned by students fit within the themes already identified.

Figure 6.2, below, illustrates the final point of the analysis, wherein all strategy types discussed by participants are included and ordered hierarchically according to the categories and sub-categories within which they fall. As can be seen in the figure, whereas the initial template included two major themes of strategy types (i.e., differentiating between intrapersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal emotion regulation), a third major theme was identified as a result of the data analysis, pertaining to backstage emotion regulation. In the following sections of the chapter, each of these major themes is discussed in more depth, with links made to the broader literature, and elucidation of the various strategies and sub-themes under which these are categorised.

The various themes and sub-themes are defined in Table 6.2, to offer the reader a guide to what each theme concerns and the areas of research literature that the theme corresponds with. The analysis of open-ended responses and the number and percentage of participants identifying each theme is also presented. Backstage emotion regulation and intrapersonal emotion regulation are mentioned by academics only, unlike interpersonal emotion regulation which is mentioned by both academics and students.
RQ1: How do academics regulate (their own and their students’) emotions in order to engage students?

**Backstage Emotion Regulation**
- ER to prepare for lectures
  - Personal Appearance
  - Planning Lectures
- ER to recover from lectures
  - Deep Acting
  - Surface Acting
    - Reappraisal
    - Suppression
    - Positive refocusing/Distraction
    - Self-reflection/Rationalising

**Intrapersonal ER during lectures**
- ER to prepare for lectures
- ER to recover from lectures
  - Deep Acting
  - Surface Acting
    - Reappraisal
    - Suppression
    - Positive refocusing/Distraction
    - Self-reflection/Rationalising

**Interpersonal ER during lectures**
- Emotion-improving
  - Positive engagement
  - Behavioural engagement
  - Cognitive engagement
  - Affective engagement
  - Behavioural engagement
- Emotion-worsening
  - Negative engagement
  - Affective engagement
  - Behavioural engagement
  - Cognitive engagement
  - Behavioural engagement

**Figure 6.2. Final template derived from analysis of the data**
Table 6.2. Principal themes and sub-themes based on past literature and analysis of open-ended responses and the number and percentage of participants identifying each theme (n = 16 academics, n = 24 students).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Themes and sub-themes</th>
<th>Description and characteristics</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Backstage Emotion Regulation</td>
<td><strong>Theme 1: Emotion regulation to prepare for lectures</strong></td>
<td>Emotion regulation strategies academics use to prepare before a lecture.</td>
<td>‘Backstage’ behaviour literature:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-theme 1.1: Personal appearance</strong></td>
<td>Academics scrutinise their own personal appearance (e.g., wearing formal clothes) to influence students’ impression of themselves.</td>
<td>- Theatre performer (Goffman, 1956)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-theme 1.2: Planning lectures</strong></td>
<td>Academics plan their lectures beforehand to ensure they cater students’ needs and expectations to elicit the desired emotions and engagement in students.</td>
<td>- Business academics (Hatzinikolakis &amp; Crossman, 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) Understand the audience</td>
<td>Academics use empathy to understand their students’ needs and use it to improve the delivery of the lecture.</td>
<td>- ‘People work’ (Mann, 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Use interactive tools</td>
<td>Academics use interactive tools to increase students’ enthusiasm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N academics</th>
<th>% academics</th>
<th>N students</th>
<th>% students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal Emotion Regulation</td>
<td>during lectures.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2: Emotion regulation to recover from lectures</strong></td>
<td>Emotion regulation strategies used for personal emotional recovery after lectures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 3: Deep acting</strong></td>
<td>Academics reappraise or cognitively re-evaluate a potentially emotion-eliciting situation in terms that change its emotional impact (Gross, 2001, p. 216).</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 3.1: Positive refocusing or distraction</td>
<td>Positive refocusing involves academics shifting attention, e.g., to positive things. Distraction involves academics focusing attention away from their emotion and its causes onto different (e.g., pleasant or neutral) stimuli that are engaging enough to prevent the mind from wandering back to the source of the unwanted emotion (Rusting &amp; Nolen-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sub-theme 3.2: Reappraisal

Reappraisal involves changing how academics think about a situation in order to alter its emotional impact (Gross, 2001, p. 214).

Sub-theme 3.3: Self-reflection or Rationalising

Self-reflection or rationalising involves strategies where academics take a step back and reflect, or rationalise a situation.

Theme 4: Surface acting

Academics inhibit the outward signs of emotion (Gross, 2001, p. 214).

Sub-theme 4.1: Suppression

Suppression is a strategy that entails attempts to stifle the expression of emotions after response tendencies have been initiated. (Hofmann, Carpenter, & Curtiss, 2016, p. 341).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpersonal Emotion Regulation</th>
<th>Sub-theme 4.2: Faking</th>
<th>Faking is when academics pretend to have the desired emotions.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 5: Emotion-improving</strong></td>
<td>Strategies that academics use to improve their students’ emotions.</td>
<td>Interpersonal emotion regulation literature:</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 5.1: Acceptance</td>
<td>Academics communicate validation of students in order to improve students’ emotions (Niven, Totterdell, &amp; Holman, 2009, p. 505).</td>
<td>• Emotion-improving (Niven et al., 2009a)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Attention</td>
<td>Attention involves academics giving their consideration and notice to the students.</td>
<td>• Humour as emotion regulation (Samson &amp; Gross, 2012)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Distracting</td>
<td>Distracting involves academics distracting students from feeling bad.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Valuing</td>
<td>Valuing involves academics showing their appreciation towards their students.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Authenticity</td>
<td>Authenticity involves the academics behave in ways that are congruent with</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 5.2: Positive engagement</td>
<td>Positive humour</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Affective engagement</td>
<td>Acting silly to make the students laugh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entertaining the students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laughing with the student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making fun of other students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Behavioural engagement</td>
<td>Positive (good-natured) humour involves academics telling jokes that elicit positive response from the students.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Cognitive engagement</td>
<td>Academics attempt to engage with students’ emotions or situations in order to improve the students’ emotions.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affective engagement involves strategies to improve the students’ emotions by engaging directly with the students’ feelings.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Behavioural engagement involves strategies to improve the students’ emotions by changing students’ behaviour.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cognitive engagement involves strategies to improve the students’ emotions by changing students’ self-perception.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 6: Emotion-worsening</td>
<td>Strategies to worsen the students’ emotion.</td>
<td>Interpersonal emotion regulation literature: Emotion-worsening (Niven et al., 2009a).</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>58%</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 6.1: Negative engagement</td>
<td>Academics involve their students with a situation or affective state in order to worsen students’ emotion (Niven et al., 2009, p. 505).</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Affective engagement</td>
<td>Affective engagement involves strategies to worsen the students’ emotions by engaging directly with the students’ feelings (Niven et al., 2009, p. 505).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Behavioural engagement</td>
<td>Behavioural engagement involves strategies to worsen the students’ emotions by changing students’ behaviour. (Niven et al., 2009, p. 501).</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 6.2: Rejection</td>
<td>Academics communicate snubbing of students in order to worsen students’ emotions (Niven et al., 2009, p. 505).</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Put own feelings first</td>
<td>Putting one’s own feelings first involves</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Negative vocal tone</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b) Reject target’s feelings
- Confrontational
- Non-confrontational

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>academics putting their own feelings ahead of those of their students.</th>
<th>Rejecting targets’ feelings involves acting in a manner that displays a lack of care for the target.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Note: The figures for student data represent the number of students who independently mentioned a strategy type, and those who nodded or agreed (e.g., said ‘Yes’, or ‘I agree’) to a statement made by their course mates. Although quantitative count data (e.g., representing the number of participants who mentioned examples falling within a particular theme) is not typical within qualitative analysis, such data can be informative about how widespread use of a particular type of approach to emotion regulation is within a sample.
6.1 Backstage emotion regulation

In a monograph written by Goffman (1956) called *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*, he made an important distinction between ‘frontstage’ and ‘backstage’ behaviour. He uses the theatre to illustrate that performers behave and act differently in front of an audience when they are on stage compared to when they are backstage. Frontstage is an arena where the performer tries to avoid ‘losing face’ by observing prescribed rules (Goffman, 1956). Meanwhile backstage is a hidden or private region where the public performance is “relinquished, breached or contradicted” (Crewe & Warr, 2014, p. 59), and also where perfecting the performance takes place (Goffman, 1956). Goffman (1956, p. 70) further described:

*Here costumes and other parts of personal front may be adjusted and scrutinized for flaws. Here the team can run through its performance... Here the performer can relax; he can drop his front, forgo speaking his lines, and step out of character.*

Although performers can look forward to dropping their act backstage, Mann (2004) believes that “total unmasking” does not occur here as there are still rules that people need to comply that “govern the expression of emotion” (p. 214). Hatzinikolakis and Crossman (2010) also talked about the backstage region in their study of academics. They described the lecture hall as the “stage” where academics normally perform, entertain, and inspire their audience (i.e. students) (Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010, p. 430). Academics' individual offices on the other hand are considered as “backstage sites” where academics can retreat from “emotional labouring” (Hatzinikolakis & Crossman, 2010, p. 430).

The current study found that academics displayed similar characteristics of backstage behaviour mentioned in Goffman’s work. For instance, academics engaged in activities that were performed ‘backstage’ or specifically, their office rooms before and after delivering a lecture. In light of my findings, the initial template was then revised where I added a section called ‘backstage emotion regulation’ (see Figure 6.2). Under the section, two broad themes were also created (discussed below) and they are: 1) emotion regulation to prepare for lectures; and 2) emotion regulation to recover from lectures.
Theme 1: Emotion regulation to prepare for lectures

Like theatre performers, findings show that academics engage in activities to prepare before they ‘perform’ in front of their student audience ‘frontstage’ (i.e., in the lecture hall). There were different types of activities that were mentioned by the academic participants and findings suggest that they were performed mainly for the purpose of improving their own, and their students’ feelings (intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. For instance, out of the 16 academics, two academics indicated that before they deliver their lectures, they often scrutinise their personal appearance to ensure that they are treated a certain way by their students. Also, close to half of the academics suggested that they plan their lectures carefully to ensure that only appropriate emotions are expressed within the lecture hall (see Table 6.3). Two of the seven academics had mentioned both approaches at least twice. For instance, one of the male academics from a teaching-focused university (TF2MA2) indicated that he often scrutinise his personal appearance and carefully plan his lectures before delivering a lecture. The findings will be explained further in the subsections below.

Table 6.3. Emotion regulation to prepare for lectures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal appearance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>RF2FA1, TF2MA2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning lectures</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>RF1FA1, RF1FA2, RF1MA2, RF2FA1, RF2MA1, TF1MA1, TF2MA2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-theme 1.1: Personal appearance

The first sub-theme created based on the findings is personal appearance. Research shows that personal appearance influences how people perceive others. For instance, in a study conducted by Dichter (1985), he indicated that an individual’s “image” provides a powerful impression on others (p. 75). People make inferences about others based on factors such as the way people dress, appear, speak, and the body language they choose (Mlodinow, 2012). Goffman (1956) also highlighted the importance of ‘appearance’ and ‘manner’ during a theatre performance. He suggested that the way performers appear to their audience and how the performance is delivered shapes the audience’s perception. Although he relates appearance and manner to the frontstage region, in this study, it was found that academics manage
their appearance and prepare their lectures while they are ‘backstage’.

Two academic participants indicated that before they deliver a lecture, they often think about their personal appearance. They believe that the way they appear to their students will not only help change their mood and boost their energy to deliver their lectures but at the same time, influence the way students view and treat them. For instance, one of the male academics claims that by wearing formal clothes, not only will he gain the respect he wants but at the same time, it makes it easier for him to get students engaged during lectures. He said:

... I resort to something else to get them engaged in my lectures. What I do is that I often dress formally. Your appearance is important. The way you dress, the way you speak. When you’re wearing formal clothes, students tend to act more formal with you. They respect you more. (TF2MA2)

He added, “I know it sounds a bit odd. But you can definitely see the differences-um, when you’re wearing casual clothes, students will become less formal with you and they don’t take you that seriously [pauses] when you’re mad at them or anything, they think you’re just joking around.” He went on indicating that when students show respect as a result of his appearance, it will influence his own mood and subsequently make him express only positive emotions to his students.

Meanwhile another academic (RF2FA1) spoke of a different type of personal appearance. While TF2MA2 was mainly concerned with what he wears to his lectures, RF2FA1 on the other hand believes that making her students view her as “sisterly” will not only help improve her own emotions but also her students’ emotions. According to the academic, when students view her like a “sister”, it’s easier for her to control her students’ feelings during lectures. In her own words:

It’s easier to control students once you form a good relationship with them. In this case, I try to appear sisterly to all of my students. I don’t want them to think that they can’t approach me if they need any help. I don’t want them to think that I’m a scary monster. Instead, I want them to see me as someone approachable. Students tend to open up a little bit more when you act sisterly. They also become more active and interactive so I think this strategy does somehow work.
She went on revealing that appearing like a “sister” is often hard work as it involves her suppressing any negative emotions in order for her to appear pleasant and likeable to her students. But she also added that the hard work often pays off when students show that they are happy during lectures.

**Sub-theme 1.2: Planning lectures**

Another sub-theme created during the analysis is planning lectures. Of the 16 academic participants, seven (44%) felt that the outcome of a lecture such as how students interact and engage during lectures depends on how an academic plans his or her own lecture. Two things here should be considered: first, the academic needs to understand their audience, that is the different types of students that they are about to deal with; and second, the academic needs to understand the different types of tools that they should use during their lecture. By enhancing this understanding during the planning stage, academics can ensure that they elicit the desired emotions and engagement in their students and at the same time, protect their own feelings during lectures.

In terms of understanding the audience, one academic believes that different students interpret messages differently thus there is a need to deliver a lecture according to the type of student they are dealing with. She said:

*I just need to adjust my message because different audience have different um-you have to use different approaches and different appeals for different audiences. What works for one class it’s not going to work for the second class, right? (RF2FA1)*

Academics also reported using different types of tools and materials to enhance their lectures. These learning tools can help influence students’ emotions. For instance, one of the female academics (RF1FA1) indicated that she often plays emotional videos that can bring her students “out”. According to her, sad videos can make her students “go from happy to sad within seconds.” A male academic from another research-focused university (RF2MA1) also pointed out the same. He felt that that planning before a lecture is important, as the new generation of students tend to expect a “fun” and “less stressful” lecture. He does this by using “different and
relevant technologies” to create visibility, and at the same time, make him look “cool”.

Theme 2: Emotion regulation to recover from lectures
Besides preparing for emotion regulation, findings also show that academics engage in activities to recover from a lecture and also from work (referred here as ‘recovery from emotion regulation’). In Goffman’s work, he indicated that whenever performers are backstage or away from their audience, they do various things to recover from their performance such as relaxing, using their phone, and talking to their friends. Other studies have also suggested that people often engage in activities to recover from work, including “psychological detachment from work, relaxation, and the experience of mastery” (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008, p. 675). These activities are known as recovery experiences (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). According to Sonnentag, Binnewies, and Mojza (2008), recovery experiences are closely related to intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies.

In the present study, one male academic (TF1MA2) narrated his frustrating experience with one of his first year undergraduate student. According to him, during the time, he burst out to the student as the student was testing him. The student was “talking really loud at the back of the class while everyone else was silent and paying attention.” When he told the student nicely to lower his voice, the student had ignored the request so the academic opted to raise his voice a few decibels but his action was still ignored by his student. What the academic did next was he shouted at the student and walked out of the class which led to his mood and emotions “ruined” for the entire day. Although the student did apologise the following week, he explained that the impact of reacting negatively influences his health. What he does now to avoid this from reoccurring is, “I normally read storybooks and go for a brisk walk just to manage my emotions. Oh and of course praying helps a lot.”

Three other academics had also suggested that praying helps with recovery. For instance, RF2MA2 highlighted that he does a lot of Islamic coping mechanisms such as praying and meditation to manage his emotions after his lectures. This is to prevent him from developing any negative emotions as he indicated that not only can it affect his students but also his family, especially his children. Another academic (TF1FA1) who had also mentioned about praying as part of her coping mechanism indicated that besides praying, she often goes out for coffee with her colleagues to
make her feel “calmer and relaxed”. She also said that both praying and drinking coffee helps her calm down “on rough and tough days”. Meanwhile another academic (RF1MA1) indicated that praying helps keep him sane. Other than that, RF2FA2 indicated that she prefers to recover from work at home. She said:

_I like to relax at home. I normally like to go back to my house. I have one cat that I love so much and I enjoy that. What I like to do is [pauses] I like to decorate my house. More greens. More tropical things. I think that’s very relaxing... I like to relax at home. Play with my cat, watch TV._

Also, RF1FA2 indicated that she often diverts her attention to other things before a lecture. She would normally listen to ‘happy’ music or talk to her friends before her lectures. At times, she would also watch motivational videos and read books by Robin Sharma. She believes that all of these activities helps prevent her from “being grumpy” during lectures. Similarly, TF1MA1 indicated that he normally “cut out negative emotion” before entering a lecture by listening to some of his favourite music. He added that he also does the same after a lecture to make him feel good. Another academic participant described that he normally diverts his attention away to other things or his colleagues to avoid negative emotions arise before a lecture.

_When things try to influence my mood or emotions before a lecture, what I do is [pauses] I normally either go through my lecture slides, or read the textbook. Or sometimes I try to talk to my colleagues who are just next to my office. Anything to avoid me feeling any negative emotions before I start a lecture. (RF1MA1)_

### 6.2 Intrapersonal emotion regulation

Strategies that academics use to regulate their own emotions (intrapersonal emotion regulation) is presented in Figure 6.3. Intrapersonal emotion regulation is divided into two types that is, deep acting and surface acting.
Theme 3: Deep acting
Based on the findings, academics engaged in deep acting (N=12) more so than surface acting (N=5). Academics tended to consciously expend effort into trying to actually experience the emotions they intended to display. They did so by changing the way they feel about incidences that they encounter with their students during lectures through strategies such as reappraisal, positive refocusing or distraction, and self-reflection or rationalising (see Table 6.4).

Table 6.4. Sub-themes identified under deep acting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reappraisal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>TF1MA1, TF2MA2, TF2FA2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive-refocusing or distraction</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>RF1FA2, RF1MA1, RF1MA2, TF2MA2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reflection or rationalising</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>TF1MA1, TF1FA1, TF1FA2, TF2MA1, RF1FA2, RF1MA1, RF2FA1, RF2FA2, RF2MA2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-theme 3.1: Reappraisal
The first deep acting strategy is reappraisal. Out of the 16 academics, three suggested that they use the reappraisal strategy whenever they face negative situations, or
whenever they want to feel more positive emotion. A male academic participant had said:

*Normally when I lecture, [pauses] when I am faced with any negative situations that can be stressful, I try to perceive the situation in a way that can make myself remain calm. It's not just beneficial for me. But it's also good for the students.* (TF1MA1)

Meanwhile two other academics from another teaching-focused university (TF2MA2 and TF2FA2) indicated that they reappraise the situation that they experience. For example, TF2FA2 explained:

*It affects me a lot when students don’t respond to my questions. It affects my mood, my emotions for the rest of the day. When students don’t show that they enjoy the class although I tried my best to get them engaged, I feel very sad. Sometimes I question myself what I’ve been doing wrong. But I tend to make myself feel better by thinking that it might not be me. It could be just them as they just graduated from high school so the way they learn and engage at school might be different. These first year undergraduate students are still adjusting so they need time. I need to give them time.*

**Sub-theme 3.2: Positive refocusing or distraction**

This study also found that academics use positive refocus or distraction to improve their felt emotions. Positive refocus or distraction was mainly used when academics were confronted with potentially stressful situations with students. Based on the findings, four academics indicated that they *divert their attention away* to improve their emotions. For instance, one academic participant indicated that he uses the Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) techniques to control his emotions when experiencing negative situations with his students. He does so by thinking about things that makes him feel positive. He explained:

*I always have to find a way to manage my frustration when students don’t respond to questions. I try to use CBT on myself. It works quite well... It can help out-think any negative thinking. I try to find a way to think positive*
thoughts... sometimes when my students really test me by keeping quiet, I will calm myself by thinking what I want to have for lunch after the class [laughs] and ignore and carry on with my lecture. [laughs] Thinking about food definitely works most of the time (RF1MA2).

Also, RF1MA1 replied:

The new generation of students are pretty sensitive. If you scold them, they will report you to the upper management. So sometimes when I want to kind of like [pauses] marah [get mad] at a student, I have to quickly force myself to feel calm. I try to think of something nice.

Sub-theme 3.3: Self-reflection or rationalising

This study found that more than half of the academic participants (56%) reported greater use of self-reflection or rationalising to manage their own emotions. In total, 9 academics either reflected on their past experiences, or attempt to rationalise a situation that they were facing. Two academics indicated that they often reflect on their past experience as a student. They suggested that they try to avoid from repeating the same mistakes as their former academics. One of them had said:

To be honest, I experienced my lecturer suddenly leaving the class just like that. I also experienced my lecturer out of nowhere, she suddenly exploded in class. When you experience these in class, and now you are part of the lecturing family, these sort of experiences help control your emotions. You will have this self-reflection, “I don’t want to be like that lecturer!” You know what I mean? (TF1MA1)

He also added:

...if I feel like I’m going in that direction [explode in class], I normally would take a break for 5 minutes. I head to the toilet or I go out somewhere. I’ll then think to myself, “Why am I doing this?” Because! My past experience teaches me. Right? My lecturer used to do this but I don’t have to follow.
Meanwhile another academic who also refused to react the same way as his former academic explained:

“I often treat my students as adults. I don’t want to repeat the wrong things that my lecturer used to do. Even if I feel like getting mad, I often try to persuade myself to act rationally [pauses] and not react negatively like my previous lecturers. A few of them were pretty brutal. [laughs].” (TF2MA1).

Other than self-reflection, academics also spoke about rationalising a situation. For instance, RF1FA2 said:

When I see students who are really testing my emotions, I’ll normally have internal dialogues with myself. I’ll rationalise things. Rationalise that they are just first year students and that they just completed high school. The environment is different and they need time to adjust.

She continued, “Different audience requires different approaches. So what joke A may work for one audience and it may not work for a different audience. It’s just a matter of adjusting um my own communication.” Meanwhile another academic tries to rationalise her students’ behaviour by telling herself that God might be testing her so that she is prepared to face something else. She said:

So yeah I have a lot of internal dialogues [pauses] to rationalise, to justify why God put me here, why is God putting me through all of this [pauses] um, unnecessary stress... Maybe God is preparing me for something else you know? (RF1FA2)

**Theme 4: Surface acting**

As was mentioned earlier, only five academics indicated that they engage in surface acting. Out of the seven, three academics regulate their emotions through suppression while the other two fake their emotions (see table 6.5 below).
Table 6.5. Sub-themes identified under surface acting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suppression</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>RF1MA2, TF1MA2, TF2MA1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faking</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>RF1MA1, RF2FA2</td>
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**Sub-theme 4.1: Suppression**

Academics also detailed the suppression of certain emotions during lectures. For instance a male academic (RF1MA2) indicated that he tries to cover up his frustration when his students make him feel frustrated. He said, “I try to cover up my frustration by changing topics or something.” Meanwhile another academic from a teaching-focused university indicated:

> They are the best when they are relaxed so I try to not show that I'm mad or frustrated at them or anything. Once you show that you’re frustrated, the students will become all moody. They don’t like that and I don’t want that to happen either. (TF1MA2)

During one of the participant observations, TF2MA1 was seen trying to manage his own emotions during lectures. I observed:

> He stopped teaching at one point when students were not paying attention. He looked annoyed. Then he asked the students to discuss quietly probably to avoid from feeling angry. While students were discussing in groups, he sat down for a while and started to eat a candy that he had in his pocket. After giving students about 15 minutes, he stood up and started to ask students questions energetically. He somehow didn’t look annoyed anymore. (Observation Notes for TF2MA1)

**Sub-theme 4.2: Faking**

Meanwhile academics who each described a situation where they fake their own emotions are RF1MA1 and RF2FA2. When asked, “Do you ever need to manage your feelings you show during interactions with your students?” RF1MA1 said:
... I guess when students don’t answer my questions or they are not showing the kind of emotions that I want them to show in class, I kind of like [pauses] have to pretend or fake my emotions so that I don’t show them that I am feeling disappointed. Most of the time I feel like I am not being me. But what can you do? You are expected to not be too hard on the students. So I normally don’t show my felt emotions throughout the two hours of class.

RF2MA2 on the other hand explained:

Sometimes you feel angry and frustrated. Sometimes I’ll tell them off but most of the time, I don’t. I don’t like making my students feel bad [pauses] and I don’t want them to feel my class is a burden to them. I want them to enjoy my class. Enjoy their semester. So of course, there will be some faking involved. I have to keep negative feelings to myself because students will never understand what we’re truly going through. Sometimes students think that you’re not being supportive enough. [pauses] Sometimes you want to show your frustrations towards your students but you can’t really show it to them.

She described further a situation she encountered two days before the interview was conducted:

Like the day before yesterday, I had a class with my undergraduate students. I was feeling sick and I didn’t really have the energy to teach properly. But I couldn’t show to them that I wasn't well and I couldn't deliver my class properly. Again, I tried to pretend that I was feeling OK. Then the students said ‘You don’t look sick’. But I was sick. I don’t want to show that I am sick too much. You know? You have to fake sometimes. We are in the service industry. This is a service. So at the end of the day, you have to a little bit- [pauses] keep our heart, our mind, you know, to be a little bit more positive. In this service, you don’t have only two or three students. You have a lot of students. So I have to put aside my [pauses] how do you say? You have to try your best to accommodate the needs of your students. You have to serve them. I have to keep my feelings sometimes. You cannot shout at them because they are not our kids. But you have to be stern the way we speak.
Sometimes you feel really boiled inside when students keep pestering you.
(RF2FA2)

### 6.3 Interpersonal emotion regulation

Other than regulating their own emotions, academics also regulate their students’ emotions for the purpose of getting them engaged during lectures. Strategies academics use to regulate their students’ emotions fall under two purposes: 1) to improve their students’ emotions (emotion-improving); and 2) to worsen their students’ emotions (emotion-worsening) (see Figure 6.4). Results from students’ focus group session also indicate some agreement by the students regarding the strategies used by the academics.

![Interpersonal emotion regulation strategies](image)

**Figure 6.4. Interpersonal emotion regulation strategies**
Theme 5: Emotion-improving

The analysis shows that academics use different types of strategies similar to those highlighted in Niven, Totterdell, and Holman's (2009a) classification to improve their students’ emotions. This is referred in their work as emotion-improving (Niven et al., 2009a). Emotion-improving is divided into two sub-themes: 1) acceptance; and 2) positive engagement (as shown in Figure 6.4 and Table 6.6). Out of the 16 academic participants, all except one had used strategies to improve their students’ emotions. All participants who talked about emotion-improving described the use of both types of strategies (see Table 6.6 below).

Table 6.6. Sub-themes identified under emotion-improving

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<th>Sub-themes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Positive engagement</td>
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<td>TF1FA1, TF1FA2, TF1MA1, TF1MA2, TF2FA1, TF2FA2, TF2MA1, TF2MA2, RF1FA1, RF1FA2, RF1MA1, RF1MA2, RF2FA1, RF2MA1, RF2MA2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-theme 5.1: Acceptance

As defined earlier, acceptance involves “behaviours that communicate validation of the target” (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009a, p. 505). In this case, any of the academics’ behaviours that attempts to acknowledge, accept, and understand the students’ thoughts and feelings were categorised within this theme. Themes that stem from this sub-theme are attention, authenticity, and positive humour.

a) Attention

As previously mentioned, this strategy involves academics giving their attention to the students. Two specific strategies that academics use: (i) distracting; and (ii) valuing.

- Distracting

Based on the analysis, three academics use distraction to improve their students’ emotions. A form of distraction that was used by one of the academics is ‘rewards’.
Giving rewards is a strategy that academics use to help distract students from feeling a certain type of emotion. According to TF1FA2, when she senses students feeling afraid, she would try to reduce the negative feeling by giving them rewards. She explained:

*I think most of the students are quiet because they are afraid that they will be asking silly questions or answering the questions wrongly...* I sampai buat plan kalau student jawab soalan, I bagi benda [To the extent that I made plans that whenever students answer my questions, I’ll give them something]. Chocolate or something. Selalunya [Often] students will no longer become scared when you offer them something.

Another form of distraction identified in this study is ‘story-telling’. Two academics believe that whenever they tell their students stories, it will help direct their students’ attention to something more pleasant. For instance, one of the female academics (TF1FA1) indicated that other than telling jokes, she would tell her students stories to distract them from feeling bored. She believes that not only will it improve the students’ emotions but also their engagement during the lecture. Meanwhile the other academic (TF2MA2) indicated:

*I normally try to share certain stories with them. Use the story-telling method. With these kids, you need to constantly tell new things like what’s currently going on in this world. They don’t listen to news. Studies normally become happy when you tell them a really good story.*

Although none of the academics from the research-focused university mentioned about strategies that they use to ‘distract’ their students, one student claims that his academic enjoys telling stories and that it was an effective way to make the student feel excited and engaged. In her own words:

*... I like that he [RF2MA2] shares a lot of stories. About his work experience, his marriage, his family. I think it’s sweet that he does that. Storytelling is definitely one way to get me engaged. I think most of us feel pretty excited too*
cause sometimes when you just learn boring theory stuff, the class can end up becoming pretty dull.”

- Valuing
Based on the findings, academics use different types of strategies to make their students feel valued, significant, and tailored for. Two strategies that academics do to make the students feel that way are: 1) asking questions; and 2) using people’s names. In terms of asking questions, some of the academics believe that students feel appreciated when they ask the students question. TF2MA2 indicated that his appreciate when he checks on them. He said, “I can see this through their facial expressions. Students appreciate it when I constantly check on them. When I ask questions like ‘Do you follow?’ ‘Shall I continue?’ or ‘Do you understand?’ Whatever feedback they give for instance if they shake their heads, I will then go slowly.” While another academic (TF1FA1) indicated that she deliberately ask students questions whenever they look “bored, tired, or sleepy”. The purpose is to get the students engage more in her lecture.

Other than that, four out of the 16 academics highlighted remembering students’ names can help improving students’ emotion. For instance, one male academic indicated that whenever he calls some of his students’ names, they feel that they are being valued by the academic. He said:

I actually have a hard time remembering students’ names. But the names matter. If the lecturer remembers a student’s name, it’ll make them feel over the moon. I do try to remember all of my students’ names. (TF1MA1)

Another male academic from a research-focused university (RF2MA1) claimed:

It’s becoming more challenging now but I know all of my students’ names. So be it a class of 20 or a class of 60. Any more, will be a bit mencabar [challenging]. Getting to know their name makes a whole difference to them. It makes them go ‘Wow, they exist.

Two other academics reported the same. Both of them (TF1FA2 and TF2FA2) felt that making the effort to remember students’ names is important to make them feel
special and cared about. This was confirmed by some of the students. A female student from a teaching-focused university (TF1S5F) indicated that she likes it when her academic remembers her name. She described the feeling as “amazing” and whenever her name is being called, it shows that the academic notices her. While a male student from a research-focused university (RF2S1M) also said, “When lecturers encourage you to speak in class, when they smile at you rather than frown all the time, and when they call your name, you feel like they truly care about you.”

b) Authenticity

Another strategy under acceptance is ‘authenticity’. As previously mentioned, authenticity involves academics being honest to build trust with the students. Findings show that some of the academics believe that being authentic or honest helps build trust with their students thus improving their emotions. For instance, RF2MA2 warned that academics should “never bluff” when they do not know certain things. He elaborated:

*Also, you should never bluff, never lie when you give lectures. Be honest when you don’t know certain things. Tell them that you will check it for them. It boils down to self-preparedness. Students really appreciate it when you are honest with them. When you show them that you can be trusted and you trust them, it helps them to be more um, more engaged with you. They will be emotionally happy too.*

While RF1FA2 stated, “Usually I’m quite open and I- I feel the students are more appreciative when we’re honest with them. Because we’re humans too. We are allowed to feel upset.”

c) Positive humour

The third and final acceptance strategy that emerged from the analysis is positive humour. In total, nine out of the 16 academic participants claimed that they often use humour to improve students’ emotions. Positive humour is split into three specific strategies that is: 1) acting silly to make the student laugh; 2) entertaining the students; and 3) making fun of other students.
• **Acting silly to make the students laugh**

One of the specific strategies that emerged is ‘acting silly to make the students laugh’. Two academics, TF1MA2 and RF1FA1, each showed their sense of humour by deliberately acting silly to get their students engaged. TF1MA2 indicated that dealing with young students (in this case, first year undergraduate students) requires him to find effective ways to grab his students’ attention. He explained:

> I normally throw a few jokes and ridicule myself. I make fun of myself although sometimes I don’t really want to. But you’ve got to do it. That’s the only way their attention will stick with you. These young people, their attention span could not go more than 15 minutes. (TF1MA2)

RF1FA1 on the hand said that acting silly is useful when dealing with young students. She explained, “When you work with young people, sometimes you have to be silly with them… You cannot be prim and proper all the time. You have to always be jovial with them.”

• **Entertaining the students**

The second strategy under positive humour is ‘entertaining the students’. Not only do academics purposely act silly to improve their students’ emotions, they also tell jokes with the intention to entertain them. One of the academics (RF1FA2) who was observed in this study stated:

> I think students were mainly responsive because I told them a lot of jokes. Students love jokes. They like jokes that are related to them. Young stuff and not so serious stuff.

Meanwhile RF2MA2 believes that it is important to think about the timing when to tell a joke. He explained:

> ... it’s a prerequisite for academics to be jovial. I make a lot of jokes in class but, I have to know when to make the right jokes. You can’t make jokes all the time. When you are teaching topics that require students to feel relaxed, you can tell jokes. And they can joke around with me too. But when it comes to
serious topics or when we want to discuss about assignments and exams, then that’s when students need to pay attention and become serious.

Other than that, three academic participants indicated that they tend to laugh with their students.

...I try to make a lot of jokes because [pauses] I truly believe that to have them interested, I need to be interested. I need to enjoy the class. So I enjoy the class by interacting, making them laugh. When they laugh, I laugh. Barulah kelas tu rasa macam [Only then the class will feel like] you know? Alive sikit [a bit]. (RF2FA1)

RF2FA1 on the other hand felt that making fun of her students is an effective way to improve her students’ emotions. Depending on her student audience, she indicated that she would normally pick on male students in attempt to make the female students laugh. She claimed that male students are more receptive compared to female students. In her own words:

To me humour definitely helps. But at the same time, when you want to use humour, you have to be alert as well. You have to see whether this student- can he take humour or not? And then, what if the student gives back something to you, can you accept it or not? So- but so far in my classes, I think humour has been a way to get students attention especially those you know are just ma- they are there because they have to and not because they want to learn. So you need to attract them- to show them that it could be fun in class. And usually um, I usually for example joke- I pick on boys. Because it is easier. Because then they are more receptive. For girls, they are more sensitive and shy. But when I pick on the boys, then the girls would also enjoy the class.

The analysis of the student data revealed that more than half of the students (14 out of 24) had specifically mentioned that their academics often use humour in their teaching. They even indicated that they value more academics who are funny. Some quotations that backed this included, “… I’m always feeling happy and cheerful whenever I come out from [TF2MA1]’s lecture. He’s always entertaining us with
funny jokes or silly stories” (TF2S4F). Another student shared, “[RF2MA2]’s jokes um, um, definitely are the best. He’s really funny. He has a way to tackle students with his jokes. He picks around us guys. We have no issues at all with that. And the girls will normally laugh when he picks on us” (RF2S1M).

Three students on the hand spoke about how humour can keep them engaged. One of them described his academic as “really funny” and further explained, “She cracks a lot of jokes with us. Not those sarcastic jokes but really funny ones that often relates to what she is teaching. I think humour is definitely the best way to get us engaged” (TF1S4M). Two others said:

\[\text{As for me, I think his humour works well. A good joke will definitely keep the stress away. You know what I mean? So yeah, his jokes keep me engaged in his class. (TF2S2M)}\]

\[\text{Like [TF2S2M], I believe his jokes keeps me engaged. I love it when lecturers try to make learning fun [pauses]. By telling a few jokes. I don’t like it when lecturers are too serious and formal. (TF2S1F)}\]

Meanwhile another student, RF2S3F, stated that, “I love people with a great sense of humour. Imagine lectures um, kicks off at 8 in the morning and you live about 30 minutes away from uni. Imagine what time you have to get up and leave your house? It’s tiring and requires a lot of effort you know. A good humour can ease the tense.” Overall, academics and students agree that there is a powerful connection between humour and emotion. Humour also reduces stress and tension in lectures and has a great effect on student engagement.

**Sub-theme 2: Positive engagement**

Another sub-theme that emerged in this study is positive engagement. According to Niven et al. (2009), positive engagement refers to “the agent attempting to involve the target with his or her situation or affect in order to improve the target’s affect” (p. 505). Themes that that stem from this sub-theme are affective engagement, behavioural engagement, and cognitive engagement.
a) **Affective engagement**

As previously shown in Figure 6.4, affective engagement comprises of strategies that engage directly with the students’ feelings. The strategies fall under two categories that is, problem-focused engagement and target-focused engagement.

- **Problem-focused engagement**

One of the ways academics improve their students’ emotions is by focusing the students’ attention on a situation (i.e., a problem or an issue). A total of four out of the 16 academics had reported this. One of them is RF1MA1. He explained:

> Most of the time I try to make sure that my students don’t feel intimidated by me. I make sure they feel relaxed in class. I try to be supportive as much as I can with them. They can say or ask whatever they want with me. I try not to judge them. I think it’s important to kind of make time for them. Cause I know they want someone to listen to their problems. They appreciate you more when you are nice to them. (RF1MA1)

Meanwhile his colleague also mentioned about this type of engagement during his interview. He had said:

> I like them to feel less anxious in class so I really try to make sure that I make time for them to resolve this issue. Again [pauses] like I said earlier on, I think our students are typically shy. So [pauses] I will normally try to emphasise to them on the freedom of giving opinions regardless of whether their answers are correct or not... Most of my students lack in confidence and they are afraid of not being correct. Again, I try to emphasise to them that it is OK to be incorrect. It’s part of the learning process. (RF1MA2)

Two others also spoke about the importance of making time for their students. One of them said (RF2MA2), “One way to make the students happy is to really make time for them. They want you to listen to their problems regardless whether you’re not in a good mood or if you’re tired.” While the other (TF2FA1) mentioned, “Students appreciate it when you take some time off your schedule just to chat with them. We’re not the only people who have issues. They too have a lot on their plate...
[pauses] so all they want from you is just to have decent conversation with them and- so they can let out all of the problems or issues they have.”

Other than that, student data shows that two students from a teaching-focused university also talked about this. They spoke about how their academic often allow them to speak freely about their thoughts and feelings during their lecture. One of them (TF2S5M) commented, “He’s very supportive and does allow us to vent our feelings about other courses.” While his course mate said:

... the way he openly allow us to talk about our feelings and also allow us to give feedback and criticism in his class [pauses] I don’t know how to describe it um, you just feel great... Sometimes all we want is to have a supportive conversation with our lecturer and he often gives us just that (TF2S1F)

**Target-focused engagement**

Other than focusing the students’ attention on a situation, academics also focused their students’ attention to him- or herself. For instance, RF1FA2 indicated she often reminds her students that they are doing well. She explained in length:

I don’t like leaving the class if people are looking muram [dull], and suram [gloomy], and depressed. So I feel that a class is successful when most of them are um, are happy or smiling. The ambience, the mood right? The energy. I don’t like leaving a room with a very negative energy left behind because I feel like things is hanging over my head. It is a very unsettling feeling. Um so like I said when it comes to conflict management, even though when I’m unhappy with someone, I don’t like to um [pauses] I don’t like to leave things just hanging. There has to be some sort of closure right? And that- and that also happens in my classroom. I don’t like leaving students looking lost, unhappy or stress. I will try to make them [pauses] feel um secure or assured? I normally praise them give some word of encourage. Try to convince them that they things are going to be OK. Like ‘Hey guys, I know this is hard. I know I’m asking for a lot, but um please put in effort and show the best that you can do. I know you can do it. It doesn’t have to be perfect. Because nothing is perfect. (RF1FA2)
Meanwhile another academic from a teaching-focused university (TF1FA2) felt that students are often quiet because they are afraid that they will look “stupid” or they would ask “silly questions or answer questions wrongly”. To make the students feel less afraid, she often reminds them to “just ask any questions.” She also encourages them to answer the questions she asks. She added, “There are no right or wrong answers or even questions. I try to convince them that they can do it and that I believe in them.”

Interestingly, several students also shared the same view about their academics being generous with praises. For instance, one student explained how his academic often praises him and his course mates for their hard work regardless whether the task is big or small. He further described a situation where his academic had praised him for his work although there was a mistake. He went on explaining:

... last week we had to submit an assignment where we had to produce a press release. He took the time in class to go through each one and comment the positive side of our press release and kind of sugar coat the negative side of it. For instance, I forgot to put something in the press release and instead of him directly pointing it out, he instead said something like, ‘This is a really nice piece. Good flow of writing’ and some other things. Then he added, ‘But you forgot to put’ the thing that I was supposed to put. Then he continued, ‘It did be a perfect piece if you added that in. Well done by the way’. (TF2S2M)

His colleague on the other hand who shared the same view had said, “Every now and then he praises us for our hard work and it makes me feel that- that he appreciates us” (TF2S3F).

b) Behavioural engagement

Other than affective engagement, behavioural engagement comprises of strategies academics use to improve the students’ emotions by changing students’ behaviour. One of the strategies emerged under this sub-theme is ‘giving the students exciting tasks’. A total of four academics (25%) had described a situation where they gave students exciting tasks. Two of them had said:
I also normally give students fun and exciting activities during my lectures. Just to get them excited. I'm sure you know that it's not easy to get them engaged in a long lecture. I'll sometimes ask them to build anything using some Lego bricks or popsicle sticks. They normally like it when I do that. Sometimes I'll also bring in chocolates as rewards. (RF1FA1)

And

Um, I think most Malaysians or Asians in general are typically shy. So you have to do something to make them interact or engage with you. Besides asking questions, well, I do a lot of fun in-class activities. Sometimes we watch funny YouTube videos, sometimes we do some role-play, [pause] I ask them to discuss about current issues that they are familiar with. Just to get them all enthusiastic about learning. They honestly tend to speak more when they are doing these tasks [pauses] and especially in groups. (RF1MA2)

Two student participants on the other hand also spoke about the fun tasks given to them during lectures. TF2S1F stated, “… he’s always trying to come up with fun activities or new things to get us excited and not sleepy.” TF2S6M on the other hand was more specific, he explained:

Besides giving us the freedom to give our own opinion during his lecture, he also gives us these fun tasks to do every week. Sometimes we do role-plays, sometimes we have debates, other times we watch videos related to the topic that we learn that week and after that he’ll ask to share our thoughts related to the video. So these things [pauses] um, I mean by asking us to be involved during the lecture rather than him just lecturing in front and showing slides one after another, influences how we feel. It influences our emotions. In a positive way.

c) Cognitive engagement

Another emergent sub-theme based on the analysis is cognitive engagement. Cognitive engagement is concerned with strategies that engage with the students’ cognitions in order to change his or her emotions. Here only one academic
(TF1MA1) reported this. According to him, he uses “reverse psychology” to influence his students do what he wants them to do. The particular strategy that he uses involves asking students to pretend that they have graduated and are already part of the communication industry. He further explained:

I use reverse psychology. To engage with my students, I use reverse psychology technique. Maksudnya [Which means] I acknowledge my students. I don’t call them students. I call them [pauses] “OK look, I’m standing in front of young instructional designers” or “You are the young public relations practitioner.” “OK, what about you? The young um, communi- communication practitioner” and et cetera et cetera. So they feel like “Wait, I’m not a student?” So the way they think, the way they react, is different. They will then think [pauses] “Oh! I’m not a student.” (TF1MA1)

He added that this way his students would then start thinking like “someone from the industry”. He further elaborated, “The way they contribute their ideas, the way they argue, are no longer like a student. It works. I started during my first semester up until now, it really works. I won’t can’t my students, a student. “You, PR practitioner. What do you think of-?” Then they will reflect like “My future is as a PR practitioner so I should think like a PR practitioner.” “And I- I’m going to be an instructional designer so I should think like one.” I think that works.”

Theme 6: Emotion-worsening
All but one of the academics (RF1MA2) indicated that they deliberately try to worsen how their students feel (see Table 6.7). This is largely done in situations where they believe that emotion-worsening is much more effective to get them engaged compared to improving their emotions.

Table 6.7. Sub-themes identified under emotion-worsening

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<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
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</tbody>
</table>
Sub-theme 6.1: Negative engagement

Not only do academics engage students’ positively, they also engage with them negative. As indicated in Table 6.2, negative engagement is divided into two sub-themes that is, affective engagement and behavioural engagement.

a) Affective engagement

Findings show that six out of 16 academics do engage directly with their students’ feelings. For instance, two academics indicated that they would often stress to the students the outcomes of their negative behaviour or action. One of them said:

*Um, a lot of people say I do tough love. Which means although I can chit-chat, joke and be happy-happy with you, but if you’re doing something wrong, I’ll say like ‘Hey, that’s not cool.’ I’ll definitely tell them the consequences too. Because sometimes students forget when you’re too friendly, you are happy-happy with them and you treat them lunch, they tend to get a bit too casual. Then they would say ‘Dr., can we send the assignment late?’ Oh no, no, no! Work is work.* (RF1FA2)

She also warned to the students that if they continue with their negative habits, their future boss will definitely fire the student.

*Habits from [pauses] not the university but habits from home, habits from school, will carry on until your adult life. When you start working I would say ‘When you start working, and you keep up with this kind of attitude, your boss will fire you I guarantee you. Especially in the private sector. If you do like this, you’re finished. Your KPI [key performance index] is zero.’ Kalau I lepas 6 bulan, I tak nak sambung contract you [If me, after six months, I wouldn’t want to extend your contract]. It’s not me. It’s life skills. So after awhile, they will then realise.* (RF1FA2)
The other academic (RF1FA1) also highlighted the consequences of not participating in her lecture. According to her, she would normally tell her students that if they fail to participate, they will need to attend a ‘grooming class’ organised by the Student Affairs Division. Failing to do either one, will lead to her students not being able to attend their graduation and also receive their academic scroll. She added, “Normally when students listen to this, they start to take things seriously and they know that they can’t joke around in class.”

Meanwhile one of the male academics from a teaching-focused university mentioned that at times, he tells his students that their behaviour can hurt his feelings. He said, “Sometimes students’ body gestures and face is like they are evaluating and judging how I teach. I told them ‘If you don’t understand, you should just say it. You need to tell me which one you don’t understand so that I can explain again. You don’t have to frown. It really hurts you know when you do that’.”

b) Behavioural engagement
Academics also identified strategies they use to improve the students’ emotions by changing their behaviour. Although two academics had identified this however, they both suggested that they do this to make students feel guilty and engage more during lectures. One of them explained:

“I am quite disappointed when I have to tell my students to put away their phones during class. Their phones are more important than the knowledge. You have to say ‘I don’t want to see any handphones on the table’ that kind of thing. So sometimes I feel fed-up [sighs] When they look at their phone, their Whatsapp, it really disturbs me and affects the class. When this happens, I normally will give them on the spot quizzes or assignments that they need to complete by the end of the class. So whatever it is, they have to do it. You’ll hear students sigh all the time but I don’t care. (RF2FA2)

Another academic who also reported the same problem with his students said:

“I always tell them that if I see them touching their phones, I’ll snatch their phones away. Yes I know it sounds very childish. But I don’t like talking to people who are looking at their phones instead. I don’t care if they pretend to
listen. It’s better than their heads lowered and eyes locked on their phones. It’s very rude. I’ve done this twice and I’m not afraid to do it again. I don’t care if I’m not popular because of this. (RF2MA2)

Sub-theme 6.2: Rejection
Unlike negative engagement, rejection involves “behaviours that communicate snubbing of the target” (Niven et al., 2009a). This theme is further divided into two sub-themes identified in Niven and colleagues' (2009) work that is, ‘putting one’s own feelings first’, and ‘rejecting the target’s feelings’.

a) Put own feelings first
‘Acting annoyed towards the target’, ‘telling the target to stop interfering’, and ‘sounding annoyed when speaking with the target’ were some of the strategies identified by Niven et al. (2009). In this study however, findings clearly show that academics were putting their own feelings first when they described how they speak to their students that is, in a negative vocal tone.

- Negative vocal tone
Almost half of the academics mentioned that they intentionally raise their voice or speak using a stern voice whenever they are dissatisfied with their students to change the students’ emotions. The majority of those who had said that they raise their voice at their students was because the students were either not paying attention during their lectures, or they did not complete their assignment. For instance, RF1FA1 explained:

*Sometimes you have to pretend that you’re mad at your students when some of them are not paying attention although you don’t really feel like it, you know? What I normally do is I increase my voice a little bit and from there on it’s enough to make the students scared. You don’t really need to shout or anything. Just increase your voice a little bit and presto! They’ll turn into little angels [laughs].*

Another (TF2MA1) reported that he speaks in a stern voice to make his students feel scared that they were not paying attention. He explained:
If you know me well, I’m the kind of person who doesn’t like getting mad and all. I’m more of a cheerful and bubbly guy. But there are days like today, you really got to put that serious face on and tell your students in a stern voice that you don’t like it when they don’t pay attention. Although in reality, you don’t really mind as long as majority are paying attention.

Another male academic (TF1MA2) also described that he deliberately makes his students feel worse by being stern like the character ‘Miss Trunchbull’ from Matilda. He said, “I have to pretend to be Mrs. [Miss] Trunchbull with these kids”. Miss Trunchbull is an evil fictional headmistress from Roald Dahl’s book and film, Matilda. She is known as someone who is stern and cruel. He added: “… I can be very stern and fierce. I will tell students off if I have to.”

Sub-theme 6.3: Reject target’s feelings
As suggested by Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009), one of the ways to worsen a target’s affect is to reject their feelings. In this study, findings show that there are two approaches to rejecting students’ feelings. The first approach is confrontational while the second is non-confrontational.

- **Confrontational**
As indicated, the first approach used by a great majority of the academic participants (81%) to reject their students’ feelings is through the confrontational approach. Within this approach, findings show that there are three different types of strategies that were used by the academics to confront their students: i) negative humour; ii) criticising; and iii) punishments.

**Negative humour.** While positive humour was used by the academics to improve their students’ affect, deflect tension, and create a positive environment in lectures, the second form of humour discovered in this study is negative humour. Negative humour specifically sarcasm, is deliberately used by close to 30% of the academic participants. Findings show that the majority of the academics use sarcasm to intentionally worsen their students’ emotions by making them feel embarrassed or inferior. Others on the other hand view sarcasm as a harmless act. For instance, two
academics (TF2FA2 and RF1FA2) had said that they use sarcasm to make the students feel ‘Ouch’.

*I often use sarcasm too. I don’t directly tell students off when they are doing something inappropriate in class. Sarcasm works pretty well just to make them go ‘Ouch’. I tend to say things like ‘I really like your phone. Can I borrow it?’ when students are busy texting in class.* (TF2FA2)

*I know students hate it when I’m being sarcastic. But I am always sarcastic when I see them starting to become disengaged. It works. It truly works. Sarcasm does make the student go ‘Ouch’ and make them probably feel mad. But trust me that will make them become more alert afterwards.* [laughs] (RF1FA2)

Findings also show that academics use sarcasm to ‘emotionally whip’ their students. A junior academic from one of the research-focused university explained,

*Um, if they start sleeping or dozing off or come in late, I have this thing about people coming in late. I’m usually in 10 minutes before class starts. So whoever comes in late, they get a good emotional whipping from me. I said ‘It’s poor character, it’s very disrespectful and you’re disrupting my class. Either you come in early or you don’t come in at all… if they are sleeping, I would go up to their desk and say “Good morning!”* [laughs] (RF1FA2)

Another junior academic from one of the teaching-focused university also had said he normally ‘whips’ his students emotionally when his students are late. To avoid students from interrupting in the middle of his lectures, he would give his students an extra 15 minutes to arrive on time or go for a toilet break before the start of his lectures. However he said that there are still students who do arrive late and he would normally tell them sarcastically, “Do you think speaking in front of the class doesn’t require ideas? Do you think it comes out naturally?” He added, “I whip them emotionally. [laughs] So it needs us to be calm, and we’re not talking rubbish in front of the class. We’re giving valuable knowledge to them.”
Also, during two of the four observations, I observed that the academics used sarcasm to confront their students. For instance, when trying to get his students make less noise, TF2MA1 exclaimed, “Am I in a jungle?” Several students were seen startled and within seconds, the room became quiet. He continued telling the students how they made him feel such as “I feel disappointed with all of you” and “You are all adults. You should know better.” During the other observation, I also observed that the academic (RF1FA2) said to her students in a half-joking, half-serious tone, “If all of you don’t do well for your exams, you’re going to have to repeat this course.”

The analysis of the focus group sessions revealed that students also spoke about the use of sarcasm among their academics. Some of the open-ended questions that elicited this information include, “How do each and one of you feel after the class?”, “Have you noticed any differences between lecturers in how they engage you, or in how engaging they are?” and “Do you think your lecturer ever tried to make you feel a particular way during the class?” Ten out of the 24 student participants mentioned the use of sarcasm, and analysis shows that it had a strong negative influence on the students based on the choice of words that they used to respond to the questions such as “not nice”, “hate it”, and “painful”. Some of them had said:

*I have to agree with everyone else. You feel quite hurt when he’s sarcastic...*  
(TF2S2M)

*When he’s sarcastic, I think everyone gets pretty scared and sometimes sad too. Some of us don’t do well with sarcasm so at the end of the class sometimes, people will talk about it.*  
(TF2S5M)

*I don’t like it when he’s sarcastic. It’s not nice.*  
(TF2S6M)

And

*I didn’t like how [RF1FA2] conducts the class sometimes. I really hate it when [RF1FA2] is sarcastic with us.*  
(RF1S5F).
**Criticising.** Other than negative humour, six academics (38%) indicated that they criticise their students to make them feel bad. Criticism was mostly used when students were being disrespectful during lectures. RF2MA2 explained:

> When students are sharing things in class and others are making faces or they are talking, I always tell the students off. That they shouldn’t do that and that they are being disrespectful and very unprofessional. I could’ve just ignored like what other lecturers tend to do. But nope. The only way to make them learn is to make them feel hurt. Not physically of course. Just emotionally. [laughs]

Other than the mentioned, academics were also critical of unresponsive and rude students. For instance, one of the academics (RF2FA1) reported that she tries to worsen her students’ emotions by directly telling them that they are “boring” whenever they refuse to laugh at her jokes. Another academic (RF1FA2) pointed out that whenever students treat her negatively, she would directly point out that the student is being “rude” to let the students know they made her upset.

**Punishments.** The final strategy used to directly worsen students’ emotions is through punishments. Several academics admitted that they do tend to punish misbehaving students. Some of the types of punishment mentioned by the academics are barring the students, deducting marks, shredding students’ assignment and public shaming. The analysis shows that one female academic (TF2FA2) had mentioned that she normally threatens her students by telling them that she would bar them from taking their exams if they do not attend her lectures “three times in a row”. She also justified, “I wouldn’t say that this is an evil thing to do. Technically students will get barred if they don’t come to class three times in a row. There’s a rule for that. But by threatening them, it’s to- it’s to kind of make them aware and scared.”

A popular form of punishment among the academics is mark deduction. Four academics admitted that they normally threaten their students with mark deduction. Some of the examples found include:
I’ve threatened them [students] that if they do not submit their work on time, I will deduct their marks. Normally that would make them feel scared. (RF1MA1)

It’s pretty normal that university students are very afraid when we say ‘If you don’t do this, you don’t attend class, you will not get any marks or you can’t graduate. It will then affect your grades.’ Normally I would do that. Although this isn’t stated in paper, I would tell them ‘5% of your marks are participation and attendance.’ So that normally influences students to attend class. So if they don’t come, they will know that it affects their marks. Their marks will be deducted. (TF1FA2)

While this was a less popular form of punishment, one male academic (TF1MA2) indicated that he once shredded his student’s assignment. Although this was no longer being done, the academic did mention that he still occasionally threatens his students with this form of punishment to make them feel worse. He said:

I try to be very nice but sometimes it doesn’t serve a purpose. I once shredded my student’s assignment because the quality was just [pauses] awful. I haven’t done this for quite some time but I’ve occasionally threatened my students that I would shred their assignments if they do it badly.

During a debriefing session with TF2MA1, I asked whether the academic had done anything to worsen his students’ emotions. He responded with:

Yeah I’ve done it quite a number of times. In fact, last week when several students came in late, I told the students if they come in late again, I’ll lock the door and ask them to sit outside throughout the duration of three hours. It did work. This week, no one came in late. They either come early, or don’t come at all. Sometimes you need to inject some fear. They are no longer school children. They are adults so they need to understand what’s right and what’s wrong in the university. I could just ignore but then they will think that coming in late is an OK thing. They could then do it to other lecturers and probably bring this habit at work. As a lecturer, our duty is to not just impart knowledge.
But also mould them to become a good person. So we have to make sure that we point out the things that they are doing wrong so that they won't repeat it.

Another type of punishment developed during analysis is public shaming. Out of the 16 academics, only two academics had embarrassed their students openly in front of the students’ peers. This was done intentionally to cause feelings of embarrassment in the students. For instance, during one of the participant observations, TF1FA2 reacted abruptly when five students came in late for her lecture. Instead of letting the students take their seats, she halted them and asked the students to sing in front of the lecture hall. Students who were being punished were seen embarrassed but those who were observing their friends being punished found the punishment funny. During the debrief session after the lecture, I had asked the academic regarding her intention. She explained that her intention was to reduce negative behaviours among her students. She further justified her act by stating:

*From the very start, I made a ground rule that whoever comes in late, they have to sing. If they come in a group of four or five students, then I will ask them to do a choir. [laughs] My intention was- I know that they hate singing. They are not- I mean, who doesn’t feel ashamed singing in front of the class? Maybe you are a good speaker but singing is different. In a way, it’s to avoid them from coming in late. So I’ve done this to two classes. Students in another class are really afraid of this and they come in sharp. They don’t want to sing. [laughs] (TF1FA2)*

TF1FA2’s claims matched her students’ responses. When asked whether TF1FA2 ever tried to make students feel a particular way during the class, some of her students spoke about the singing punishment. Three of her six students who participated in the focus group claimed that the punishment did make them at times feel terrified and also prevented them from repeating the same mistake. A male student explained:

*Scared? Yeah sometimes. When she punishes us for being late by asking us to sing in front of everybody. I don't like singing. It isn't my thing. I once arrived*
pretty late. That was the second week of the semester. I've never been late ever since. Brutal [laughs] (TF1S6M)

His female course mate agreed this by responding:

Yeah. I mean she does punish students for being late. But she did say it loud and clear during the start of the semester that whoever arrives late, she'll ask them to sing. Technically everyone knows about it. It's a matter of attitude. I've never been late but it's mainly because I don't want to embarrass myself in front of my friends. I only sing in the showers [laughs]. Can't imagine me singing in front of everyone. Too scary! (TF1S3F)

Meanwhile, another academic (TF2MA1) who was upset when a group of students were not prepared for their presentation decided to ask the students to stand up and justify in front of the students’ peers why they were not prepared. To make it fair for the other students who were prepared, the academic gave them the opportunity to decide for the punished students whether they should be given another chance to present the following week. He also said that the punished students were being “unfair to their classmates” as it would mean the students would have an extra week to prepare for the presentation compared to the rest of his classmates. His intention was to make the students feel “very ashamed”.

- **Non-confrontational**

Another approach that was used by the academics to reject their students’ feelings is the non-confrontational approach. Within this approach, findings show that there are two different types of strategies that were discussed by the academics: i) withdrawal; and ii) negative comparisons.

**Withdrawal.** Out of the 16 academics, five academics (31%) had mentioned a situation where they tried to make their students feel guilty by deliberately withdrawing themselves from a negative situation. For instance, a senior male academic (TF2MA2) indicated that rather than scolding his students to make them feel embarrassed or humiliated for not delivering their presentation on time, he instead opted to ignore them to elicit guilt in the students. He explained:
I even gave them a second chance. They couldn’t do it. I didn’t scold them. I just asked the students to go back to their seats and called other groups who were ready to present to come in front and present. I just remained quiet with them. Of course I was very upset as I normally give my students ample of time to prepare. But by choosing to ignore or withdraw from these sort of situation, I knew that somehow my students could pick up the negative vibe that I was giving them. So in the end, they knew that I was upset and stopped misbehaving in class. (TF2MA2)

Meanwhile, the other four academics (TF1MA1, TF1FA2, TF2FA1 and RF1MA2) had mentioned that they try to make their ‘lazy’ students feel guilty for not paying attention during lectures. For instance, RF1MA2 indicated that he normally ignore students who are not cooperative during his lectures by treating them like they do not exist (e.g., avoid eye contact) to make them feel ashamed. He also said that teaching those who are “physically and not emotionally in class” is considered a “waste of time”. Furthermore, he said that this strategy (i.e., ignoring the student) is useful to get students to cooperate during lectures.

This was also observed during one of the observations. RF1FA2 gave her student the ‘silent treatment’ when a student approached her and told her that he forgot to submit his assignment on time. The academic who was unimpressed, decided to ignore the student and instead, she spoke to a different student who was also standing next to her. The ‘victim’ clearly aware of the silent treatment, decided to make his way to his seat. He spent at least 5-minutes covering his face perhaps of frustration.

**Negative comparisons.** Several student participants also spoke about a strategy that was regularly used by the academics but was not mentioned by any of them during their one-on-one interview. When I asked the students, “Are there anything that you found negative about him or the way he teaches?” three out of the 24 students revealed that their academics tended to compare them with other students from different classes. One student (RF2S5F) believes that her academic tends to compare her class with another on purpose to make them feel bad about themselves.
She said:

*He likes to nag like my father. Sometimes when you’ve done something wrong, he makes things worst by nagging. He’ll compare you with other students who are doing better. I’m not really fond of that... I really think he does this on purpose. Maybe.*

Another student from a different university also felt the same way about his academic. He explained:

*He tends to compare us with other students either good or bad things... I don’t think that is nice... Like when we are not working hard compared to the other class. I’ve never heard other students complaining about this. It could be just us that he’s like that.* *(TF2S2M)*

His course mate agreed, “Yeah I agree with [TF2S2M]. I guess it’s hard for him to not compare. I don’t blame it. But when he compares the negative things about us, I do feel quite disappointed.”

### 6.4 Discussion

Findings suggest that academics rely upon the backstage region to prepare before and recover after a lecture. Academics use this private space to take a break from the emotional labour performed in the frontstage. Some of the backstage activities academics do to replenish depleted resources from lectures include listening to music and going out for a drink with colleagues. Findings also show that most of the academics mentioned religious activities such as praying to cope with unwanted emotions before and after a lecture. This is consistent with past literature on culture that suggests Malaysians as ‘religious’ *(Abdullah, 1996; Gannon & Pillai, 2016)*.

In the frontstage region academics use a range of strategies for influencing how they feel and how their students’ feel. Many of the strategies generated in the study, especially the most frequently-mentioned, reflect strategies already evident in the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies *(Niven et al., 2009a)*. Strategies such as humour and distracting attention were evident in this study’s findings and also mentioned in other research. For instance, humour has been seen as an important
interpersonal emotion regulation behaviour in a study of medical interactions conducted by Francis, Monahan, and Berger (1999). In their study, humour was used by a medical professional to inspire hope in a patient (Francis et al., 1999). In this thesis, analysis shows that some of the goals academics try to achieve when using humour during lectures is to improve their students’ emotions and to create a pleasant atmosphere during lectures.

Also, findings suggest that agents tend to distract their target’s attention away from a situation. Academics use the ‘story-telling’ method to distract their students from feeling bored. Here, ‘story-telling’ means that the academics share stories about the current issues and other interesting topics to improve their students’ emotion. This type of interpersonal emotion regulation strategy has been mentioned in other research such as Little, Kluemper, Nelson, and Ward's (2013) work on customer service representative. They suggested that customer service representative use different types of strategies to distract customers from experiencing undesirable emotions such as talking about the weather and about the customer’s dog (Little et al., 2013). Findings also suggest that academics not only distract their students from experiencing unwanted emotions (interpersonal emotion regulation) but they too distract their own emotions (e.g., thinking of something pleasant) when faced with difficult situations with students (intrapersonal emotion regulation).

Although many similar strategies were used by academics, there were some newer strategies discovered but not mentioned in the literature. For instance, result shows that there are two types of humour used by the academics that is, positive humour and negative humour. Positive humour was mostly used to improve the students’ (or target) emotions while negative humour in the form of sarcasm, was used to show irritation and to make students feel bad. Other strategies used by the academics to inject fear in their students include punishments and threats. For example, academics reported that they use threats such as asking students to perform in front of their course mates when the students arrive late to their lectures in an attempt to create fear and repent. In the next chapter, I will present findings for Research Question 2 and 3.
CHAPTER 7 - FINDINGS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS 2 AND 3: THE ACTIVE ROLE OF STUDENTS IN THE EMOTIONAL LABOUR PROCESS

7 Introduction

The first part of this study detailed in the previous chapter (Findings of Research Question 1, Chapter 6) identified a large number of intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies academics use to perform emotional labour to engage their students. Although academics in this study reported using particular strategies to regulate their own and their students’ emotions, so far this thesis is yet to present any evidence that shows how students might be active in the emotional labour process – consistent with the earlier theoretical approaches described in Chapter 2. Demonstrating that students actively respond to academics’ emotional labour is essential, and in line with the latest research that suggests targets are not completely passive and “helpless” in the emotional labour process (e.g., Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Wang, 2013; Niven, Totterdell, Holman, & Cameron, 2013).

This chapter presents the research findings and data analyses relating to research question 2 and 3. That is, ‘How do students respond to academics’ emotional labour, and how do they initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation themselves in the emotional labour process?’ and ‘How do students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour and students’ emotion regulation efforts influence academics’ well-being and subsequent emotional labour?’ These questions have been grouped together with respect to the analysis and presentation of findings because both relate to the role of the ‘target’ of emotional labour, in this case, students. In particular, both questions seek to examine whether students play a more active role in the emotional labour process (with respect to engaging in emotion regulation and influencing the emotion regulation that academics perform) that has previously been described in the literature.

Using the template approach for analysing the data, an initial template was developed, based on the research literature as well as the results of the pilot study. In this template, five major categories were proposed: 1) initiation of emotion regulation; 2) reciprocation of emotion regulation; 3) students’ responses to academics’ emotion regulation; 4) effects of students’ responses on academics’ well-
being; and 5) effects of students’ responses on academics’ emotion regulation (see Figure 7.1).

![Figure 7.1. Initial template that corresponds to both RQ2 and RQ3](image)

Similar to the previous chapter, analysis for RQ2 and RQ3 involved generating key words and terms to search for in the data that would represent each of the categories represented in the initial template, followed by rigorous reading and re-reading of participant transcripts to identify relevant examples. In this case, because the focus was on students as active constituents in the emotional labour process, I began by analysing the students’ data provided in the focus group sessions. I then created a refined template that included some additional subthemes (see Figure 7.2).

![Figure 7.2. Final template with revised sub-themes that corresponds to research question 2 and research question 3](image)
From Figure 7.2, it can be seen that several sub-themes were generated within three of the five themes identified previously. The data suggested that students initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation to improve and worsen their academics’ emotions in the emotional labour process. Here, initiation of emotion regulation refers to the management of emotions that is prompted by the students (or targets). Meanwhile, reciprocation refers to students’ management of emotions that is entirely in response to the academics’ (or agents) emotion regulation.

Findings also suggested that students respond to academics’ emotional labour in both positive and negative emotional and attitudinal ways. This final template was then applied to the analysis of the data provided by academics in their one-on-one interviews, and also observation. No further changes to the template were needed during the analysis of the academics’ data; all examples mentioned by academics fit within the themes already identified. In the following sections of the chapter, each of these major themes and sub-themes are discussed in more depth, with links made to the broader literature. The various themes and sub-themes are defined in Table 7.1 below, to offer the reader a guide to what each theme concerns and the areas of research literature that the theme corresponds with.
Table 7.1. Principal themes and sub-themes based on past literature and analysis of open-ended responses and the number and percentage of participants identifying each theme (n = 16 academics, n = 24 students).

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<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Themes and sub-themes</th>
<th>Description and characteristics</th>
<th>References</th>
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<th>% students</th>
<th>N academics</th>
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<td>Targets reciprocate academics’ emotion regulation to improve or worsen agents’ emotions.</td>
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<td><strong>Theme 3: Students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour</strong></td>
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<td>Targets respond to agents’ emotional labour in two ways – positive emotions and attitudes, and negative</td>
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### Research Question 3

| Sub-theme 3.1: Students' positive emotions and attitudes | Sub-theme 3.2: Students’ negative emotions and attitudes
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<td>[emotions and attitudes.](Holman et al., 2008a)</td>
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<th>Theme 5: Effects of students’ responses on academics' subsequent EL</th>
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<tr>
<td>The ways in which targets respond to agents may influence the well-being of those agents.</td>
<td>The active role played by targets in the emotion regulation process may influence the subsequent emotional labour of the agents. The regulatory role of agents and targets continuously switches during social interactions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being of others (Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012) Agents’ well-being (Holman et al., 2008a; Martínez-Íñigo et al., 2013; Totterdell &amp; Holman, 2003)</td>
<td>‘Feedback loops’ (Côté, 2005) Switching role of agents and targets (Martínez-Íñigo et al., 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>21%</td>
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</table>
7.1 Initiation and reciprocation of emotion regulation

Most research into emotional labour has focused only on the role played by the focal worker (the agent), thus neglecting the possibility that the recipient of emotional labour (the target) might also shape the emotional labour process. Although there is an emerging suggestion of targets being potentially more active than traditionally recognised (Gracia & Ashkanasy, 2014; Niven et al., 2013) to date, this has not been empirically examined. In this study, both the focus groups (student data) and the interviews (academic data) support that targets are not completely passive. Instead, findings suggest that targets (in this case, students) are active participants who experience strong emotional responses in the process. Students not only initiate, but they also reciprocate the emotion regulation that academics (agents) engage in during the emotional labour process, consistent with the feedback loops of Côté's (2005) social interaction model, Hareli and Rafaeli's (2008) emotion cycle, and Holman, Martinez-Iñigo and Totterdell's (2008) process model of emotional labour.

Theme 1: Initiation of emotion regulation

The first theme created based on the findings is initiation of emotion regulation. As briefly described, initiation of emotion regulation refers to the target’s management of emotion prompted by the target themselves. Studies suggest that people initiate interpersonal emotion regulation not only to try to change how others feel, but also to change their own emotions (e.g., Niven, Holman, & Totterdell, 2012; Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012). Also, people may regulate others’ emotions in order to achieve their personal goals (Netzer, Van Kleef, & Tamir, 2015). The current study found that students deliberately try to induce more or less pleasant emotion in academics by using intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation (see Table 7.1). The findings also suggest that students have their own goals or intentions that drive their own emotion regulation. These findings are presented, and discussed in the following subsections. The number of students and academics who had discussed this during the focus group and interview sessions are presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2. Initiation of emotion regulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 1.1:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Improving</td>
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<td>RF1S3F, RF2S1M, RF2S2F,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>RF1MA1, RF1MA2, RF2FA1,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RF2S4M,</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Sub-theme 1.1: Improving the academic’s emotions

As mentioned above, students engage in emotion regulation to improve their academics’ emotions. More than half of the student participants (54%) reported that they initiate this form of interpersonal emotion regulation. Three motives identified that drive the students’ initiation of emotion regulation are: 1) to improve their academics’ emotions; 2) to improve their own emotions; and 3) to achieve their personal goal.

During the focus groups, students reported that they often try to improve their academics’ emotions during lectures. One of the popular strategies students tend to use to make their academics feel good is by complimenting the academic. A total of seven student participants (30%) across the four universities had mentioned that they regularly compliment their academics. For instance, one of the student participants reported that whenever she compliments her academic, it made her academic feel “happy”. In her own words:

*I compliment [TF2MA1] too. It's the best method to make him or even other lecturers happy. Who doesn't like a nice compliment right? Whether you are being genuine or not, is a whole different story. (TF2S4F)*

Another student in a research-focused university indicated that he often throws “a bunch of compliments” to his academic to reduce his academics’ anger. He explained:

*I normally throw a bunch of compliments to my lecturer and see what sticks whenever I see him getting all angry. It’s not easy to diffuse anger but normally one would normally stick! (RF2S4M)*
The student went on to further explain the type of compliments he would normally give. One of them involves complimenting about the academic’s new pair of shoes. Also, RF2S4M’s course mate (RF2S2F) spoke in short about how she prevents her academic from feeling “all moody” by fuelling him with “positivity”. She said, “Whenever he is all moody, I normally try to cool him down by fuelling him with positivity.” Meanwhile, a student from another research-focused university mentioned that she tends to compliment her academic’s choice of work shirts to make her feel good. She explained that she would say things like, “I like your shirt today. It looks good on you!”

Results also showed that some of the students who chose to compliment their academics do this not only to improve their academics’ emotions but it was also done to improve their own emotions. For instance, a female student from one of the teaching-focused university explained:

*I think it's a common practice for students to compliment their lecturers either they mean it or not just to make their lecturers feel happy. Some would go ‘Cantik Dr. hari ini’ [Dr., you are pretty today] just to brighten up their lecturer's day. I know you're going to think that we're not being sincere but if it could put a smile on her face [pauses] and make us stress-free, no harm done. (TF1S2F)*

Another student participant from a different teaching-focused university reported that whenever she compliments her academic, not only does it help make her academic feel “even more happy” but it would also make her feel the same way. In her own words:

*... I normally make him even more happy by complimenting his clothes or if he just had a haircut, I would normally compliment his hair... When he's happy, it's natural that we will all feel the same way. So we like to stick it that way. (TF2S1F)*

This strategy (i.e., complimenting the academic) was not only found during the focus group sessions but during one of the observations too. A student was seen complimenting her academic during the observed lecture. She said out loud, “You
look different today, Dr! Did you lose some weight?” The academic who initially looked tired immediately became happy and replied, “Aww, thank you [name of student]! Yes I did lose some weight. Thank you for noticing!” Since the student was not one of the student participants in the focus group, the student’s motive is unknown.

Students also reported that they often pretend to feel excited during lectures by consciously exaggerating words or by making happy facial expressions to avoid upsetting their academics. For instance, two students reported:

*I try not to show that I am bored during lectures cause I know it’ll make my lecturer upset. Sometimes what I do to show that I’m alert is by saying things like “That is really interesting!” And I’ll normally nod my head excitedly regardless of what I feel that day.* (RF2S1M)

*It’s not easy to show that you are excited in class but sometimes you have to do it just to make your lecturer happy. One of the things that I normally do to hide my boredom is by expressing joyful emotion like “Wow! Awesome!” even if I don’t feel like it.* (TF1S4M)

Out of the 24 student participants, findings suggest that only two students (TF1S3F and TF2S6M) mentioned that she uses humour to influence her own, and her academic’s emotions. According to her, she initiates humour whenever her academic is “not in a good mood” to prevent herself from feeling “miserable” during the 3-hour lecture. She said:

*I normally joke around with my lecturer whenever I see her not in a good mood. When you see your lecturer is not OK, you really have to quickly do something about it otherwise you’ll end up feeling miserable throughout the three hour lecture!* (TF1S3F)

During the observation, I also witnessed a student telling a joke to her academic. In my observation note I wrote:
A female student is telling her academic a joke. I can hear a little bit but I can’t hear the whole joke properly since I’m sitting across the hall. Her academic did have a frown on her face when she entered the lecture hall. But she looks happy now. Whatever joke that was, it actually worked! (Observation Note TF1FA2)

A male academic (TF2S6M) on the other indicated that he normally makes silly jokes to make his lecturer laugh and the lecture “lively”. Another reason students deliberately attempt to improve their academics’ emotions is to achieve their own personal goals. One such way to achieve this is by altering the academics’ attention away from a situation (i.e., taking interest in the academics’ lives). Once the academics are distracted from experiencing unpleasant emotions, students will then take this advantage by putting forward a request. This strategy was mentioned in the study of Williams (2007) and Little et al. (2012) where they indicated that people may direct others’ emotions to something more pleasant. To illustrate, one of the student participants admitted that he pretends to be interested in his academic’s life with the intention to get higher grades for his assignments. He claims that this strategy is useful to improve his academic’s emotions by making his academic feel pleasant and in turn, consider his request. He explained:

...I try and take interest in my lecturer's life. When she comes in, I'll ask her what she did over the weekend and whether she is having a good day. You know, just have a casual conversation with her. And yes, I do give her a bit of compliment. Everyone calls me a teacher's pet. I don't mind really. I know the fact that when I do this, she becomes really nice and less moody. And of course, this really works when I want a bit of extra marks for my assignments. When you're being nice to her, it'll make her really consider any of your requests. It really works! Never mind how you feel! (TF1S1M)

TF1S1M was not the only student who reported this during the focus group session. His course mate (TF1S2F) agreed with TF1S1M’s statement and responded, “… like [TF1S1M] said, I sometimes do it [take interest in his academic’s life] to improve my marks a little bit [laughs].” One of their other course mates (TF1S5F) also agreed in short “Same here. I tend to do the same thing.”
Another strategy used by the students to achieve their goals is by developing close relationship with the academics. Unlike other strategies that produces immediate benefits to the students and the academics, this strategy which takes longer to initiate, produces long-term benefits. One of the students explained:

*People say that when you form a good relationship with your lecturers, it's easier for lecturers to comply with your requests. It's actually true. Lectures run smoothly too when your relationship with your lecturer becomes informal from the professional lecturer-student relationship into friends. You don’t really have to form a proper relationship. It could be artificial. I always do that. Once you make her happy and you are close to her, that’s when you put in a request. Like asking for extra brownie marks for your mid-term test. Anything really!* (TF1S6M)

Another student said from a research-focused university said:

*So far I think when you're close to your lecturer, they don’t give you a hard time and they are less moody. They become more approachable too. Of course you’ve got to do a lot of things to make the relationship happen. But once you've formed a good relationship with your lecturer, it’s much easier to get whatever you want, whenever you want it.* (RF1S3F)

Meanwhile, analysis of the academic data shows that several academics were aware of students complimenting them in attempt to improve their emotions. Two of them revealed that they do try to consider students’ request if students are kind to them. One example is TF2MA1 who said:

*... like I mentioned earlier, students tend to compliment me. It's always nice when they do that. It makes you feel that you are doing a good job. I normally do what I can when they are being kind. For instance if they ask nicely whether they could extend the due date for their assignment, I'll definitely consider their request.* (TF2MA1)
Another academic from a research-focused university said:

Yeah, I mean it does feel good. You cannot lie it makes you feel good. But sometimes you don’t know whether students are being honest or not. They ‘puji-puji’ [compliment] you. Of course it feels good. I mean it’s nice to have that. I normally try to see this in a positive way. I try to avoid questioning these sort of things because once you do this, you’ll assume all of your students are doing this to get something from you. If they are nice to me, I'll be nice to them in return. As simple as that. (RF2FA1)

A few academics also mentioned how they were aware of students trying to be close to them that is, beyond the formal academic-student relationship. Two academics reported that they did not mind having a casual relationship with their students. One of them said:

I do have a good relationship with my students and I like it when my students are casual with me. It does somehow make me feel like I am special and that they are comfortable with me. (RF1MA1)

While the other spoke in length:

I want my students to see me as a guidance. Someone who can guide them. I want them to respect me not because of ‘You have to respect me!’ No nothing like that. They respect me because of [pauses] I am older than them. And I want the students at the same time, treat me as a friend. I want them to feel like they can share everything with me. If they have problems, they can refer to me. So far I have some students who are casual, and open with me. I am cool with that. Sometimes I feel like it's easier for me to run my lectures if I know my students well. I think they cooperate well when they know me too. (TF1FA2)

But one academic (RF1MA2) felt the opposite. He coldly replied, “… I don't think I have time to be all friendly and emotional with my students.” These comments (except RF1MA2) show that academics appreciate the effort students put into improving their emotions. Academics were receptive, and also responsive, to the
students when students use interpersonal emotion regulation (e.g., giving compliments, and making small talk).

**Sub-theme 1.2: Worsening the academic’s emotions**
Not all of the interpersonal emotion regulation that students engage is performed with the motive to improve their academics’ emotions. This study also found that a minority of students deliberately tried to worsen their academics’ emotions. Similar to three students who reported earlier that their academic compares them unfavourably with other students (see Chapter 6), a male student in this study admitted that he also does the same – that is, he compares his academic with others.

... the worst thing anyone could ever do is to compare her with other lecturers. I've done this twice. I compared her with my friends' lecturers. The first time I did this, I told her that other students- students from other classes could extend their assignment submission deadline. She wasn't mad at me for telling her that. But I knew she felt sad cause I made her feel that she wasn't being fair... The second time um, I jokingly said that the other class- the same course but taught by a different lecturer, often finishes an hour early while she often finishes late. Of course this time she was obviously upset with me. Yes I must admit, my intention was to make her feel bad so that she could you know, finish early. (TF1S6M)

Another student (RF2S1M) admitted that he intentionally worsened his academic’s mood by inflicting frustration on the academic. He said:

... it happened yesterday. I asked him on behalf of everyone if we could submit our assignment a day late. He said 'no' and complained how we never appreciate him. Bla bla bla. It got me frustrated and I argued that we only asked to submit it a day late. He just couldn't compromise. Of course he was equally frustrated with me. But wait until the day of submission. We are still planning to submit the assignment a day late. It's about teaching him to understand our needs.

His course mate RF1S4M agreed, and responded with:
Yeah. [nods] Let’s face it attending lectures can be boring. You have lecturers who read off their PowerPoint slides, and you have lecturers who expect you to read case studies at home and discuss it in class. For this particular lecturer, he likes to read off his slides. It’s boring. Half of the time you completely switch off in class. When it gets so boring, most of the boys will play tricks on the lecturer. Nothing serious and unethical. Just tricks like hiding the projector's remote, and whiteboard markers. Just to delay the class a little bit. Of course it eventually appears somewhere in the class. [laughs] Oh yes, it does get him frustrated.

Based on these findings, it seems that students mainly attempted to worsen their academics’ emotions to achieve their own personal goals. These results are consistent with those of Netzer and colleagues. (2015), who found that people might be willing to make others feel worse if it helps them out personally.

**Theme 2: Reciprocity of emotion regulation**

Another theme generated based on the student data is ‘reciprocity of emotion regulation’. In the previous chapter (Chapter 6), I found that academics use different types of emotion regulation strategies (e.g., humour, sarcasm) to improve and worsen their students’ emotions. Analysis of the student data revealed that students when academics use interpersonal emotion regulation, students end up experiencing the emotions that academics are trying to elicit in them and then feel obligated to reciprocate the emotion regulation efforts that academics have expended. Students tend to reciprocate emotion regulation themselves to *improve* or *worsen* their academics’ emotions (see Table 7.3). It should be noted that all of the data from this theme came from students themselves; no academics discussed how their students reciprocated emotion regulation. Students know their own intentions and behaviours whereas academics would be more focused on effects of students’ behaviour on them rather than the intentions behind the students’ actions.
Table 7.3. Reciprocation of emotion regulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2.1: Improving agent’s emotions</td>
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<td>RF1S1M, RF1S2F, RF1S3F, RF1S5F, RF1S6M, TF1S2F, TF1S3F, TF1S4M, TF2S1F, TF2S2M, TF2S3F, TF2S4F, TF2S5M, TF2S6M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 2.2: Worsening agent’s emotions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>RF1S3F, RF2S3F, TF2S2M, TF2S5M, TF2S6M</td>
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</table>

Sub-theme 2.1: Improving the academic’s emotions

The first sub-theme is ‘improving the academic’s emotions’. Table 7.3 shows that more than 50% of the students suggested that they reciprocate emotion regulation to improve their academics’ emotions. The strategies students use to improve academics’ emotions is driven by two separate reasons: 1) to show engagement; and 2) to prevent negative events.

The first is to show engagement. Most students expressed that they felt a duty to reciprocate the energy invested by their academics by showing that they were engaged during lectures (e.g., paying attention, making eye contact). For instance one student said:

Personally I would normally show that I am engaged when my lecturer treats me nicely and of course when I enjoy the course. I think it’s rude to show that you are disengaged although deep inside you’re counting down the hours till the class ends. What I normally do would- I would nod my head to show that I’m listening especially when I make eye contact with the lecturer. Eye contact is very important to show that you are engaged. No looking at your phones.

(RF1S1M)

His course mate who showed similar gestures replied:

Same goes with me. I nod my head to show um, that I understand and that I’m following the lecture although sometimes I’m not! [laughs] Sometimes I put a finger on my chin to show that I’m trying to process things. That I’m thinking. Generally anything that shows I’m in class. I don't like making my lecturer feel that she's doing a terrible job. I know how lecturers feel cause my mom is also
a lecturer and sometimes she comes home feeling exhausted and at times sad because students were not paying attention and she talks about how much time she invested in preparing a lecture. So yeah, I try my best to show to my lecturer that I appreciate her efforts. (RF1S5F)

These gestures were not only identified by the student participants from one of the research-focused universities but also by all of the student participants from another teaching-focused university, who discussed using similar gestures to reciprocate the energy invested by their academic. One of the students (TF2S3F) said, “We nod our head, we smile, we answer his questions, we participate in all of his in class activities. These are all to show that we are feeling engaged of course.” Another commented:

\[
I \text{ normally hold my pen and kind of do this ‘I am thinking’ kind of look just to show that I am listening. I sometimes pretend to scribble notes too so that he thinks that I’m following his lecture although in reality I sometimes have a hard time understanding what he's teaching. I don’t think there's anything wrong with pretending that we’re paying attention for the sake of making him feel that we’re following his lecture. Better than sleeping at the back row of the class, right? [laughs]} \ (TF2S5M)
\]

Furthermore, data shows that when academics initiate humour to influence the feelings of their students, students reciprocate their academics’ use of humour by laughing and making another humorous comment. Studies have pointed out that humour helps redirect a person’s attention, and influence one’s own, and other’s emotions (Niven et al., 2007; M. Williams & Emich, 2014). For instance, one of the students (TF2S2M) indicated, “Most of the time though I normally joke around with my lecturer when he is trying to be funny. Yes, sometimes it isn’t funny at all.” Another student (TF1S3F) reported that he also attempt to reciprocate her academic’s use of humour by putting on a fake laugh.

The second reason is to prevent negative events from occurring such as upsetting the academic. The findings also reveal that several students display ‘fake’ emotions during lectures to spare their academics’ feelings, and to preserve their positive relationship with their academics. For example, RF1S1M indicated that he
normally fake laughter when responding to his academic’s failed humour. He believes that he does this as a sign of respect for someone older than him. He explained:

Normally when this happens, I just pretend that I find her dry jokes funny not to make her feel disappointed and think that her jokes are not funny. Which honestly isn't funny at all. I’ll put on a bit of fake laugh. My friends definitely know that I'm just pretending but I don’t think my lecturer knows at all. She thinks I genuinely find her jokes funny. I’m just trying to be polite to show respect for someone older than me. (RF1S1M)

Another student revealed how he and his friends generally respond when his academic tries to criticise and belittle them. He explained in length:

I think one common thing we normally do but never really talked about this between ourselves is that most of us tend to ignore our lecturers when she starts criticising and belittling us. I've been observing this from the start of the semester. Male students especially. When this happens, we guys tend to avoid experiencing- um. Um, I guess we like to take a quick toilet or ciggie break to avoid the negative energy that is being emitted by our lecturer. As for my female friends, they react differently. Some roll their eyes, some play with their phones. But generally everyone remains quiet and try avoid doing anything stupid that they will regret later. This does work to kind of make her cool off a little bit rather than reacting irrationally that might make things ‘lagi teruk’ [even worse]. We try our best to be nonaggressive. (TF1S4M)

During the data analysis, I also found that students attempt to prevent their academics from making further sarcastic remarks and thus experiencing unpleasant emotions themselves by being alert and avoiding reacting negatively. For instance, RF1S2F indicated:

We’re always on our toes in her class. We always have to be very alert too. When she asks questions, we have to quickly answer them. Otherwise she will say things like um, “Am I talking to rocks here?” I know she is just trying to
make sure we answer her questions by being sarcastic. It can be funny at times. But most of the times, it can be annoying. So yeah, what we do [pauses] we- we try to avoid reacting negatively if we feel annoyed. Like [RF1S3F] said, when something negative happens, we will remain quiet. (RF1S2F)

RF1S6M agreed in short, “That is true. I do that as well.” While another said:

Normally when she tries to make us scared, we normally remain quiet and try not to react irrationally. We don’t want to make the situation worse. (RF1S3F)

Meanwhile, a student from a teaching-focused university (TF1S2F) claimed that she and her two course mates have never responded to their academic negatively. She said:

... we’ve never ever responded to her negatively. We try our best to match her emotions. When she’s excited and enthusiastic, we will also feel the same and we will of course express it out loud to her so that she knows that we are feeling the same. We will normally nod our heads, show some gestures to show that we are excited like wave our hands or clap our hands. Depending on what she does. When we do that, she’ll get even more excited and enthusiastic. We like it when she’s always positive.

The two others indicated that they are generally responsive, and respectful towards their academic.

We are not mean in class. We do complain between us outside of class if we disagree things. We still respect her as a lecturer and try to be as responsive and positive as much as we can although there are times we don’t feel like it. The status of teachers in Islam is high so no matter um, whatever she does to make us feel awful, whether she scolds us, say harsh things, anything to hurt our feelings, we will always respect her. (RF1S2F)
When she makes us feel bad, what we normally do is— we normally either lower our head and avoid saying a word. We're only doing this because I still respect her as a lecturer and no point being argumentative. (RF1S3F)

**Sub-theme 2.1: Worsening the academic’s emotions**

Further analysis of the student data shows that students did not only reciprocate emotion regulation to improve their academics’ emotions but at times their intention was to worsen their emotions. Results showed that students were more hostile when academics expressed negative emotions to the students. Students were prone to engage in reciprocated negative emotion regulation when academics attempt to worsen the students’ emotions through strategies such as criticism, punishments, and negative humour. For instance, one male student mentioned that he reciprocates his academic’s sarcasm with sarcasm. He said:

*I am often sarcastic when someone is sarcastic. So whenever he's being sarcastic, I respond with sarcasm. Sometimes he ignores but most of the time he'll go up to me and ask, "Are you trying to be funny?" It's funny cause he doesn't realise that he's the one who started it first.”* (TF2S6M)

Another student revealed that whenever his academic speaks in a high and stern voice, he responds with the same level of tone. He explained:

*I must admit, um. Um, I actually made him really mad last week. I knew he was already having a bad day but I wanted him to recheck my marks for one of my quizzes. I got a really low mark but I don't think I did that bad. Um, so I went up to him and spoke to him nicely about the quiz. He said the marks can't be changed and that he did mark it correctly. I still demanded for a recheck as the quiz takes up about 10 percent of our overall grade for this course. That was when he started to speak in a high and stern voice. Those who know me, I have a bit of temper. So obviously I raised my voice too. It made him feel even more angry. Big mistake.* (TF2S2M)

Similarly, RF1S3F spoke about how she was firm with her academic when her academic wanted to punish her for being late. She said in frustration:
... last week she wanted to punish me for being late. It was as though I’ve done this many times. It was actually my first time being late. So I got a little mad when she said that she wanted to deduct my marks if I’m ever late again so I said firmly that she was being unfair. There are other students who come in late more often than me. I really expressed my frustration that day.

Out of the 24 students, only one student revealed that she directly complains to her academic when there is something that she dislikes about her academic. She said:

... sometimes I complain to my lecturer about anything that I’m not comfortable with [pauses] whether it’s about the way he speaks or even the way he gives us lectures. Yes, I do this in front of my classmates. I know it sounds suicidal but I’m very direct. If I don’t like something, I’ll just say it. Why fake it? (RF2S3F)

Although these are examples of how students reciprocate when academics attempt to worsen their students’ emotions, several students also mentioned that they reciprocate negatively when academics attempted to improve their emotions. For instance, not all humour was reciprocated appropriately. One student (TF2S2M) claimed that he avoids laughing when his academic’s jokes are “not funny” as a sign of disengagement. In his own words, he said “... I think I normally don’t laugh when his jokes are not funny.” His course mate (TF2S5M) also agreed, and suggested that he tends to do the same when he finds the joke dry. He explained:

Yes like [TF2S2M], I don’t normally laugh when my lecturer tells dry jokes. I mean, why would I want to fake a laugh? It’s better to let him know that his jokes aren’t funny rather than making him think that it is. Perhaps next time he could improve?

These examples match with what some of the academics had mentioned in the previous chapter. The academics were particularly concerned with students who are less receptive to their humour. Also, in a study conducted by Williams and Emich (2014) on the experience of failed humour, they indicated that failed humour may
dampen positive emotions, and generate negative emotions in the agent; the findings here suggest that this may be due to the negative feedback that is provided by recipients of failed humour.

**Theme 3: Students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour**

The following theme relates to students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour. Findings suggest that academics’ emotional labour has a large impact on students’ emotions and attitudes either positively or negatively (see Table 7.4).

**Table 7.4. Responses to academics’ emotional labour**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Sub-themes</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sub-theme 3.1: Students’ positive emotions and attitudes**

As shown in Table 7.4, most students discussed how they experienced positive feelings and attitudes in response to academics’ emotional labour efforts. In particular, students reflected on being most responsive, in terms of their positive feelings, when academics used interpersonal emotion regulation (e.g., humour, enthusiasm) to elicit positive emotions in their students during lectures. Academics’ use of positive humour was seen as an important and valuable component to elicit positive emotional responses from the students. Also, findings suggest that positive humour creates an atmosphere where students feel relaxed and comfortable. During the focus group session, one of the male students spoke about experiencing positive emotions. He said:

*He’s always making sure that we understand what he’s teaching and also make sure that we are comfortable. He's always prioritising our feelings first which...*
all of us truly appreciate. From time to time, he does things like telling jokes and so on [pauses] just to make sure that we are constantly happy. And yes, we are happy. (TF2S2M)

He added that his academic’s sense of humour could keep his “stress away” and get him engaged during lectures. His female course mate (TF2S2F) had a similar response and further indicated that their academic often does things to make them feel valued and appreciated. She also claimed that all of her course mates often feel positive as a result of her academic’s attempt to show empathy, and also understand their concerns.

Another male student indicated that he often responds positively when his academic attempts to make the lecture interesting. He expressed:

I like it when lecturers tell jokes. It makes the class more [pauses] cheerful? When lecturers tell jokes, and when I’m laughing, it tends to make you forget how boring the subject is. Sometimes you need a bit of a good laugh to make the subject exciting. (RF2S4M)

A handful of students also spoke about how they enjoyed attending their lectures, and appreciate the time and effort put into the preparation of the lectures. For instance, one student spoke said:

I always feel positive after attending [name of academic]’s lecture. He is fun and funny and he’s always making sure that we are enjoying the learning process. He understands that we are new to this university life and tries to make sure that we are all settled down. He- he makes us feel valued and appreciated. (TF2S3F)

Two others (TF2S1F and RF2S1M) said in short, “yeah I do feel happy attending his lectures cause he’s also very understanding and supportive. It makes us feel that he appreciates us” and, “When lecturers encourage you to speak in class, when they smile at you rather than frown all the time, and when they call your name, you feel like they truly care about you.”
Sub-theme 3.2: Students’ negative emotions and attitudes

Several students also admitted that whenever their academics attempt to influence them through negative acts such as sarcasm, criticism, or nagging, they would at times react negatively. Some students had expressed fear and sadness, while others experienced discomfort when academics were being sarcastic. For instance, a male student said:

When he’s sarcastic, I think everyone gets pretty scared and sometimes sad too. Some of us don’t do well with sarcasm so at the end of the class sometimes, people will talk about it. (TF2S5M)

He was not the only student who spoke about his academic’s use of sarcasm. Instead, his female course mate agreed on this and explained:

... when he is being sarcastic, it can make us feel 'ouch'. It's only funny when you are sarcastic with close friends. But I don't think it's appropriate for lecturers to be sarcastic. That's just how I personally feel. I don't normally react externally. I just keep it to myself. (TF2S3F)

Another student (TF2S1M) agreed, and said in brief, “... yes sarcasm can be painful at times.” Although they were all from the same teaching-focused university, one male student from a research-focused university felt the same way about his academic’s sarcastic remarks. He said:

When our lecturer is sarcastic, I feel um, um, ouch? Well of course I immediately react to the sarcasm. I don’t snap or anything. I normally just stop doing whatever that disturbed the lecturer and pay attention to him or her. I wish the lecturer wouldn’t use sarcasm though. (RF1S6M)

TF2S6M who expressed anger in response to her academic’s sarcasm said, “I don’t like it when he’s sarcastic. It’s not nice. Normally when he's being sarcastic, I- I normally feel angry but I try not to show it.” When asked how students felt after their lecture, a student from a research-focused university (RF1S5F) admitted that she felt
“angry”. She explained, “I didn’t like how [RF1FA2] conducts the class sometimes. I really hate it when [RF1FA2] is sarcastic with us.”

During the focus group session, two students from another teaching-focused university spoke about the negative experiences they had with other academics. They expressed:

_There’s this one lecturer who often comes in class shouting and scolding at us and making us miserable. I don’t know why she’s always angry. Not sure if it’s her way of making us scared and then she expects us to be on our toes all the time._ (TF1S3F)

_It is hard to understand things when the lecturer is emotional. ‘Selalu marah’ [Always angry]. I can never concentrate when lecturers are that way. You feel scared to learn rather than- rather than feeling excited to learn._ (TF1S4M)

The findings from this study also revealed that students felt negatively when they perceived their academic was faking their emotions. To illustrate, one student felt uncomfortable when his academic tries too hard to portray himself as a positive person during lectures. He believes that this was not the case. He said:

_Hmm. It’s true that he does try to hide his negative emotions during lectures. He tries to show that he’s happy and cool with us all the time which can at times be annoying and frustrating cause you know in reality, he doesn’t always feel that way. You can sense that you know, that feeling um, the negative energy although he tries hard to cover it up._ (TF2S5M)

Also, a student from a research-focused university was also suspicious that his academic was animated most of the time. He questioned his academic’s jovial behaviour and he felt that his academic was not expressing his true emotions. He explained in brief:

_I don’t think he’s like that. It’s very- not him. How does he expect us to be genuinely happy in class if he’s not really happy?_ (RF2S1M)
Meanwhile, a student from a research-focused university (RF2S5F) indicated that she normally experiences displeasure whenever her academic nags. She further compared her academic’s nagging to her father. She elaborated, “Sometimes when you’ve done something wrong, he makes things worst by nagging. He’ll compare you with other students who are doing better. I’m not really fond of that.”

**Theme 4: Effects of students’ responses on academics’ well-being**

Looking at the effects of students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour, findings revealed that students’ response influenced the well-being of the academics. Half of the student participants reported that there were changes in academics’ feelings when students were responsive (see Table 7.5). Students’ positive response was associated to academics’ positive emotions and well-being, and students’ negative response was associated to academics’ negative emotions and well-being.

**Table 7.5. Effects on academics’ well-being**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ responses to academics’ well-being</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>RF1S1M, RF1S2F, RF1S5F, RF1S6M, RF2S2F, RF2S4M, RF2S5F, TF1S1M, TF1S4M, TF2S2M, TF2S3F, TF2S6M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>RF1MA1, RF1MA2, TF1MA2, TF2MA2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To illustrate, academics became more enthusiastic, and energetic when students were (positively) responsive to their jokes.

> We are very responsive when she attempts to make us laugh. Even if at times, it isn't funny. Don't tell her though. We tend to laugh a lot in class and I could definitely tell that when we respond to her positively, she’ll laugh too and her face lights up. (TF1S1M)

On the same page, his course mate responded:

> I definitely have to agree with everyone else. When we respond to her positively, she’ll become even happier. (TF1S4M)
A student from another teaching-focused university also noticed that her academic became more active, and enthusiastic when students responded to his “silly jokes”. In her own words:

*I think he gets more active and enthusiastic whenever we laugh at his silly jokes. I mean, who wouldn’t right? (TF2S3F)*

Her course mate (TF2S6M) agreed and replied, “Yeah, when we respond positively [pauses] the way he expects it, he’ll become more energetic. During the focus group session, students did not only talk about how their positive response affected their academics’ emotions. They also spoke about how their academics became upset when students responded negatively. For instance, a male student stated:

*It can be an unusual thing to point a lecturer's fault in our culture. I know she's often surprised when I do that and um, she's probably upset too when I do that. She doesn't snap or anything but you could definitely tell that she is unhappy. (TF1S1M)*

Another (RF2S4M) said, “Yes, my lecturer gets disappointed when we are not responsive.”

Academics, when asked whether students’ response had any effect on their own feelings or well-being, agreed with the students’ assessments above. One academic (RF1MA2) admitted that it does influence how he feels, and how he teaches. He explained:

*It does affect me a lot. Their cooperation and understanding in class affects how I teach and the approach I use to teach. When they show that they are engaged even if they give a little nod, it motivates me to be more enthusiastic. Um, and also, when they buy my jokes, it makes me really happy too. In my heart, I’m like ‘I scored!’ I do get really disappointed when they don't respond to my jokes. Because you don't know the- the amount of effort I put into running a single lecture and managing different types of students. It can be extremely stressful and tiring. But you just got to do it. You know?*”
He also added:

Well, the way students respond to me positively affects my enthusiasm to teach them. It makes me want to share my experiences with them even more. If they show that they are interested, then I tend to become more interested in teaching as well. If not, I will feel the opposite. I will of course feel frustrated when they are not responsive. (RF1MA2)

His colleague (RF1MA1) also expressed that when students respond in a positive way, he will become “very energetic”. He further described that it could make him feel “good” and “happy” and that it signifies that he is doing a good job as an academic. As presented in the previous chapter, academics use humour to influence their students’ emotions. Quotations below illustrate how academics feel when students respond to their humour:

My jokes work well. No ‘creek creek’ moments. Students do laugh at my jokes regardless how silly it can be. You definitely feel great when you know that your jokes are received well. But negatively is when they remain silent when I ask them questions. I normally feel really sad when that happens. It’s like I don’t exist. And you feel like they don’t appreciate you. Yeah, I feel that way. It's not easy being a lecturer and trying to figure out how to make them active, make them engaged. It's all about putting their feelings first [pauses] and their wants and needs first. But- but this rarely happens. Very rare. Most of the time they engage positively. (RF1MA1)

I can never use humour in class. I tried but it never seems to work. When I say something that I think is funny, they won’t laugh. I just don’t know why. It frustrates me when that happens. (TF2MA2)

RF1MA1 further added:

... most of the time they do look like they are engaged. With their head nodding, their lips smiling, their eyes locked on you. They look like they are engaged but you never know deep down how they feel about you. No doubt
there are times when they don’t look like they are engaged. They look exhausted and sleepy. No doubt you feel sad and at the same time anxious that you failed to make them active.

Meanwhile, a male academic from a teaching-focused university (TF1MA2) had a more dramatic response. He admitted that when students do not respond according to his expectations, he would feel like he got “hit by a bus”. Most of these findings were consistent with the study conducted by (Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012). People may experience improved well-being when positive emotions are successfully regulated in others.

Theme 5: Effects of students' responses on academics' subsequent emotional labour

The effects of students’ responses on academics’ subsequent emotional labour was another theme expressed by most of the academics and students who participated in this study. The current study found that academic participants viewed students’ responses as an important driver of their subsequent emotional labour. Findings suggest that students’ responses either provide or threaten valued resources that their academics rely on for performing future emotional labour.

Table 7.6. Effects on subsequent emotional labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
<th>Number of academics</th>
<th>Participant codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ responses on academics’ subsequent emotional labour</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>RF1S2F, RF2S2F, TF1S5F, TF2S2M, TF2S4F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>RF1MA1, RF1MA2, RF2MA2, RF2FA1, TF1MA1, TF2MA2, TF1FA2,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students felt that when they attempt to improve their academics’ emotions, it lifted their academics’ spirit and improved their attitude. For instance, one of the students said:

*We can really tell that when we respond positively, she’ll be even more um, happy. She’ll continue doing things that she feels will bring out positive energy from us no matter how exhausted she looks. You know? It’s like a two way kind*
of thing. She makes us happy, we make her happy and it goes on and on.

(TF1S5F)

TF2S2M also spoke about how students’ response influences the strategies academics’ use to regulate their emotions. He said:

_I believe how we respond to our lecturers play an important role in how they express and control their emotions towards us._

Furthermore, a female student from a research-focused university (RF2S2F) suggested that when students respond positively and enthusiastically to their academic, the academic becomes more energetic and talkative. These findings resemble the emotion cycle model discussed by Hareli and Rafaeli (2008). Hareli and Rafaeli (2008) argued, “social and organizational interactions are rarely one-shot unidirectional interactions, and typically involve multiple iterations, meaning that emotion episodes constantly surface” (p. 53). That is, emotions of an individual can shape the emotions, behaviours, and attitudes of others, and that emotion operates in cycles that involve processes of reciprocal influence (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008).

Close to half of the academics spoke about what they did next in response to students’ feedback. One of the academics (TF2MA2) indicated that whenever his students do not respond the way he expects them to, he would normally feel angry but, avoid expressing it. He explained:

_Even when I’m angry inside, I just remind myself to keep it cool because it’ll affect my mood, my emotions the rest of my day. So I end up just ignoring things and carry on with my lecture. I just do what I have to do as a lecturer. Whatever that is right for them, and whatever that is right for me [pauses] even if it requires me to fake my emotions._

RF1MA1 also explained that he would normally pretend that he doesn’t feel hurt whenever his students find his jokes not funny. He said:

... _if I make jokes and they don’t laugh, well [pauses] I normally try to repeat the joke or do another joke. If that doesn’t work, I’ll either ignore and not_
attempt to make any more jokes, or I would keep them busy by asking them to discuss in small groups. No doubt I'll feel hurt but I just have to move on pretend that it didn't affect me.

Meanwhile, a female academic from a teaching-focused university (TF1FA2) also felt similarly. She tries to avoid feeling disappointed when her students found her jokes not funny to them. She explained, “I just carry on with the show after all, we are considered performers and the classroom is our stage. I carry on displaying emotions that students expect me to show.” Another academic from a research-focused university expressed, “I try to cover up my frustration by changing topics or something.” (RF1MA2)

As suppression of emotions (i.e., surface acting) is a highly effortful and therefore resource-intensive strategy (e.g., Holman et al., 2008), this means that the academic effectively invests further resources in emotional labour as a result of the negative feedback from students.

7.2 Discussion

This chapter has provided the results of five main themes about students’ responses to academics’ emotional labour and how these influence their academics’ well-being and subsequent emotional labour. The first and second themes built on the small but emerging theoretical perspective suggesting that targets of emotional labour may be active constituents in the process. Here, findings suggest that agents (i.e., academics) are not the only ones who manage their emotions and create desired emotional states in themselves and in their targets (i.e., students) (as presented in Chapter 6) but, targets too regulate their own and the agents’ emotions. Targets are equally active in the emotional labour process. Respectively, these themes revealed that students both initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation during the emotional labour process. Initiation of emotion regulation (engaged through the use of strategies to improve or worsen academics’ feelings) was mainly used to support students’ personal goals (e.g., gaining better marks or extensions on their work). Students initiate emotion regulation to either improve or worsen their academics’ emotions.

Reciprocation of emotion regulation (also engaged through the use of strategies to improve or worsen academics’ feelings) was often performed by students to match the (perceived) energy and effort invested by their academics
during lectures. The third theme looked students’ positive and negative emotions and attitude when responding to academics’ emotional labour, suggesting that on the whole students tended to respond relatively positively, but that negative responses occurred in response to some strategies (e.g., surface acting and sarcasm). The results of themes four and five further underscored the active and central role of targets in the emotional labour process, by highlighting how students’ responses to academics’ emotion regulation influenced academics’ well-being and subsequent emotion regulation, respectively. The findings under these themes suggested a cyclical and iterative feedback loop. Academics whose emotion regulation efforts were successful and appreciated elicited positive responses from students, which in turn fed back into enhanced well-being from academics and continued use of effective and positive emotion regulation. In contrast, when academics’ emotion regulation efforts were not appreciated by students, they elicited negative responses from students, which led to academics’ experiencing poorer well-being. This poorer well-being often led to the use of effortful strategies, such as surface acting, to hide the negative feelings elicited, which would likely consume academics’ resources and thus further deplete their well-being.

Further analysis suggests that improving academics’ emotions via intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation leads to the improvement of academics’ well-being. In order to achieve this, findings show that one of the types of emotion-improving strategies used by students is giving compliments. This was consistent with the classification of emotion regulations strategies suggested by Niven et al. (2009a). They identified that people give compliments to either improve or worsen others’ emotions (Niven et al., 2009a). Interestingly, findings suggest that most of the time students who attempt to improve their academics’ emotions do so with an ulterior motive. For instance, students who compliment their academics have the tendency to ask them for a favour once they have successfully improved their academics’ emotions. Although Côté, Hideg, et al. (2013) identified that people have hidden motives for strategically up-regulating others’ emotions, their study specifically looked at the consequences of faking anger in negotiations.

Not all emotion regulation was driven by hidden motives. Results show that although many students express a desire to base the regulation of their emotions on hedonic motives (i.e., to feel pleasure and avoid pain; Tamir, 2009), this is not the only motive that drives their attempts to regulate emotions. Students tend to regulate
their own and their academics’ emotions to improve the quality of their academic-student relationship. Also, students do so to show respect to those who are older (i.e., their academics) – consistent with the idea that Malaysians are collectivists and often preserve relationships. There were also evidences of students attempting to avoid or ignore their academics when their academics try to worsen the students’ emotions through sarcasm and punishment. This was mainly done to avoid escalating conflict (prevention motive; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013) and to save face (Gannon & Pillai, 2016)

Based on the overall findings, it can be seen that the intentions and strategies students use to initiate versus reciprocate emotion regulation differ. For instance, most of the time students initiate emotion regulation for the benefit of the academics. Students tend to use strategies that could improve their academics’ emotions (e.g., compliment) and not necessarily their own emotions. However, most of the time students reciprocate emotion regulation to improve their own emotions (e.g., avoid conflict) and not necessarily to improve their academics’ emotions. Findings suggest that some of the strategies used by the academics to regulate their students’ emotions (e.g., humour, distraction), were similar to those of the students. For instance, students also use positive humour to improve their academics’ emotions. Students tend to tell jokes to their academics for the purpose of making their academics feel good. Students too use distraction when trying to distract their attention away from unwanted situation when dealing with their academics. However there are strategies that were not mentioned by the academics but found in the student data. For instance, data shows that complimenting had a great impact on academics. Not only did it improve their academics’ emotions but it was one of the ways students use to get what they want from their academics such as getting an assignment deadline extension. This further suggests that Malaysian academics may practice high decision latitude but a search in the literature shows no such evidence.
CHAPTER 8 - FINDINGS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS 4: FACTORS INFLUENCING HOW ACADEMICS REGULATE EMOTIONS AND HOW STUDENTS RESPOND TO SUCH EFFORTS

8 Introduction

In this chapter, I aim to answer the fourth and final research question: What factors influence how academics regulate (their own and their students’) emotions and how students respond to such efforts? The emphasis in this analysis is on the factors that can affect encoding and decoding during emotional labour, influencing the strategies that academics select to regulate emotions and how these strategies are implemented, as well as influencing how students appraise and respond to those acts of regulation.

The same analysis approach as adopted in the previous two chapters (Chapter 6 and 7) was applied. An initial template was developed based on the literature review and findings of the pilot study. The identified three themes, each representing a different factor expected to influence the emotional labour process: academics’ gender, academics’ seniority, and the institutional context (i.e., teaching-focused versus research-focused university). Data provided by the academic sample during their one-to-one interviews were first analysed against this template, and then data from students during their focus groups and data from observations of lectures were analysed. Data were derived from two methods of analysis: 1) An electronic (using Mendeley software) and manual search (hard copy of the interview transcripts) for key words such as ‘male’, ‘female’, ‘senior’, and ‘junior’ and 2) A case analysis approach where I compared data such as male versus female to look into the differences and similarities between both data. This resulted in a refined final template (Figure 8.1) representing the key themes regarding this research question.

As can be seen in the final template, in addition to the three factors identified from the literature review, two additional factors – academics’ age and academics’ religion – were also seen as important in affecting the emotional labour process.

I begin with the presentation of findings derived from the academic data. This is followed by the analysis of the students’ data where all examples mentioned by students are fitted into the themes identified.
8.1 Gender

Based on the analysis conducted, it was apparent that this study’s findings were seemingly consistent with past literature that suggests gender plays a large impact on academics’ emotional labour. Comparing male and female academics’ responses, most of the female academics in the sample expressed an identification with a nurturing role and seemed to embrace a more ‘feminine’ style of emotional labour. For example, some of the female academics admitted that they wanted to be perceived and treated as a ‘mother’ or a ‘sister’ by their students. One female academic (RF1FA2) for instance described the teaching role like ‘parenting’ where she can sometimes be ‘tough’ to her students like a mother. But she also lamented:

> What students expect from me as a female lecturer? Well- I think they normally want us female lecturers to show that you love and care for them. But I don’t do that. I’m more of a tough love kind of person. Of course there are- there are some students I think maybe the tough love approach doesn’t work for them. They expect me to consistently pamper them and be nice to them. When I don’t do this, they do tend to talk about you behind your back. It’s of course sometimes upsetting. But you've got to do what you have to do. I try to control my negative feelings by bottling up or sweeping this sort of things under the carpet.

Another female academic (RF2FA2) indicated that whenever she wants to change her students’ behaviour, she would ‘nag’ them like a mother. A few male academics
had also described their female colleagues as ‘motherly’. One of them (RF2MA2) claims that, "Maybe female lecturers act more motherly with their students so they tend to be more approachable. Students tend to open up more with them.”

Other than being described as motherly, female academics were also identified as more ‘emotional’ than male academics by their students and male colleagues whenever they do not manage their emotions well. A male academic (RF2MA1) reported, “A student once told me that some of the female academics here can be emotional.” His female colleague (RF2FA2) also conformed that students do claim that female academics are more emotional but was defensive with such claims. She said:

Yes, I know that students think that us female lecturers are more emotional. But that is just rubbish. I don’t think that we are at all! You should never trust students as they are always complaining about others. (RF2FA2)

This finding reflects that reported in Lively's (2013) review where she described how female attorneys tend to view themselves as professional attorneys but those who they interact with may view them differently for instance, as a woman, or a even a girl.

Although most academics spoke about how gender influences how they interact with their students, two academics disagreed. One of them (TF2FA1) felt that there were no gender differences. The other academic (TF1MA2) claims that he has never had any issues with students treating him differently as a male academic. He said, “I think I am gender fluid. To me, gender is never an issue... I think most of my students are pretty comfortable interacting with me.”

One interesting finding was that although men are often observed as someone who would receive more respect by customers due to their authority (see Hochschild, 1983), the findings here mainly show that female academics gained more respect from students than men despite being described as ‘emotional’. A male academic confirmed this and said:

With female lecturers, students tend to speak to you more politely. They are more respectful. At least from my observation. Not saying that they are
disrespectful towards male lecturers but they tend to joke around with male lecturers. They are less serious with male lecturers. (TF2MA2)

While a female academic (RF1FA1) mentioned, “Yeah, I mean I think students still respect us female lecturers. I don’t think I’ve had any major issues with them.”

The findings also suggest that both male and female academics perform emotional labour but of different kinds and intentions. The evidence from this study suggests that female academics tend to display more positive emotions compared to male academics. For example, a female academic (TF1FA2) indicated that she normally displays positive emotions such as happiness and tenderness but rarely negative emotions such as anger. Her colleague also mentioned the same. She said:

*I know people view us female lecturers ‘emotional’. But I think I tend to express more positive emotions compared to negative emotions. I don’t like it when students bump into me and- and they are either scared of me or they hate me. I want them to like me. I don’t mind them viewing me as um, perhaps their mother or sister or even friend. (TF1FA1)*

Another female academic admitted that it takes more effort to interact with her students compared to her colleagues. She said:

*Ugh, yes, it takes more effort for me to interact with my students. You have to think about how they feel about you, you have to think about what they will think of you, you have to think about what they might do to you like report about me to the Dean or something. So many things. Unlike with colleagues, it’s fine if they like you or hate you. I mean um- well yeah I won’t go any further [laughs]. (TF2FA2)*

Male academics on the other hand felt the opposite. They admitted to expressing more neutral and negative emotions to their students. Two of them explained:

*I don’t like getting too close to my students. Not just me but I think other male lecturers tend to avoid expressing ‘softy’ emotions. Meaning that we don’t really like showing our love and affection towards our students. (TF2MA2)*
And

*Yeah female lecturers are more concerned with how students think of them. Like for male lecturers, I think we get off the hook a lot easier. Students don’t really care about what we say and do to them and what we express. At the end of the day, what’s more important is to get the knowledge across.* (RFMA1)

Also, findings presented in Chapter 6 and 7 suggests that male academics suppress emotions more than female academics but female academics reported more the need to recover from emotional labour (e.g., praying). However, both male and female described the use of both emotion-improving and emotion-worsening strategies during interactions with their students. One of the common strategies male and female academics tend to use to improve their students’ emotions is positive humour (e.g., acting silly to make the students laugh). In terms of emotion-worsening strategies, findings suggest that male academics tend to punish their students more compared to female academics. Also, female academics reported more use of negative humour in the form of sarcasm to worsen their students’ emotions.

As for student data, further analysis showed that the majority of the students felt that female academics do possess “motherly” characteristics. TF2S3F claimed that female academics are more motherly compared to male academics. A male student (TF2S6M) agreed, indicating that female academics tend to portray themselves as a ‘mother’. In his own words:

*I think female lecturers are more indirect when they speak. And I think they try to be motherly compared to male lecturers. So when I say motherly, they do like to nag like mothers...*

On the whole, students felt that female academics are more emotionally expressive and that men tend to express more neutral emotions. For instance one of the male students in a teaching-focused university said:

*Yeah there are some differences between female lecturers versus male lecturers.... Female lecturers can be more emotional compared to male lecturers who are often more cool and laidback.* (TF1S1M)
Another student (TF2S5M) indicated, “I think female lecturers are more emotional compared to male lecturers. Male lecturers are more cool. They don’t react quickly compared to female lecturers.” Two of his course mates (TF2S1F and TF2S4F) also spoke about female academics and described them as “moody”.

Furthermore, findings of this study suggest that male and female students have different expectations of their academics. For instance, most of the female students mentioned that they wanted more attention from their academics. One female student for instance mentioned:

*Sometimes we feel like our lecturers are neglecting us. The relationship that we form is more like a ‘touch and go’ kind of relationship. You meet them during lectures, you seem them in the hallway. That’s pretty much it. To be honest, I want them to spend more time with us and listen to our problems. I want them to understand how we feel emotionally and not be selfish.* (RF1S3F)

Her course mate agreed and replied, “It’s true. I want my lecturers to be more empathic.”

### 8.2 Seniority

Other than gender, academics’ seniority (i.e., academics’ hierarchical position) has an influence on their use of emotion regulation. A search for key words such as “senior” and “junior” and comparing interview transcripts between junior versus senior academics, I found that both junior and senior academics perform emotional labour but of different kinds. For instance, senior academics often express emotions that reflected their power and status such as anger and sarcasm towards their students. They also tend to use more surface acting compared to junior academics. Also, majority of the senior academics in the present study reported less exposure to negative emotional experiences compared to junior academics, due to students having higher respect for those who hold higher positions in the university. One of the senior academics (RF1MA1) said:

*... yes they choose their words and emotions selectively before communicating with us. They are more careful with us to avoid hurting our feelings. This is*
normally not the case when it comes to them interacting with young or junior lecturers.

He later added, “Students definitely act differently with those with a higher position compared to junior position.” Similarly, his male senior colleague (RF1MA2) said that students tend to be scared of academics in a senior position but at the same time, they get better respect from students compared to junior academics. He further reported:

... You get less students coming to see you because- [pauses] because they perceive the senior academics are more serious, strict, and probably scary compared to the young or new academics. Of course it means that you deal with less drama. So basically when you are at the senior level, and you have more experience, you have more knowledge on how to deal with your students especially their emotions. You know what to say to make them feel good or make them feel bad.

A junior academic from a teaching-focused university (TF2FA1) indicated that students tend to treat her in a less formal, more casual and playful manner. She finds it difficult to handle her students as they do not take her seriously. She blamed this issue on her junior position, explaining:

As a junior lecturer, I think students are more casual with me. And playful too. It can at times be very annoying because they don’t take you seriously although you try to show that you are. Whenever I scold them or raise my voice, some students will laugh. Thinking that I’m just joking around. With senior lecturers, I can see that they are more polite and respectful.

For RF1FA2, another junior academic, her job as an academic not only involved imparting knowledge but also to make her students feel ‘happy’, and ‘comfortable’ with their environment regardless of what she feels. She said:

I try my best to be cool with them... Nevermind how we feel. It’s always a great feeling when students recognise you and they are close to you. And later when
you see your students get good grades and graduate, all the negative feelings that you’ve been bottling up will suddenly disappear. Suffer now, and be happy later. I know you might disagree with me on this but that’s how I feel.

Excerpts from the interviews suggest that junior academics felt that they had to put more effort when dealing with their students especially if they wanted to be liked and respected by their students. Meanwhile, from a senior academic’s view, he revealed that junior academics often try to get students’ ‘approval’. He said:

When you’re a junior, and you’re young, you tend to want to think the way students think. You want them to like you rather than the other way around. You constantly want to get their approval. I know it sounds weird but it’s the reality these days. Students are now your customer and you have to serve them. (TF1MA2)

Meanwhile a young academic (TF2MA1) who claims that he is quite popular and laidback provided an example of how difficult suppressing his emotions can be. He explained that students tend to respond based on the emotions that academics display and admitted that he has no choice but to be kind to his students in order to make them like him. He warned that if students were unhappy, they would post about the negative experience on social media. He further said:

Of course I try my best to be kind to my students and get them to like me even if there are days that I don’t feel like it. You really have no choice. But I don’t know in the long run. Probably they would respond to me differently if I become a senior lecturer.

Students also spoke about the differences between junior versus senior academics. Most of the students stated a preference for junior academics as junior academics are mostly young and they could relate to the students easily. But at the same time, students said that they felt that senior academics were more capable in handling the students professionally due to the years of work experience as an academic. For instance, a male student indicated:
His course mate (TF1S2F) on the other hand explained:

Yes, there are differences. I don’t think it has anything to do with being young and old. It’s more of whether you can put yourself in our shoes or not. One of the older lecturers this semester is as engaging as [name1]. For her, I think it comes with experience. If I’m not mistaken, she has been working as a lecturer for more than 15 years? Can’t remember. So I’m sure she has dealt with so many students over the years and can understand how we think and behave.

One of their course mates (TF1S6M) also spoke about the differences between junior versus senior academics. He first indicated that junior academics were more likely to treat students as a friend. He then spoke about they are more approachable, friendly, and open-minded than senior academics. He further revealed that junior academics are always trying their best to impress the students and they also put more effort in teaching which encourages the students to participate further in class. Meanwhile a student from another teaching-focused universities (TF2S6M) revealed that junior academics tend to put more effort to get students to like them even if it means allowing them to be part of their social media. The student revealed:

Younger ones will try hard to get us to like them compared to older ones. Younger lecturers will ask to follow us on their Instagram and Twitter. They try hard to connect with us inside and outside the uni.

One of his course mates (TF2S4F) also felt the same way. She highlighted that junior academics tend to be more enthusiastic and energetic and they also try hard to grab students’ attention. She further indicated, “They will try hard to show that they are approachable and open-minded. It is funny sometimes but yeah older or senior lecturers are more serious. They have this kind of follow-by-the-book kind of style. There’s no room to fool around.” A student (TF2S3F) also revealed that junior academics are afraid of hurting students’ feelings. She said:

I think young lecturers are more afraid of hurting our feelings so they conceal more negative emotions to ensure that we are engaged. It could be just me. But
this is what I think. Senior lecturers are more bold and brave. If they don’t like something, they will say things directly.

In terms of the academic role, RF2S5F claimed that senior academics are more traditional in the way they teaching, grade their assignments, and interact with students. She further stated, “They don’t play around too much with our emotions compared to junior lecturers who often ensure that we are feeling positive all the time in their class.”

8.3 Institution type

The current study also attempted to look at whether the different types of institution (research- versus teaching-focused) had an influence on how academics regulate their own and their students’ emotions. Although none of the academics had directly mentioned that institution type influences their choice of emotion regulation strategies, however, based on the data in Chapter 6 and 7, it seems like more academics from teaching-focused universities use deep acting while those in research-focused universities use surface-acting. Furthermore, there were more academics from research-focused universities reporting the use of emotion-worsening strategies. Also, both academics from teaching-focused and research-focused universities reported similar amounts of use of emotion-improving strategies.

Although this was the case, two academics from a teaching-focused reported that they experience more negative events than academics in research-focused universities (e.g., students trying to ask for an extension, students being rude). One of the academics from the teaching-focused university (TF2FA1) claimed that the long teaching hours given by the university enabled her to learn how to handle her students better through experience. She said:

... we have more classes compared to other lecturers from other universities. This means that we deal a lot more with students on a daily basis. It was tricky at first but when you have a lot of classes, you tend to get used to dealing with students. You become an expert in understanding what students think and what they want from you. You also become extra careful with what you say and do to avoid hurting their feelings.
Her colleague (TF2FA2) also spoke about the long teaching hours and how she is expected surface act by maintaining her composure during lectures. She described:

I think I’m pretty close to my students because I see them often in my lectures every week. This semester I got 18 contact hours. Some semesters I see the same students twice a week. Depending what I teach during that semester. If you ask me, at times, they can be cool kids but other times they can really test you. Sometimes you feel like storming off you know what I mean? But you just can’t. You’re not allowed to. Also, I can’t bare to face the consequences. If the students complain to the upper management, you’ll be dead. The only way to get these students to change is to use sarcasm. They can tell that you are being sarcastic which is a good thing. [laughs]

TF2FA2 on the other hand illustrated surface acting on the job through her description of handling misbehaving students.

Being part of this university, I feel that I am expected to deal with misbehaving students openly, as if nothing happened. I was told during the start of my career as a lecturer that I’m not supposed to scold or get angry at students because otherwise they will report it to the Vice Chancellor. I have to handle my emotions out of sight and without affecting students. Sometimes I feel like screaming and shouting but I just can’t. I’m not allowed to.

Meanwhile an academic from a research-focused university (RF1MA2) illustrated:

I only have three classes a week but I have other responsibilities such as research and admin work which takes up a lot of my time [pauses] I don’t normally get to form a proper relationship with my students unlike universities with higher teaching hours. But with the hectic work schedule, I don’t think I have time to be all friendly and emotional with my students. But of course, they are good students.
There were not many differences found in terms of the responses between students in teaching-focused versus research-focused universities. One of the few findings discovered during the analysis is that students in research-focused universities had less complaints and demands regarding their academics. For example, RF2S1M indicated during the focus group session that he is not concerned with forming a good relationship with his academic. In his own words:

I don’t really expect that much from my lecturers other than them teaching me. I don’t mind if we’re not close or anything. I know that my friends from [name of a teaching-focused university] are super close with their lecturers. But I guess for this university, it is different? But again, I am fine with the way it is now.

Meanwhile a female academic from another research-focused university (RF1S3F) had mentioned that she understands the different roles and expectations of academics in research universities versus teaching-focused universities. She said:

There are definitely differences between lecturers here and there [teaching-focused university] so I’ve made my choice to be here so I can’t complain. Students there [teaching-focused university] ada lagi banyak kelas [have more classes]. Sometimes you do feel sad that lecturers here are busy. And that they don’t spend enough time with their students although they don’t teach as much as the other universities. But definitely no regrets.

Findings also suggest that students from research-focused universities were also better at accepting their academics’ negative remarks (e.g., sarcasm). For instance, one of the students mentioned:

I am OK with lecturers being sarcastic. I don’t think it’s much of a big deal. It’s not like they are totally neglecting us or anything. (RF2S4M)

His course mate (RF2S5F) agreed and replied, “Yes, that’s true. No biggie.”
Students also expressed a belief that academics from research-focused universities were less concerned about their students. For instance, one of the students (RF2S2F) revealed:

... it’s hard to set an appointment to meet him [academic]. He’s either busy with doing research or got another meeting. I mean I wouldn’t say that this is a negative thing. I totally understand that lecturers have other things to do but it’s almost impossible to catch him outside our lecture. So I would say that is one thing that I don’t really like. That he doesn’t make any time for us that much.

Another student indicated:

... he’s always busy with his research. I mean there’s nothing wrong with that but it's just that sometimes some of us prefer reaching out to him after lecturers but normally once the lecture is done, he's always away. It can be frustrating at time especially when you have important questions to ask him.

Although factors such as gender, seniority, and institution type were mainly looked at, other factors that emerged are age, and religion.

8.4 Age

Past studies have looked at age as a factor that influences emotional labour. Although this was the case, only a handful of academics spoke about how age might have an influence on how they interact with their students. For instance, one academic remarked that his students behave differently based on his age rather than his position. He said:

I believe that students treat me differently because I am a young lecturer. They don’t care whether I’m a lecturer or anything. Once they see you that you’re young and you look the same age as them, that professional wall suddenly disappears. (TF2MA1)

Another academic reported:
Students see the young ones more approachable and friendly but they can also be too casual and at times rude with them. They think that once students are buddies with lecturers, there will no longer be a professional wall between them.

Meanwhile a female academic felt that as she grows older, and the age gap between her and her students becomes bigger, students start to act differently. She said,

...as years go by, the age gap is starting to become bigger. So I started to see that most of my students are sometimes reluctant to joke around when I’m around because they feel that maybe I don’t understand what they are talking about. What kind of joke are they making about, the slang that they are using.

Perhaps one of the most interesting findings to emerge from the interviews was how young academics were more concerned with how they express their emotions and represent themselves in front of their students. Findings suggest that young academics were more concerned with pleasing students in order to be liked. They were more likely to express positive and suppress negative emotions to their students in order to get students to like them, believing that any spontaneous expression of their own emotions might affect their relationship with their students. A young academic who earlier said that students were less respectful with her also revealed:

... without us junior [young] lecturers openly talking about it and making things obvious, we- well the environment here is like we are running a popularity contest. Junior [young] lecturers want students to like them and perceive them as cool. And this of course involves bottling up our true feelings so that we don't show this to our students. The senior [older] lecturers on the other hand are not concerned with students liking them or not. They have been around longer than us so they are popular in their own way. Mostly because they are more experienced, older, and wiser.

Meanwhile another academic had said:
Young lecturers are more approachable. They try to get us engaged as much as they can. They are more enthusiastic and energetic compared to senior [older] lecturers. (TF1S1M)

8.5 Religion
Another factor that emerged from the findings is religion. Past literature has considered ways in which emotional labour may be influenced by a person’s religion or spirituality (e.g., Byrne, Morton, & Dahling, 2011; Dahling & Johnson, 2013). For example, Dahling and Johnson (2013) indicated that most religions call for the expression of integrative, supportive emotions toward others. Honouring these values is considered a high-level personal goal for religious people (Dahling & Johnson, 2013).

Based on the academics’ data, around a third of the academics felt that religion played some role in helping manage their emotions. One male academic (RF2MA2) spoke about how religion helps him suppress his negative emotions when dealing with his students. He said:

When you hold on to your religion, you're always thinking about what's good for the students. What you can do to help them. In Islam and in fact, in any other religions, we are not supposed to treat others negatively so in a way, Islam helps rationalise my thinking and avoid me from doing anything that I will regret later either to my students, my colleagues, or anyone around me. Yes, it would mean that at times, I have to hold any negative emotions that I'm feeling but like I said earlier, I do a lot of Islamic coping mechanisms to help me with this. (RF2MA2)

Four other academics also felt the same way, with one of them (RF1MA1) indicating that praying helps keep him sane and divert his negative energies elsewhere. His female colleague (RF1FA2) agreed in a separate interview that praying helps her to vent. Another academic who also spoke about venting said:

Praying helps release all the negative energies that you've bottled up during class. Instead of releasing it to your students, you communicate your feelings with God instead. (TF1MA2)
Finally another academic (TF2FA1) who mentioned about religion had said, “In terms of management, well, normally to make me feel calmer and relaxed, I pray and also go grab a coffee with my colleagues. It helps calm me down on rough and tough days.”

Meanwhile in terms of student data, a few students mentioned that religion prevents them from attempting to worsen their academics’ emotions. For instance, one of the students indicated:

*In Islam, teachers are placed in a high position. Meaning that we have to have a high respect for them. We can’t be rude to them or any negative things in general. So yeah Islam does prevent me from being disrespectful to all of my lecturers.* (TF1S2F).

Her friend agreed and added, “Yes, that’s right. We have to always be respectful regardless of whether they are mean to us or anything.” Also a student from another teaching-focused university mentioned the same, “Every time I think about what God would think of me if I react negatively to my lecturers, it prevents me from doing so.”

### 8.6 Discussion

In this final findings chapter, I explored the factors that could influence how academics regulate their emotions and how students respond to their emotional efforts. Factors that have emerged during the analysis include gender, seniority, institution type, and religion. Some of these factors have also been identified in past research (see Chapter 2 for review). Past studies have shown that men and women use different displays when engaging in emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983; Simpson & Stroh, 2004). In this study, two surprising findings emerged in relation to gender. The first, that some of the female academics deliberately choose to be viewed by their students as ‘motherly’ or ‘sisterly’. Past studies suggest that women are typically forced to display motherly characteristics even if they do not feel like it (Bellas, 1999; Hochschild, 1983; Pierce, 1999). However, this study suggested otherwise. Rather than being forced, several female academics mentioned that they were willing to put more effort in being viewed positively by their students and also
well liked by them. The second surprising finding, that although studies show that women are pressured to express positive emotions, findings suggest that female academics also frequently use sarcasm and harsh disciplinary practice to worsen their students’ emotions.

Other than gender, this study also found that junior academics were more willing to perform emotional labour in order to become ‘popular’ among their students. Junior academics reported that they tended to suppress negative emotions in order to display positive emotions when interacting with their students. However, this was not the case for senior academics especially those from research-focused universities. They were less concerned with how their students view them. Such a difference may be due to the senior academic’s long work experience that allows them to be more capable in handling their students.

Meanwhile, findings regarding the different types of institutions further suggested that academics with higher teaching hours (i.e., those at teaching-focused universities) reported more use of deep acting compared to those at research-focused universities. Although national culture has been identified by past researchers that could influence the way people perform emotional labour surprisingly, in this study, none of the academics had directly admitted that culture was one of the underlying factors that could shape the way they regulate their emotions. Instead, the academics and students frequently brought up religion as one of the key factors. For instance, several academics indicated that they perform prayers to improve their emotions while students on the other hand indicated that religion prevents them from expressing negative emotions.

The following chapter presents the discussion of the results. This is followed by the contributions of the research to theory and practice. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the research and recommendations for future research efforts.
CHAPTER 9 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

9 Introduction
This thesis sought to provide an in-depth understanding of the process of emotional labour within the context of academic-student relationships in higher education. The thesis began by introducing the phenomenon of emotional labour, which refers to efforts made by employees to regulate their own and their customers’ feelings as part of their job role. Different perspectives and research on emotional labour were discussed, and four central research questions pertaining to core gaps in the literature were posed concerning: (i) how academics perform emotional labour to engage students; (ii) how students respond to and initiate and reciprocate emotion regulation in the emotional labour process; (iii) how students’ feedback and regulation influences academics; and (iv) factors that influence the use and effects of emotional labour. A qualitative methodology was adopted for this thesis. Four case study universities in Malaysia were selected for participation in the research. Within each university, one-to-one interviews were conducted with academics, focus groups were conducted with students, and observations were made of lectures involving a subset of the participants. The participating universities varied according to their focus (research versus teaching) and the academics according to their gender (male versus female) and seniority (senior versus junior). Students on the other hand varied according to their gender (male versus female) and they were all first year undergraduate students. Template analysis was applied to the data to address each of the four research questions, presented across three findings chapters (Chapter 6 to 8).

In this final chapter, I aim to synthesise the results reported in the previous chapters, in order to draw conclusions about the emotional labour process as it applies to academics working in higher education, specifically within the Malaysian higher education context. I begin this chapter by presenting the key theoretical and practical contributions of this thesis. The contributions are discussed based on the empirical results and findings of this research pertaining to the use of (intra- and interpersonal) emotion regulation strategies by academics, the active role played by students in the emotional labour process, and the motives that drive the academic and students’ use of emotion regulation. The key limitations of the research will then be outlined. I then offer some suggestions for future research that arose from the findings. Finally, I provide a brief conclusion to end this chapter.
9.1 Theoretical contributions
In this section, I will identify this study’s contributions to the theory and literature by corroborating current knowledge and presenting new insights into emotional labour based from the findings of this study. Contributions to knowledge are presented in subsections under the following subheadings: New model of emotional labour, Group relationship, and Contribution to knowledge in the higher education.

9.1.1 New model of emotional labour
Based on the findings presented in Chapter 6 to 8, I introduce a new model of emotional labour, the ‘Emotional labour process model in the Malaysian context’ (see Figure 9.1 below). This model is presented as the first key contribution of this study. The model was formed based on the cyclical nature of emotional labour alongside the idea that both the agent (i.e., academics) and target (i.e., students) play an active role in the emotional labour process. That is, when an academic regulates his or her own, and the emotions of the students, students will in turn respond to these emotional efforts. This is based on the notion that emotions operate in cycles as depicted in Hareli and Rafaeli’s (2008) emotion cycles model. Emotion cycles take the focus of emotional display away from a within-person view, and instead, focuses on the reciprocal interpersonal influence of emotion (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). In other words, emotion cycles reveal how the emotional displays of an agent can influence and shape the emotions of others (i.e., the target) (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008).

The findings of this study suggest that the notion of emotion cycles might extend to emotional labour, such that ‘emotional labour cycles’ occur. For instance, one of the important findings of this study is that emotional labour is seen as a dynamic and interactive process. Past research has typically assumed that targets of emotional labour are somewhat passive in the process, simply functioning as a target towards whom agents direct their emotional labour efforts. However, the agent and target in this study (i.e., academics and their students) both actively regulate their own, and one another’s emotions. This ‘active’ process is presented in the model where both the academic and students are connected via the dotted lines or better known as the ‘feedback loop’ (see Figure 9.1).

The emotion regulation of the academic and student can serve to influence one another’s emotions during the emotional labour process. When academics use some kind of emotion regulation strategy, it is likely to improve or worsen their
students’ emotions and vice versa. Students may act in kind and this feeds into the academics’ energy resources (Côté, 2005; Holman et al., 2008a) and shapes the academics’ subsequent emotional labour to further regulate the students’ emotions. In line with the idea of emotional labour cycles, in a review conducted by Gracia and Ashkanasy (2014), they view emotional labour as a reciprocal process where both the agent and target are active in the process. The target plays an additional role in helping the agent perform emotional labour appropriately and effectively and in addition, the target may provide feedback to the agent whether they should maintain or modify their future emotion regulation strategy (Gracia & Ashkanasy, 2014). This view is also consistent with earlier theoretical research that discuss targets as potentially active (Côté, 2005; Gracia & Ashkanasy, 2014; Niven et al., 2013) and that the interactions between agents and targets should be viewed as a ‘two-way’ transaction (Niven et al., 2013).

In addition, this model recognises the combined or sequentially use of intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation in performing emotional labour. As previously highlighted the majority of research on emotional labour has focused on one approach to fulfilling display rules (intrapersonal emotion regulation) (Grandey, 2000). However, findings presented in this thesis suggests that agents not only regulate their own emotions through strategies such as surface acting and/or deep acting, but they also deliberately regulate their targets’ emotions (interpersonal emotion regulation) via strategies that could either enhance or worsen their emotions (e.g., positive or negative humour). These findings will be discussed in relation to the new model in the following sections.
The model components

Malaysian cultural context

A central feature of the emotional labour model (Figure 9.1) is the Malaysian cultural context. Previous research and theory suggest that culture has a major influence on emotion regulation (Kwon, Yoon, Joormann, & Kwon, 2013; Miyamoto, Ma, & Petermann, 2014; Thoits, 1996; von Scheve, 2012). These studies mostly looks at the differences between supposedly “collectivist” Asian and “individualist” Western groups. This study however features primarily Malaysians. In collectivistic cultures, social harmony is more valued than personal self-expression (Gagne & Deci, 2005), whereas in individualist cultures, they value self-expression (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2009). Furthermore, the expression of anger tend to be relatively acceptable in individualistic cultures whereas such expressions are perceived as inappropriate in collectivistic cultures as it could pose a threat to group harmony (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006).

Although Malaysians are known as collectivistic culture and those who practice high power distance (Hofstede, 1983, 2011; Ibrahim, 2007; Ting-Toomey,
1999), surprisingly in this study none of the academics had mentioned that culture is considered as one of the underlying factors that could shape the way they regulate their emotions. Instead, the academics and students frequently brought up religion as one of the key factors. For instance, several academics indicated that they perform prayers to improve their emotions while students on the other hand indicated that religion prevents them from expressing negative emotions.

Evidence show that religion affects the motives that academics have and the types of strategies they choose to engage in during the emotional labour process. Although only a few academics had mentioned religion (i.e., Islam) during the interview, the way religion was described showed that Islam has a powerful influence in their daily lives especially how they rationalise the type of strategies that they should use when regulating their own and their students’ emotions. Academics who mentioned religion reported that religion prevent them from expressing negative emotions and attempting to worsen the emotions of their students. Also, findings suggest that they were able to perform emotional labour with less effort. For instance, one male academic indicated that religion helps him express more positive emotions and suppress negative emotions. This is consistent with Byrne, Morton, and Dahling (2011) where they indicated that, “Emotional labor might be influenced by a person’s experiences with religion and spirituality” (p. 300). Although this might be the case, these findings could also relate to the general Malaysian cultural context as there are similarities between religious and cultural practices such as the need to respect others and maintain social harmony. This context is represented in the model by the bidirectional arrows linking academics and students motives, suggesting that culture could have a large impact on the academic and students’ motives for emotion regulation.

**Academics’ motives for emotion regulation**

As shown in Figure 9.1, findings in this study suggest that there are different types of motives that drive academics’ emotion regulation. The motives found can be classified as, work motives and personal motives. This provided support for prior findings that service workers have their own motives for emotion regulation rather than simply adhering to display rules (Niven, 2016; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013; von Gilsa, Zapf, Ohly, Trumpold, & Machowski, 2014).
i. To engage students

One of the work-related motivations for emotion regulation identified by academics was to engage students in their learning. Several academics asserted that during lectures, it is important for them to detach from emotions that are not suitable for teaching and learning environment. In particular, some of the academics believe that it is important to display only positive emotions and conceal negative ones on the job even if it means that they have to ‘fake it’ to achieve these emotions. This ‘frontstage’ performance is identified by Hochschild (1983) as surface acting. The academics justified their use of surface acting in order to keep their students happy and engaged during lectures. This is supported by numerous studies that suggest interpersonal emotion regulation as crucial for teachers (R. E. Sutton et al., 2009) and instructors (Evert A. Van Doorn, Van Kleef, & Van der Pligt, 2014) who are expected to manage their students’ emotions to shape their learning performance.

This study also found that academics across four participating universities identified similar strategies they use to get students engaged during lectures. The most effective and mentioned strategy to produce more desirable responses in students is positive humour. Positive humour is a powerful strategy to generate positive emotions and promote engagement in students. More than half of the academic participants reported that they tell jokes and act silly with their students for the purpose of entertaining them even when at times they do not feel like it. Other emotion-improving strategies that were mentioned include giving students exciting tasks (e.g., role play) to ensure that students remain active during lectures. Indeed, the majority of the academics indicated that they felt better when students were responsively to their emotional labour efforts. For instance, one of the female academics indicated that when students laugh at her jokes, it made her feel more excited to carry on with her lecture and help engage the students even further.

Despite the desire to elicit pleasant changes in their students, academics reported that their attempt to improve their students’ emotions are not always successful. Improving their students’ emotions can be effortful and exhausting as at times when students are not responsive, academics feel the need to put more effort in (e.g., telling more jokes). Academics who gave up trying to please their students often resorted to using surface acting (e.g., pretending that they are not upset) to carry on with the rest of their lecture. Given that prior research has found that surface acting is not only less effective than other forms of emotion regulation, but that it is
also more effortful (e.g., Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Oerlemans, & Koszucka, 2017), academics who gave up their attempts may therefore have become locked into a downwards energy spiral, requiring a greater amount of ‘backstage’ recovery to recoup their lost resources.

These findings are consistent with the wider body of evidence concerning the importance of feedback from customers in the emotional labour process as a means of offsetting lost resources (Holman et al., 2008b). As Martínez-Íñigo, Mercado, and Totterdell (2015) suggest, the feedback from targets may act as a source of recovery from resources depleted by self-regulation effort during interpersonal emotion regulation.

ii. To conform to gender roles
Another work-related motivation behind academics’ emotion regulation is to conform to gender roles. Findings suggest that both male and female academics perform emotional labour but of different kinds and intentions. Consistent with previous studies, several female academics reported that they engage in “mothering” behaviours (e.g., nurturing, caring) due to the expectations that women should possess “motherly” characteristics (Guy & Newman, 2004; R. E. Sutton & Harper, 2009). Female academics put more thought and effort into the selection of emotion regulation strategies when interacting with their students. For instance, they try to exhibit more emotions that show that they are friendly and caring during lectures although this may not always be the case. Findings also suggest that female academics express more positive emotions compared to male academics. This may be due to female academics being more concerned with how they are viewed and perceived by their students (e.g., as a mother, sister) compared to male academics. In terms of male academics, findings show that they were less concerned with the consequences of the emotions that they display to their students therefore they often express more negative emotions such as anger. The findings were also consistent with previous studies that suggest male academics are expected to avoid displaying certain type of emotions on the job such as affection (S. E. Martin, 1999; Pierce, 1999).

Although this may mostly be the case, findings also show that academics deliberately construct their identity to make their students treat them a certain way (i.e., like a mother, or friend). For instance, several female academics reported that
they try to act like a ‘mother’ or a ‘friend’ to their students and some even admitted that they expect their students to treat them that way. One of the participants had said, “…I want them to like me. I don’t mind them viewing me as um, perhaps their mother or sister or even friend.” This may suggest that academics see themselves in a certain way and want to confirm that identity internally and to construct it externally through self-verification via their students. This finding echoes Niven's work (2016) where she indicated that one of the key motivations that underlies people’s use of interpersonal emotion regulation is identity construction to enhance one’s sense of self.

iii. To conform to hierarchical expectations
Other than gender, academics’ seniority or hierarchical expectations can also influence academics’ use of emotion regulation. In the Malaysian education system, within most research-focused universities, all academics hold a doctorate degree (PhD) and the difference between junior versus senior academics is the amount of years of work experience they have. In contrast, in most teaching-focused universities, the difference between junior versus senior academics is that they do not hold a PhD.

In this study, findings suggest that both junior and senior academics perform emotional labour, but of different kinds. Senior academics often express emotions that can reflect their power and status, including anger, sarcasm, and other negative emotions. Those with lower status on the other hand tend to express less negative emotions. This may be due to the greater position power that seniors hold (Humphrey et al., 2008; Morris & Feldman, 1997) that allow them more freedom to express emotions (S. Ma et al., 2015). Or perhaps so the findings may be linked to the following motive which is the academics’ strive to become popular among their students (explained further in the next section). Most of the junior academics reported that they often display appropriate emotions in order to be liked by their students.

iv. To become popular
Earlier on I indicated that academics not only have work-related motives but they also have personal motives for emotion regulation that could help satisfy their personal goals while being at work. One of the personal motives that were frequently
mentioned by the junior academics is the desire to gain acceptance and approval from their students. In other words, junior academics admitted that the reason why they regulate their emotions is to become ‘popular’ among their students. During their interviews, the academics had highlighted that they try to make their students to like them by using positive interpersonal emotion regulation strategies. Often they would withhold any negative felt emotions and express only appropriate emotions such as happiness and pride. This differs to senior academics’ response where they indicated that they were less concerned with being popular among their students. As presented in Chapter 8, one of the junior academics had said:

*Junior [young] lecturers want students to like them and perceive them as cool. And this of course involves bottling up our true feelings so that we don’t show this to our students. The senior [older] lecturers on the other hand are not concerned with students liking them or not. They have been around longer than us so they are popular in their own way. Mostly because they are more experienced, older, and wiser.*

In a study conducted by Scott and Judge (2009), they concluded that being popular brings benefits towards a person including getting more favourable treatment from others and the ability to influence others’ behaviours more easily. This may be true in the present context. Findings show that academics deliberately make students like them so that they would receive better treatment from their students. To become popular, Niven, Garcia, van der Löwe, Holman, and Mansell (2015) suggest that interpersonal emotion regulation may play an important role in achieving this.

v. To humiliate students

Next, another motive that does not reflect work-related motives is academics’ desire to humiliate their students. The most common strategy academics use to worsen their students’ emotions is the use of negative humour in the form of sarcasm. This strategy was labelled by a few academics as “emotional whipping”. Several academics admitted during the interview that they openly make sarcastic remarks during their lectures to “whip” students emotionally, and to embarrass them. Some of the comments made by the academics include, “Good morning!” when students were sleeping, and “I really like your phone. Can I borrow it?” when students were
playing with their phones instead of paying attention. This was also observed during two of the four observations where both academics made sarcastic remarks to their students. For instance, one of the observed academics asked his students, “Am I in a jungle?” when his students were making a lot of noise to get the students to remain quiet. Of all forms of emotion-worsening strategies, findings show that students complained most about academics’ use of sarcasm. Students reported that it made them feel hurt with some describing the pain as “Ouch”.

vi. To punish students
Other than the mentioned motives, another key motivation that drives academics’ emotion regulation is punishment. The purpose of punishment is to worsen the students’ emotions. The punishments academics choose to use are not formal punishments set by their universities. Instead, these punishments are created by the academics themselves. One such punishment highlighted by some of the academics include asking students who turn up late to lectures to sing in front of the lecture hall. This form of emotion-worsening strategy only works in the presence of an audience due to the nature of the interpersonal emotion regulation strategy (i.e., to cause humiliation in front of a large audience). Also, the academics indicated that they tend to deduct their students’ marks when they are not participating in class or when they do not submit their assignments on time.

Furthermore, a strategy academics typically use to manage their students’ expectations and punish them for not following the rules is by establishing ground rules. Typically, organisations communicate expectations regarding the appropriate emotions employees should express toward customers through display rules (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, 1989). However, findings here suggest academics establish their own ground rules for their students. Ground rules are laid out during the beginning of the lecture and students are often punished when someone breaks one of the rules.

Academics’ emotion regulation strategies
Another important component within the emotional labour model (see Figure 9.1) that reflects the findings of this study is the strategies academics use to regulate their emotions. While prior research has mostly discussed how academics manage their own feelings during the emotional labour process (Berry & Cassidy, 2013; Ogbonna
findings of this thesis revealed that academics deliberately use interpersonal emotion regulation strategies to attempt to improve or worsen their students’ emotions. In fact, the use of interpersonal emotion regulation was discussed even more so than the use of intrapersonal emotion regulation, suggesting that an important way in which academics satisfy their emotional labour requirements (as dictated by the organisation and the expectations of students) is to directly seek to manage students’ feelings.

i. Improving students’ emotions
As depicted in the model, findings suggest that academics’ motives determine the types of emotions they elicit in others and the strategies that they employ when interacting with their students. Depending on the motives, different emotion regulation strategies are used for the purpose of improving or worsening their students’ emotions. Findings mainly show that academics attempt to improve their students’ emotions however, they also do so to improve their own emotions. This was consistent with previous studies that suggest workers initiate interpersonal emotion regulations strategies not only to try to change others’ emotions, but also their own (Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012). Indeed, the majority of the academics indicated that they felt better when students responded positively to their emotional labour efforts.

ii. Worsening students’ emotions
There is a lack of applied evidence about the use of emotion-worsening strategies. Although Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009) describe various strategies for worsening others’ feelings, few studies have actually reported how and why people use these strategies spontaneously in the workplace. The findings in this research show that academics deliberately attempt to worsen their students’ emotions with the intention to make the students feel embarrassed, ashamed, guilty, and even scared. As previously mentioned, the most common strategy academics use to worsen their students’ emotions is negative humour in the form of sarcasm.

Students’ motives for emotion regulation
In the subsection ‘Motives for emotion regulation’ in Chapter 2, I highlighted that agents often regulate their emotions for the purpose of achieving various short-term and long-term goals such as building close relationships with others, increasing
pleasant emotions, and avoiding pleasant emotions (Niven, 2016; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013). The findings in this study which was consistent to Niven and colleagues’ (2013) work, suggest that not only academics have their own motives but students too have their own goals or intentions that may drive their own emotion regulation (as shown in Figure 9.1).

i. To save social situation
Findings suggest that one of the motives that drive students’ emotion regulation is to save social situation. For instance, students often respond in such a way that is consistent with the academics’ efforts for instance, laughing at the academics’ attempt to use humour to engage the students even if the joke is not funny. The main purpose of doing so is to avoid social awkwardness during lectures which can therefore benefit the students as well. Students indicated that their responses to academics’ emotional labour play an integral role in shaping how their academics feel and are also an important driver of academics’ subsequent emotional labour. There were obvious changes in academics’ performance when students responded positively to academics’ attempts to regulate their emotions. Students indicated that academics became more enthusiastic and energetic when students laugh at the academics’ jokes.

Also, the academics highlighted that when students are engaged, they will put more effort in their teaching and attempt to improve their students’ emotions. These findings are consistent with Bolton's (2005) presentational motives, Niven's (2016) conformity motive, and Von Gilsa and Zapf's (2013) instrumental motives. The literature suggested that people regulate their own and their targets’ emotions to make themselves and their targets feel good (Bolton, 2005; Niven, 2016; von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013).

ii. For the purpose of academic gain
One of the motives discovered during data analysis is that students tend to regulate their own and their academics’ emotions for the purpose of gaining better marks for their assignments and for deadline extensions. This is done by attempting to improve their academics’ mood and reducing their experience of negative emotion (e.g., anger) via humour and compliments. Some of the time students respond to academics’ emotional labour with the intention of fulfilling personal goals directly
relating to their own academic success. The rest of the time, students’ intentions in engaging emotion regulation in respond to academics’ emotional labour are about making the process easier and/or more pleasant for academics (e.g., boosting the academics’ mood in order to fuel them with positive energy). Of course, this, in turn, serves a benefit for the students because when emotional labour is easier for academics they are able to continue effectively engage students with their studies.

iii. To conform to Malaysian norms
The current study also found that students respond differently to male versus female academics. Students used more emotion-improving strategies (e.g., compliments) when interacting with female academics and this may be due to their perception that female academics are more susceptible to other people’s act of kindness. For instance, findings indicate that when students make flattery comments, not only does it improve the female academic’s emotions but students can also easily ask for a favour from the academic (e.g., assignment deadline extension) compared to male academics.

In terms of students’ response to academics’ emotional labour, findings show that in both types of universities, students responded differently to academics’ emotion regulation efforts and emotions based on their seniority. Students were more respectful and careful when interacting with senior academics compared to junior academics to the extent that they suppress any negative emotions even when they do not feel like it (e.g., when senior academics use sarcasm). Also, most of the time students reported that they use more emotion-improving strategies (e.g., compliments) to make their senior academics happy and to avoid the academics mistreating them. This may be due to the Malaysian cultural norms that expect those who are younger to treat those who are older with respect (Ibrahim, 2007; Mohd Meerah, Halim, & Nik Yusof, 2010). In addition, it may be due to students’ fear of the negative consequences of being disrespectful towards the academics.

In this study, Malaysian academics hold formal power over students (for instance, academics assign grades for their students), so this might explain why many students refrain from trying to worsen their academics’ feelings and instead attempt to spare the academics’ feelings (e.g., laughing at the academics’ poor jokes). Being disrespectful to the target is one of the emotion-worsening strategies highlighted by
Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009) in their classification of interpersonal emotion regulation strategies.

Furthermore, findings show that junior academics are treated more casually like a “friend”. Senior academics were also less exposed to students’ negative emotions and this may be due to the fact that several students reported that they were scared of senior academics and the fact that the Malaysian culture is categorised as a culture with very high power distance (Hofstede, 1980, 1983; “Malaysia tops global Power Distance Index,” 2014). According to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010), power distance can be defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (p. 61). Those with power are often respected and feared by those who are younger or working in a lower position (Hofstede, 1983; Ting-Toomey, 1999).

Institutions are referred to the basic elements of society (i.e., family, school, community) and organisations are the places where people work (Hofstede et al., 2010). In high power distance cultures, formal hierarchical differences exist (e.g., between leader and follower) and respecting those in high positions is essential (Hofstede, 1983; Matsumoto, 1990; Tee, Ashkanasy, & Paulsen, 2013). In a study of leader-follower relations, for example, Tee et al. (2013) indicated that high power distance between leaders and followers may restrict followers from openly expressing their emotions towards their leaders. Again, the high power distance culture may be a possible reason that students are generally quiet and also try to avoid responding to their academics’ negatively to “save face” or avoid humiliation. This is also why the Malaysian cultural context plays a central feature in the model presented earlier.

iv. Humiliating and ignoring the academic

Students also admitted that they use strategies to worsen their academics’ emotions. One interesting example is a response made by a male student. He admitted that when his academic makes sarcastic comments, he responds it with sarcasm to humiliate the academic. A few other students also admitted that they deliberately make unfavourable comparisons between their academic and other academics to make them feel bad, such as how other academics approved assignment deadline
extensions while they were stuck with the same deadline. Several students had also mentioned that they ignore their academics to make the academic feel bad.

The findings in this research also relate to the broader emotional labour research that suggests customers can act in an unruly manner towards employees (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Hur, Moon, & Han, 2015; Kern & Grandey, 2009; Sliter, Jex, Wolford, & McInerney, 2010). This rude and discourteous behaviour with the intention to harm employees is termed as ‘customer incivility’ (Hur, Moon, & Han, 2015; Kern & Grandey, 2009; Sliter et al., 2010). These studies suggest that customers hold a lot of power relative to service employees. For instance, in a simulation study conducted by Goldberg and Grandey (2007), they found that customers acted hostilely toward call centre employees. Their study further suggests that those workers who were exposed to hostile customers reported more negative job experience (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). It might be that in regular service settings, customers feel that they are entitled to be rude to employees given the “customer is always right” mantra and thus they are more willing to worsen employees’ feelings and treat them with incivility (Kern & Grandey, 2009).

Preparation for and recovery from emotion regulation
Another important element in this model is the frontstage and backstage region where academics prepare for and recover from emotion regulation. In Chapter 1, I briefly highlighted Goffman’s dramaturgical analysis of the frontstage and backstage region. As these were not the main focus of this study, the regions were given less attention in the literature review chapter. However upon analysis, findings suggest that academics do rely upon the backstage region to prepare before and recover after performing emotional labour. In the past, studies have looked at the ‘backstage’ region as a private space where employees can take a break from the emotional labour performed in the frontstage (Billingsley, 2016; Cain, 2012; Reyers & Matusitz, 2012). The backstage is a place “where the impression fostered by the performance is knowingly contradicted” and “where the performer can reliably expect that no member of the audience will intrude” (Goffman, 1956, p. 69). Performance is perfected, and errors and mistakes are corrected here before the frontstage performance (Goffman, 1956). Also, this is where academics perform intrapersonal emotion regulation. Meanwhile the frontstage is where the performance
is taken place in a general and fixed fashion in front of those who observe the performance (i.e., audience) (Goffman, 1956).

In this study, I found that before academics perform emotional labour in front of their students, they engage in activities in the backstage region to prepare before they conduct their lectures (see Figure 9.1). One such form of preparation is scrutinising their own personal appearance. Several academics had mentioned that they deliberately change their appearance to influence students’ perception of them. For instance, one academic had noted that he intentionally wears formal clothes to work as he believes that it could help earn the respect that he deserves from his students. This is similar to what has been stated by Slepian, Ferber, Gold, and Rutchick (2015) in their study that, “Formal clothing is often worn to follow norms, but also serves to obtain respect, signalling professionalism and maintenance of social distance” (p. 661). Furthermore, other studies have suggested that clothing influences impressions of others (Forsythe, 1990; Howlett, Pine, Orakçıoğlu, & Fletcher, 2013) and how others are treated (Suedfeld, Bochner, & Matas, 1971). Also, findings suggest that academic participants plan their lectures beforehand. Academics ensure that they cater students’ needs and expectations to elicit the desired emotions and engagement in their students, and at the same time, this would enable them to protect their own feelings during lectures too.

Existing literature has distinguished between two types of recovery process that is, ‘internal’ and ‘external’ recovery (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Zijlstra, Cropley, & Rydstedt, 2014). Internal recover refers to the shorter periods of relaxation that take place in the work setting either scheduled, or unscheduled (e.g., working on other tasks when exhausted) (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006; Zijlstra et al., 2014). External recover on the other hand refers to recovery activities that take place outside of the workplace (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Consistent with the literature, findings suggest that academics perform both internal and external recover after performing emotional labour. Academics either take short breaks between their lectures such as listening to music or praying inside their office (internal recovery) or longer breaks after work such as relaxing at home or going for a brisk walk to restore their energy (external recovery).
9.1.2 Group relationship
Other than the model, this study broadens our understanding on emotion regulation in a group context. Research on emotional labour has mainly focused on how emotion regulation is enacted and the effects it has within employee-customer dyads (Côté, Van Kleef, et al., 2013; Groth et al., 2009; Hur, Moon, & Jung, 2015). Although a few studies in the wider literature suggest that emotion regulation can also occur in larger groups, such as support groups (Thoits, 1996) and sports team (Friesen et al., 2013), no such research has been conducted concerning emotional labour specifically, to my knowledge. In contrast, this study looks at how emotional labour is enacted within a group context (i.e., a lecture), wherein the academic may regulate emotions for the benefit of the entire body of students in the class rather than for the benefit of a single student, or may make use of the rest of the students in order to enact emotion regulation towards a single target.

Regulatory efforts in this context may need to be exaggerated to meet the needs of a group of targets and the employee needs to appraise feedback from a large number of targets in order to judge the success or his or her efforts. Moreover, strategies that are used to perform emotional labour in a group context may differ than in a dyadic context. For example, some strategies discussed in this thesis inherently require the presence of an audience (e.g., when an academic tries to humiliate or embarrass a student).

9.1.3 Contribution to knowledge of emotional labour in higher education
This thesis makes another unique contribution to the literature and the emotional aspects of work for academics, specifically their use of emotional labour and its effects on students’ emotions. First, the findings outlined in Chapter 6 confirm that academics perform emotional labour via the use of intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. This provided support for prior findings that workers in roles that require high levels of interactions utilise all forms of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983; Zapf, Isic, Bechtoldt, & Blau, 2003), but using different strategies. Emotional labour is not just a process that is relevant for service workers; higher-level professionals are also expected to and do engage in emotional labour. To date, very few studies have examined the emotions academics express, fake and hide, and how this regulation influences how academics perform their job, and the outcome it has on their students.
Most studies explore the emotional labour performed by teachers in school settings (Hargreaves, 2000; Kinman et al., 2011; Näring et al., 2006; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). However, the emotional demands of teachers may be different than academics. This may be due to the different job roles that teachers have to perform and the age group of students that they have to each. For instance, teachers are generally expected to teach while academics are required to teach and conduct research. Academics are also expected to interact with adults while teachers work with school-aged children.

9.2 Practical contributions
This research has not only contributed in theory, but has also practical applications and contributions. It has contributed to practice in the higher education sector in a number of ways that are going to be presented in the following subsections.

9.2.1 Academics in the higher education industry
This research provide some indication regarding which emotion regulation strategies academics use that may be more or less effective in producing the desired results in terms of changes to students’ feelings or the responses they elicit in students. Findings suggest that both academics and students can benefit from using appropriate emotion regulation strategies during lectures. Given the present findings, universities may consider making an effort to train academics with the effective use of emotion regulation strategies. Research has shown that conducting training on emotion regulation is easy, in expensive, and also effective (Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, & Gremler, 2006; Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999). Universities should design a proper training that would reflect the actual needs of their academic staff and students.

Universities must work collaboratively to help academics offer appropriate emotions to their students and therefore be able to achieve the best possible results for the university they are working for. Specifically, they should aim at improving academics’ abilities to apply useful emotion regulation strategies, and teaching them healthy patterns of emotion regulation (Gross, 2015). For instance, academics may be trained to use humour more effectively when trying to get their students engaged. Specifically, academics should be encouraged to use positive humour to improve their students’ emotions and discouraged to use negative humour and punishment
that could worsen their students’ emotions. Such training programmes may also prevent academics from experiencing negative emotions (e.g., anger, sadness) and reducing their need for ‘backstage’ recovery after performing emotional labour.

Moreover, expressing positive emotions during academic-student interactions may initiate the process of “emotional contagion” (Grandey, 2003; Pugh, 2001) which will influence students’ emotions at the moment and, in turn, affect their satisfaction with their academics’ delivery of lectures, and intentions to reciprocate displays of positive emotions. If students are unhappy, students expect to see academics that care, are happy to ‘serve’ them and are imposing positive feelings and attitudes. Engaging in surface acting will not help. As shown in the findings, students can sense and they know when the feelings they receive are not genuine. This makes them even more unhappy and dissatisfied with their academic. If academics manage to display appropriate emotions while dealing with their students, the academics would be able to get students more engaged during lectures. Similar training programmes might also benefit other organisations.

This line of research is also important for universities because it has shown that it is not sufficient for universities to expect academics to fulfil display rules in order to bring forth desirable student behaviour. The results indicate that there are more possibilities to motivate academics to regulate their emotions than just stating display rules. Universities could, for instance, emphasise the positive outcomes of emotion regulation for the academics such as creating good relations with their students. Further, the different motives found in this study suggest that it is not sufficient for academics to only be rewarded for example in the form of bonuses and praises. Findings show that academics seem also to be motivated by other factors such as fulfilling gender and hierarchical expectations that seem to lead to varying use of emotion regulation strategies.

In addition, the findings of this study highlight the importance of ‘backstage’ region where academics prepare before and recover after a lecture. Acknowledging the importance of the backstage region is important because it is used by the academics to ‘recover’ from exhausting lectures. Zijlstra and Sonnentag (2006) refer ‘recovery’ as a process of replenishing mental resources. Recovery after performing emotional labour is important to replenish emotional energy of the emotional labourer at the end of the day (Xanthopoulou et al., 2017), and to allow people to prepare and be ready for a new day (Zijlstra & Sonnentag, 2006). Universities or
service organisations more widely should recognise the importance of employees taking ‘time out’ or detaching themselves psychologically from work during non-work time to replenish resources that were lost through the regulation of emotions.

According to Sonnentag, Kuttler, and Fritz (2010), when an employee fail to detach from his or her work during non-work time, “work-related thoughts continue to drain resources” (p. 357). This leads to emotional exhaustion (Sonnentag et al., 2010). Recovery after emotional events not only occur within the compound of the university but it can also occur after returning home from work. Universities could also encourage their academic staff to take their annual leave to maximise the benefits of taking holiday such as help maintain or boost their productivity.

9.2.2 Students in the higher education industry
Another practical contribution concerns the use of student feedback within universities (and more broadly the use of customer feedback within service organisations). Findings suggest that student feedback is important for recovery from performing emotional labour. These findings are consistent with the wider body of evidence concerning the importance of feedback from customers in the emotional labour process as a means of offsetting lost resources (Holman et al., 2008b). As Martínez-Íñigo, Mercado, and Totterdell (2015) suggest, “Target’s feedback may act as a source of recovery from resources depleted by self-regulation effort during interpersonal affect regulation” (p. 9).

Also, many universities, and service organisations more generally, use feedback from students or customers as part of the way in which they judge employees’ performance (e.g., during appraisals and promotion processes). The findings reported in this thesis, however, suggest that such feedback might be influenced by factors such as employees’ gender, age, and seniority. If it is the case that students respond differently to academics based on such factors, irrespective of academics’ actual emotion regulation and/or teaching abilities, but based instead on biased expectations and stereotypes about different groups, then arguably using students’ feedback might be systematically detrimental towards certain groups.

In line with this idea, a recent study conducted by Boring, Ottoboni, and Stark (2016b) showed that students are systematically bias against female academics in their ratings. Students typically rate their academics based on gender and their expectations of grades rather than by teaching effectiveness (Boring et al., 2016b;
Boring, Ottoboni, & Stark, 2016a). For instance, female academics are scored lower in ratings compared to male academics. Furthermore, Boring et al. (2016b) suggested that the ratings do not reliably measure teaching effectiveness. The findings here therefore add weight to the suggestion that universities (and perhaps service organisations more widely) ought to be cautious about the weight given to student or customer ratings.

9.3 Limitations
When considering these findings, however, limitations should be considered. One of the limitations in this research concerns the generalisability of the results. Although generalisability is not an aim of qualitative research and that I’ve also taken appropriate measures to ensure that my findings may be transferable to other settings (see 4.8.2 Transferability), there may still be limitations in this area. For instance, the results were obtained from one type of occupational group, namely academics. Although the work task of academics is interesting, emotionally demanding, and unique, these features may also restrict the generalisation of the findings to other service occupations such as police officers, cashiers, and flight attendants. As seen in the literature and the findings, academics not only carry out substantively different jobs to other workers (e.g., teaching, research, administrative work), they also use and experience emotional labour differently.

Other than the differences in work role, this study looks at students as the recipient of academics’ emotional labour. The findings may not necessarily reflect studies that look at similar relationships at other occupational levels such as cashier-customer relationships. Supermarket cashiers normally have short-term relationship with their customers (Morris & Feldman, 1996) compared to academics who often have to deal with their students long term (e.g., one whole semester/term). In addition, the findings may not apply in certain group contexts such as in professional sporting environment. In a highly competitive environment (e.g., sports competition) where team members are required to remain focus during a competition, sports coaches may use anger to facilitate behaviour changes in their team (Friesen et al., 2013). This differs from the findings of this study where academics are instead expected by their students to use non-threatening strategies such as humour to get them engaged during lectures. Despite this, the findings may apply in other learning contexts such as schools where teachers have prolonged relationships with their
students, and where they are expected to put in emotional labour to arouse the students’ interest in the classroom (Brown et al., 2017; Keller, Chang, Becker, Goetz, & Frenzel, 2014).

It should also be noted that this study was carried out solely in Malaysia, which may limit the generalisability of the findings. Research suggests differences in cultural norms for various emotion regulation strategies (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007; X. Ma, Tamir, & Miyamoto, 2018). While many aspects of Malaysian life may be shared internationally, others may not. Malaysia is known as a high context or collectivistic culture and Malaysians may have different cultural expectations that may set them apart from other cultures. For instance, Malaysians practice high levels of power distance in social and organisational context compared to Western cultures (e.g., United Kingdom, United States) (Hofstede, 1983, 2011; Ting-Toomey, 1999). Also, expressing emotion may benefit Westerners while emotional expressivity has been linked with negative outcomes among Asians (Kwon et al., 2013). Collectivistic cultures (e.g., most Asian countries such as Japan, China, and Malaysia) tend to promote emotional moderation as opposed to individualistic cultures (e.g., most Western countries such as the United States and United Kingdom).

Indeed this research was not designed to explore the differences between Asian versus Western cultures however, follow-up research may seek to examine the differences in cross-race interactions especially within the higher education context. As an example, researchers may explore the differences between how Malaysian academics versus British academics regulate their own, and their students’ emotions. It may be possible that there are similarities between both samples especially if the samples are selected from certain types of universities (e.g., teaching-focused universities) where students might have similar expectations of academics’ emotional display.

Another limitation in this research concerns on the interpretation of the findings. As a researcher, female, and junior academic from a teaching-focused university, my own experiences and characteristics might have had an influence on how I interpreted what the academics and students said and what I observed during the lectures, or even on how I conducted and steered the direction of the interviews and focus groups. Making too many prior assumptions can stifle other ideas from emerging and thus I tried to be cognisant of my background throughout the data.
collection and analysis. Nevertheless, it is to some extent inevitable that my own experiences and characteristics shaped the direction of this research.

Self-selection bias in sampling can also be considered as one of the potential limitations in this study. As discussed in Chapter 4, academics and students were selected using the convenience sampling technique. Academics who participated in this study were those who responded to an e-mail invitation, while student participants were all volunteers from the lectures that were observed. Academics and students who agreed to participate in this study are very possibly those who were interested in the topic and the academic may perhaps have been better at emotional labour and/or student engagement from those who chose not to participate. Also, academics who agreed to have a lecture observed in this study may be among those who are confident in their teaching abilities and may have selected a particular ‘best’ lecture purposely for the observation that was conducted. This means that it is not clear to what extent the findings reported here are representative more generally of the academics and students from the participating universities who were not involved in the study. Therefore the results of this study need to be interpreted with reference to specific samples involved.

Another limitation recognised in this study is in terms of the focus groups conducted. Although the benefit of focus groups is the ability to capture multiple perspectives in an interactive setting and for a short period of time, this approach has several limitations. The first limitation is that some of the student participants may have felt a degree of pressure to conform and provide similar answers to the rest of their course mates. In other words, student participants may be driven by the power of “groupthink” (Janis, 1972). Groupthink is a psychological drive in which a group of people strive toward consensus and suppress dissent (Janis, 1972). This is evident in the students’ response where some of the students did not provide their own opinion but instead, agreed with the majority viewpoint such as “I agree with [name of student participant]”, “Yeah same here”, and “I feel the same way”. Thus, disconfirming views may have been stifled due to group pressures. The second such limitation is that there may be a possibility that some students may be apprehensive to openly speak about their academics in front of their course mates, fearing that they may be reported, judged, or ridiculed by others in the group.

A final limitation in this study concerns the use of observation to collect data. As highlighted in Chapter 4, participant observation is considered as one of the
effective ways for researchers to acquire not just text, speech, and numerical forms of information (Brannan & Oultram, 2013). Conducting observations can allow the researcher to observe the gestures and body movements considered by the participants during the data collection process (Brannan & Oultram, 2013). While these are some of the benefits identified, the findings in this study that was gathered from this method may be entirely based on my understanding rather than those who participated in it. Although I did conduct a post-observation debrief session with the academics after each observation to help verify issues observed, it is still likely that the findings from the observations are skewed at least somewhat by my own interpretation.

9.4 Directions for future research
The findings of this study offer significant insights about the regulation of emotions, especially in academics and students of the higher education sector. However, several new questions have arisen during the production of this study and should be explored in future research. It was found that studies featuring perspectives from the target (or customers) are limited and more research is needed to comprehend the effects of agent’s emotional labour in targets’ behaviour. Currently, the working definition of emotional labour assumes only the agent to have an active role in the regulation process. However, based on the research findings and the idea that targets play an active role in the process consistent with Côté’s (2005) social interaction model, future researchers should consider conducting in-depth interviews with the targets. In this case, exploring students’ perspectives through personal depth interviews will provide greater insight into their active role in the emotional labour process.

Moreover, more extensive and comprehensive research is particularly needed to explore the motives that drive students’ emotion regulation. In this study, I found that some of the students were driven by their own motives such as to obtain better grades from their academics. Also, most of motives found were oriented towards creating pleasure such as making the academic or student happy and entertained, for preventive reasons such as avoiding arguments, and to cause harm such as punishing the students. The students’ motives had a major influence on the strategies they choose to use to regulate their academics’ emotions (e.g., complimenting the
academic). However, the findings were brief thus future research should consider expanding this idea.

Available studies have looked at agent’s motives (e.g., von Gilsa & Zapf, 2013) but the focus has only been on agents and for a long period of time, only considered that agents would be motivated by fulfilling display rules. Von Gilsa and colleagues (2013, 2014) and Bolton (2005) among others have broaden this understanding of agents’ motives. They had presented three main types of daily motives that is, pleasure (to improve relationships), prevention (to prevent problems), and instrumental (to conform to organisational rules) (von Gilsa et al., 2014). Although these motives were proposed for agents, they might apply for targets too. For instance in this study, students regulate their emotions with the intention to avoid conflicts (prevention motive) and maintain harmony with their academics. Therefore exploring targets’ motives in depth would be an interesting avenue to pursue. Also, future research should consider examining whether the motives found in this study are really the most important ones and/or whether some additional motives are important as well.

Another question raised by the results of this study is the influence of culture in the emotion regulation of academics and students. In the findings, academics and students mostly stressed that religion particularly Islam plays a major role in the regulation of their emotions. For instance, students felt that they are obligated to suppress their negative emotions as a sign of respect to their academics who are much older than them due to religious reasons rather than cultural reasons despite literature suggesting that Malaysians or those from high context cultures are known to practice high power distance. Also, since this study was conducted on a sample of Malaysians, it would be of value to explore whether the findings are unique to only Malaysia or whether it could be replicated in another country. Likewise, as discussed in Chapter 5 and also identified in the limitations section, emotional labour appears to have different associations in diverse cultures and so cross-cultural replication research would assist in elucidating these potential differences. Therefore future emotional labour research should emphasise the possible differences and similarities between culture and religion in the higher education context.

Past studies have looked at emotional labour in individuals and dyads. Another interesting avenue for future research is to recognise the composition of diverse emotional expressions in a group of individuals within the study of emotional
labour. This study looks at academics and how they regulate their emotions of a whole room of students during a lecture. Research on ‘emotional aperture’ (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009) suggests that within any group of people they may be diversity in terms of how those people are feeling and that there are important individual differences in terms of people’s ability to appraise the emotions of groups. Understanding how academics read the emotions of the room might provide further information on how academics select which strategies to use. Also, understanding how academics interpret emotional feedback to their emotion regulation from the whole room might shed more light on how students’ responses affect academics. Such research will be particularly valuable to understand how people with better aperture are better able to accurately ‘read’ the emotions that are felt by a group of people and therefore adapt their emotion regulation accordingly (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009). For example, some academics may be able to identify the proportion of students who react positively to their humour while some academics may not.

Finally, future researchers should consider employing different methods and methodologies in their studies. For instance, researchers should consider applying an intersectional approach to the study of emotional labour when trying to understand the different factors that may influence the process. McCormick, Macarthur, Shields, and Dicicco (2016) describe intersectionality as “the idea that social identities are not mutually exclusive, and that lived experiences are based on multiple and intertwined sources of identity (e.g., race, gender, age)” (p. 219). In other words, social categories, such as race, gender, and age are viewed as interconnected, rather than separate. In a recent review, Grandey and Melloy (2017) suggested that such an intersectional approach might be taken by simultaneously comparing the strategies and outcomes of multiple identities. To illustrate, older female academics may be less “emotional” than young female academics due to their maturity. Taking an intersectional approach will provide a more nuanced understanding of how social categories influence the emotional labour process. Such an approach will also help to protect against “over-generalization” of the findings (Mcbride, Hebson, & Holgate, 2015) by avoiding drawing conclusions about the factors that influences the emotional labour process without the consideration of intragroup differences. An intersectional perspective may therefore deepen the understanding of how factors such as gender and age jointly influence how emotional labour is performed by the agent and responded by the target.
9.5 Summary and Conclusions

This thesis has provided a new and added insight on emotional labour mainly in the Malaysian higher education sector. My study fills three important gaps highlighted in Chapter 1. The first is that I argued that there is a lack of study exploring both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. Past emotional labour research has mainly focused on one approach to fulfilling display rules, which is to manage one’s own emotions (intrapersonal emotion regulation) (e.g., Grandey, 2000) however, recent studies suggest that emotional labour involves the regulation of one’s own and others’ emotions (interpersonal emotion regulation) (Gabriel et al., 2016; Niven, Totterdell, et al., 2012). This study however not only explored agent’s use of both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation but findings revealed that targets too regulate their own and others’ emotions in order to fulfil their own goals. The second gap that was addressed is in terms of targets as ‘active’ in the emotional labour process. Traditionally, emotional labour research has largely explored the perspective of the agent signalling that emotional labour is considered as a ‘one-way’ process. However, findings in this study refute this idea and suggested that targets are not passive recipients of emotional labour instead, they also play a vital role in the emotional labour process. Finally, this study provided additional insights on the different factors (e.g., gender, and seniority) that could shape the way agents and targets regulate their emotions.

Other than filling the key gaps, a new model of emotional labour integrating the study’s key findings has also been presented in this study. The model represents the current state of knowledge about emotional labour, and includes the strategies that are frequently used by agents and targets to improve or worsen their own, and others’ emotion within the higher education context. Furthermore, the model illustrates the different types of motives that drive both the agent and targets to regulate their emotions.

Four fundamental conclusions can be drawn from this research. The first conclusion is that academics not only manage their own feelings to fulfil their emotional labour requirements, but they also deliberately try to manage the feelings of their students, in some cases using these approaches in tandem to achieve their emotion regulation goals. The second conclusion is that customers or targets (in this case, students) play a more active role in the emotional labour process than
previously suggested. This study shows that targets are not just a ‘receiver’ of the emotion regulation efforts of the agent but they also initiate emotion regulation themselves to achieve their own personal goals during an emotional labour episode, at least in the current research setting. The third conclusion is that agents and targets have different motives that drive emotion regulation. These motives determine the types of strategies they use that could either improve or worsen each other’s emotions. The fourth and final conclusion is that factors such as gender, and seniority can influence the process of emotional labour.
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Pilot study questions for interview with academics

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PHD STUDENT, ALLIANCE MANCHESTER BUSINESS SCHOOL
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PILOT STUDY INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ACADEMICS)

1. How long have you worked as an academic?
2. What attracted you to the job?
3. How long have you been working with the university?
4. How would you describe your daily work routine?
5. How satisfied are you with your current job?
6. What is your workload like?
7. Are you aware whether this university formally recognises itself as a ‘research-focused’ or ‘teaching-focused’ university?
8. In your own opinion, what are the main priorities of this university? Is it teaching or research? Or both?
9. Are you aware of the priority in higher education to achieve high world rankings? Does the university put any pressure on academics to achieve these world rankings? In what ways?
10. Personally, do you spend most of your time teaching or conducting research?
11. Do you personally feel pressured having to juggle between teaching and conducting research?
12. When the semester is running, how many hours on average do you spend teaching, conducting research, and do admin work on a weekly basis?
13. How about during the semester break? How do you normally spend your break?
14. What is your average student contact time?
15. Does your contact time differ from one academic to another?
16. Are you given enough time to prepare a lecture?
17. How about research? Are you given enough time to do research?
18. For promotion, what are the common things you have to do to get promoted or receive positive evaluation from the head of your department?
19. Can you describe any evaluation system or performance indicators that can measure you and the rest of the academics’ quality of work in the university? (e.g. SuFO – Students Feedback Online)
20. Do you take the indicators seriously?
21. How would you describe your interaction with your students?
22. Any students ever complained about their experience (either relating to your teaching or generally)?
23. Do you believe academics and students share the same goal in teaching and learning aspects?
24. Do you think students’ expectations are realistic?
25. In your opinion, what do they often expect in a lecture?
26. What do you believe are the appropriate behavior of good academics?
27. How do you want students to view you?
28. Aside from particular teaching strategies, do you do anything in particular to get students to view you this way? (e.g. humour)
29. How do you get students to engage in class?
30. Are there any particular teaching strategies that you think encourages student engagement in class?
31. How do you ensure that students are often engaged in class?
32. How can you tell when students are engaged?
33. How does student engagement affect your lecture?
34. I am now going to ask some final questions about how you manage emotions in the job. Do you feel that you have consciously or unconsciously modified your display of emotions in your lecturer relations with students?
35. What influences you to decide on which emotions to display towards your students?
36. In what type of situations do you think that you have to modify your felt emotions in contrast to what you feel within? (e.g. when giving feedback on grades)
37. Have you ever encountered any unpleasant events when interacting with your students?
38. How do you overcome this?
39. How do you manage your emotions to keep them positive?
40. Have there been times where the amount of workload given may have influenced your emotions and emotional displays?
41. Are there any instances where the workload given to you may influence the way you regulate your emotions especially in class?
42. What kind of things do you normally do outside of class to make you feel relaxed?
43. Were there times where you could not manage your emotions well?
44. As a male/female academic, do you believe gender defines how you display your emotions in class?
45. How about culture? Do you think culture somewhat influences the way you project your emotions in class?
46. What do you believe are the appropriate emotions that academics should convey in class?
47. Does the faculty/university help you manage your emotions in any way (e.g. meetings, trainings, rewards)?
48. In closing, could I ask if being asked about your emotion management has opened up for you a new way of thinking about the work that you do?

END OF INTERVIEW
Appendix 2. Pilot study questions for focus group with students

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PILOT STUDY FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS (STUDENTS)

1. What are your goals and expectations in a lecture?
2. Do all of you have good communication (two-way interactions) with your lecturers?
3. What do you believe are the appropriate behaviour of good lecturers?
4. Do you prefer young or senior lecturers?
5. What kind of emotions do you want your lecturers to show in class?
6. What are the things that academics do that often grabs your attention or gets you engaged in class?
7. What do you often do to show that you are engaged in class?
8. How do you feel whenever your lecturers express positive emotions in class?
9. How about whenever they express negative emotions?
10. Would you prefer lecturers to be open and frank about their emotions and how they feel about you, or conceal it?
11. Do you believe that male lecturers and female lecturers behave and react differently?
12. Are you aware that sometimes lecturers modify their emotions in contrast to what they feel within just to satisfy your needs?
13. During the end of the semester, you are required to fill in an online form called SuFO (Students Feedback Online) to evaluate your lecturer, and the class that you attended. Do you take this form seriously by providing genuine feedback or, the opposite?

END OF INTERVIEW
Appendix 3. Interview schedule for academics

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tengkuelena.tengkumahamad@postgrad.mbs.ac.uk

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. Below is a list of main questions that will be asked throughout the interview session. Feel free to ask any questions prior to the interview if some questions require clarification. Please note that you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself. Throughout the interview, you will also have the right to not answer any questions that you do not want to.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ACADEMICS):

1. Before we begin, can you please tell me a little bit about your job?
   a. Is there such thing as a typical day or week and what does it look like? (approximately how much of your time do you spend teaching vs. research vs. administrative duties)
   b. What do you like most about your job? And what do you least like?

2. Can you tell me a bit about your university?
   a. Do you see your university as research or teaching focused?
   b. What do you think the university’s main priorities are?

3. Can you tell me about your relationships in general with your students?
   a. What do you think students expect from you as an academic?
   b. How do you think your students see you? How would you like them to see you?

4. How do you try to engage your students?
   a. How do you try to engage them during lectures? And outside of lectures?
   b. Do you ever need to manage the feelings you show during interactions with students? If so, how do you do this?
   c. Do you ever try to change the way your students feel? (e.g., making them feel more enthusiastic, less anxious, more stressed, etc.). If so, how do you do this?
   d. Is engaging students a priority for you?
   e. Do you feel that you have enough time to devote to engaging students?

5. When you try to engage your students, how do they typically respond?
   a. Are your efforts to engage students usually effective or not? What do you think this is?
   b. Do your students usually seem engaged during your lectures (and/or other contact with you)?
   c. Do you think your students appreciate the effort you put into engaging them?
   d. Do you ever feel that your efforts to engage students fail? If so, why?

6. How does the behaviour of your students during interactions with you affect you? (e.g. their emotions and behaviour and how engaged they seem during lectures vs. other interactions)
   a. How does it affect your own feelings/well-being?
   b. How does it affect your efforts to engage them?

7. Do you think students respond differently to you as compared to any other academics? If so, why do you think this is?
   a. Do you think gender could influence how students respond to you?
   b. Do you think your seniority could influence how students respond to you?

8. Do you feel your university supports or hinders you in engaging your students?
   a. In what ways do you feel it supports you?
   b. In what ways do you feel it hinders you?

9. Before we end, have you got anything to add that we haven’t discussed that you might think be relevant?

Again, thank you for your time.
Appendix 4. Interview schedule for Head of Teaching staff

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tengkuelena.tengkumahamad@postgrad.mbs.ac.uk

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. Below is a list of main questions that will be asked throughout the interview session. Feel free to ask any questions prior to the interview if some questions require clarification. Please note that you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself. Throughout the interview, you will also have the right to not answer any questions that you do not want to.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (HEAD OF TEACHING STAFF):

10. Before we begin, can you please tell me a little bit about yourself and what you do at your job?
11. How long have you been working in the university?
12. Do you believe that the university has gone through many changes over the last few years?
13. What are currently the main pressures on universities?
   a. Are rankings an important factor in shaping the changes and pressures universities face?
   b. Have student expectations changed in recent years (if so, how)?
   c. Can you describe whether any of these changes have had an impact on the university’s teaching?
14. Are you aware whether this university formally recognises itself as a ‘research-focused’ or ‘teaching focused’ university?
   a. In your own opinion, what are the main priorities of this university?
   b. Do you think the university staff especially academics feel the same way about these priorities?
   c. If an academic here would like to progress, what should they focus on?
   d. Are there any official policies or formal values that highlight the need for academics to show commitment or engage with their students regularly?
15. Do you believe that the amount of work that the academics are required to do may influence the way they perform their job with students? In what ways?
16. What do academics or students often complain about and how do you deal with the complaints (if any)?
17. Can you describe any evaluation system or performance indicators that can measure the academics’ quality of work in the university (e.g. SuFO – Students Feedback Online)
   a. Do you take the indicators seriously?
   b. What about the rest of the academics? Do you believe they take the indicators seriously?
18. Are regular trainings given to the academics on how to lecture/teaching? What kind?
19. Do academics generally have a lot of discretion in the way they teaching?
20. Before we end, have you got anything to add that we haven’t discussed that you might think be relevant?

Again, thank you for your time.
Appendix 5. Observation criteria

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**OBSERVATION CRITERIA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How does the academic seem to feel? (what evidence is there for this)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do the students seem to feel? (what evidence is there for this)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the academic doing anything to manage his/her own emotions?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the academic doing anything to manage the students’ emotions? (what)</th>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How effective does the academic’s emotion management seem to be? (what evidence is there for this)</th>
</tr>
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</table>
Appendix 6. Example of observation criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation Criteria</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>How does the academic seem to feel? (what evidence is there for this)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• At the beginning of the lecture, the academic looked very calm.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The academic paced up and down the room trying to make sure that all students were paying attention.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• He got a bit anxious when students didn’t answer his question.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• He looked annoyed when students were not paying attention.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| <strong>How do the students seem to feel? (what evidence is there for this)</strong> |  |
| • The students were very quiet at the beginning of the lecture. |  |
| • All students were observing the academic’s movement and behavior, waiting patiently for any instructions or cue from the academic. |  |
| • They looked a bit frightened but started to feel relaxed once the lecture had started. |  |
| • When the academic started to tell a joke, all of them burst into laughter and the room started to fill with student chatting away. The room started to become noisy. |  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the academic doing anything to manage his/her own emotions?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>● The academic tried to cover his frustration when his students couldn’t understand his instructions by putting on a fake smile.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● He stopped teaching at one point when students were not paying attention. He looked annoyed. Then he asked the students to discuss quietly to avoid from feeling angry. While students were discussing in groups, he sat down for a while and started to eat a candy bar that he had in his pocket. After giving students about 15 minutes, he stood up and started to ask students energetically. He somehow didn’t look annoyed anymore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the academic doing anything to manage the students’ emotions? (what)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>● The academic said to the students ‘Come on, don’t let me down’ to make the students feel empathy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● He uses a mixture of high and soft tone when speaking to make the students become alert.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● He uses humour a lot in the class and students are normally responsive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● He makes funny jokes/statements. e.g., ‘Not on my watch honey’ It made the students burst into laughter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Encourages students to share their views or opinion on certain things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Tells stories to the students on the consequences of not studying hard to impress them in the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● When students got carried away (i.e., they didn’t stop laughing/making noise), the academic made a sarcastic remark, ‘Am I in a jungle?’ to make the students stop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How effective does the academic's emotion management seem to be? (What evidence is there for this)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I believe that it is effective. The academic looked happy at the end of the lecture.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Students started to behave well and avoided making noise.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7. Debrief questions for the academic observed

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DEBRIEFS FOR THE ACADEMIC OBSERVED (AFTER OBSERVATION)

1. How do you think the lecture went?
2. How engaged did you think the students were in the lecture?
3. Did you do anything in particular to try to engage with your students?
   a. Did you try to manage the emotions you displayed to the students and if so, how?
   b. Did you try to influence the students’ emotions and if so, how?

END
Hello. My name is Tengku Elena Tengku Mahamad and I’m a researcher from the University of Manchester. Thank you to each one of you for taking time to participate today. We will be here for about an hour. The reason we are here today is to gather your opinions and attitudes about issues related to your emotional experience when interacting with your lecturer specifically during a lecture. I’m interested in what you think and how you feel, so there are no right or wrong answers to the questions. I also would like you to know that this focus group will be tape-recorded and I would like to remind you that participation in this research is completely voluntary. You can withdraw consent at any stage and you do not have to answer questions that you do not feel comfortable doing so. Everything you say today is confidential and no identifying information will be included in the final report. To protect the confidentiality of the other people involved in this focus group, please do not talk about what we discuss here today with anyone else. To allow our conversation flow more freely, I did like to go over some brief ground rules.

- Only one person speaks at a time. This is so that I will be able to capture everyone’s experience and perspective clearly.
- Please avoid side conversations.
- Everyone doesn’t have to answer every single question, but I’d like to hear from each of you today as the discussion progresses.
- There are no “wrong answers”, just different opinions and perspectives. Say what is true for you, even if others feel the opposite.
- If you need a toilet break, please do let me know.
- Are there any questions?

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS (STUDENTS):

21. Before we begin, I’d like to know a little about each of you. Please tell me:
   a. Your name
   b. Age
   c. Course of study

Questions about the observed lecture

22. How do you feel after this class?

23. How engaged did you feel during this class?
   a. Was it a good lecture?

24. Do you feel the lecturer was doing anything to try to engage you during the class? (If so, what?)
   a. Do you think the lecturer tried to display or hide his or her emotions during the class?
   b. Do you think the lecturer tried to make you feel a particular way during the class?

25. How do you feel the lecturer was influenced by the energy in the room during the class?

Questions about their general experiences

26. Do you generally feel engaged during lectures?

27. When you feel engaged, do you think it is because your lecturers are doing anything different?
   a. Are they showing or hiding particular emotions?
   b. Are they trying to make you feel any particular emotions?

28. Do you think you show it in any way when you feel engaged (or disengaged) during lectures?
   a. Do you think this influences your lecturers at all? If so, how?

29. Have you noticed any differences between lecturers in how they engage you, or in how engaging they are?
   a. Where do you think these differences come from?
   b. Are there differences between your male and female lecturers?
   c. Are there differences between younger and more senior lecturers?

30. Before we end, have you got anything to add that we haven’t discussed that you think might be relevant?

Thank you for coming today and talking about these issues. Your comments have given me lots of different ways to see this issue. I thank you for your time. Please do not forget to collect your vouchers on your way out.
### Appendix 9. List of Malaysian public universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of public higher education institutions</th>
<th>Name of public higher education institutions</th>
<th>Total number of public higher education institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Research-focused university                   | • Universiti Malaya (UM)  
• Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM)  
• Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)  
• Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)  
• Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) | 5                                                  |
| Teaching-focused (comprehensive) university    | • Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)  
• Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UIAM)  
• Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS)  
• Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS) | 4                                                  |
| Technical or Focus university                  | • Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)  
• Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI)  
• Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)  
• Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM)  
• Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UNIMAP)  
• Universiti Malaysia Terengganu (UMT)  
• Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP)  
• Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM)  
• Universiti Darul Iman Malaysia (UDM)  
• Universiti Malaysia Kelantan (MK)  
• Universiti Pertahanan Nasional Malaysia (UPNM) | 11                                                 |

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (2017)
Appendix 10. Consent form for interviews

EMOTION REGULATION IN THE MALAYSIAN HIGHER EDUCATION
CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEWS

Thank you for reading the information sheet. If you are happy to participate then please complete and sign the form below. Please initial the boxes below to confirm that you agree with each statement:

Age : _____________ years
Gender : _____________
Number of years working in this university : ____________
Number of years working as an academic : ____________

1. I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to any treatment/service.

3. I have discussed any requirements for anonymity or confidentiality with the researcher.

4. I agree to have the interview recorded (audio), so it can be transcribed after the interview is held.

I agree to take part in this interview.

__________________________  ________________________
Signature of interviewee     Date

I have explained the project and the implications of being interviewed to the interviewee and I believe that the consent is informed and that he/she understands the implications of participation.

__________________________  ________________________
Name of interviewer        Date

__________________________
Signature of interviewer

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY
Participant Number/Initials

[Blank boxes for initials]
Appendix 11. Consent form for focus group

EMOTION REGULATION IN THE MALAYSIAN HIGHER EDUCATION
CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP

Thank you for reading the information sheet. If you are happy to participate then please complete and sign the form below. Please initial the boxes below to confirm that you agree with each statement:

Age : ___________ years
Gender : ___________
Current year in this university : __________
Course of study : ______________________

3. I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily.

4. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to any treatment/service.

3. I have discussed any requirements for anonymity or confidentiality with the researcher.

4. I agree to have the focus group recorded (audio), so it can be transcribed after the focus group is held.

I agree to take part in this interview.

______________________________ ______________________
Signature of interviewee Date

I have explained the project and the implications of being interviewed to the interviewee and I believe that the consent is informed and that he/she understands the implications of participation.

______________________________ ______________________
Name of interviewer Date Signature of interviewee

FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Participant Number/Initials