How May I Help You?
Conceptualizing the Benefits of High Performance Work Practices on Emotional Labour Pressures in the Hospitality Industry

William Murray

April 2007
SL 2007-024

This was a Competitive Paper presented at the 4th Annual Sprott Doctoral Symposium, April 19-20, 2007. Competitive papers are double-blind reviewed by volunteer Sprott faculty members. A volunteer Sprott faculty panel also provides detailed comments on the students’ presentations.

Abstract
The hospitality industry relies on front-line staff members to provide high quality service experiences to encourage repeat business. Unlike the manufacturing industry that separates the production of goods from the delivery to customers, professionals in the hospitality industry realize that customers evaluate their "product" through perceived service quality levels (Ottenbacher & Howley, 2005). Although types of service may differ, industry operators and researchers agree that both customer satisfaction and service quality are critical prerequisites for customer retention (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Consistent service quality demands a workforce with strong emotional display management skills; however, displays of unfelt feelings, or "acting", can create intense emotional strain for service providers. This paper will examine the emotional labour pressures experienced by service workers and outline theoretical mitigating influences provided by high performance work practices (HPWP). Links will be drawn between decreased employee turnover, increased customer satisfaction and customer retention.

About the author
William Murray is a Ph.D. candidate at the Sobey School of Business, Saint Mary's University, in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada.
Sprott Letters
Working Papers

How May I Help You?
Conceptualizing the Benefits of High Performance Work Practices on Emotional Labour Pressures in the Hospitality Industry

William Murray
Sobey School of Business, St. Mary’s University

SL 2007-024
Ottawa, Canada • April 2007

© By the author. Please do not quote or reproduce without permission.

Sprott Letters (Print) ISSN 1912-6026
Sprott Letters (Online) ISSN 1912-6034


For more information please visit “Faculty & Research” at http://sprott.carleton.ca/.
How May I Help You?
Conceptualizing the Benefits of High Performance Work Practices on Emotional Labour Pressures in the Hospitality Industry

Introduction

The hospitality industry, an inclusive title that envelops both the lodging and restaurant industries (CTHRC, 1995), by its very nature is customer focused. With a large amount of duplication in physical characteristics and product offerings, one of the key differentiating attributes of any hospitality establishment is its service (Rowe, 1998). Companies depend on front-line staff members to provide high levels of service to their customers. Although the types of service may differ by organization, there is agreement between industry operators and researchers that customer satisfaction and service quality are critical prerequisites for customer retention (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Unlike the manufacturing industry that may separate the production of goods from the delivery to the customer, employees in the hospitality industry realize that customers judge their “product” by the service level received (Ottenbacher & Howley, 2005).

Customers today are more educated and demanding, service jobs require increased skill levels (Thorsten, 2004), and the pressure on corporations to capitalize on sustainable competitive advantage continues to grow. High turnover rates have become one of the most important issues in the hospitality industry (Cho et al., 2006), primarily caused by poor supervision, a poor work environment, and inadequate compensation (Wasmuth & Davis, 1983). This study will look at the issues of supervision and work environment, investigating the emotional pressures experienced by service workers and examining whether high performance work practices can provide a buffer against the negative affects of these pressures in order to increase motivation and decrease turnover. The era of easily accessible and inexpensive labour (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991a) is quickly disappearing as relationship management and customization of services take on greater importance.

Service Industry

A large portion of service work involves customer interaction with front-line workers; these workers often maintain mutually dependent relationships with their coworkers for the delivery of successful customer experiences (Korczynski, 2003). Customer’s perceived quality of their experience is often directly related to the interaction between the customer and the service provider (Bowen & Schneider, 1988; Morris & Feldman, 1996), with the physical evidence playing a lesser role on quality perception, assuming the physical aspects match the service level provided. Manufactured goods differ considerably from services provided to consumers. Goods are predominately tangible and reasonably durable. Even the most consumable of goods has certain physical attribute allowing the consumer to gain sensory information prior to, during, and post purchase (Peter, Olson, & Rosenblatt, 1996). Services differ from manufactured goods in four fundamental areas: intangibility, perishability, variability, and inseparability (Parasuraman, 1987).
Characteristics of the Service Industry

Intangibility

Rarely can sensory information be gathered on services through sight, smell, or touch before the moment of service delivery (Bebko, 2000). In some cases, the service may contain certain short-term physical attributes (e.g., food in a restaurant, a hotel room); however, even these items can only be appreciated during the time of delivery (Hudson, 2005). The key aspect of service centres on customers’ experience. Experience lacks physical form and exist only during the time of service delivery between customer and service provider; in effect, the experience becomes the summative formation of each separate interaction during service delivery (Parasuraman, 1987). Customers tend to examine the tangible cues in an attempt to discover more about the service provided (Levitt, 1981).

Perishability

The majority of products can be produced in bulk and stored for some future consumption. Conversely, the critical variable with services is time. Services such as hotel rooms, daily tour passes, and airline seats exist in a temporal period and cannot be carried forward for future use. Once the time period has elapsed (e.g., the airplane is in the air), the opportunity to earn revenue ceases to exist. (Hudson, 2005)

Variability or Heterogeneity

Manufactured goods have the benefit of often being crafted of similar materials with similar tools using similar methodologies; so similar are these materials, tools and methods that homogeneous end products are created that are indistinguishable from one another by the consumer. Service experiences are created in the interactions between the customer and service provider, both of whom may differ widely on each occasion. Due to the variableness of both the customer and service provider, maintaining consistent experiences is extremely challenging (Hudson, 2005), leading often to heterogeneous experience.

Inseparability

For many services, the “product” cannot be created without the physical presence of the customer (Hudson, 2005). Experiences are created during the interaction between customer and service provider. Even when the physical attributes are acceptable, poor behaviour or negative attitudes by either party in the service relationship can seriously influence the perceived quality. This requirement for each participant forces the maintenance of an inseparable relationship between each member of the experience.

Impression Management

One common element in the service transaction relationship between the customer and the service provider is the common expectations of appropriate emotional reactions from both parties within the transaction (Hochschild, 1979). Morris and Feldman (1996) noted that the emotional
labour put forth by successful service employees is a significant part of their job duties, yet it is often an unacknowledged component or skill set. In the hotel industry, employees are generally required to maintain positive attitudes and friendly behaviour at all times, even during situations that would normally bring out frustration from possibly hostile and irate customers (Pizam, 2004). These “uneven exchanges” become accepted parts of the public world in which service workers reside (Hochschild, 1983). Such displays do not occur by accident; rather, employees who demonstrate appropriate emotions to their customers do so based on both skill and concerted effort (Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

In his studies of competitive advantage in the hotel industry, Guthrie (2001) found that hotels need to move away from competing on price and attempting to gain advantages through cost control methods, moving instead towards quality, features, and services. Unique services provide a competitive heterogeneity that sets apart a company from the homogeneity of cost control conformity. Based on the commodification of hotel rooms and amenities, what separates one hotel from another is the quality of service provided (Rowe, 1998). The demand for professional attention and quality service is especially high for markets serving customers purchasing high value-added products (Batt, 1999), and by extension, high value-added services. Unlike manufactured products that customers can test, try, and take away, services exist only within the time frame that they are experienced. Due to the control in quality by service providers using intangible skills, the actions of employees, including speech, dress, and emotional displays, are a great concern for managers. Therefore, focus and attention must be placed on customer experience management and, through extension, the management of service employee behaviour (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). In the hospitality industry, managing impressions through high quality comes through the management of thousands of minute decisions made each day by individual employees in the company (Barney, 1995). Overall impressions become a summative compilation of these micro experiences as customers interact with all available employees. Proper management of the quality impression allows for a company to build a competitive advantage.

Competitive Advantage

Firms can develop a sustainable competitive advantage only by creating value to customers that is both rare and difficult for competitors to duplicate (Barney, 1991; Becker & Gerhart, 1996). When resources and capabilities are valuable, rare, and socially complex (Barney, 1995), those resources become the source of that competitive advantage. Increasingly, organizations are drawing on their intangible assets as their source of advantage; nowhere is this more important than in industries dealing with people (Becker, Huselid, & Ulrich, 2001). Based on the ability to execute strategy well in the area of intangible assets (Becker et al., 2001), the function of human resources moves into the arena of strategic planning, utilizing assets to influence service outcomes. Managers must look within their organization for human resources that are valuable, rare, and difficult to imitate (Barney, 1995). Furthermore, there is a presumption that more effective human resource management practices are also a source of competitive advantage (Huselid, 1995).
Repeat Business and Customer Retention

In hotels and restaurants, the key customer contact point is the front-line employee. These service providers are the physical face and voice of the establishment, embodying the values of the organization and building both service experiences and relationships with customers. The physical evidence within the establishment needs to be appropriate to the service to minimize possible cognitive dissonance with the customer. However, the service quality depends heavily on the effectiveness with which the front-line employees deal with customers and clients (Parasuraman, 1987; Tsaur & Lin, 2004). As customers make perceptual judgments on received services, it has been argued that higher quality is perceived when better employee service behaviour is received (Hartline & Jones, 1996). The intensity and veracity in which service provider displays their feelings also has a strong impact on the perceived quality of the service transaction (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Fortunately, the personal satisfaction experienced by the front-line worker during the service interaction is a significant and satisfying aspect of their job (Tolich, 1993), increasing service commitment to quality outcomes.

Emotional Labour

Definition

Front-line employees in the hospitality industry spend a great deal of time interacting with guests. Their job is to satisfy guests through experience and impression management. At times, this type of management requires the display of emotions not actually felt by the employee, which may be viewed as a type of acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Hochschild (1983) refers to this as the transmutation of private emotional management into the public world for profit gains. In the hospitality industry, emotional labour plays an important role due to the direct customer interactions and dynamic variability that comes from the heterogeneous work environment (Bowen, Siehl, & Schneider, 1989).

One of the key aspects of providing services is the ability to show emotions both appropriate to the situation and acceptable to the customer being serviced, much like an actor on stage (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). These emotions may include positive displays such as joy, gratitude, and excitement. Just as important, however, is the ability to control negative emotions of frustration, anger, and irritation. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) described this type of emotional labour as expressing socially desirable emotions during the service transaction. Others have defined emotional labour more as the management of observable feelings and physical manifestations in the public eye (Hochschild, 1979).

Control

Encompassed in the ideas of what emotional labour may be, there remains a consistent element of control with the choice and expression of emotions towards others. Increased control over displayed emotions assists in the management of impressions and perceptions of customers. To this end, it is often a requirement that employees in front line positions either feel or display
certain required emotions to customers (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Levels of emotional labour depend upon the frequency of customer interactions, especially face-to-face (Bowen et al., 1989), the scope and variety of emotions requested from the employee, the demand on employees to conform emotions to acceptable display rules, and discrepancy range between emotions shown and emotions actually felt (Morris & Feldman, 1996). As each of these areas increase, the demands on a workers' psychological energy goes up, creating greater pressures or increased emotional labour (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Assisting in the presentation of the appropriate emotions, or using emotional labour, is a series of display rules that conform to the expectations of the customers being served. These rules mandate the expected emotions in a service encounter. During the customer service interchanges in hotels and restaurants, there are service standards and normative behaviours that outline how, which, and when emotions can be expressed (Hochschild, 1983). If the emotional display rules differ from the emotions felt by a service provider, then certain coping strategies, including faking true emotions, can be employed (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Gross, 1998). These strategies may help the service provider in faking an unfelt emotion or suppressing inappropriate emotions.

Acting

Faking, or portraying emotional displays that differ from authentically felt emotions, is referred to as acting (Hochschild, 1983). When a person simply altered their outward behaviours to match acceptable rules in a given situation, this is called surface acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993); this external behaviour attempt to deceive others, but no effort is made in self-deception (Hochschild, 1983). Alternately, actors may consciously work on altering their inner feelings to create an alignment between emotions expected and felt. This effort to change inner feelings is called deep acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotional labourers take part in communication which result either from naturally felt emotions or from a decision to disguise their true feelings (Fiebig & Kramer, 1998). Deep acting helps emotional labourers show greater authenticity as it is a process of self-deception (Hochschild, 1983) that makes feigning less necessary.

There are techniques that allow employees to better regulate their emotional conditions (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003), including deep or "method" acting skills (Hochschild, 1983). Strategies that increase emotional regulation will better align emotional displays with display rules (Gross, 1998). However, frequent deep acting becomes more difficult over time as emotional exhaustion increases (Morris & Feldman, 1996) and true feelings become blunted (Ashforth & Fried, 1988). Perhaps the difficulty comes from the increased attachment that a service provider feels towards a long standing customer, increasing the desire to feign true emotions (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Regardless of the level of acting employed, the requested behaviours, or display rules, refer to external visible actions; thus, it becomes relatively easy for all stakeholders to observe an employees' level of compliance with established rules (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).
Display rules and normative behaviours

In the hospitality industry, there is strong pressure for emotionally normative behaviours, regulating when and how emotions should be expressed in front of customers (Morris & Feldman, 1996). These rules are typically mandated by authority figures influencing the decision process of employees (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional display rules are rooted in control theory (Klein, 1989), which is based on a communication feedback loop. Klein (1989) outlined the four stages of this negative feedback loop to include an input function, a standard of performance, a basis for comparison, and an output function. The input function is the information employees collect from outside stimuli to interpret specific situations; this information is brought into the feedback loop. Using this information, a standard of performance is created by the service provider, becoming the goal that the employee is attempting to reach. The comparator, or rule, is the mechanism used to seek discrepancies between the input function and the standard of performance. When discrepancies exist, the output function becomes involved to minimize discrepancies. In her study of flight attendants, Hochschild (1983) outlines how this feedback loop is employed. When dealing with unruly or inebriated passengers (input function), flight attendants' natural reaction may be to become annoyed and abrupt (standard of performance). Training includes the revisualization of these same passengers as helpless children requiring patience and attention (comparator) thereby producing reactions of increased tolerance and empathy from the flight attendants (outcome function) (Hochschild, 1983).

In general, compliance with display rules help employees accomplish their tasks, assuming customers perceive the emotions being expressed are sincere (Rafaeli, 1989). Employees can experience variability in the emotional exchanges they must manage with their customers. To deal with the varied nature of service delivery, employees require certain levels of flexibility and discretion. The detail in which display rules are created and enforced influences both flexibility and employee decision discretion. In their design, general display rules tend to create or allow greater levels of flexibility than do specifically designed display rules (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Choices must be made with regard to the levels of specificity in rule design. As display rules rise in specificity, there is a benefit in job performance due to clarity of expectations; however, emotional labourers may find increased constraints that limit their allowed emotional expressions (Grandey, 2000). Conversely, as display rules become more generalized, the variability of available emotional expressions widened, thereby increasing emotional dissonance and stress.

Consequences of emotional labour

Emotional labour has both favourable and unfavourable consequences. Benefits include increased job satisfaction, security, self-esteem, task effectiveness, and an increased sense of community (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). However, when the emotions expressed by workers, as required by organizational display rules, clash with inner feelings, a dissonance is felt on the emotional level (Morris & Feldman, 1996). These gaps between what people truly feel (self-identity) and the display rules they are required to conform can lead to increased emotional dissonance and self-alienation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), increased stress, decreased job satisfaction, and increased turnover (Pizam, 2004). As the pressure on emotional labourers increase through greater required variety of emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1996) or increased duration of interactions (Cordes & Dougerty, 1993), the resulting effects may include decreased
job satisfaction (Morris & Feldman, 1996), increased stress, poor self-esteem, and increased depression, cynicism, role alienation, emotional deviance, and burnout (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). As a psychological strain (Beehr, King, & King, 1990) of burnout increases, emotional exhaustion develops in the emotional labourer.

Pressure, or emotional exhaustion (Morris & Feldman, 1996), occurs within emotional labourers when they must display emotions that do not correspond with their true feelings. Given time to prepare, emotional regulation techniques can be used to correspond felt and displayed emotions (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). However, as events move away from anticipated actions into novel, unanticipated events, the gaps between natural and displayed emotions rises, creating greater emotional dissonance in the employee. Frequent repetition (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and higher durations (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993) of emotional labour leads to higher levels of burnout, especially amongst employees with higher job involvement, professional commitment, and empathy (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). A central component of burnout is the emotional exhaustion an employee experiences when they feel that their “emotional resources are used up.” (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993)

There are particular members of the available workforce who gravitate towards the services industry as they are positively inclined to create and deliver pleasurable customer experiences (Tsaur & Lin, 2004). In cases of negative customer reactions (Pizam, 2004) coupled with the necessity for employees to conform to display rules (Hochschild, 1983), additional internal stress is created (Korczynski, 2003). This unfortunate paradox is that those employees who are most likely to identify with appropriate display roles are those most at risk. Often, these effective employees feel responsible for ensuring the well-being of their customers, creating an exhausting burden (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

High Performance Work Practices

Definition

Within organizations, there are a collection of human resource practices that, when implemented, have strong impacts on employee results (Huselid, 1995). Huselid outlined these practices to include personnel selection and recruitment techniques, performance and attitudinal appraisal methods, compensation, job design, procedures for grievances, access to organizational information, training programs, and guidelines for promotion (Huselid, 1995). Each of these areas helps an organization’s performance (Delaney & Huselid, 1996); research has examined bundling these practices together (MacDuffie, 1995) to gain additive effects, or synergies (Shaw et al., 1998).

These work practices can be reflected in three dimensions (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). The first dimension is relatively high requirements in employee skill level, normally sought during selection and recruitment. The second dimension is a work design allowing employee discretion, empowerment, and collaboration. An incentive structure designed to enhance employee motivation and commitment is the third dimension. All of these practices, with their various dimensional qualities, have come to be collectively known as high performance work practices (Huselid, 1995).
Although high performance work practices can be seen as functional tools, research has shown they can be well incorporated into an organization’s architecture to enhance value creation (Becker et al., 2001). There is little effect of high performance work practices on labor cost savings with current employees (Cappelli & Neumark, 2001) but effective human resource management practices consistently show positive results in increasing employee retention (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Huselid, 1995), which by extension reduces turnover costs, and enhancing firm performance (Arthur, 1994; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996; J. P. Guthrie, Spell, & Nyamori, 2001).

**Uses of High Performance Work Practices**

The existence of constructive human resources practices, including quality selection, training, and compensation creates positive responsive actions from service employees. When treated well, employees feel an inner need to “pay back” their employers through enhanced positivity and courteousness towards customers (Tsaur & Lin, 2004). In service delivery, this enhancement in service translates into a longer endurance of emotional dissonance and willingness to employ emotional management techniques. In turn, increases in customer-focused behaviour during service delivery raise employees’ perception of delivered service quality (Kelley & Hoffman, 1997).

MacDuffie (1995) outlined the historical hiring practices in the manufacturing industry, in which employees were viewed in a Tayloristic manner as interchangeable parts in a machine. Motivation was low, but management monitoring was quite high; employees were considered disposable. Clear differences exist between past attitudes in the manufacturing industry and present concerns in the services industry (Cho et al., 2006). Currently, high turnover rates are one of the most important issues in the hotel industry. Greater use of high performance work practices is associated with lower quit rates and higher sales growth in customer service (Batt, 1999). High performance work practices (HPWP) confer value because employees are better able to meet the demand for customization and service bundling (Batt, 1999). In the hospitality industry, companies with a primary focus on quality enhancement are more likely to adopt strategic human resource practices (Hoque, 1999).

**HPWP as Counterbalance**

The quality of provided services depends strongly on the effectiveness that front line employees deal with customers (Tsaur & Lin, 2004); it follows that efforts to promote service quality must therefore be based on managing employee behaviour (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). Huselid (1995) argued that the performance levels of even highly skilled workers would be limited without appropriate motivation, a factor that could be externally influenced. Although the satisfaction of providing customers with quality experiences can be extremely enriching and provide job satisfaction (Tolich, 1993), the pressures ever-present in front-line hospitality positions to satisfy guests allow the strain of emotional labour to build (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Without providing either a relief mechanism or counter balancing pressure in the workplace, this strain can lead to emotional exhaustion and burnout, in turn decreasing the likelihood of retaining effective employees. Even before the seriousness of emotional exhaustion develops, the pressures on emotional labourers...
eats away at their motivation levels. Organizations can use high performance work practices (Diefendorff & Gossenrand, 2003, Huselid, 1995) to enrich employee motivation, mitigating some negative effects of the emotional pressures. Huselid (1995) postulated that superior human resource practices should lead to an increase in discretionary effort by employees, thereby reducing turnover. Evidence also exists showing that positive results in employee service behaviour occur through quality training programs (Tsaur & Lin, 2004).

Retention

Employee Turnover

When employees are confronted with stressful job-related conditions, they can make the choice to leave. Voluntary turnover, referred to as a “quit”, reflects an employee’s decision to leave (Shaw et al., 1998); these “quits” negatively affect business performance as the exit of effective performers are not initiated or desired by employers (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). The costs of losing effective employees begin at the time of departure with separation costs, move through necessary recruitment and selection methods, and continue up to the point that the new employee reaches a competent performance level (Griffeth & Hom, 2001).

Companies that encourage high employee involvement, participation, and quality incentive plans are more likely to experience lower turnover rates (Batt, 1999; Cho et al., 2006). Becker and Gerhard’s research on HPWP inclusion as part of an organization’s architecture in the increased value and reward of employee performance (Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

Research highlights the positive relationship that exists between employee turnover and customer defection rates (Owen & Teare, 1996), influenced by employee job satisfaction. Lowering customer defection rates is profitable to companies (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Managers have long known that new customers are more costly to acquire and provide less profit than retaining existing customers (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991a). Major hotel chains have projected that a reduction in voluntary employee turnover has a strong influence on reducing customer defection rates, in turn raising revenue levels (Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991b).

Benefits of Retention

Voluntary turnover hurts organizational performance (Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005). The connection between voluntary turnover and performance is especially significant as employee turnover is positively correlated to customer turnover (Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997); therefore, decreasing employee turnover through actions that increase loyalty should lead to increased customer loyalty and decreased defection.

Service industry customers expect positive emotional displays during their experiences and service providers receive job satisfaction when high quality service is provided and acknowledged by their customers (Cho et al., 2006). At times, the emotion displays expected by both customers and the organization differ from authentic emotions felt by the service provider during the interaction between customer and provider. Emotional labourers have developed techniques to “act” their way through; these techniques in turn create emotional dissonance
within the employee. Continual emotional dissonance creates stress that develops into emotional exhaustion, leading to an increase in burnout and turnover. High levels of turnover are costly to the organization on two fronts: replacing the effective employee and retaining customers who have developed service relationships with past employees. Reducing employee turnover can influence the reduction of customer defection and lower labour costs. To mitigate the negative pressures that occur with emotional labourers and the dissonance they feel, employers can utilize strategic human resource management techniques (Cho et al., 2006) including high performance work practices.

Conclusions

When dealing with human resources, paradoxical relationships continue to develop. In the hotel industry, emotionally committing to the delivery of high quality customer experiences provides high personal satisfaction (Tsaur & Lin, 2004); however, due to the high levels of variability and repetition, the pressures of emotional labour often leads to emotional exhaustion (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Cho (2006) has identified that high levels of turnover continue to plague the hotel industry. Although employees in organizations are often referred to as the company’s most important assets, conventional management thinking continues to categorize human resources as an administrative cost centre (Becker et al., 2001).

This paper has explored the pressures experienced by service workers attempting to balance authentic emotions in employment environments dominated by display rules and normative behaviours. It is suggested here that implemented high performance work practices will counter balance the negative pressures felt by emotional labourers, increase employee motivation and decrease employee turnover. Quality services are centred on intangible assets and relationships created between employees and customers; therefore, high employee turnover is positively associated with customer defections. Employment turnover is, thus, costly from two directions: the costs involved in replacing the employee and the costs stemming from the loss and replacement of customers. The use of HPWP to mitigate emotional pressures and minimize employee turnover should reduce costs in both of these areas.

References


