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An investigation into cabin crew stress/burnout in the UK aviation industry

Stephanie Anne Preston

PhD

2022

An investigation into cabin crew stress/burnout in the UK aviation industry

Stephanie Anne Preston

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of Northumbria at Newcastle for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Research undertaken in the Faculty of Business and Law and in collaboration with UNITE union

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Abstract

As the world of work becomes more stressful so does the threat to employee well-being and productivity. Airline cabin crew are front line, safety conscious employees who are faced with a diverse range of job exposures and who operate in extreme situations whilst also managing varied levels of fatigue, sleep deprivation, jet lag, loneliness and around the clock shift patterns. The psychological well-being of aviation employees has been gaining more prominence in recent years due to an increase in fatal crashes and aircraft mishaps where pilots in particularly have suffered with mental health issues. Cabin crew however are often employees who are overlooked as they have differing exposures, demands and pressures associated with their role yet just like pilots they experience psychological challenges which can be detrimental to their well-being. Several theoretical models have been suggested which help to gain better understanding of employee stress and burnout with the JD-CS Model having most relevance to this study and its participants. A questionnaire was used to collect views from a sample of 1431 UK based cabin crew employed across seven different airlines representing full cost, low cost, and charter airline carriers. A small number of key informant interviews were also carried out with crew representatives. Some of the results from the study have detailed what the key stressors are for cabin crew in their day-to-day employment and have also linked to supporting the ISO strain of the JD-CS Model. Suggestions have been made as to how some of the stressors identified in this research can be better addressed within the aviation industry to promote a better level of well-being for all concerned.

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PhD Submission

Declaration

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others. The work was done in collaboration with the UNITE trade unions based in Esher and Central London and employed Cabin Crew representatives with UK based airlines.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted by the Faculty Ethics Committee/University Ethics Committee on 4th March 2018. Submission Reference: 11710

I declare that the Word Count of this thesis is 69,431

Name: Stephanie Anne Preston

Signature:

1 INTRODUCTION

1.0 The study and its contribution to knowledge

Human Resource Management as an academic discipline is over thirty years old and has established itself, gained popularity and developed a strong position (Beer, Boselie and Brewster, 2015). Research studies in this area are often faced with criticism with claims suggesting them to be 'conservative' in nature and/or irrelevant (Delbridge and Keenoy, 2010). Latorre, Guest, Ramos and Gracia (2016) argue however that for the field to progress good theory is often needed about the nature of Human Resource Management, relevant and the relationship Human Resource Management has with these outcomes.

This PhD study was produced to help to contribute to a body of literature and knowledge around stress and burnout and specifically that which is experienced in the occupation of aviation cabin crew employees. This occupational grouping is described as a hermetic group of employees and the study of their work is limited (Gittell, Nordenflycht and Kochan, 2004; Wirtz, Heracleous and Pangarkar, 2008; Kao, Stewart and Lee, 2009; Chen and Chen, 2014; Castro, Carvalharis and Teles, 2015; McNeely, Mordukhovich, Tideman, Gale and Coull, 2018; Iqbal and Hendarsih, 2018; Gale, Morduckhovich, Newlan and McNeely, 2019; Ślazyk-Sobol, Dobrowolska, and Flakus, 2021). Although they are a group of people with a very serious safety conscious role to deliver and nonetheless suffer with a range of job stressors such as poor work-family conflict, excessive customer demands and poor working conditions which can make their role difficult (Appelbaum and Fewster, 2002; Williams, 2003; Kao, Stewart and Lee, 2009; Upchurch, 2010, Chen and Chen 2012; Simpson, 2014; Bergman and Gillberg, 2015; Castro, Carvalharis and Teles, 2015 and Eaton, 2017, Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung, 2022). A substantial collection of data was obtained from UK employed cabin crew and from the results it identified several key stressors to their work. Suggestions have been made around how some of these stressors can be managed better within the industry to help promote a better level of employee well-being for all concerned. Data was collected pre covid-19 health pandemic however this has provided a good basis for future follow up studies which can draw upon comparative work on this occupational grouping and their well-being both pre and post covid 19 pandemic.

1.1 The aviation industry and its workforce

The commercial aviation industry is described as one which suffers with '*distressed airline syndrome*' according to Doganis (2001). The term he uses, as it captures many of the pressures the aviation industry faces such as making substantial losses, over politicisation, strong trade union presence, low productivity, bureaucratic management, poor service quality and no clear development strategy. It is an industry utterly reliant on people travelling and if that demand drops or stops e.g., from a global health pandemic or in the aftermath of terrorist activities e.g., 9/11 then it has major consequences on its operations. It is said to be an unusual, dangerous, closed off and risk borne environment (Reason, 2000; Bredewold, 2015; Ślazyk-Sobol, Dobrowolska, and Flakus, 2021). Also considered as sensitive, unstable, and unpredictable and an industry largely responsive to political and environmental circumstances (Wensveen and Leick, 2009; Yeh, 2014). It does however remain an attractive choice for investors because it is one of the few industries that if things go well, it can offer a large payback (Wensveen and Leick, 2009).

The industry has seen much technical advancement in recent years and the emergence and growth of new competitors because of the introduction of low-cost airlines. After 9/11 many employees were facing layoffs and renegotiations of employee contracts (Bamber, Gittell, Kochan and Von Nordenflycht, 2013). Any surviving employees faced pay and benefit cuts and after eighteen months of the recession air travel finally came back to pre-recession levels in terms of demand. The emergence of the low-cost model has encouraged poorer terms and conditions of employment for most aviation employees (Smith and Cox, 2008). Many employees work on low paid salaries, are required to deliver high productivity, have limited breaks, pay freezes, lack of job security, and have no pension deficits (Smith and Cox, 2008; Baum, 2012). As such there have been increased levels of stress due to having to do more with less and being subjected to intensive working patterns (Boyd and Bain, 1998; Eriksen, 2006; Hunter 2006 and O'Sullivan and Gunnigale, 2009). SouthWest Airlines in America are an example of an airline who have portrayed some positive employee relations despite being a low-cost carrier.

The CEO and co-founder Herb Kelleher is said to encourage employees to be very informal and have fun within their jobs and to maintain the culture within the organisation employees are carefully screened to ensure they will fit in within the company (Sadri and Lees, 2001). They have also demonstrated some successful employee relations during times of crisis. In response to 9/11 they did not reduce their workforce like many other airline carriers but insisted on keeping them intact (Jeon and Shapiro, 2007). Again, in response to covid-19 Southwest Airlines provided an economic relief package which benefitted employees and the suspension of furloughs and pay cuts to help alleviate depression that was being felt in the sector (Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung, 2022).

Sarina and Lansbury (2013) suggest that some airlines do pride themselves on taking the 'high road' to employee relations, which should showcase cooperation and commitment between management and the workforce. If adopting this approach, it is considered that airlines would see increased productivity, the creation of higher quality products and services, increase in profits and higher wages (Kochan, 2006). A typical example would be SouthWest airlines as they offer high employment security, high wages, high skill and high productivity and can be considered as a *'textbook'* model of best practice particularly in relation to HRM (Harvey and Turnbull, 2020). By contrast the 'low road' is very antithesis where regimented jobs, hierarchical systems of managerial control and antagonism between parties in a regular occurrence throughout the day (Harvey and Turnbull, 2010). They function around cost minimisation and a workforce which is low skilled, low paid and less likely to be committed to organisational goals (Harvey and Turnbull,2010). Quite often it would also see the outsourcing of services. This could be typically linked to airlines such as Ryanair. Most employees would rather work for companies delivering a high road approach however current day management are increasingly keen to adopt low-cost methods of working (Harvey and Turnbull, 2010).

Tensions between airline management and employees is a longstanding feature within the industry (Boyd, 2001). Management is often criticised for being '*fat cats*,' showing little empathy towards their employees and focusing on cost reduction (Gittell, Nordenflycht and Kochan, 2004). Harvey and Turnbull (2010) describe the management labour relations at a popular UK airline as '*adversarial*' and reactive to problems that occur termed as '*firefighting.*'

The relationship management have with their employees should be important and can affect employee performance and well-being (Gilbreath and Benson, 2004; Vanhala and Tuomi 2006; Purcell and Hutchinson, 2007; Baptiste, 2008; Poulsen and Ipsen, 2017). Cabin crew employees have little face to face contact with managers and some of these managers have come from differing work backgrounds and not necessarily aviation. This can create anger and resentment among the crew as they often get frustrated with managers who do not fully understand the challenges they experience. Employees are reliant on the use of alternative resources to liaise with some managers, and this can create further strain and tension (Demerouti, Van den Heuvel, Xanthopoulou, Dubbelt and Gordon, 2017). Some of the draconian measures implemented by management on employees have seen an increase in working hours, manipulation of shift patterns, reduced rest breaks to maximize working time within legal duty hour limitations, pay freezes, wage reductions, use of part time workers and recruitment of '*flags of convenience'* employees on downgraded employment contracts (Doganis, 2001; Johnson and Anderson, 2004). This trend continues and one would expect to see more of this kind of employee management occurring as the battle to cut costs persists.

As a result of poor management practices and employee resistance union relations have been a feature within aviation for a long time (Walsh, 1994). Some of the most publicly evident disputes between cabin crew and their management occurred in October 2009 and lasted until 2011 between a British branded airline. The company proposed to change crew's '*working arrangements'* through introducing a group of employees named '*Mixed Fleet*.' This saw the reduction in the need for some employees, some employees began working on lower pay gradings than others and was deemed as an unacceptable attack on the union (Taylor and Moore, 2015). One of the most impactful strikes from cabin crew employees also occurred in 2010 when there was 22 days of strike action costing a British branded airline £180 million. The strike was against cost reduction, plans to dismantle seniority systems of promotion, restructuring of cabin crew operations and bringing pay in line with competitors (Lange, Geppert, Helmhout, Becker Ritterspach, 2015).

Such events have led to mistrust between management and the unions and had a serious impact on employee relations (Bamber, Gittell, Kochen and Nordenflycht, 2009). Upchurch (2010) states there is often a hardened and belligerent management stance to trade unions because of such fraught relationships. This research study only managed to secure one interview with management and subsequently the remainder of the research collection came from the main aviation trade union body of employees. Through the union's interest in the topic area access was then provided to a large sample of cabin crew employees which has ultimately made the study a success. It is not uncommon to struggle when seeking to carry out research in the aviation industy and as Eaton (2001) states it is often particularly difficult because airline managers are even more secretive and defensive about academic research than those in other industries.

UNITE is the dominant union supporting many ground and cabin crew employees working within the civil aviation industry. The main purpose of unions is to provide employees with enhanced job security and bargaining power over wages / working conditions (Gittell, Nordenflycht and Kochan, 2004, Greer, 2009). Unions are also identified as being responsible for representing employee's voice (Wilkinson and Fay, 2011). Freeman and Medoff (1984) argue it makes sense to have voice from companies as well as employees. This being something that can be facilitated by trade unions because of the independence they have (Wilkinson and Fay, 2011). Criticisms have been made to suggest that union involvement in workforce matters is troublesome and/or they thrive on employee dissatisfaction in the workplace (Freeman and Medoff, 1984, Lu, Tao and Wang, 2010). Bryson (2001) states that unions can sometimes affect employee's levels of trust with the management within their workplace although Bryson's (2001) findings revealed that management were generally influencing employees' perceptions of trust through how they actually engage and work with unions. Much remains unknown around how unions can influence employee's perceptions of management after many studies generally take a managerial stance (Bryson,2001). If management do ensure a high level of trust, then this can mean that unions have sufficient power to make sufficient recommendations and positive contributions as to how the workplace runs as well as supporting and representing the employee voice.

If unions are weak or management actively discourage employee membership of unions, it often determines bad employee perceptions of management.

Unions in the aviation industry receive a lot of 'recoil' and blame from airline management in terms of undermining airline efficiency (Greer, 2009). However, Gittell, Nordenflycht and Kochan (2004) argue this is not always the case and found from their study that union involvement substantially boosted airline productivity. This could be as unionised employees gain better compensation packages as appose to non-unionised employees (Hirsch, 2008). Metcalf (2002) argue that unions can have a positive impact on productivity when the organisational culture of a company is non adversarial. Dependent on the positioning in the business model airlines can adopt different approaches towards union involvement. This can run alongside the airline's approach to employment relation strategies. Some airline companies such as Ryanair were reluctant to acknowledge union involvement (Harvey and Turnbull, 2020). Avoidance has been central to Ryanair's unfolding business strategy and industry leading profitability however in January 2018 the airline conceded recognition to the British Airline Pilots Association, and this was followed by UNITE to represent cabin crew in June 2018 (Harvey and Turnbull, 2020). The airline has been bullish about the impact of trade union recognition and still currently maintains its traditional hard approach to HRM based on low security, low wages, minimum skills but high productivity (Harvey and Turnbull, 2020).

Bamber, Gittell, Kochan and von Nordenflycht (2009) produced an analytical framework that classifies legacy and new entrant airlines in relation to their approach to employment relation strategies. Vertically it demonstrates the relationship they have with their employees. Horizontally it illustrates the relationship the airline has with their union**.** See Figure **(1)**

Figure (1): Relationship of Unions model

		Relationships with Unions		
		Avoid	Accommodate	Partner
Relationship with employees	Control	Ryanair Air Asia	US Airways Qantas BA Air Lingus American	Lufthansa SAS Germanwings
	Commitment	Delta (pre 1994) Jet Blue Westjet	Continental Virgin Blue Air Tran Easyjet	Southwest

Source: Bamber, Gittell, Kochan and von Nordenflycht (2009)

Upchurch (2010) examined a British based airline, and noted that management had been associated with bullying, harassment, intimidation, and hostile actions when dealing with aviation trade unions and using 'macho management' methods which are made possible by the set-up of the organisation, through the culture and the positioning of power. The behaviour of subordinates is generally controlled by fear and disapproval. Harvey (2009) also found there to be an antagonistic relationship to be present between management and airline employees with a respondent claiming that senior management had a '*horrendous attitude'* towards cabin crew and union representatives. The current management style and way of working with some airline unions can be considered as belligerent and this alongside cabin crew's deteriorating pay and working conditions can be highly damaging for them.

1.2 The work of cabin crew

Society's impression of cabin crew employment is often stereotyped, and many consider it to be an attractive, easy and glamorous occupation because in some cases it is thought to be well paid, with short working hours, the enticement of being able to travel around the world for free and dine / stay in fine accommodation and restaurants often at the cost of the employing airline (Partridge and Goodman, 2016). Some also believe the occupation has an elevated socioeconomic status (Liang and Hsieh, 2005; Chen and Chen, 2012; Baruah and Patrick, 2014). Partridge and Goodman (2016) consider this attraction and question whether it lives up to people's expectations. British Airways in their recruitment campaigns for cabin crew promote that working as crew is not so much a job but a privileged life with the opportunity to visit places and cultures beyond most people's reach (Eriksen, 2006: Partridge and Goodman, 2016). They are honest in making clear however it can also be a very exhausting lifestyle that places harsh demands on family and social commitments and is not an occupation suited for people who crave routine (Eriksen, 2006; Partridge and Goodman, 2016). If you are someone coming into this occupation from a standard 9 – 5 background it can present challenges when you lose the ability to plan ahead, give up weekends and holiday periods and have to adapt to working with a variety of people and never routinely the same person (Partridge and Goodman, 2016). Working conditions are hard and there is an increasing level of pressure involved with the role (Baruah and Patrick, 2014).

Employment is stressful, tiring, and disruptive (Ballard, Romito, Vigiliano, Caldora, Mazzanti and Verdecchia, 2004). Much of this is because of the demands of a crew's role, the crew's employing organisation's expectation and constant interaction with customers making them susceptible to high engagement with emotional labour. They deal with extreme situations, take on excessive workloads and experience varied levels of fatigue as part of their position (Lindgren, Andersson, Dammstrom, Norba¨ck, 2002; Eriksen, 2006; Chen and Kao, 2012; Viegas, Vora, Mistry and Cunha, 2012; Hur, Moon and Jun 2013; Karatepe and Eslamlou, 2017; Cheng, Hong, Yang, 2018; Vantankhah and Darvishi, 2018). Most people work in this occupation for just a few years due to the physical and mental workload associated with it (Chen and Chen, 2012). However, some choose to make it their career and adapt to the chaotic lifestyle the role provides them with.

Bolton (2005), Baruah and Patrick (2014) and Bergman and Gillberg (2015) acknowledge that the role of crew is emotionally challenging. Once the novelty has worn off in terms of visiting new countries, escaping the routine, and meeting new people – rich and famous and everything in between, the realities of the occupation surface. This can see crew experiencing a lack of control over their lifestyle, missing home, family and friends, dealing with demanding situations and the challenge of trying to operate without planning ahead (Partridge and Goodman, 2016). The lack of sleep, jet lag and dehydration as part of engaging with international flying can impact physically and mentally on crew. They also do not work together routinely and when on duty and it is to be expected that they will work with an unfamiliar team (Smith, Harrington and Neck, 2000). This can sometimes cause undue pressure and tension as people have not worked together before and this can result in work conflict. It can also create difficulties with forming any stable and long-lasting work alliances which in turn promotes a lack of continuity, trust, and development. It can also promote a sense of loneliness and isolation as crew find themselves very much on their own and away from personal relationships/family bonds (Eriksen, 2006).

Crew also often find themselves faced with work intensification and the notion of 'doing more with less' and suffering with inadequate levels of resources or support from line managers. Crew find that with the increased demands from onboard working such as needing to operate with minimum numbers of crew on board, turnaround times being reduced to a minimum, (often very popular with low-cost operators) and flights being full of demanding passengers, that the working day is reduced and the intensification of work impinges on their day-to-day life (Bergman and Gillberg, 2015). They are also subjected to reduced breaks whilst working and can work 12- 14 hours and eat food sat on a jump seat. They consider things such as fresh air, eating at a table or opportunity to tend to personal needs as luxuries due to their experienced limitations.

Wirtz, Heracleous and Pangarkar (2008) have conducted studies around this area and claimed it is difficult for many airlines to get their HR practices right to fit with a demanding industry with a set of particular high standards on their employees. As a result, some employees find it difficult to adopt a comfortable identity with their work. Having to be constantly nice, caring, polite and have asymmetry of respect is integral to their work and having to be relentlessly friendly at every hour of the day or night to violent, abusive, or angry customers can be challenging (Simpson, 2014). It can have a huge detrimental impact on their psychological and physical health and well-being as mentioned in Kinman (2009). It can produce personality splits in individuals and create issues for the individual in knowing who they truly are.

A copy of the job description for cabin crew can be found in appendix (**1**).

1.3 Exploring stress/burnout within the aviation industry

Stress and burnout are a dominant feature of much of modern-day society and they can lead to serious problems for organisations. They are identified as significant occupational hazards which thrive within the workplace and can be most damaging to both health and work performance (Maslach and Leiter, 2005; Schaufeli and Taris, 2014; Eriksen, 2016; Gauche, Beer and Brink, 2017; Lukic and Lazarevic, 2018). Burnout has received a lot of attention over the last five decades and it has been labelled as the biggest public health crisis of the 21st Century (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014, Drayton, 2021). Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) state that in past years research have established the complexity of the construct and places the individual stress experience within a larger organisational context of people's relation to their work. Burnout can have catastrophic consequences including total re-evaluation of people's professional lives (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Moczydłowska,2016). It can happen at any point, to any person and in any place (Boštjančič and Koračin, 2014; Hsieh, 2014). It is also something that is not particularly caused by one big event but rather thousands of day-to-day workplace experiences (Drayton, 2021). It can be described as the outcome that stems from stress that hasn't been successfully dealt with (Weber and Reinhard, 2000; Maslach 2003).

A variety of theoretical models are presented in literature that aim to explore how stress/burnout is experienced and some of these include Job Demands Control Support (JD-CS) and Job Demands Resource (JD-R) (Khushnood, Khattak and Abbas, 2020). These will be discussed in more detail within the literature review of this study.

Stress and burnout within the aviation industry is not a new phenomenon however the attention is usually directed towards studying the role of mental health within pilots and cockpit crews (Appelbaum and Fewster, 2002). Tragedies such as the Germanwings crash in 2015 was pinnacle in supporting the need for more research in this area. Pilots regularly experience issues with career strain, financial troubles and aircraft mishaps as stated in some studies by Katz (1997); Fanjoy, Harriman, and DeMik (2010); Brezonakova (2017); Demerouti, Veldhuis, Coombes, and Hunter (2019); Li, Chen, Xin and Ji (2020); Cahill, Cullen and Gaynor (2020). Cabin crew take on a more physical and strenuous role to pilots and have to deal with passenger demands, medical emergencies and dealing with turbulence which can all add to an already busy workload (Brown, Rushton, Schucher, Stevens, & Warren, 2001; Mengenci, 2014; Van de Berg, Signal and Gander, 2019). As a result of this it has been noted in literature that the mental and physical health and well-being of cabin crew is an area of growing concern (Ballard, Corradi, Lauria, Mazzanti, Scaravelli, Sgorbissa, Romito and Verdecchia, (2004) and McNeely, Mrdukhovich, Tideman, Gale and Coull, 2018).

When researching the impact of stress and burnout within the occupation of cabin crew it had been mentioned as far back as the last quarter of the twentieth century (Preston, 1974) and current day it is still an area which continues to grow and gather interest **(**Lindgren, Andersson, Dammström, and Norbäck (2002), Eriksen (2006), Sharma (2007), Seriwatana and Charoensukmongkol, 2020). It is suggested the occupation sees a great level of stress/burnout because of the demanding work environment (McNeely et al, 2018) whereas others believe this is because of the job-related stressors crew experience such as unfavourable working conditions and job-related duties (Chen and Kao, 2012; Cho, Choi and Lee 2014; Hu, Hu and King, 2017; Batouei, Iranmanesh, Nikbin and Hyun, 2019; Cahill et al, 2021).

Some examples of these include interactions with managers, other colleagues/customers, time limits/differences, shift work, their physical workload, jet lag, fatigue and leaving family/friends or small children at home whilst they are away. Consequently, this can result in work–life conflict as well as worries about work related diseases or health threats (Wahlstedt, Lindgren, Norbäck, Wieslander, and Runeson 2010).

Amornpipat and Burapharat (2019) state that there are three kinds of job characteristics commonly associated with cabin crew's work which can lead to heightened stress/burnout and emotional exhaustion are –

- Quantitative job demands – workloads, time pressure, irregular working schedules linking with burnout through exhaustion experienced.
- Severity of client's problems – emotional labour of dealing with people and how this can link to emotional exhaustion
- Expectations of duty – managing their emotions. Crew sometimes experience difficult situations and have to display particular emotions in line with company policy and rules. This can also lead to exhaustion.

The presence of stress/burnout for crew can create many challenges and impacts on their day-to-day interactions which can include their ability to deliver services, perform, make decisions, communicate and be effective team members as well as potentially a threat to safety and the lives of passengers (Humborstad, Humborstad and Whitfield, 2007, Pienaar and Willemse, 2008; Kara, Uysal, Sirgy and Lee, 2013; Cahill, Cullen and Gaynor, 2018). Burnout can be even more dangerous as this is the response to a longer presence of stress. 'Burnout Syndrome' is described as physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion as a result from being exposed to long lasting emotionally demanding circumstances and a gradual process of disappointment (Pines and Aronson,1988). This is catastrophic for airlines as burnout syndrome can see employees having negative, callous and dehumanised responses to customers as well as companies experiencing high rates of employee sickness, turnover, low morale and job dissatisfaction amongst their workforce (Payne, 2001; Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2006; Pienaar and Willemse, 2008; Baum, 2012; Mengenci, 2014 and Enshaei, 2018).

Ai-Serkal (2006) explored the presence of stress and emotional labour in cabin crew employment, using semi structured interviews with 7 participants to determine what issues crew were experiencing in relation to job stress. Most of the participants had been employed with their organisations between nine months to five years. Following on from this qualitative research crew then completed a copy of the Occupational Stress Questionnaire adapted from Evans (1986). On the questionnaire 19 measures were present. 9 were taken from the original questionnaire and the remaining 10 were devised fitting with the literature review. All measures attempted to address what factors in the cabin crew environment had an impact on stress levels. The results from this exercise showed that controlling emotions, onboard emergencies, being frustrated with company limitations and being away from home resulted in high levels of stress. Four of the participants felt that a lack of sleep caused high stress and three participants claimed that dealing with personal problems and monotony of the job created stress. Two participants felt that relationships outside of work also created stress for them. These findings were interesting to have knowledge off before carrying out the research collection for this study. Similarly, a study by Sharma (2007) found that 88.85% of cabin crew respondents stated they experienced stress in relation to their work. It is believed much of this was triggered by factors that crew were exposed to within their work environment, aspects of the role not matching the realities, lack of support from peers and management and airlines having to operate in such testing financial climates with job security always being a concern (Omholt, Tveito, Ihlebaek, 2017). The respondents who took part in Sharma's study detailed that if their work environment was more employee friendly stress levels may reduce.

Oludeyi (2015) broadly define the work environment as the surroundings an employee has which can include the settings, situations, conditions, and circumstances in which people work. Briner (2000) and Jain and Kaur (2014) states that it can encompass many things such as physical settings e.g., heating, lighting, equipment; characteristics of a job such as workload and task complexity, broader organisational features such as culture and history and even organisational settings such as local labour market conditions, industry sector and work – home relationships. The work environment is said to have a major impact on an employee's psychological well-being and can shape behaviour and determine how someone is placed within their work environment.

It will see them either 'fitting in', in which they would intrinsically enjoy their work/role or see daily occurrences become unpleasant and experience more negative outcomes such as boredom, poor work performance and lack of satisfaction (Westerman and Yamamora, 2007; Jain and Kaur, 2014). Some specific studies have explored work environments of cabin crew. Sveinsdottir, Gunnarsdóttir,and Friðriksdóttir (2007) compared the working environments of Icelandic female nurses, cabin crew and teachers. All occupational groupings were identified as employees in service orientated positions and who had to meet the needs of individual needs of clients in stressful situations. All members worked indoors, and their work was considered strenuous with nurses and cabin crew working unsocial and irregular hours. The results found that cabin crew were more likely than the other two occupational groups to report less job security, also experienced more discomfort from their physical working environment and found their work more strenuous than either of the other occupations. Cabin crew also found their work more monotonous than either of the other two occupations. Teachers felt they had more control over their work in comparison to nurses and cabin crew. Overall, nurses were reported as assessing their work environment in a positive way and they scored lowest in terms of stress and exhaustion which is a surprise result. The findings did highlight however that cabin crew and teachers found their working environment to be highly stress provoking, and this can be considered as cabin crew often are exposed to violent passengers, have major safety responsibility and the looming threat of terrorist activities. Ballard, Corradi, Lauri, Mazzanti, Scaravelli, Sgorbissa, Romito and Verdecchia (2004) also focused a study on Italian cabin crew. They found that crew also reported sources of stress through working in isolation and solitude, through interactions with passengers and through a lack of protection from their employees towards workplace exposure and air rage.

Through some of the studies mentioned it has become apparent that the work environment that crew are exposed to and how this can contribute to some of the stressors crew experience is an area which lacks attention and this has been noted by Eriksen (2006), Sharma (2007); Wahlstedt, Lindgren, Norback, Wieslander and Runeston (2010); Viegas, Vora, Mistry and Cunha (2012) and Ekore, Allui, Al Shareef and Zawawi (2020).

Practitioners have also suggested that many airline companies have also acknowledged that they need to promote a healthier psychosocial working environment for their employees (Eriksen, 2006). Ways to achieve a better psychological work environment have been proposed in the 'Health and Safety Management Standards Executive Tool' (Campion, 2016). This tool covers six key areas of work design that if not adequately managed can create poor health and well-being, lower productivity, and increased sickness levels (Campion, 2016). Consequently, this tool helped to shape some of the research design used later within this study.

1.4 Research aim/objectives

The aim of this research study is to identify the main stressors cabin crew employees working in the UK aviation industry experience within their working environment and to determine how these contribute to the increased levels of stress and burnout they experience.

The study will seek to address the following research questions

- To measure factors within cabin crew's working environment to determine what the main stressors are that can contribute to increased levels of stress/burnout within the occupation.

- To suggest ways in which airline organisations can assist with reducing high levels of stress/burnout amongst their employees to ensure better management of employee well-being for this group of employees.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

There are two parts to this literature review. The first part will focus on the importance of employee well-being as well as providing an overview of studies on employee well-being and how organisations often support employee well-being. The second part will explore stress and burnout and then will evaluate several theoretical models suggested by academics as contributions towards a better understanding of the area.

2.1 The importance of employee well-being

The relationship between a person's work, their health/well-being and performance is well documented (Juniper, 2011; McLennan, 2017). Bakker and Demerouti (2018) state that knowledge of well-being at work derives from thousands of studies among various stakeholders in organisational life including employees, their supervisors, HR managers, work teams and clients. Work is an important context for studying the well-being of individuals because adults spend at least one third of their waking hours at work and it can provide different sources which impact on mental health, optimal social functioning and performances as well as taking up a large percentage of an employee's time and effort (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Kalliath and Kalliath, 2012; Slemp and Vella Brodrick, 2014; Kun, Balogh and Krasz, 2017; Sivapragasm and Raya, 2018). It is therefore not something that can be overlooked and as explained by Wright and Huang (2012), Dodge, Daly, Huyton and Sanders (2012) and Spence (2015) is an issue of global significance.

The World Health Organisation (2005) suggested that organisations should promote employee well-being as part of good corporate practice and suggested it had a significant impact on wider society (Sutton, Evans, Davies and Lawson, 2016). As such employee well-being has become increasingly central to many HRM debates as employment continues to change and become more stressful and dangerous for many (Baptiste, 2008; Spence, 2015; Vakkayil, Torre and Giangreco, 2017).

If decision makers do not acknowledge the area it will continue to lead to disruption in the workplace (Bennett, Weaver, Senft and Neeper, 2017).

A recent definition of employee well-being is suggested in Guest (2017), and this is what was used to sense meaning of the term for the purpose of this research. Guest (2017) suggests it involves the overall quality of how an employee experiences and functions at work. It is also common for employee well-being to be considered as subjective and a multi-dimensional state that encompasses many elements such as physical, material, social, emotional, developmental and activity dimensions (Juniper, 2011). For this reason, scholars have formed several dimensions to consider when measuring an employee's well-being. Grant, Christianson and Price (2007) and Guest (2017) suggest these can generally fall into three areas which are psychological, physical and social.

Psychological well-being is hard to define clearly because the meaning often varies according to time, place, and people (Kim and Hyun, 2021). It can be considered as a participatory life in which an individual seeks the true meaning of life, possesses the ability to cope with difficulties and strives to meet inner beliefs (Kim and Hyun, 2021).

Physical well-being is often associated with the impact an employee's job could have on them both physically and mentally and links well with studies around illnesses experienced through employment or the impact of stress, anxiety, and work exhaustion in the workplace. It can be considered as the condition of an individual's body and mind typically indicating a state free from illness, pain, and injury (Baruah and Patrick, 2014). Also, can be linked with 'need for recovery' linked to an indicator associated with workplace stress (Luu, 2019).

Social well-being *d*efined by Keyes (1998) as the quality of an individual or the employee's relationship with other people and communities. This aspect of well-being is often linked with trust, social support, reciprocity, leader-member exchange, cooperation, coordination, and integration (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000; Adler & Kwon, 2002).

From the many suggestions there are no singular or precise definitions as to what employee well-being is and the concept can have differing meanings dependent on research purpose, context, focus and discipline (Herttuala, Kokkinen and Konu, 2020). Occupations can vary and it is implausible to take a 'one size fits all' approach when considering a person's employment and their well-being at work (Juniper, 2011). This is due to the diversification of work experiences and exposures various occupations can have (Juniper, 2011; Romppanen and Laitila, 2017).

2.2 Whose responsibility is well-being?

The use of many HR practices is considered as a support tool to be the means in which employee's perceptions, attitudes, and sense of well-being in the workplace is shaped (Peccei 2004; Van De Voorde, Paauwe and Van Veldhoven 2012; Alfes, Truss, Soane and Gatenby 2013; Guest 2017; Luu 2019). Appelbaum (2002) and Boxall and Purcell (2008) claim that there was a need for more research to explore how the use of HR practices impacted on areas like employee well-being and performance as it is often difficult to draw conclusions on this. Some academics argue that HR practices and their implementation does not always work favourably for employees, and some can trigger higher levels of stress, burnout, exhaustion, and work intensification, which are elements that negatively affect employee physical well-being (Grant et al., 2007; Alfes, Shantz and Truss 2012; Jackson, Schuler and Jiang 2014; Pawar 2016; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). Ender-Büyükbay, Ünler, and Bozbura (2017) hold the view that HR practices are ultimately not designed to promote well-being but primarily to ensure performance from employees.

When organisations adopt well-being and preventative practices the impact of these can be influenced by many factors such as the upbringing of leaders and their personalities, the leader's ability to articulate employee value proposition, local business and public health needs, industry norms as well as historical and economic contexts (Bennett, Weaver, Senft and Neeper 2017). Many organisations in varied sectors recognise the benefits from introducing health and well-being policies in the workplace (McLennan 2017; Pagan-Castano, Moreno and Rojo 2020).

The CIPD in 2010 stated that nearly half of the organisations which took part in their absence management survey had employee well-being strategies in place (Juniper, 2011). HR policies are also used to ensure there is good employment practice, effective returns to work and rehabilitation for those that need it (McLennan, 2017). They also ensure organisations adhere to employment law including paying workers the minimum wage, overtime, providing work breaks, health insurance and leave for medical purposes. This shows a certain level of proactive commitment to supporting employee well-being (Department for Work and Pensions, 2006). Typical initiatives organisations may offer include use of family friendly policies to help employees address work life conflict better as this has grown as an issue for many employees in recent years. These are said to improve employee productivity and help combat high turnover rates (McLennan 2017).

2.3 Studies and approaches to employee well-being

Many early studies in HRM research tend to focus on organisational outcomes around HR and it's link up with employee performance (Sivapragasam and Raya, 2018). More recently however there has been recognition around understanding employee centred outcomes of HRM and some studies have paid particular attention to this and the trade-off which exists between HR, employee performance and employee well-being (e.g. Guest, 2002; Renwick, 2003a; Lawson, Noblet and Rodwell, 2009; Fisher, 2010; Jiang, Lepak, Hu and Baer 2012; Van de Voorde and Beijer, 2015; Ilies, Aw and Pluut, 2015; Latorre, Guest, Ramos and Gracia, 2016; Kowalski and Loretto, 2017; Khoreva and Wechtler, 2018).

Harter, Schmidt and Keyes (2003) detail that research can fall into two lines when exploring employee well-being. The first line is often associated with the study of stress and health sometimes referred to as person–environment fit. This often argues that employee performance and quality of life is often hindered by strain (too much challenge) or boredom (too little challenge). The other line of study is often linked with employee's quality of life and performance which originates with the behavioural, cognitive and health benefits of positive feelings and positive perceptions.

With this it is considered that with the presence of positive emotional states and positive appraisals of the employee and his or her relationship in the workplace will all determine employee's performance and quality of life (Harter, Schmidt and Keyes, 2003).

Guest (2017) has been one of the key writers who have pressed for more attention towards employee well-being. Guest's earlier work in (2002) promoted the need for building in the employee more within studies. Two ways of doing so were suggested. The first method was by entering a HRM performance equation by measuring the effects of employee satisfaction and well-being on organisational performance and the second through assessing the impact of particular HR practices on employee perceptions of their own well-being (Deery, Iverson and Walsh, 2002). By (2017) Guest found that organisations were still compromising the employee over organisational success and performance and it is considered that this may be something that will continue as we head towards the future.

Guest (2017) suggested an analytical framework which seeks to promote the 'mutual gains' approach to establishing a positive employment relationship with well-being. This framework was used as a template for some key informant research gathering in the initial stages of data collection (see Methodology section). Guest (2017) stated that it is becoming necessary to try to adopt a pluralistic perspective linked to mutual gains which works to accommodate both employers and employees. He identifies a set of five HR practices which he considers are not practices typically linked to employee performance but have more of a focus on instilling employee well-being and positive working relationships. These can be seen here in figure **(2).**

Figure (2): Guest (2017) Analytical Framework

Investing in employees	• Recruitment and Selection • Training and Development • Mentoring and Career support
Providing engaging work	• Job designed to provide autonomy and challenge • Information provision and feedback • Skill utilisation
Positive social and physical environment	• Health and Safety • Equal opportunities and diversity management • Zero tolerance for bullying and harassment • Required and optional social interaction • Fair collective rewards/high basic pay • Employment security/employability
Voice	• Two-way communication • Employee surveys • Collective representation
Organisational support	• Participative/supportive management • Involvement climate/practices • Flexible and family friendly work arrangements • Developmental performance management

Guest (2017) acknowledges that these practices are offered as a basis for research and is open to these being confirmed, extended or amended in future studies. He also discusses how they can vary in relation to context and notes that some practices may be more salient than others. Guest (2017) acknowledges that organisational size, competitive environments, and non-work well-being of individuals can all have an impact on the use of practices.

Investment in employees involves the use of organisation's adoption of resources through the job demand model, careful use of recruitment and selection, training and development and support for career activities. This practice can also overlap with the human capital approach but is aiming to focus more so on the gains associated with employee well-being. The next set of practices links with providing employees with engaging work. In relation to additional models this links with elements of Warr's vitamin model such as opportunities for control, skill use and variety at work.

Whilst also linking with other elements in Grote and Guest (2017) and in the Job Demands Resource Model. The third practice links to creating a positive social and physical environment and cross-links with Grote and Guest's (2017) model. This can include organisation's providing health and safety as a priority, providing opportunities for social interaction at work, zero tolerance for bullying and harassment, providing equal opportunities and diversity, ensuring fair rewards, employment security. Guest (2017) outlines that most organisations will claim that they do all of these things for their employees however it can be questionable and would not usually be found in a HR – performance related model, hence the inclusion in his framework. The final practice links to organisational support and practices that can be adopted to enable this. Methods include active engagement/involvement of employees, supportive management which essentially could explore the line management relationship between employees and their line manager. Additional methods under this practice include use of flexible working and family friendly working arrangements.

Guest (2017) claims that if these five HR practices are investigated and embraced in organisation's this could see a higher and better level of employee well-being and employment relationships. If employee well-being is not addressed through HR practices it is the general assumption that this will have a negative impact on employee performance as well as their levels of well-being when at work resulting in burnout, and many other problems associated with a critical perspective. There has been some level of criticism towards the mutual gain perspective. In recent years many organisations have been recovering from the global economic crisis of (2008) and now Covid 19 crisis. This has left many workplaces as unstable environments with the main priority being recovery and survival.

Many organisations have threatened employee well-being by intensifying jobs and putting restrictions on resources, similar to what is experienced with a critical perspective (Sinclair, Sears, Probst and Zajack 2010; Demerouti, den Heuvel, Xanthopoulou, Dubelt and Gordan 2017). Ehrnrooth and Bjorkman (2012) have also criticised the mutual perspective suggesting it is too simplistic and is an idealistic view of win-win.

Zhang, Fan and Zhu (2014) present a more balanced view suggesting that it is quite possible for HR to positively influence an employee's commitment and satisfaction levels but also negatively influence their stress levels due to work intensification.
Ultimately organisations can avoid considerable costs if they do manage employee well-being effectively and in a way that promotes it amongst their employees. It is also acknowledged that by doing so this can result in happier and healthier employees who may be more innovative, productive and can relate better with customers (Anderson, Llopis and Cooper, 2011).

2.4 Stress/burnout

One of the most common indicators of poor employee well-being is stress/burnout. Stress is defined as any situation or circumstance that requires behavioural adjustment (Lazarus, 2000). It can occur when an individual "*appraises something as a source of harm, challenge, threat or loss and it is a pervasive force that can affect many areas of an employee's work life as well as being hazardous to an individual's mental and physical health*" (Leon and Halbesleben, 2013, p.66). Stress can describe how a body reacts to different unfavourable environmental conditions and these can be considered as stressors (Selye, 1956). Stress should not be considered as totally undesirable as some level of stress is needed at times to help people achieve goals or propel them through a challenging situation (Selye, 1956). There are two ways to consider stress. Positive stress is considered as 'eustress' and can result through birth of a new child, marriage, buying a home etc which are processes or challenges people need to go through to get some result. The other type of stress is attached in a negative way and can result in 'distress' through a person being put under unpleasant pressure to perform, major frustrations or catastrophic events occurring (Colligan and Higgins, 2006).

The more life stress events a person experiences the more one can expect to see a drop or decline in their overall level of health and well-being, and this can lead to severe stress/burnout, anxiety and depressive disorders (Colligan and Higgins 2006). Workplace stress, occupational stress, organisational stress or stress on the job are all expressions which are often used to describe stress experienced by employed people (Lukic and Lazarevic, 2018). Workplace stress is described as "*the change in one's physical or mental state in response to workplaces that pose an appraised challenge or threat to that employee*." (Colligan and Higgins, 2006, p. 89).

Organisations need to have awareness of stress and how to effectively manage it within the workforce as excessive amounts of stress on employees can lead to decreased physical and mental health and increase turnover, absenteeism, and employee compensation claims (Leon and Halbesleben, 2013). There are a range of factors employees can be exposed to which can lead to and create workplace stress (Colligan and Higgins 2006). These can include a toxic work environment, negative workload, isolation, types of hours worked, role conflict, role ambiguity, lack of autonomy, career development, barriers, difficult working relationships, managerial bullying/harassment, and organisational climate. For an employee to experience chronic stress they would be regularly exposed to organisational stressors sometimes considered as the 'niggling aspects of the work environment' that pervade organisations because of the structural arrangements and social life within them (Shane, 2010; Jachens, Houdmont and Thomas, 2018).

If a person is struggling with stress, it can intensify burnout but is not the reason behind it. Stress can be experienced through working long hours, shift work or general work loading but it may not lead to burnout. Burnout is much more severe and directly attributed to work contexts as described by Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001). Defining job burnout poses challenge for science and practice and the topic is something that grabs the attention of Doctors of Social and Occupational medicine (Weber and Reinhard, 2000). Burnout can involve the state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion in employees who work with people in emotionally demanding situations (Maslach, 1982; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Ho, Sing, Fong, Auyeung, Law, Lee and Ng, 2015).

It can be considered as a condition of exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy (Maslach, 1982; Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001; Ho et al, 2015). It can affect every aspect of an individual's functioning (Lacovides, Fountoulakis, Kaprinis, and Kaprinis, 2003; Ahola and Hakanen, 2007).

Burnout can present in many ways in employees, and it is a combination of factors which can include physical, psychological, and behavioural symptoms (Fanjoy, Harriman and Demik, 2010). A common factor associated with burnout from Maslach's (1982) notion is exhaustion. This links with work overload (Murray-Gibbons and Gibbons, 2007), role conflict, (Kuruüzüm, Anafarta, and Irmak, 2008), unrealistic personal expectations, excessive interpersonal interactions, and the lack of effective stress coping mechanisms (Zopiatis and Constanti, 2010). The second factor which can be associated with burnout is depersonalisation. This is linked with, the causes of workplace stress (Perrewe, Fernandez and Morton, 1993), excessive interpersonal interaction. (Maslach, 1982), and the nature of job responsibilities e.g., handling customer complaints or other difficult situations (Patton and Goddard, 2003). The third factor is associated with diminished personal accomplishment. This is linked with lack of recognition and/or positive feedback (Jackson and Schuler, 1983), the feeling of inadequacy and/or incompetence (Janssen, Schaufelioe and Houkes, 1999), the provision of pseudo-authority (Zopiatis and Constanti, 2005). Gill, Flaschner and Schachar (2006) also suggest that diminished personal accomplishment can be caused by the unrealistic expectations at work and poor management quality. Others state it can link with limited opportunities to participate in decision making (Miller, Zook and Ellis, 1989), and the discrepancy between employee's contributions and organizational rewards and the feeling of being undervalued (Murray- Gibbons and Gibbons, 2007).

There are many differing suggestions about what can contribute to burnout however some suggest that work – life balance is at the centre of the burnout crisis (Buscarini, Gecse and Tiniakos, 2020). The six key drivers contributing to work life balance struggles are detailed in the 'areas of work life' model. These are workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Buscarini, Gecse and Tiniakos, 2020).

Alongside this there are a range of personal and organisational conditions which can cause burnout, and these are detailed in figure **(3).**

Figure (3): Exploring Personal and Organisational Conditions

Causes	*Psychological Reactions*	*Consequences*
Organisational conditions	Emotional exhaustion	Withdrawal
Lack of rewards		
Lack of control		
Lack of clarity	Depersonalisation	Interpersonal friction
Lack of support		Declining performance
Personal Conditions	Low personal accomplishment	
Idealistic expectations		Family problems
Personal responsibility		Health suffers

Much of burnout can be created by situational factors connected to people's work. These can include characteristics of work, the profession, and the organisation (Boštjančič and Koračin, 2014). Organisational conditions which can contribute to burnout include things such as a lack of rewards, excessive and out of date policies and procedures, fast paced jobs, and close supervision, all of which can undermine an employee's feeling of control (Jackson and Schuler, 1983). Having a lack of clear-cut expectations and job responsibilities combined with conflict at work can also drain productivity and if also being presented with a lack of support from colleagues/managers it can prevent the employee(s) experiencing burnout with a lack of information (Jackson and Schuler, 1983). These conditions can be behind employee burnout however they can also combine with personal conditions to the individual which they may also be struggling with and create a severe result.

Some personal conditions include;

Idealistic expectations – where the individual may have unrealistic expectations with how the organisation should work and when combined with the actual realities of the organisation it can cause 'reality shock.' An employee may expect to receive rewards for their work, have friendly and understanding colleagues or adequate resources to get the job done when in reality they don't get any.

Idealistic job and career goals – When organisational conditions affect performance it can become bothersome. If an employee feels that they can do everything they can become a natural target for burnout. Employees may do well in terms of standards but by their own they may feel like a failure if they don't particularly hit a particular goal by a particular age.

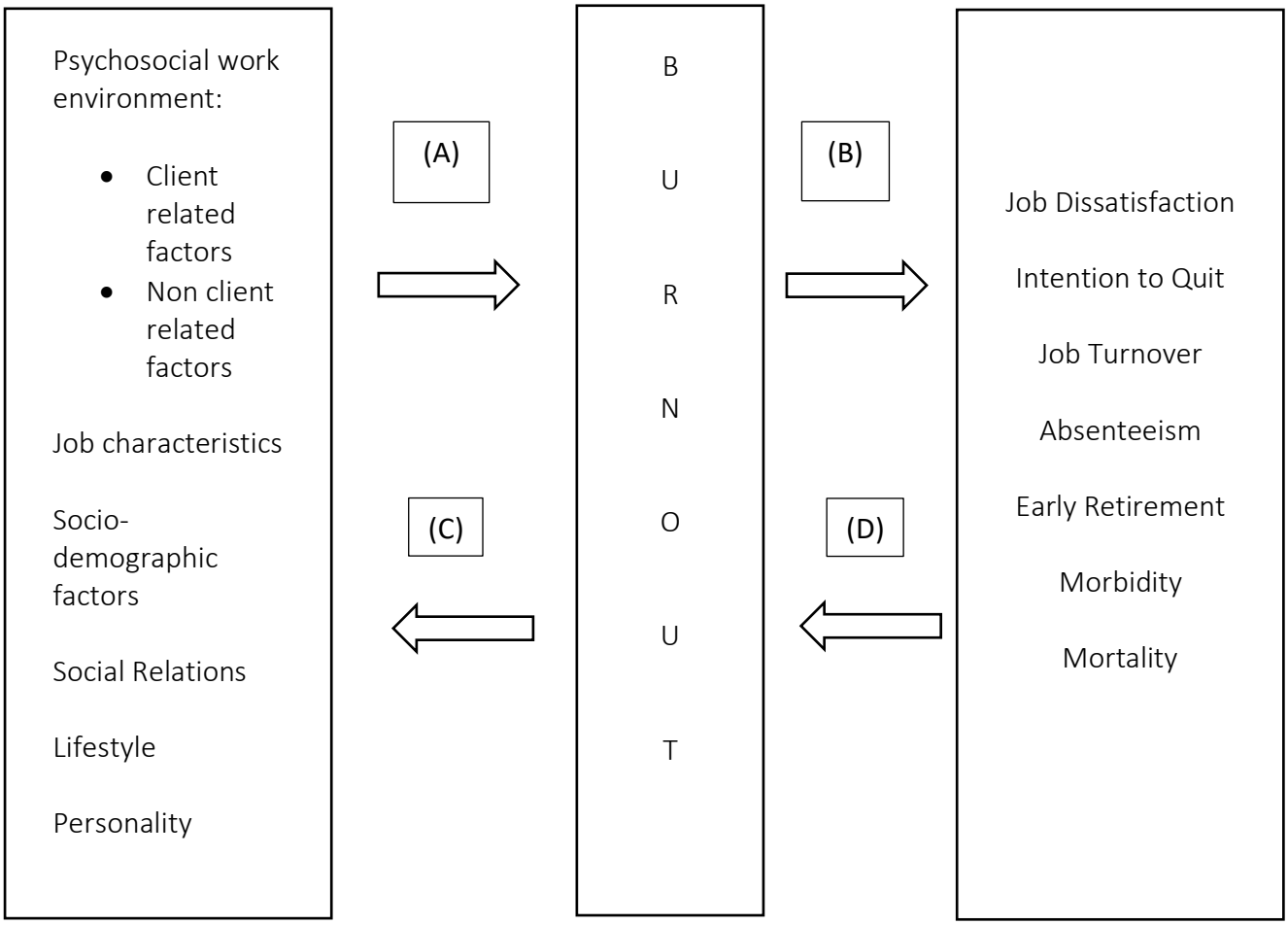
Personal Responsibility for Low Personal Accomplishment - employees who experience feelings of low personal accomplishment can feel personally responsible for their failures when this should not be the case at all in many cases.

Employees experience burnout in varied ways. This is often a process where initially the employee can become exhausted (Boštjančič and Koračin, 2014). The person may typically work very little, denies being chronically fatigued and tries to overcome it. In the second stage which can be years later the employee may still feel extremely exhausted, guilty, and stuck in their own way of working/living and establishing and maintaining relationships.
By the final stage they suffer with adrenal burnout syndrome which can present strong feelings of depression and anxiety (Boštjančič and Koračin, 2014). When it is also experienced in team settings it can become contagious and spread from one member to another which has a catastrophic impact of team morale, motivation, and productivity (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000; Buunk, Ybema, Van der Zee, Schaufeli, & Gibbons, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003, Leiter & Maslach, 2005; Maslach and Leiter, 2008 and Boštjančič and Koračin, 2014).

If an employee experiences burnout the employer may suggest it is the result of the employee's weakness in character or contributing factors in their personal domain and it has nothing to do with the toxicity of the organisational culture and environment (Drayton, 2021). By adopting this attitude, it adds to distress in the individual who believes they are weak as well as suffering with burnout, yet the organisation resolves themselves of any blame, guilt or address any need for change (Drayton, 2021).

A major study that explored burnout was carried out in Denmark and is known as the PUMA study. The Danish acronym stands for Project on Burnout, Motivation and Job Satisfaction and was started in 1997. It ran over a five-year period to study burnout in human service work (Borritz, Rugulies, Bjorner, Villadsen, Mikkelsen and Kristensen, 2006). This study occurred as the unions representing the human service workers discovered a rise in long-term sick leave and early retirement amongst its members and wanted to explore this (Borritz, Rugulies, Bjorner, Villadsen, Mikkelsen and Kristensen, 2006). The theoretical framework of PUMA in terms of determinants and consequences of burnout can be seen in figure (**4**).

Figure (4): Project on Burnout, Motivation and Job Satisfaction



The psychosocial work environment was identified as playing a major role in relation to burnout. The factors detailed in the first column including psychosocial work environment, job characteristics, socio- demographics – e.g., age, sex, social relations, lifestyle e.g. drink and smoking consumption and personality may all influence burnout. They could act independently or mediate each other's effect. Arrow (B) demonstrates some of the consequences of burnout. Arrow (C) details that some of the consequences of burnout could ultimately affect some of the determinants. For example, if someone was not satisfied with their job it could lead them to have an unhealthy lifestyle and engage in excessive drinking. Arrow (D) also illustrates how consequences may also influence burnout. For example, quitting a demanding job and taking a less demanding job could reduce the level of burnout.

2.5 Theoretical models linked to understanding stress/burnout.

There is a wide range of models that have been suggested which can contribute to gaining a better understanding of employee well-being and stress/burnout. One of the oldest frameworks is Warr's (1987) Vitamin model.

2.5.1 Warr's Vitamin Model

The aim of Warr's model is to suggest how environmental influences can have an impact on psychological health and well-being of employees. It is based around a metaphor of how vitamins can affect human health. Following the idea that vitamin intake can improve someone's health and an overdose of vitamins can have a negative impact on the individual and their well-being. Warr (1987) argues that the effects of vitamins on the human body can have the same impact as job characteristics can have on an employee's level of well-being. Nine job characteristics are grouped into nine categories and considered as vitamins or 'work' vitamins. This was a good model to view as a starting point for this research due to its clear link to exploring psychological well-being which was the focus within the study. A key strength to the model is that it can be applied to any work setting.

It has been adopted and readapted by many academics however it is a useful reminder of a range of environmental features which may be relevant when studying this area and suggests that the relationship with well-being may not always be linear. The nine environmental features of the environment identified by Warr (1987) are;

1. *Opportunity for control.* Discretion, decision latitude, independence, autonomy, job control, self-determination, personal control, absence of close supervision, participation in decision-making, absence of utilization.

2. *Opportunity for skill use.* Skill utilization, utilization of valued abilities, application of skills and abilities, required skills.

3. *Externally generated goals.* Job demands, quantitative or qualitative workload, time demands, role responsibility, time pressure at work, required concentration, conflicting demands.

4. *Variety.* Variation in job content and location, non-repetitive work, varied roles and responsibilities, skill variety, number of different job operations.

5. *Environmental clarity.* Information about the consequences of behaviour (e.g., availability of feedback), information about the future (e.g., absence of job future ambiguity), information about required behaviour (e.g., low role ambiguity).

6. *Availability of money.* Income level, amount of pay, moderate/high standard of living, absence of poverty, material resources.

7. *Physical security.* Absence of danger, good working conditions, ergonomically adequate equipment, safe levels of temperature and noise, absence of continuous heavy lifting.

8. *Opportunity for interpersonal contact.* Quantity of interaction (e.g., contact with others, adequate privacy), quality of interaction (e.g., good relationship with others, social support).

9. *Valued social position.* Cultural evaluations of status (e.g., social rank, occupational prestige), more localized social evaluations of in-company status or job importance, personal evaluations of task significance (e.g., meaningfulness of job or self-respect from the job).

Warr (1987) states that having the presence of these job characteristics should have a positive impact on employee well-being and if they are lacking this could impair the employee's well-being. Beyond a certain level however vitamins will not have any effect and employees' level of well-being should be at a constant. An increase in characteristics will either provide a constant or be harmful and impair the employee health/well-being. Thus, high external demand levels will lead to strain, whereas high levels of variety will lead to lack of concentration and bad performance and too much interpersonal contact will lead to crowding. The complexity of the vitamin model is far greater than that of many other models. The full vitamin model has yet to be empirically investigated although some parts have received some support from research (de Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998; Jeurissen & Nyklicek, 2001). The model is open to dispute and empirical evidence is needed to confirm or disconfirm it.

2.5.2 Karasek (1979) Job Demands Control Model (JD-C)

Karasek (1979) introduced the JD-C model known as Job Demands Control. This model relates to the aspects of the environment and is one of the most popular and linear conceptual models in relation to predicting job well-being and how this can be applied to all the dimensions or measures of well-being (Lawson, Noblet and Rodwell, 2009). It is centred on the conditions of high demand and low control that are reasoned to be the basis of stressful conditions (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson and Laski, 2004). The model identifies job characteristics that can be considered as principal sources of distress in the work environment, and which can propose psychological strain to employees.

2.5.3 Karasek and Theorell (1990) Job Demand Control Support Model (JD-CS)

This model was an extension of Karasek's Model around JD-C and integrates social support (considered the extent by which employees experience support from supervisors/work colleagues). The JD-CS Model is an easily testable model which focuses on work environment and is supported by numerous amounts of empirical evidence (Finstad, Ariza-Montes, Giorgi, Lecca, Arcangeli and Mucci, 2019). It is suggested that the greatest risk to physical and mental health manifests in employees who experience a job with high demands in a context of low control and who have low social support (also known as the iso strain). This can play a significant role in perception of stress at work and translate to negative consequences on employee job satisfaction/performance. The most favourable way to work would be high levels of control and support and low levels of demand.

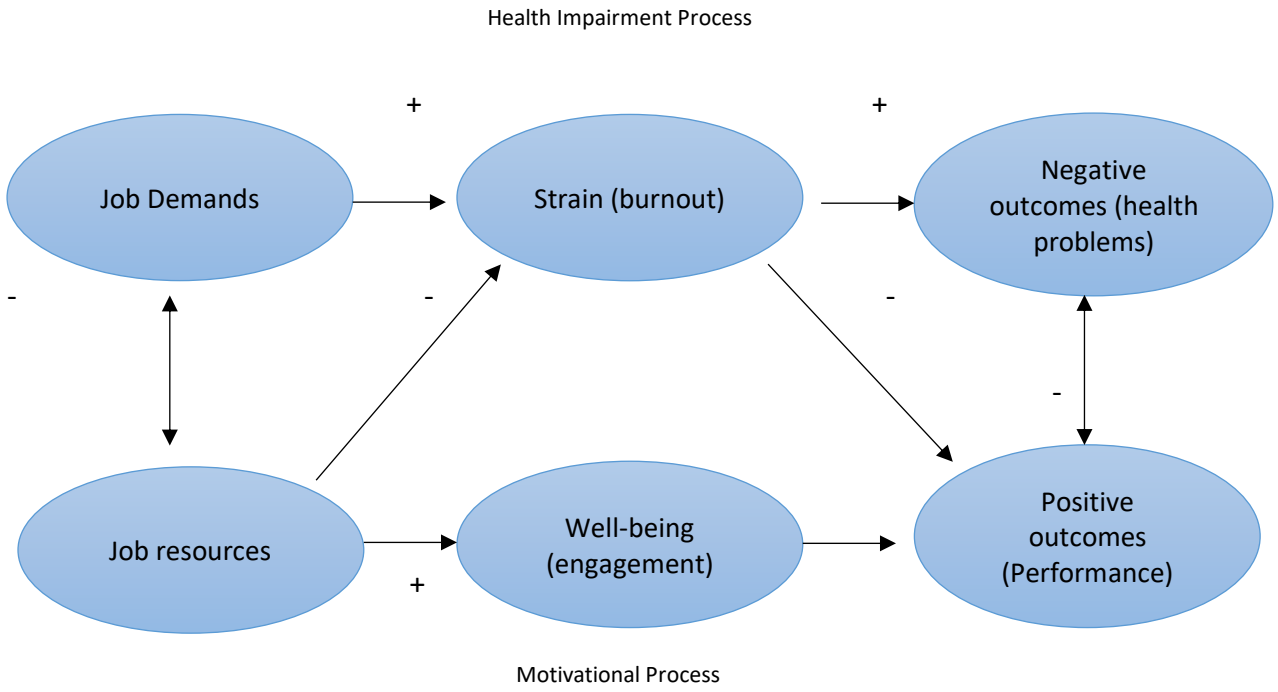
There are mixed findings in relation to this model. Some criticisms of the model suggest inconsistencies such as different variables been used to measure demands, control and strain and not enough longitudinal research been done. The model also does not appear to take employee's individual characteristics into account (Kain and Jex, 2010). As a result of this adaptions have been made to the model to include additional elements such as resources, social support, and coping. However, researchers have only been partially successful still and it is suggested that longitudinal approaches to research, higher sampling sizes and careful consideration of types of demand and control are used for future research (Kain and Jex, 2010).

2.5.4 Job Demands Resource (JD-R) Model and JD-R Theory (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017)

The JD-R Model also provides insights into the dynamic working conditions, individual health and well-being in the workplace (Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard and Metzer, 2007; Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008). The model has gathered popularity amongst researchers (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014; Berthelsen, Hakanen and Westerlund, 2018). Lee and Ashforth (1996) initially provided some analysis linked to understanding burnout in employees. This analysis led to some of the initial discovery of 8 job demands and 13 job resources that were later incorporated into the main model. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) drew upon Lee and Ashforth (1996) findings to help them design the JD-R model. The model provided some uniqueness as theories built around job design often ignored stressors and demands and job stress models largely ignored the motivating potential of job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014).

In 2004, Schaufeli and Bakker produced a revised version that built on the initial model. See figure **(5).** In this revised attempt work engagement was considered in addition to burnout.

Figure (5): The Revised Job Demand Resource Model



The general JD-R Model is widely used today and assumes that employee well-being and performance results from a balance between positives (resources) and negatives (demands and job characteristics) as well as proactive employee behaviours (Hu, Schaufeli and Taris, 2011; Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

The JD–R Model has been used within studies linked to the aviation industry (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008; Chen and Chen, 2010; Chen and Kao, 2012; Cheng, Chang and Chan, 2018). Chen and Chen (2010) specifically used the model to explore burnout and job engagement for cabin crew employees. Whilst Chen and Kao (2012) explored how working in isolation can impact on burnt out cabin crew employees and Cheng, Chang and Chan (2018) considered the use of leisure and how this can have an impact on burnt out cabin crew employees.

The JD–R Model is considered to have a broad scope in comparison to other models and potentially includes all types of job demand/resources without restricting itself to certain elements (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). It is a flexible tool and can be tailored to a wide variety of work settings. It has been used in many sectors which include industrial workers (Bakker, Demerouti, De Bour and Schaufeli, 2003), in call centre environments in the Netherlands, (Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli, 2003a), in health care (Schaufeli and Bakker 2004), teaching in higher education, (Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema, 2002), and with home care staff (de Jonge, Le Blanc, Peeters and Noordam, 2008).

The model is heuristic in nature meaning it can represent a way of thinking about how a job and other personal characteristics may have an influence on employee health, well-being, and motivation and as such acknowledges the importance of the person (Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte and Vansteenkiste, 2010). One criticism of the model is that the JD-R model does not predict interaction between specific job demands and specific job resources but rather an assumption between overall indicators of job demands and job resources. A further criticism is it solely focuses on the psychosocial work environment as the antecedent of health related and motivational factors outcomes and dismisses the factors not related to work for example home/family life (Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008). One thing the model does provide, and which has been proven in research is an exploration of how job demands and job resources impact over time on burnout and work engagement (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

The model matured into JD-R theory from 2011 to 2016 and there are some points of consideration for future research studies as suggested in Bakker and Demerouti, 2017).

2.5.5 Conservation of Resources Theory (COR)

This theory proposed by Hobfoll (1989) is a general stress theory and claims that individuals with limited resources are unable to deal effectively with threats within the work environment and could enter a loss cycle (Bakker, Xanthopoulou and Demerouti, 2022). The theory works on the basis of individuals being motivated to protect current resources (conservation) or/and acquire new resources (acquisition). It is considered that when an employee loses resources (however that may be defined to them) it can psychologically be more harmful to them than it is helpful for them to gain the resources that they lost (Halbesleben et al, 2014).

A handful of studies have explored how when a number of employees lose resources at work, they are more susceptible to increased stress/ burnout (Shirom, 1989; Melamed, Shirom, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2006; Day, Sibley, Scott, Tallon and Ackroyd Stolarz, 2009). It is also said that there can be a motivational element attached to the theory which suggests that when an individual engages in behaviours to avoid resource loss it can have a negative impact on well-being. For example, individuals who have an abusive supervisor may have reduced resources and may not engage with feedback to avoid further resource loss from abusive supervision (Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes, 2014).

On the other hand, employees may acquire resources to protect against resource loss and/or to recover from losses (Hobfoll, 2001). There are suggestions which can also link this to an idea of coping and that investment in resources can help to stem future resource loss (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003; Vinokur & Schul, 2002). The relevance of having an understanding of COR theory helps to support the need for more attention to be paid to gaining employee's perceptions of their work environment to try and aid more understanding of why employees may feel particularly stressed/burnt-out within their employment (Day, Sibley, Scott, Tallon and Ackroyd – Stolarz, 2009).

2.5.6 Summary of models and hypothesis development

After consideration of some of the most popular models and theories there are some criticisms as each model is considered as paying one sided attention to either job stress or work motivation (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014). Additional criticisms are that each model is simple and does not take into consideration the viewpoint of others, they do not account for every possible work environment and finally the nature of employment changes so rapidly and existing job stress or motivation is not considered (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014).

The model that was felt as most relevant to the study of cabin crew was Karasek and Theorell (1990) JD-CS Model. This was because it is a model which has been successfully applied and tested widely but also is a good framework to investigate how employment and work situations can affect and moderate job performance and well-being, relevant to the study being undertaken.

It can be applied to many settings and as the cabin crew setting could be considered as unusual this was useful. It also identifies a range of job stressors which is something this study aims to investigate. The occupation of cabin crew is considered as one faced with high demands and the crew do experience low levels of control over their work and low levels of support from managers/colleagues. If the crew did have some level of support, it could help them buffer the effects of the negative impacts of the high strain felt. However, this cannot really be determined until research collection has taken place.

Some research hypotheses have been suggested as areas to be tested when collecting research and are based on some of the main challenges cabin crew are said to experience within their work role. It is considered that;

H1: Stress/ burnout will negatively impact on crew's well-being

The following will also be considered

H1a Work family conflict will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout.
H1b Job insecurity will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout.
H1c Demands will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout
H1d Relationships will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout.
H1e Manager support will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout
H1f Peer will have a negative impact on cabin crew's experience of stress/burnout.

These hypotheses will be tested later within the study.

2.5.7 Exploring tools used to measure stress/burnout in employees

One of the most common ways to measure stress / burnout is through use of a questionnaire. One tool which was developed to particularly measure stress in the caring profession is the General Health Questionnaire–12 (Goldberg, 1972). Another popular tool used universally is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). This tool helped to support extensive studies around occupational burnout (Shirom, 2003). It contains three components which include emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personable accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is linked to strain that can include anxiety, physical fatigue, and insomnia (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Depersonalisation links with coping and an individual may look to deplete emotional energy and treat people as objects/numbers rather than people (Maslach, 1982). Personal accomplishment can be considered as the outcome of the stress – strain coping sequence and being able to adjust to demanding situations (Lee and Ashforth, 1996). This tool could only be used with employees who work with people. However, there was still a need for a tool that could be used on everyone.

In response to this, the MBI general survey was launched which included three components that were similar to the original. These were exhaustion, cynicism, personal efficacy. Alongside these mentioned tools an additional one was presented by Pines and Aronson (1981). This is known as the Burnout Measure (BM). This tool is versatile and can be used in and out of the workplace and measures measures physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion.

A more recent tool is the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen and Christensen, 2005). The focus of this tool is to measure exhaustion. It features on three areas personal exhaustion, work-based exhaustion, and client related exhaustion. Personal exhaustion has six items on general symptoms associated with exhaustion and applicable to all. Work related burnout comprises of seven items on symptoms associated with exhaustion in the workplace. Client related burnout based on six items linked to exhaustion related to working with humans. A more recent tool again and used to form part of some of the research design in this study is the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire 2 also known as COPSQQ II (2010).

This was designed by Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner and was introduced in response to the COPSQQ I. The COPSQQ I was introduced in 1997 for Danish workers and researchers and is a standardised and validated questionnaire covering a range of psychosocial factors. This questionnaire was also made in three differing lengths including a long length for research use, a medium length for use amongst work environment professionals and a short version for use in the workplace. The questionnaire gained universal acceptance with the most used being medium and short within the workplace. The development of the COPSQQ II occurred in five steps. The first was to consider experiences from the COPSQQ I, all scales from workplace factors in COPSQQ I were analysed for differential item functioning, a test run of COPSQQ II was used, psychometric analysis was used to aid the final design on COPSQQ II and Criteria-related validity of the new scales was tested (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010).

3 METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter will present the methodology used in this study. It will outline why particular methods and approaches were chosen when carrying out research (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski and Hager, 2005; Ryan, 2006; Williams, 2007; Anderson, 2013; Zukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitiene, 2018). The aim of the study was to identify the main stressors cabin crew employees working in the UK aviation industry experience within their working environment and to determine how these contribute to the increased levels of stress and burnout they experience. The following research questions were used.

- To measure factors within cabin crew's working environment to determine what the main stressors are that can contribute to increased levels of stress/burnout within the occupation.

- To suggest ways in which airline organisations can assist with reducing high levels of stress/burnout amongst their employees to ensure better management of employee well-being for this group of employees.

3.1 Research paradigm

A research paradigm has been described as a philosophical way of thinking or a researcher's 'worldview' (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Perez Prado, 2003; Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017). Williams (2007) states a paradigm is something that sets down the intent, motivation, and expectations for research. There is quite a debate around the meaning of a paradigm, and this dates to the 1980s.

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) suggest there is an overlap of definitions and/or explanations because social behaviour is fluid and how we think or behave cannot be completely compartmentalised within clear-cut boundaries. Easterby Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Lowe (2008) suggest there are three main components to a research paradigm or three ways to understand the make-up of the philosophy. These can be seen in Table (**1**).

Table (1): Three components of research paradigms

Component of research paradigm	**Description**
Epistemology	General parameters and assumptions associated with an excellent way to explore the real world nature
Ontology	General assumptions created to perceive the real nature of society (in order to understand the real nature of society).
Methodology	Combination of different techniques used by the scientists to explore different situations

(Easterby Smith et al, 2008).

The way in which these components combine in various paradigms is summarised by Mackenzie and Knipe (2006). See appendix (**2**).

Two key research paradigms are positivism or constructivism. Positivists tend to adopt an objective epistemological and ontological view that assumes the existence of a real/true reality can be measured and understood through scientific methods (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski and Hager, 2005). Positivism assumes scientific findings can be generalized across time and in different contexts and that research findings represent truths about the world devoid of the social, cultural, or historical context from which these findings were made (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). In comparison constructivists embrace a subjective view of knowledge which is individualised and context specific (Giacobbi, Pocwardowski and Hager, 2005). Their epistemological and ontological positions embrace subjective views about reality constructed through transactions within the socially situated activities of people and communities (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). As a result of these two dominant research paradigms, two very different research cultures have emerged which result in debate over the qualitative/quantitative research paradigm. This debate has influenced how knowledge is viewed, what is looked for, how it is expected to be found and how knowledge is found and justified (Johnson Onwuegbuzie, and Turner, 2007). A criticism of such debates is that they ultimately confuse the logic justification with research methods (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed method research can help bridge the divide between qualitative and quantitative research. This approach often links to a pragmatic approach and is referred as the 'philosophical partner' by some academics (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A pragmatic research view would argue that a continuum exists between objective and subjective viewpoints, and the choice of which would depend on the nature of the research question being asked.

3.2 Research study's positioning

Selecting a research philosophy / approach is often determined by the researcher's own background and preferred world view (Anderson, 2013). This research therefore has taken a post positivist approach to study. Ryan (2006) suggests post positivist research takes a stance which often asserts the values, passion, and politics in research and that the approach requires having the ability to take a whole picture, distanced view and/or overview. Samdahl (1999) also claims that post positivist research enables the use of some qualitative data with a belief in the importance of subjective reality yet also not abandoning tenets of conventional positivism. Henderson (2011) claims this can help legitimise the potential for using mixed methods and a practical approach to collecting data using more than one method. This occurred within the present study as qualitative methods i.e., key informant interviews were used to initially gain access to research participants and to gain an understanding of what was being experienced in industry. The researcher had been away from the industry for some time, so it was felt this initiation was needed. The main research collection was through quantitative research methods when a questionnaire was issued to a much larger sample size. Henderson (2011) claims that working in this way is often explicitly anchored in pragmatism. This approach is not uncommon in social science/business research as both positivist and interpretivist approaches are often used in parallel or on a '*one after the other'* basis (Anderson, 2013).

3.3 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is an attempt to provide practical solutions to contemporary problems experienced by people and society (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski and Hager, 2005; Korte and Mercurio, 2017) or as Watson (2010) and Zukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitiene, (2018) suggest it deals with the facts and evaluates knowledge about the real world in terms of its power to inform action. Pragmatic approaches to research often encourage debate as some would argue that pragmatism does not belong to any philosophical system and reality and is more so about focusing around the research question (Creswell, 2003; Saunders et al, 2012; Alghamdi and Li, 2013). A key advantage to carrying out research with a pragmatic approach is that it can provide freedom of choice to the researcher who can choose methods that best suit their needs and research aim (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Zukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitienė, 2018). A disadvantage linked with pragmatic research is that the approach does not entirely adhere to either positivism or interpretivism and sees either end of the continuum (Khan and Hack Polay 2017). Additionally, pragmatism is not about searching for absolute/final truths about reality. It is more so about attempting to make theoretical generalisations that can help to inform human practices and help to achieve a better appreciation of relationships between individuals' difficulties and institutional behaviours, or patterns better than what other approaches may enable (Watson, 2010).

Pragmatists contend that a false dichotomy exists between quantitative and qualitative approaches to research (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). They therefore believe it is possible to integrate both methods in a single study suggesting a mixed method approach to research (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Pérez, and Prado, 2003, Saunders et al, 2012). Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Pérez and Prado (2003), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) Saunders et al (2012) debate whether this is helpful for research. It is suggested that combining research methods can ensure a fuller understanding of human phenomena and a plurality of interests, voices, and perspectives (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, Easterby – Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2015).

In addition to this using a mixture of both approaches can help pragmatic researchers use qualitative methods to inform some of the quantitative elements of the research and vise versa. Qualitative data cannot be generalised whereas a questionnaire can (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Pérez, and Prado, 2003). Pragmatists also believe that values play a large role when conducting research and drawing conclusions from their study. They are often guided by their own personal value system and studying what is important to them (Robson and McCartan, 2016).

3.4 Data Collection Methods

This section discusses the methods that were used to collect data from industry respondents. The following table details the chronological process of the data collection methods and states what kind of data was collected and from whom, when and how this was analysed. See table **(2)**

Table (2): Data collection methods

Type of data collected	**From whom**	**When**	**How it was analysed**
Key informant interviews	A HR Business Partner representative – 2016 8 UNITE trade union representatives who are all employed as members of cabin crew	4/5th September 2018	Content analysis
Focus group exercise – Handout	15 UNITE trade union representatives	5th September 2018	Manual tally count to identify which airlines had detailed areas of concern – using excel spreadsheet.
Focus group exercise -	12 UNITE trade union representatives	4/5th March 2019	Content analysis
Pilot test of questionnaire	12 UNITE trade union representatives	June 2019	n/a
Questionnaire via Online Surveys	LIVE sample of cabin crew employees who also were part of UNITE union – 1431 participants	June 2019 – 31st October 2019	SPSS – Stepwise and single level regression analysis

3.4.1 Key informant interviews

The term '*key informant interviews'* comes from ethnographic research and is described as an "ideal means of purposeful entry to a group of people to focus on identification of their characteristics when interviewing for research is still a novelty." (Skinner, 2012, p.26). They are useful for helping to clarify goals, reach compromises and for flagging any issues (Boynton and Greenhalgh, 2004). They can also help to establish trust (Cossham and Johanson 2019). A particular study where the method is promoted is within Cossham and Johanson (2019) and when exploring employee well-being within healthcare (Herttuala, Kokkinen and Konu, 2020). Cossham and Johanson (2019) chose to use key informant interviews as part of PhD research based around Library and Information Studies. Cossham and Johanson (2019) claim the method of key informant interviews can often be overlooked and underestimated by academics and some treat them as occurring outside the formal data collection process. O'Leary (2014) and Bogner, Littig & Menz (2009) suggest categories who can function as key informants. Experts (people at the top of their field), insiders (in an organisation, culture, or community), the highly experienced, the leaders, the observers and those with secondary experience i.e., expertise or knowledge about contexts where the participants may have a limited perspective.

Key informant interviews can often be the precursor for the gathering of information before a questionnaire is designed and/or widespread interviews (Tremblay, 1982). This was what occurred within this research study. The researcher managed to secure a key informant interview with a HR Business partner working on behalf of a large charter airline. The key challenges to face the HR/management when dealing with cabin crew employees were discussed and can be found in appendix **(3)**. It did prove difficult to gain further access to management, so communications began with the airline trade union body who represented cabin crew. The union body expressed an interest in the research area as one representative felt that crew's voices were not being heard enough and more awareness was needed around what they experience at work.

Gittell, Nordenflycht and Kochan (2004) state that traditional adversarial relations are something that will long continue to be '*the norm'* in the airline industry although some relations have improved for some airline companies, some have deteriorated, and these have often been because of numerous employee relation events that have occurred for specific airlines. Liaisons began with the union representative and dates were organised for the researcher to meet and discuss the research further. The researcher was then invited to attend a quarterly cabin crew advisory group meeting which was also attended by numerous other cabin crew union representatives.

3.4.2 Preparing an analytical framework and key informant interviews

Before attending the cabin crew advisory meeting, the researcher reviewed several frameworks associated with understanding employee well-being. It was decided that Guest's (2017) analytical model of ensuring the 'mutual gains' approach to well-being and establishing a positive employment relationship would be used to assess cabin crew's current experiences. This model identifies five core HR areas that are typically linked to employee performance, but which also have a focus on instilling employee well-being, and these were detailed in a handout prepared for the union representatives.

The handout was drafted and issued to a contact of the researcher who was an ex-member of cabin crew and who was familiar with the job position. They completed this as a pilot study test to ensure the feasibility of the framework and identify where changes were needed. One of the advantages of using a pilot study is so that advance warning can be given as to where a project or framework could fail, expose where research protocols are not being followed and/or highlight where frameworks may be inappropriate and/or too complicated to comprehend (Van-Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001; Gould Williams, 2003).

The researcher then travelled to the cabin crew training and meeting facilities in Esher, Surrey on 4th and 5th September 2018 to attend the cabin crew advisory group meeting with a range of UK employed airline crew present. All members in attendance were members of the UNITE trade union and acting union representatives for the airline they were employed with.

There were 15 representatives in total. The researcher stayed overnight with the crew, dined, and socialised with them and engaged in numerous informal conversations about aspects of their work and some of the conditions and problems they experience as part of their occupation. This had many benefits as becoming part of the '*community*' helped respondents relax and talk openly about their experiences and challenges and this helped to portray the real picture of what their employment was entailing.

3.4.3 Carrying out key informant interviews and focus group exercise

When carrying out the key informant interviews with the union representatives they were met on an individual basis to ensure confidentiality, familiarity, and trust. At the start of the interview, respondents were made aware of who the researcher was, where they were from and the aim of the study. They were also told why their cooperation was needed and why other crew working with them would be needed at a further point in the research collection process. They were also told that by providing their views it would attempt to help enhance the working practices they currently were experiencing and to present more awareness of stress/burnout they experience as part of their role. The questions which were asked to the participants were open ended and required narrative answers. The themes of the questions featured around some of the areas identified in Guest's (2017) framework as it was felt that this identified relevant areas to crew and could help with determining the problem areas so further probing could be done around those areas in the questionnaire which was used later in the process. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) suggest researchers who use informal interviewing strategies do not have a pre-determined set of questions as a structured interview may follow, yet there is a clear idea about what they are seeking to achieve from their participants. Participants are often given the opportunity to freely talk about events, behaviours and beliefs in relation to particular topics guided by the researcher. This can sometimes also be considered as 'nondirective.' (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Occasionally throughout the process of the key informant interviews some probing questions were needed to get participants to think more deeply on some of their comments/situation.

Upon the completion of the interview(s) the main comments were summarised and each participant was thanked for their time and for sharing information to contribute to the study. The main method which was used for capturing the responses from the interviews was through notetaking. This was decided as the best method as the key informant interviews were taking place in an open, friendly setting and whilst respondent's felt comfortable in sharing their experiences, introducing a recording device may have deterred respondent's from being as open and relaxed as they were. It could also have created questions around the researcher's intention as media activities and leaks often occur linked to this group of employees. As note taking was the main method of recording the information this was done immediately after the key informant interviews had taken place, so the information was fresh in the mind of the researcher.

On the morning of the 5th September, the researcher attended the cabin crew advisory meeting and dedicated time was made available to all members of crew to complete the framework exercise handout reflecting on the HR practices experienced within their airline. This helped to enable group discussions and collected views around how a variety of UK based airlines were approaching their HR practices and how these practices were having an impact on the crew's well-being levels. Representatives were asked to rate each of the HR practice areas in relation to how they felt their airline performed overall in delivering them. They used a rating system of well, adequate and poor. They were then asked to rate how they felt each component could impact on cabin crew well-being. The rating system for this was based on Major, Moderate and Minor. See appendix **(4)** for a copy of the form.

10 airlines provided feedback on this exercise and the responses were manually analysed through a simple tally to identify the areas of practice which were suggested to be doing well within the airlines and the areas which were not working as well. The results can be seen in appendix **(5).** Five areas were highlighted as areas of concern.

- Health and Safety,
- Bullying and harassment,
- Employment security/employability,
- Participative/supportive management
- Flexible/family friendly work arrangements.

This collection of views from informal key informant interviews inspired production of further stages of research collection. The main being the use of a large-scale questionnaire which was disseminated to cabin crew employees based right across UK airlines operating in low cost, regional, full cost, and charter markets.

3.4.4 Draft questionnaire / focus group exercise

On 4th/5th March 2019 the researcher attended another cabin crew advisory group meeting. The researcher again stayed overnight with a group of unionised cabin crew representatives employed with major UK airlines. During this time the researcher dined, socialised and chatted with various representatives. There was the presence of some new airline representatives as a low-cost carrier had recently just recognised trade unions. Additional informal key informant interviews took place where the challenges, concerns and working conditions within the low-cost provision of airlines was discussed.

The researcher had prepared a draft outline of a questionnaire and had incorporated various scales from pre-existing data collection tools. Boynton and Greenhalgh (2004) believe that using a previously validated scale can help to save time and resources and can help with yielding consistent results. The draft questionnaire was shown to the group, and they provided feedback based around its content. During this meeting an informal focus group activity / group discussion also occurred as the opportunity presented itself and an activity helped to instigate this process. Focus groups have increasingly grown over the last two decades and the origins of these can be traced back into the 1920s when their main use was to assist with the formation of surveys/questionnaires (Finch, Lewis and Turley, 2003). They can be valuable in terms of collecting many research views (Litosseliti,2003).

In a focus group much of the data is generated through group interaction and participants present their own views and experiences but also hear from other people (Finch, Lewis and Turley, 2003). This can sometimes prompt quieter members to speak up about issues they may experience. One of the key advantages to using a focus group is that they allow the opportunity for the participants to be observed and attitudes, feelings and experiences can be captured by the researcher (Morgan and Spanish, 1984). During the group discussion union representatives were asked to name five things / ways management could support employee well-being better for their employees at work. This question was posed as it had become apparent from use of Guest (2017) framework that supportive management was an area requiring more attention after concerns had been raised both within the framework exercise but also through dialogues with crew within key informant interviews.

3.5 Questionnaire

The final stage of research collection involved using a questionnaire. The advantages and disadvantages of using a questionnaire as a research method has been extensively debated (Jones, Murphy, Edwards and James, 2008). A questionnaire can have certain advantages over interviews/focus groups and these mainly relate to the quick, easy and low costs associated with producing and disseminating it (Denscombe, 2008; Schofield and Knauss, 2010). They are also useful to be disseminated to many people thus providing an increased potential for subgroup analysis and decreased sampling variance (Fleming and Bowden, 2009; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). A disadvantage to using questionnaires is that they can promote a lack of contact from the researcher and the participants, and this can affect the response rate to it (Schofield and Knauss, 2010). This has not been something that has been experienced in terms of the questionnaire used in this study as the researcher promoted the completion of the questionnaire through engagement with union representatives who disseminated the questionnaire link to their pools of employees.

When considering the design of the questionnaire a few considerations were taken. Neuman (2011) and Anderson (2013) states that there are two things which always should be considered when designing a questionnaire and these are to maintain clarity and secondly to keep the respondent's perspectives in mind. The latter having great significance to this study. Guest (2001) also claims that the number of questions asked is also something that must be considered as too many questions can encourage a low response rate. Given the target population, the questionnaire had to be something which could be easily accessed across geographical distances and at all times of the day/night. The trade union also suggested the questionnaire had to be something that could be completed on a mobile device as the expectation was that crew would complete this on their breaks, in the crew room when reporting for duty and/or when travelling from the bus to the airport terminal. The language also had to be short, concise, and easy to understand as the representatives warned that crew were often 'over surveyed' and time poor.

The growth of the use of mobile technologies has developed immensely over the last decade (Stapleton, 2013). Using smart phones is a new and growing way to engage with research participants but there is little information currently known around best practices associated with this emerging method (Jones, Murphy, Edwards and James, 2008; Stapleton, 2013; De Bruijne and Wijnant, 2014; Struminskaya, Weyandt and Bosnjak, 2015). There are however a range of advantages and disadvantages to using this approach when collecting data. Mobile/web-based questionnaires can be considered as having some of the same strengths as a traditional paper format in that they can be completed by respondents in their own time, they can go away from it if interrupted and they can be completed anywhere (Brace, 2018). Some significant advantages of using mobile/web-based questionnaire is that they can be considered as more environmentally friendly and are relatively inexpensive to produce (Pratama, 2020). They also enable access to geographically dispersed groups of people which was a requirement for this sample due to working in various locations worldwide (Madge and O'Connor, 2004). With the reduction in the amount of paper it also can make it easier to keep an electronic store of responses and support confidentiality better (Neuman, 2011).

It can also enable the questionnaire responses to be linked with analysis software directly without having to re key all data input/responses so in effect saving time and also reducing human error in data entry and coding (Fleming and Bowden, 2009). A further advantage to using mobile/web-based questionnaires are that design features and options can also enhance the appeal of them to respondents (Fleming and Bowden, 2009). Additionally, once complete the questionnaire cannot be changed and it is also possible to monitor the response rate and keep a check on how well it is being received (Neuman 2011; Saunders et al, 2012).

Some disadvantages to using mobile/web-based questionnaires include exclusion of people who have no access to technology as well as security needing to be built into the chosen collection system to stop respondents making multiple responses (Neuman 2011; Saunders et al, 2012). In relation to the questionnaire used in this study all the crew had access to some form of technology to complete it whether this was a mobile phone, tablet, or laptop. If they didn't have it within a home environment, they would have it made available to them at work. Fleming and Bowden (2009) suggest it can be difficult to determine if there are several respondents at one computer address or if one respondent can complete it from numerous sources. To address this issue the questionnaire was made entirely voluntary to the respondents so it was their choice to complete it and as Marta–Pedroso, Freitas and Domingos (2007) point out the use of cookies and server log files can help reduce this issue. Respondents who use mobile devices to complete questionnaires have demonstrated lower response rates (Buskirk & Andrus, 2014; De Bruijne & Wijnant, 2014), lower completion rates (Mavletova and Couper 2013), and higher breakoff rates (Callegaro, 2010; 2013; Mavletova and Couper, 2013; Stapleton, 2013; Poggio, Bosnjak, & Weyandt, 2015). The response rate has not affected data collected in the present study. Stapleton (2013) claim that question length should be kept to a minimum for a questionnaire completed on technology to be effective however the question length for this study ranged up to 60 questions yet still managed to be tolerated and completed in a short amount of time i.e. 6 minutes.

When constructing the questionnaire close liaison occurred with union representatives. The union organisation had a desire for some particular questions to be asked in line with their own interests and these were shared with the researcher at the 4/5th March 2019 cabin crew advisory meeting. Many pre-existing questionnaire tools were reviewed before deciding on the final structure that would be used. There are many measures which can be used linked to exploring work related stress and these often are reliant on differing theoretical perspectives e.g. Karasek's Demand Control Model (1979) and Siegrist's ERI Model (1996; 1998) some of which have been explored within the literature review section. The final decision however was to go with a widely used tool known as the Health and Safety Management Standards Indicator Tool (HSE) for the bulk of the questionnaire. The rationale behind choosing this tool was that it is characteristically known as been a great tool to adopt in real world contexts to monitor working conditions that can lead to stress (Edwards, Webster, Van Laar and Easton, 2008; Marcatto, Colautti, Filon, Luis and Ferrante, 2014). What is does not enable however is the broader context of the work setting such as work – life interface (Van Laar, Edwards and Easton, 2007) and for this reason some additional scales were taken from the COPSQQ II (Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire) to cover this aspect.

3.5.1 Health and Safety Standards Indicator Tool

The Health and Safety Management Standards Indicator Tool is commonly used in the UK and adopts a different approach from some of the theoretical perspectives (Edwards, Webster, Van Laar and Easton, 2008). The HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool is a valid instrument for identifying possible sources for psychosocial risks at work which enables organisations to plan the best actions to manage stress and increase worker's well-being. It has been used by varied occupations including health and social services, veterinary surgeons and with some airline pilots (Marcatto et al, 2014; Campion, 2016).

The tool was developed after extensive research on work related stress and a 100-item pool questionnaire was put together and trialled in the Children's and Family Services Department at Hertfordshire Council.

The use of Exploratory factor analysis on this determined the factors which came out best at representing the Health and Safety Management Standards areas and these were used to develop the tool. The final saw 35 items mapped to seven discrete areas which are considered related areas or potential stressors.

Demand – featuring questions about workload, work patterns and work environment.

Control – featuring questions around how much say employees have in terms of the way they do their work

Peer – featuring questions about encouragement, sponsorship and resources provided by colleagues

Manager support – featuring questions around the support offered by the organisation and line manager.

Relationship – featuring questions around avoiding unacceptable behaviour, avoiding conflict and promoting positive working relationships

Role - featuring questions around an employee's role and how they believe this fits within the organisation

Change – featuring questions around how organisational change is managed and communicated within an organisation

There are thirty-five questions within the revised version. Detail around the specific questions asked are provided under each area.

Questions from the tool linked around measuring ***Demands*** include;

- *Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine*
- *I have unachievable deadlines*
- *I have to work very intensively*
- *I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do*
- *I am unable to take sufficient breaks*
- *I am pressured to work long hours*
- *I have to work very fast*
- *I have unrealistic time pressures*

If a person scored highly 4-5 on this this would mean that they experience high levels of stress with an often or always response. If they scored between 1 – 2 it would indicate it very rarely happens and so does not create much stress – indicating an answer of never or seldom.

Questions linked around measuring ***Control*** include;

- *I can decide when to take a break*
- *I have a say in my own work speed*
- *I have a choice in deciding how I do my work*
- *I have a choice in deciding what I do at work*
- *I have some say over the way I work*
- *My working time can be flexible*

If a person scored highly in relation to these questions either indicating a 4 or 5 response – either often or always this would suggest some level of control and not experiencing much stress in relation to the matter.

If they scored lower indicating 1 or 2, never or seldom this would suggest not much control over the matter leading to a high level of stress potentially occurring.

Questions linked around measuring ***Manager's support*** include;

- *I am given supportive feedback on the work I do*
- *I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem*
- *I can talk to my line manager about something that has upset or annoyed me*
- *My line manager encourages me at work*

If a person scored highly in relation to this area indicating a 4 or 5 response as often or always this would suggest a level of manager's support and in effect may not have an impact on stress levels. If someone scored low on this indicating a 1 or 2 response this would suggest they never or seldom experienced support suggesting a potential creation of stress/neglect.

Questions linked around measuring ***Peer support*** include;

- *If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me*
- *I get help and support I need from colleagues*
- *I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues*
- *My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems.*

If a person scored highly in this area suggesting a 4 – 5 response of always or often it would suggest that there is some level of peer support perceived by the respondent. If they scored low in this area suggesting a 1- 2 response of never or seldom this would suggest that they lack support and could be considered as a contributor to stress levels.

Questions linked with measuring ***Relationships*** include;

- *I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour*
- *There is friction or anger between colleagues*
- *I am subject to bullying at work*
- *Relationships at work are strained*

If a person scored highly in this area suggesting a response of 4 or 5 then this would suggest they strongly agreed with the statement or agreed that they did suffer with the named matter.

If they indicated a low response of 1 or 2 – strongly disagree or disagree, then this would suggest that they did not experience much or anything at all associated with the matter and consequently not contributing as much to their stress levels.

Questions linked with measuring ***Role*** include;

- *I am clear what is expected of me at work*
- *I know how to go about getting my job done*
- *I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are*
- *I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department*
- *I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organisation*

If a person scored highly in relation to this area indicating a 4 or 5 response it would suggest that they are always or often sure of what they should be doing, and this would not be considered as a main contributor to stress. If they scored lower indicating a 1 or 2 this would suggest that they never or seldom were sure of their role and could be considered as contributing to their stress levels.

Questions linked with measuring ***Change*** include;

- *I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work*
- *Staff are always consulted about change at work*
- *When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice*

If a person scored highly in relation to this area either a 4 or 5 response it would suggest they strongly agreed or agreed that they had opportunity to ask about change within their organisation. If they indicated a lower response of 1 or 2 either strongly disagree or disagree this would suggest they did not have much opportunity to ask about change and therefore could be considered as contributing to their stress levels.

3.5.2 Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire II (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010)

Alongside the HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool some sections of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire II were used. These linked to areas around stress/burnout, work–family conflict and job security. The original Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire was designed in 1997 to satisfy the needs of Danish work environment professionals and researchers and sought to produce a questionnaire which was standardized and validated, and which covered a broad range of psychosocial factors (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010). The first questionnaire (COPSOQI) was developed based on the following principles and theoretical considerations.

- It should cover all-important aspects of the psychosocial work environment stressors as well as resources.
- Should be theory based but not attached to one single theory
- The dimensions of the questionnaire should be related to different analytical levels (company, department, job, person – work interface and individual).
- The questionnaire should be generic

Source: (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010).

The questionnaire identifies three versions of differing lengths but an unchanged structure. The long version is often used for research. Medium length is popular amongst work environment professionals and the shorter version for use in the workplace (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010). The shortened version of the questionnaire was of most interest to this study and when designing what scales would be used to support the questionnaire structure in this study. This was because the shortened version is most used in the workplace and amongst work environment professionals.

The scales used from the COPSQQ II were from the 'Health and Well-being' section around stress/burnout and the 'Work Interface' section around job insecurity and work family conflict. These scales typically adapted well into the questionnaire as they had short scale lengths of three to four items and were fit for use with '*oversurveyed*' crew members. The scale length presents a reasonable trade-off between precision and response burden and offers an internal consistency reliability (acceptable Cronbach Alpha). The scale also presents something that is considered valid as it has been used in many research studies (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010).

The questions adapted from the '***Health and Well-being'*** section of the COPSQQ II were;

Burnout:

- *How often have you felt worn out?*
- *How often have you felt physically exhausted?*
- *How often have you felt emotionally exhausted?*
- *How often have you felt tired?*

Stress:

- *How often have you had problems relaxing?*
- *How often have you been irritable?*
- *How often have you been tense?*
- *How often have you been stressed?*

The questions adapted from the '***Work Interface'*** section of the COPSQQ II were;

Job Insecurity:

- *Are you worried about becoming unemployed?*
- *Are you worried about new technology making you redundant?*
- *Are you worried about it being difficult for you to find another job if you became unemployed?*
- *Are you worried about being transferred to another job against your will?*

Work family conflict:

- *Do you often feel a conflict between your work and your private life, making you want to be in both places at the same time?*
- *Do you feel that your work drains so much of your energy that it has a negative effect on your private life?*
- *Do you feel that your work takes so much of your time that it has a negative effect on your private life?*
- *Do your friends or family tell you that you work too much?*

See Appendix **(6)** for copy of questionnaire.

Some of the questions used standard five-point scales as answer options whereas others were taken from the original tools and the scales they provided. As discussed in Albaum (1997) Likert style scales are generally used to measure attitude. This can be done in two ways either through direction – e.g., whether someone agrees or disagrees with something and through intensity – e.g., how strongly a person feels about something or not. After compiling the questionnaire, a pilot test was carried out to ensure it was fit for purpose to be used on a larger sample of employees.

3.5.3 Pilot testing

It is common when designing a research tool that mistakes can occur and therefore it is essential to carry out a pilot test. In social science research pilot studies often check feasibility in small scale studies or can be considered as trial runs done in preparation for a major study (Van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001; Thabane, Ma, Chu, Cheng, Ismaila, Rios, Robson, Thabane, Giangregorio, and Goldsmith, 2010). Two pilot studies were therefore carried out. In May 2019 the first pilot test was conducted with three subject specialists who timed the completion of the questionnaire, checked the design and question construction and highlighted strengths and weaknesses to the tool. Baker and Foy (2008) details that pilot studies commonly work in a number of ways to help check questioning (i.e variation, meaning, difficulty, respondent's interest and attraction) but also flow, question order, skip patterns, timing, respondent's interest/well-being).

This supports the reason as to why two pilot tests were carried out as one element was checked by subject specialists and the other by the population the questionnaire would be used upon. In June 2019 the cabin crew advisory group which had in attendance 12 representatives carried out a sample test of the questionnaire to also ensure the design, structure and content were appropriate before issuing this to a larger sample of cabin crew. Rowley (2014) considers this to be a sensible approach to take to ensure if any questions need revision before the questionnaire is issued to a larger sample this can be done.

3.5.4 Questionnaire live

The questionnaire was designed and produced on the JISC online survey platform. This was an easy and instructional tool to follow and something that Northumbria University promoted. The questionnaire was available for completion by crew across a multiple of UK airlines and to all who were union members between June 2019 and October 2019.
They accessed this through a link sent to them on an email by their union representative and all completed questionnaires were kept anonymous. There was nothing in the design of the questionnaire which identified them by name or number. The respondents provided their consent to completing the questionnaire by proceeding to take part in it and it was voluntary. They were advised that all their responses would be anonymous, (as there was no way of tracing these back to them), confidential (as the response would only be viewed by myself and research supervision colleagues) and used purely for research purpose. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in appendix (**6**).

3.6 Demographics of Sample

The questionnaire gathered a response from 1431 cabin crew members across eight UK based airlines operating on long haul, short haul, domestic and mixed fleet flight routes. Of the sample 531 (37.34%) of respondents were male and 890 (62.59%) were female. One member (0.1%) reported their gender to be ‘other’ and nine did not specify their gender. The majority of employees indicated they flew long haul routes (635), short haul (519), with the remainder flying domestic routes (8) and mixed routes (268).

The largest proportion of people had flown for 21 – 25 years (303) and only 34 respondents in the sample had worked for their airline for less than a year. This suggests much of the sample held a significant amount of flying experience and were therefore familiar with their job role and the demands this presented them with. Thus, the sample should be considered representative and experienced enough to report on the condition of the industry.

3.7 Ethics

When carrying out any research regardless of discipline ethics needs to be fully considered to ensure that no harm or disruption is experienced by participants involved in the research process. When considering how ethics can affect this research the following areas needed to be considered (Anderson, 2013)

- The purpose and intent of the research
- The way in which the research questions are intending to be answered
- My own safety and well-being as well as the safety and well-being of those whom I may come into contact with (your research participants)
- Issues associated with honesty and openness with those involved in the research
- What the research outcomes will lead to (how your findings will be applied and to what end).

The ethics for the research were scrutinised through the ethics process at Northumbria University and signed off before research collection began. See appendix (**7**) for confirmation. The ethical risk associated with collecting views for this study was graded as medium in line with Northumbria University's ethical process. Risks to the researcher and others involved were considered in advance and the work was not considered as involving any sensitive issues or vulnerable people. The researcher's employer and supervision team were made aware of dates and people the researcher would engage with and when and where. Participants who were involved were provided with details of the researcher should they need to get in touch or withdraw from the study at any time.

As it occurred there were no instances of anyone needing to withdraw from the study. If this had been the case their responses would have been eliminated from the study.

As the researcher travelled to a different part of the country to meet participants research and travel plans were made in advance and the researcher spoke with the main representative before travel commenced. In terms of ethical consideration for conducting key informant interviews all respondents were seen on a one-to-one basis so that the conversation was kept confidential. All respondents were also kept anonymous throughout any recording of results/discussions. There was no identification of names/titles or organisation used. Results have also focused on the content of the discussion rather than identifying who said what. All information which was collected was held securely on password protected outlets and any paper copies of information or meeting minutes were kept securely. In relation to the questionnaire, it was issued to a purposive sample and there were no obvious signs of harm or upset to respondents from anything that was asked of them throughout the questioning. All of the airline participants that contributed to the study used English as a universal language and therefore they understood written words and concepts associated with some of the measures asked of them. As the research involved numerous employers and familiar airline/travel organisations it was to be expected that these companies wanted to protect and limit the exposure their organisation had as well as protecting respondent's identities.

This was reflected in the research collection through anonymous responding where no specific names were asked of respondents. The name of the employing organisation was asked however this was to aid analysis to be able to decipher some of the results based on airline business positioning and to identify patterns between full cost and low-cost providers. This information is only detailed in the data linked to the study which is kept securely.

4 RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative results from the questionnaire that was issued to UK employed cabin crew. The large sample size (N=1431) ensured the variable to participant ratio was met, for even the most stringent criteria, for these analyses. The recommended sample size is at least 300 participants with 400 often being regarded as optimal (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Yong and Pearce, 2013). Comfrey and Lee (1992) outline that any sample which exceeds 1,000 is considered as excellent and Yong and Pearce (2013) state that larger samples can help to diminish the error in data.

The analysis aims to investigate the research questions and to discover what the main cause of stress/burnout is within the sample obtained from cabin crew. In the first section of the analysis the measures used on the questionnaire were investigated on SPSS to see if their factor structures were reliable through EFA. A CFA was then carried out using AMOS to confirm factor structures. A stepwise regression was then run using SPSS.

4.1 Common method variance

When a self-report questionnaire is used to collect data there are a range of positive and negatives to doing so. On the one hand they can be effective in capturing attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviours of the participants yet they can also contribute to various biases which can threaten the validity of studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003; Cooper, Eva, Fazlelahi, Newman, Lee and Obschonka, 2020). Responses to questionnaires can be subject to social desirability effects where respondents can feel they have to complete their answers in a way that reflects a positive light and/or which fits the norms and standards defined by their culture (Karimi and Meyer, 2019). This can however create a bias which can hide the true bivariate relationships between variables (Podsakoff et al, 2003; Karimi and Meyer, 2019; Jordan and Troth, 2020).

Podsakoff et al (2003), Eichhorn (2014) and MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) outline some of the most common reasons why common method variance can occur - the use of a common rater, the way items are presented to the respondents, the contexts in which items on a questionnaire are placed and the contextual influences such as time, location, media used to measure the constructs. To determine statistically if common method variance (CMV) was a problem within the data set a Harman's single factor test was used on SPSS. The test reported a figure which was lower than the threshold value of 50.0 suggesting that common method variance was not a concern in this study (Podsakoff et al, 2003).

4.2 Factor Analysis

The Management Standards Indicator Tool (HSE, 2004) and the COPSQQ II (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg and Bjorner, 2010) were subject to factor analysis to investigate if the variable categories conformed to the espoused models, (HSE, 2004) and COPSQQ II.
The factor analyses utilised the maximum likelihood method of extraction with direct oblimin, an oblique method of rotation. Oblique rotation was selected because the questionnaires measured psychological factors in the sample and it was expected these would be significantly correlated (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Corner, 2009). To achieve a satisfactory solution, decisions regarding the removal and placement of items, and adequacy of factors were made based on the Kaiser (1960) criterion, analysis of the scree plot and interpretability. While there are many factor retention methods (Peres-Neto, Jackson and Somers, 2005) the Kaiser criterion or greater than one rule is the most widely used (Kaiser, 1960; Braeken and Assen, 2017). It is simplistic, has an ease of implementation and is the default of many statistical packages like SPSS (Braeken and Assen, 2017).

It has also been found to be reliable when the averaged extract communalities are at least more than .70 and when there are less than 30 variables or the averaged extracted communalities is equal or above .60 and the sample size is above 250 cases (Field, 2009).

In addition, factor content is of concern with robust factors containing at least three variables that fit together conceptually (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Therefore, the interpretability criteria were: (1) factors should have at least three items loading at 0.3 or above, as their primary loading; (2) items should load on at least one factor at 0.3 or above; (3) items loading at 0.3 or above on more than one factor will be placed in the factor of their highest loading, if this makes conceptual sense; and (4) factors should be coherent, with the items comprising them making conceptual sense as a scale. An additional condition was that, in the final factor solution, all items should have communality above 0.2 and met the minimum criterion of 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006).

4.2.1 HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool

The initial factor analysis of the Health and Safety Management Standards Indicator tool returned 7 factors with an eigenvalue above 1 and therefore met the Kaiser Criterion. In addition, the scree plot showed a distinct elbow indicating a 7-factor solution to be appropriate. After the seventh factor there is a drop off in the size of the eigenvalues. The questionnaire items were examined, alongside the tool's published structure, and the pattern matrix. All items loaded at the 0.3 or above as their primary loadings (interpretability criteria 1) apart from 1 item; 'my working time can be flexible.'
This item was judged to be less applicable to the nature of cabin crew work as they cannot determine their working time and decide when they have a break. This was therefore omitted from further analyses. Cabin crew work can involve lots of irregular working and rostering is usually provided one month in advance (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). However other aspects of their job role can involve being on call which means they can be called upon at any point for duty, making it impossible to plan anything in their personal lives (Ballard, Coradi, Lauria, Mazzanti, Scaravelli, Sgorbissa, Romito and Verdecchia, 2004; Bergman and Gillberg, 2015).

Cabin crew also are at the disposal of passenger demands before they can take any break as part of their role (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). Assessment of the seven-factor solution showed that grouping of the items within their factors generally made sense and was in line with the established HSE Model. One item in Change. ('*I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work')* had a primary loading above 3 yet it conceptually fitted better in the factor despite this secondary loading being lower at 2.8 which was (Manager support). It was felt that due to the wording being linked with management activity it was something linked more with the nature of a manager's role. Parker and Williams (2001) and Stonehouse (2013) state that middle managers especially are one of the main drivers of change and this is the type of manager cabin crew would have most interaction with, if any.

Factor 1 had an eigenvalue of 7.478, accounted for 21.994% of the variance and had loadings on 6 items. These ranged from .309 to .898. The factor comprised of items from the Manager support scale of the HSE which included *'I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem'*

Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 2.759, accounted for 8.116% of the variance and had loadings on 8 items. These ranged from .399 to .747. The factor comprised of items from the Demand scale of the HSE which included '*I am unable to take sufficient breaks'* and '*I am pressured to work long hours*'

Factor 3 had an eigenvalue of 2.312, accounted for 6.8% of the variance and had loadings on 5 items. These ranged from -.310 to -.822. The factor comprised of items from the Control scale of the HSE which included '*I have a say in my own work speed'* and '*I can decide when to take a break'*

Factor 4 had an eigenvalue of 2.124, accounted for 6.248% of the variance and had loadings on 5 items. These ranged from .540 to .728. The factor comprised of items from the Role scale of the HSE which included '*I am clear what is expected from me at work'*

Factor 5 had an eigenvalue of 1.794, accounted for 5.277% of the variance and had loadings on 4 items. These ranged from .542 to .710. The factor comprised of items around Peer support scale of the HSE which included '*If work gets difficult my colleagues will help me'*

Factor 6 had an eigenvalue of 1.156%, accounted for 3.401% of the variance and had loadings on 4 items. These ranged from .315 to .322. The factor comprised of items around the Relationship scale of the HSE which included '*I am subject to bullying at work'*

Factor 7 had an eigenvalue of 1.047 accounted for 3.079% of the variance and had loadings on 2 items. These ranged from .283 to .353. The factor comprised of items around the Change scale of the HSE and included '*Staff are always consulted about change at work'* .283 is close to the criteria it was decided to keep this as it was to avoid a one item factor.

The Total Variance Table for the HSE Standards Indicator Tool can be found here in Table (**3**).

Table (3):

Eigenvalues for HSE Standards Indicator Tool

Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Manager support	7.478	21.944	21.944
2 Demands	2.759	8.116	30.110
3 Control	2.312	6.800	36.910
4 Role	2.124	6.248	43.519
5 Peer support	1.794	5.277	48.436
6 Relationships	1.156	3.401	51.837
7 Change	1.047	3.079	54.916

4.2.2 COPSQQ II

In the initial factor analysis on the COPSQQ II Tool, 3 factors had eigenvalues above 1 and met the Kaiser Criterion. The scree plot also illustrated a distinct elbow dropping off in the size of the eigenvalues after the third factor. The questionnaire items were examined, alongside the tool's published structure, and the pattern matrix. All items loaded at 0.3 or above as their primary loadings (interpretability criteria 1). Therefore, a forced three factor solution was attempted. Assessment of the three-factor solution showed that grouping of the items within their factors made sense, creating coherent factors and allowing the factors to be labelled.

Factor 1 had an eigenvalue of 6.086, accounted for 38.038% of the variance and had loadings on 8 items. Items loaded between .460 to .887. The factor comprised of items around stress/burnout scale of the COPSQQ II and included "How often have you felt worn out" and "How often have you had trouble relaxing"

Factor 2 had an eigenvalue of 2.265, accounted for 14.154% of the variance and had loadings on 4 items. Items loaded between .596 to .859. The factor comprised of items around job security and included "Are you worried about becoming unemployed," and "Are you worried about new technology making you redundant"

Factor 3 had an eigenvalue of 1.444, accounted for 9.027% of the variance and had loadings on 4 items. Items loaded between .588 and .856. The factor comprised of items around "Do you feel that your work drains so much of your energy that it has a negative effect on your private life" and "Do your family and friends tell you that you work too much"

The Total variance table for the COPSQQ II can be found here in Table (**4**).

Table (4): *Eigenvalues for the COPSQQ II items*

Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Stress	6.086	38.038	38.038
2 Job security	2.265	14.154	52.192
3 Work family conflict	1.444	9.027	61.219

The factor analysis structure for the HSE standards Indicator Tool can be found in Table (**5**) and for the COPSQQ II in Table (**6**).

Table (5): *Results from a factor analysis of the HSE Standards Indicator Tool*

Item	Factor Loading						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor 1: Manager support							
I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a problem	**.898**	-.039	.038	-.013	.099	.032	.159
My line manager encourages me at work	**.807**	.039	.013	.007	-.001	.023	-.009
I can talk to my line manager about something that has upset or annoyed me about work	**.784**	.028	.011	.014	.032	-.034	-.012
I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work	**.344**	.006	-.203	.022	.032	-.029	.261
I am supported through emotionally demanding work	**.322**	-.165	-.081	-.016	.170	-.087	.234
I am given supportive feedback on the work I do	**.309**	-.085	-.066	.093	.143	-.011	.121
Factor 2: Demands							
I have unrealistic time pressures	-.041	**.747**	-.024	-.032	-.035	.007	-.019
I have unachievable deadlines	-0.12	**.624**	-.103	-.050	.038	.152	.116
I have to work very fast	.011	**.600**	.174	.174	-.070	-.098	-.037
I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do	.042	**.561**	-.117	-.176	-.030	.048	.089
I have to work very intensively	-.008	**.518**	.119	.119	-.003	.000	-.001
Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine	-.046	**.485**	-.007	-.152	-.036	.124	.030
I am unable to take sufficient breaks	-.043	**.446**	-.072	.026	.067	.077	-.220
I am pressured to work long hours	-.073	**.399**	.154	.076	-.054	.056	-.140
Factor 3: Control							
I have a choice in deciding what I do at work	.003	.062	**-.822**	.036	.028	.027	-.105
I have a choice in deciding how I do my work	.024	.047	**-.801**	.002	-.059	-.021	-079
I have some say over the way I work	.000	.024	**-.601**	-.006	.133	-.132	.112
I have a say in my own work speed	-0.36	-.145	**-.551**	.026	.014	-.031	.028
I can decide when to take a break	.065	-.064	**-.310**	-.036	-.023	.006	.123

Factor 4: Role							
I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are	-.041	-.021	-.034	**.728**	.062	.018	-.135
I am clear what is expected of me at work	-.014	.017	.017	**.672**	.020	-.035	.099
I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department	.115	.067	.022	**.659**	-.084	-.020	.213
I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organisation	.073	.015	.026	**.557**	.042	-.063	.105
I know how to go about getting my job done	-.027	-.116	-.040	**.540**	.038	.020	-.214
Factor 5: Peer support							
I get help and support I need from colleagues	.037	-.014	.003	-.010	**.710**	.001	-.032
My colleagues are willing to listen to my work related problems	.050	-.015	.033	-.004	**.677**	.105	.010
If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me	.000	.004	-.094	.067	**.549**	-.069	-.152
I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues	.041	.030	-.026	.022	**.542**	-.107	.076
Factor 6: Relationships							
There is friction or anger between colleagues	.081	.072	-.061	-.015	-.332	**.322**	-.082
I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour	-.101	.057	.045	-.008	.073	**.744**	.092
I am subject to bullying at work	-.006	.033	.113	-.047	-.053	**.735**	.037
Relationships at work are strained	-.019	.037	-.051	.010	-.239	**.315**	-.195
Factor 7: Change							
Staff are always consulted about change at work	.126	-.084	-.097	.122	-.025	-.005	**.353**
When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice.	.042	-.106	-.124	.224	-.037	-.017	**.283**

Table (6): *Results from a factor analysis of the COPSQQ II Tool*

Item	Factor Loading		
	1	2	3
Factor 1: COPSQQII Stress/Burnout			
How often have you been tense?	**.887**	-.013	.110
How often have you been stressed?	**.869**	.003	.104
How often have you been irritable?	**.783**	.014	.060
How often have you been emotionally exhausted?	**.724**	-.027	-.049
How often have you been physically exhausted?	**.562**	-.012	-.089
How often have you had problems relaxing?	**.562**	-.077	-.089
How often have you felt worn out?	**.541**	.021	-.221
How often have you felt tired?	**.460**	.027	-.155
Factor 2: Job security			
Are you worried about becoming unemployed	.076	**.859**	.061
Are you worried about being transferred to another job against your will	.064	**.744**	-.012
Are you worried about it being difficult for you to find another job if you become unemployed	-.077	**.611**	.060
Are you worried about new technologies making you redundant	-.067	**.596**	-.073
Factor 3: Work family conflict			
Do you feel that your work takes so much of your time that it has a negative effect on your personal life	-.030	.023	**.856**
Do you feel that your work drains so much of your energy that it has a negative effect on your personal life	-.072	-.033	**.820**

Do you feel conflict between your work and your personal life, making you want to be in both places at the same time.	.024	-.013	**.633**
Do your friends and family tell you that you work too much	-.042	.064	**.588**

4.3 Assessing Reliability

To assess reliability of the factors as scales, Cronbach alpha values were calculated. This is one of the most widely used ways to measure reliability in the social and organisational sciences (Bonett and Wright, 2015). Reliability is important to ensure consistency and stability of measures that is extent to which a scale produces the same results over time (Khushnood, Khattak and Abbas, 2020). The HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool produced scores that were above .7 in six of the areas and so were deemed reliable and had been captured adequately based on Nunnally's (1978) rule of thumb criterion of .70 (Lacobucci and Duhachek, 2003; Thorsen and Bjorner, 2010). Change had a slightly lower value at .610 however this was considered as marginally acceptable as Ursachi, Horodnic and Zait (2015) state that 0.6 to 0.7 indicate an acceptable level of reliability and anything 0.8 or over is a very good level. In relation to the COPSQQ II Tool all measures had alpha values above .70 and based on Nunnally's (1978) rule of thumb were adequately captured in relation to reliability. Please see Table (**7**) below for the detail.

Table (7): *Cronbach alpha values*

Factor	*Figure*
1 (Manager support)	.847
2 (Demands)	.799
3 (Control)	.775
4 (Role)	.741
5 (Peer)	.749
6 (Relationships)	.723
7 (Change)	.610
1 (Stress and burnout)	.889
2 (Job security)	.792
3 (Work family conflict)	.828

4.4 Confirmatory factor analysis

Before beginning the main analysis of the data, confirmatory factor analysis was carried out using AMOS. See appendix **(8)** for detail. Before running the model some of the items had to be removed due to statistical considerations these were '*I am unable to take sufficient breaks'* (Q25), '*Relationships at work are strained'* (Q43), and '*I have to work very fast'* (Q29). This was because they had low factor loadings. Some modifications had to be made to improve results and some co-variances were added. Details of this can be found in appendix **(9).**

When the model ran the results showed that the model had a χ^2/ df 2.611 and the PCMIN was <.000 and considered a reasonable fit. The model was also assessed using the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) which was .960, the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) was .954 and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) which was .034. The GFI was not calculated because means and intercepts were estimated when the model ran. For the CFI and TLI to have a reasonable fit it is considered that this would need to present a figure above 0.90 (Hu and Bentler; 1999). For the RMSEA figure to be considered a good fit it should return a figure of <0.05 or to be considered as an adequate fit a figure of <0.08 (Burkhalter, Sereika, Engberg, Wirz-Justice, Steiger, and De Geest, 2010). The Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) which was .0373 was also considered as a well fitted model presenting a figure less than .05 (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008). A perfect fit would be considered as 0 (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008).

4.5 Stepwise regression

To investigate the relationship further between the dependent, independent and control variables a stepwise regression was ran. Means, standard deviations and correlations for these can be found in table **(8)**.

Table (8): *Means and standard deviations*

	Means	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Demands	18.9776	4.30216	1.00						
Peer	14.7170	2.69192	-.306**	1.00					
Relationships	7.2306	2.26988	.487**	-.469**	1.00				
Work family conflict	15.0252	3.44031	.437**	-.250**	.330**	1.00			
Manager support	14.0587	4.39032	-.388**	.410**	-.391**	-.286**	1.00		
Job security	10.5493	4.28498	.236**	-.203**	.282**	.179**	-.303**	1.00	
Stress	25.8155	5.41258	.482**	-.320**	.405**	.560**	-.305**	.239	1.00

In the stepwise regression eight models were calculated. The first three models featured some of the control variables. In the first model the adjusted R square was .022 and this was based around the entry of the control variable 'Age' and showed a significant F change result of <.001. In the second model 'Do you fly' was entered and the value of the adjusted R square increased to .026 and provided a significant F change of .011. In the third model 'Sex' was entered and the value of the adjusted R square increased to .028 and provided a significant F change of .050. The fourth model saw 'Work family conflict' entered and the value of the adjusted R square increased again to .323 and provided a significant F change of <.001. In the fifth model 'Demand' was entered and the adjusted R square increased again to .401 and provided another significant F change of <.001. In the sixth model 'Job security' was entered and the adjusted R square increased again to .418 and provided another significant F change of <.001. In the seventh model 'Peer' was entered and the adjusted R square increased again to .431 and another significant F change of <.001. In the final model 'Relationship' was entered, and the adjusted R square increased to .435 and a significant F change of <.001.

The results from the stepwise regression showed support for some of the hypothesis that were suggested earlier in this study. See table **(9)** and **(10)** for details of the model summary and co-efficients illustrating model 8 from the stepwise regression analysis. In future research these results will be expanded upon to develop a more complex research model which will consider some of the areas identified in the stepwise regression as potential moderators and mediators of stress/burnout in the sample of cabin crew which has been collected.

Table (9): *Model summary*

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of estimate	F change	Sig F change
1	.150a	.023	.022	.67328	32.038	<.001
2	.165b	.027	.026	.67194	6.522	.011
3	.173c	.030	.028	.67125	3.851	.050
4	.570d	.325	.323	.56010	605.721	<.001
5	.635e	.403	.401	.52685	181.310	<.001
6	.648f	.420	.418	.51943	40.794	<.001
7	.659g	.434	.431	.51358	32.732	<.001
8	.662h	.438	.435	.51163	11.549	<.001

a. Age
b. Age, Do you fly
c. Age, Do you fly, sex
d. Age, Do you fly, sex, work family conflict
e. Age, Do you fly, sex, work family conflict, demand,
f. Age, Do you fly, sex, work family conflict, demand, job security,
g. Age, Do you fly, sex, work family conflict, demand, job security, peer,
h. Age, Do you fly, sex, work family conflict, demand, job security, peer, relationship

Table (10): *Co-efficients*

Co efficients – Model 8

	Unstandardised B	Co-efficient St error	Standardised coefficent beta	t	Sig
Age	-.067	.013	-.114	-5.302	<.001
Do you fly	.043	.013	.066	3.181	.001
Sex	.094	.028	.067	3.307	<.001
WFC	.072	.005	.363	15.476	<.001
Demand	.037	.004	.235	9.423	<.001
Job security	.018	.004	.112	5.068	<.001
Peer	-.024	.006	-.097	-4.184	<.001
Relationship	.026	.008	.087	3.398	<.001

5 KEY INFORMANT FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines some of the findings from some of the key informant activities that took place initially at the start of the data collection process. When reflecting on this there was not enough data to consider it as contributing to a mixed method research study however it was useful to include as it helped to get to know the cabin crew better and was a process which enabled a collection of views relating to general issues crew experienced. The main research collection for the study featured around the questionnaire.

5.1 Analysis of key informant and focus group activities

Once all the key informant interviews had taken place and transcripts had been produced from the researcher's notes, the analysis of these began. The text data was read again to acquire an understanding of the content. The researcher then began to divide the text into meaningful categories by words/phrases and sentences which were abstracted and labelled as codes. See table **(11).** This form of analysis was typical of a directed content analysis with content analysis being a widely used qualitative research technique (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Directed content analysis can be considered as a more structured process than a conventional one and is often reliant on the researcher using existing theory and prior research to help identify key concept or initial coding categories (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

The additional focus group activity that was carried out with cabin crew where they completed a grading exercise based on Guest's (2017) framework, (see Methodology section) and appendix **(3)** was initially analysed using a manual count up / tally to indicate the areas of concern amongst the representatives who took part. See the results for this in appendix (**4**). An additional area which was highlighted as an area of concern amongst crew throughout both key informant interviews and focus group discussions was *'Value.'* Crew felt they did not receive this within their role and as such this was presented as an additional area to consider.

Table 11: Codes from key informant interviews

Health and Safety	Bullying and harassment	Employment security and employability	Participative and supportive management	Flexible and family friendly work arangements	Value
C18: Toxic Cabin Air Syndrome Events	C1: Harsh discipline when at work	C25: Not much room for advancement	C8: Blame Culture	C22: Fits with my lifestyle	C12: The company expect a lot from us employees but doesn't really give anything back to us.
C19: imposes different things and offers various things to crew to try and help manage their well-being.	C2: If the company want to get rid of you they just do	C29: Seasonal staff	C9: Crew are often managed by people who are not managers from industry or people who have not done the work of crew	C23: Prefer 'there and backs'	C13: They take their time or you do not get acknowledged at all.
C20: Access counselling services alongside our jobs to support us through difficult times or if we are particularly struggling at work."	C3: disciplinary action	C31: If you are a good employee they generally will extend some contracts into the winter months	C10: Do not understand the challenges or pressures on crew.	C30: Trying to achieve a work life balance. Rostering makes it hard to plan for anything	C24: Not many perks. The pay isn't great.
C26: Not having adequate breaks	C4: As crew you feel your life is dictated to you	C32: Cost cutting measures coming	C11: Dictate and try to tell us how to manage situations without actually fully knowing the role or work involved.		

		through to us in terms of our employment as crew.			
	C5: Even when you are away with work you feel like you are being watched		C14: Could be better at managing this		
	C6: Strong blame culture		C15: To be honest the finances of the company are pretty bad		
	C7: Put a lot of pressure on employees with demanding expectations both from them as an organisation and from the customers that board		C16: Senior management as they just lay a lot of pressure and responsibility on crew which makes it difficult for us sometimes.		
	C6: Strong blame culture		C17: Crew get annoyed with management		
	C7: Put a lot of pressure on employees with demanding expectations both from them as an organisation and from the customers that board		C21: Poor Relations		
	C25: Drunk passengers and drugs		C28: Selling as soon as they can		
	C27: Pressure through onboard sales				

5.2 Key informant findings

5.2.1 Value

Cabin crew representatives that took part in key informant interviews and the focus group exercise suggested that most of them did not feel they were valued within their role. This category was in addition to the five key areas identified on Guest's (2017) framework and emerged as an area of interest for the trade union body.

"The company expect a lot from us employees but doesn't really give anything back to us. They are quick to pull us in for negative behaviours or complaints. By the time a plane has landed if a passenger has tweeted something about the service or a general complaint they are quick to 'haul' us in. If it is something positive however they take their time or you do not get acknowledged at all. I think they could be better at managing this and giving more back to their employees so they feel valued" (Full cost airline carrier/legacy).

"We don't get many perks to our position's, but you get use to it. The pay isn't great" (Low cost airline).

In the interview with the HR member of staff from x122xx company no comments were made around how they value their staff however they did suggest that;

"most employees felt happy working for the company as they did not experience many issues in relation to turnover."

However, this may be considered due to the nature of their contracts within a charter airline operation as many of the employees are hired on seasonal contracts where they know their employment will cease on a particular date towards the end of the season.

The HR representative claimed that;

"Some employees preferred to work in that way and did other things over the winter period such as working in retail or travelling"

Cabin crew trade union representatives used in other key informant interviews claimed that crew across multiple airlines felt they were not valued enough in terms of the work that they do. This was from both their employer and the customers they regularly deal with.

5.2.2 Flexible/ family friendly work arrangements

Another area of concern that was suggested from key informant work was cabin crew's ability to achieve an effective work life balance which worked for them. A representative stated;

"Management are looking at trying to improve the work life balance employees have as this has been raised as a concern amongst some of the crew. Particularly around rostering as we never know when we have time off which can make it difficult to plan anything" (Charter airline).

Another member of crew acknowledged that the work–life balance and family friendly approach to employment was not brilliant but they said they embraced some of the advantages it could bring of working a little different to others.

"I have been working for my airline a long time now and to be honest it fits with my lifestyle. I don't mind, I do not get fancy stopovers and much prefer just going to work and knowing I am doing a couple of 'there and backs' (colloquial) and then I can be at home on the evening seeing family. It works for me. There are also some perks to doing your food shop when it is quieter and avoiding busy times like weekends" (Low cost airline)

In the key informant interview with the HR representative, the issue of rostering and work life balance was discussed and whilst they claimed there are an excellent variety of packages and policies available to crew to support them with families/children etc they did highlight that it is one of the biggest challenges for them to work with.

"We are constantly challenged with rostering and enabling effective work life balances and at times we sometimes think they should do it themselves and see how difficult it can be. We use a computer-based system to produce them, and it works on a 6-week basis. It is difficult using this as it gives no opportunity for considering someone's work life balance. However, manual rostering is a possibility but even with that it takes time and not everyone is going to be happy with the way it plans out"

5.2.3 Employment security

Job insecurity was another area that was discussed by the crew who were involved with key informant work. The area was acknowledged as a concern by a few different representatives from various airlines. A representative stated that it takes a long time to advance to any senior position within their airline and there is a real lack of support for career advancement.

"There is not much room for advancement. You pay for your own training and uniform when you start. If you just want a job where you can get use to a routine, it is good for that." (Low cost carrier).

Some further representatives detailed how airlines were constantly taking on new recruits on seasonal contracts and if you were a good employee, you would be kept on over winter months.

"We are a charter airline, so we work in a slightly different way to full cost operators and a lot of our flights are typically 'there and backs' where we do not get long stop overs. We mainly are competing with the low-cost airlines. As such we have seen quite a lot of cost cutting measures coming through to us in terms of our employment as crew. "(Charter carrier).

"There is a lot of tension in relation to job security. Employment contracts had been changed substantially within their organisation and now reflected poorer working conditions and rates of pay as appose to longer serving members of employee still employed under the same airline" (Full cost carrier).

The HR representative detailed they had a specific policy in place to support advancement amongst cabin crew members within a Charter based airline.

"The way promotion works at xx112xx is simple. We award employees on a seniority basis. This is dependent on length of service with the company and not on performance. We may have one employee who has been with the company five years and is a good performer and another who has been with the company for ten years but a poor performer. It would always be that the ten-year employee would receive the promotion and that is how we are currently working with the unions. Engagement and motivation are impacted by the current practices that are in place."

Interestingly, the comments made by management acknowledge that the way they do promote employees does impact on engagement and motivation of their employees.
They claimed that they were often recruiting for positions as much of their employment was seasonal. Some people adapt to this whereas others struggle with the demands of the jobs such as shift work, working unsocial hours etc.

"No issues really in terms of turnover. We are constantly recruiting as a high percentage of our employees are on fixed term contracts, but this can result in getting a permanent/part time contract after a period of time. Some people cannot work like that, but some people prefer it as they work the summer months for us March – October and get Christmas jobs over the winter months. We only keep on a small percentage of staff continually throughout the winter months and it is determined by capacity"

Working on such temporary and insecure contracts creates a level of insecurity for employees in terms of job performance and financial implication. There did not appear to be any indication of '*wrap around'* culture in terms of supporting job security from the employer who was involved with one of the interviews.

5.2.4 Health and Safety

Another area that was highlighted as concerning for crew was Health and Safety. As this is an occupation where safety is paramount to the position there was not any indication of any serious breaches or issues that could generally jeopardise passenger safety. However, a popular topic was linked to the level of adequate breaks/rest time crew had. One representative when asked what their main issue with rest breaks was said

"Not having adequate breaks and pressure through sales targets. If we are doing a short turnaround on a flight, you do not get much break before you are back greeting passengers." (Low cost carrier).

What is considered as 'sufficient' rest for crew often differs from airline to airline. Van den Berg, Signal, and Gander (2019) found rest was calculated for crew as soon as the aircraft was '*on chocks*[1]' and the engines shut down. This was classed as the beginning of their rest period, but crew were in effect still disembarking passengers and by the time they got home they had 7/8 hours to themselves.

[1] Chocks are a wedge or block placed under aircraft wheels to prevent them from moving

Participants in this study felt the amount of time was not sufficient to support quality time at home. A finding from Van den Berg, Signal, and Gander (2019) was that insufficient rest was linked with rostering. It was considered that if rostering changes were made it helped to alleviate some of the issues linked to getting enough sleep/time at home.

A further health and safety complaint from crew and one which was mentioned by representatives from right across regional, full cost, low cost and charter airline operators was from Aerotoxic Syndrome Events.[2] Some of the symptoms that can be seen in employees or passengers from exposure can include sore throats, coughing, nose bleeds, migraine headaches, nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea, muscle aches, rashes, itchy skin, fatigue, breathing difficulties and sudden rises in blood pressure (UNITE Union Legal Services Fact Sheet, 2020). These events have regularly been reported in media reports and UNITE encourages employees to report such events. There are legal services available which can support members who feel they have had exposure to toxic cabin air.

"We are constantly logging toxic cabin air syndrome events. This is where the cabin becomes filled with fumes which escape from the engine and they filter in through the air conditioning units. These events can see full planes having to land and in some cases passengers and crew are taken to hospital due to illness from exposure or to be checked. It can make you feel nauseous and give severe headaches." (Full cost carrier).

Representatives from various airlines including low cost, full cost and charter did mention that most airlines do try and support their employees in terms of their mental and physical health and well-being when at work.

[2] These events are when ill health effects occur and are claimed to be a result of breathing contaminated airline cabin air

"Each airline offers different things to crew to try and help manage their well-being. Gym memberships, leisure discounts and so on. The nature of the job and dealing with passengers of course makes it stressful. We can access counselling services alongside our jobs to support us through difficult times or if we are particularly struggling at work" (Full cost carrier)

5.2.5 Bullying and harassment

This area was another discussed in key informant interviews and the crew felt quite strongly around the topic. Sexual harassment is something cabin crew regularly experience and considered as an '*unreported*' workplace problem a lot of the time (Węziak-Białowolska, Białowolski, Mordukhovich, and McNeely, 2020). Overall, varied comments were made around management putting pressure on employees and in some cases, incidents relating to bullying were suggested.

Upon interviewing a younger representative of cabin crew, they described that there was;

"Harsh discipline when at work. Generally little things go unnoticed or not challenged but if the company want to get rid of you, they just can. For example, a girl who was working for us was on board an aircraft and it had just touched down, she had a concerning call about a close family member and wanted to leave as soon as she could. Later the company took disciplinary action against her. The company leaves so many things and then suddenly they change and the next thing they are dismissing you. Things go unrecorded and then it is your word against theirs. *A lot of the time there are leaks to the media and as crew you feel your life is dictated to you by the company. They hate any social media coverage from crew and do not like crew sharing content etc. Even when crew are away with work you feel like you are being watched and there is a strong 'blame' culture. If a crew member was socialising with other crew and drunk in resort and it was reported in the press or shown on social media the employee would be instantly called in by HR" (Full cost carrier).*

Another crew representative said that they felt their employing organisation

" Put a lot of pressure on employees with demanding expectations both from them as an organisation and then from the customers demands they have on board."

Through an additional interview with a representative it emerged that harassment from passengers was quite a normal occurrence on flights and they spoke about incidents with intoxicated passengers.

"Generally, it is drunk passengers or even worse if they have been taking drugs. We have had the police intervene a few times. Normally you can just tell them to sit down, and we stop serving them alcohol. On some occasions however the customer can get threatening and abusive. We do have training to deal with these occasions however it is always a difficult situation for crew especially if there are families and young children on board as it can be upsetting. We have had a few incidences when we have had to land to disembark unruly customers." (Low-cost carrier).

Crew also spoke about feeling pressure through working to sales targets onboard as organisations were putting more onus on making a profit from their customers. Lots of amenities that were included as standard on some airlines such as inflight meals have now been reduced or eliminated in efforts to cut costs by airlines. To try and make money from passengers' needs many now sell a range of snacks and meals which need to be paid for onboard (Rubin and Joy, 2005). This alongside selling scratch cards, beauty products, fragrances and small gifts all contribute to profit turnover for the operating airline.
Some of the challenges around bullying were felt as coming directly from line managers who were appointed to manage groups of crew. Many incidents went unrecorded due to crew not feeling they had anyone they could approach to discuss and record such issues with. Some crew also claimed that it was sometimes easier to say nothing as it would work against them to report any issues of bullying/harassment as ultimately, they would still be under the same line manager and still required to work in a confined working environment. To some extent cabin crew have had to adopt an attitude of just putting up with and getting on with the job because it creates '*too much trouble'* to raise awareness of these issues or they just go unheard which can put crew under significant amounts of stress/burnout.

5.2.6 Participative / supportive management

One of the main complaints and challenges that was reported from the cabin crew was around management and the level of support they receive from these. There is a fraught relationship between most airline employees and the management within their airline regardless of type of carrier and some of this is evident in some of the comments that follow from representatives involved in key informant interviews.

" There is a strong blame culture from management" (*Full cost carrier*)

"Crew are often managed by people who are not managers from industry or people who have not done the work of crew and this causes problems. This is because they do not understand the challenges or pressures on crew. They just dictate and try to tell us how to manage situations without fully knowing the role or work involved. A lot of these managers come in from retail etc where it is a bit of a different set up. We are managed totally differently from Pilots as well. They have different reward systems and services available to them." (Full cost carrier).

"*Management could be better at showing support towards employees through actively supporting career advancement and making employees feel more valued at work" (Full cost carrier/low cost carrier).*

A lot of the representatives who took part in key informant interviews wished they could move away from draconian ways of working. These ways of managing made employees feel worse at work in terms of their well-being but also encouraged fraught and strained relationships. Some further comments around management support were given in an interview with a representative from a charter airline.

"The airline is suffering financially, and employees have had awareness of this for some time however management continually hold back information and do not communicate with us employees. This had led to resentment and anger from some employees" (Charter carrier).

"The finances of the company are bad and have been for some time. Some wrong decisions were made by the company when buying up retail elements when everything was moving online. The airline however contributes some good profits for the company. The best thing the company could do would be to keep the airline going and sell off other sections of their business."(Charter carrier).

"Our only issues come when dealing with more senior management as they just lay a lot of pressure and responsibility on crew which makes it difficult for us sometimes. The general friendliness and support between crew is great though and you meet so many different people."(Charter carrier).

"The management are notoriously known for not treating their employees great. We put up with it as it is a job and the worst-case scenario is they let you go or don't renew your contract" (Charter & low cost carriers).

In one of the key informant interviews with a HR representative from an employing airline company, they did acknowledge that there were some problems with their management of crew. They discussed the issue of line management structures and claimed they did not know if they had got this relationship and power balance right.

"Currently we are experiencing challenges with engagement between line managers and crew. Crew generally enjoy their day-to-day work and form cohesive relationships with one another however there is a lack of involvement/engagement with managers which leaves them disgruntled. We have questioned whether our line management structures are appropriate and are continually assessing this. We are unsure if we have it right.
Crew say to us they feel they lack a connection with the wider company and feel that is just them and the customer. We want them to feel like we are one big team, but it can be a challenge getting everyone on board with that vision."

The HR representative also discussed the challenge around advancement and promotion and claimed that the way they are approaching promotion with employees can cause issues in relation to engagement and motivation at work.

"Communication is a bit limited now and we are launching a new project called project Diamond. We have been made aware that crew are struggling with picking up communications/news from managers so have issued all crew with an iPad where they can check their email etc before boarding flights/in the crew room."

Line management responsibilities within the airlines are particularly different from a traditional office environment and crew do not necessarily have immediate access to a manager who understands their role, and this sometimes can be challenging for all involved.

In the next section the main findings will be discussed from the quantitative data that was collected. It will also look at some of the key areas that have come out of the key informant interviews that have occurred with cabin crew representatives.

6 DISCUSSION

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter the main findings from both the questionnaire and the key informant activities will be discussed in more detail.

6.1 Quantitative results

The findings from the analysis of the questionnaire identified five areas of significance which had a contribution to stress and burnout experienced by cabin crew. These were work family conflict, job security, relationships, peer and demands. Each of these areas will be discussed alongside the four areas (role, control, manager support and change) which the data showed as having no impact on cabin crew's well-being. Some suggestions are made as to why this may have been.

6.1.1 Relationships and peer

The analysis showed that relationships and peer both had significance in contributing to cabin crew's experiences of stress and burnout. However, when asking the crew why these areas may be stressors for them it was difficult for them to explain. The crew did state however that they do not routinely work with one another. One of the problems with the relationship scale on the HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool is that it includes very different types of relationship issues from '*friction between colleagues'* to bullying and harassment. The items based around bullying and harassment had scored high loadings on the factor analysis, whereas items such as '*relationships at work are strained*' and '*friction between colleagues'* had much lower loadings. They were all loading on the same factor, but it may be interesting in future work to consider if relationships need to be split into two facets which would measure the general day to day working of crew in terms of relationships and another which would probe around the bullying and harassment they may experience.

The relationship scale does not distinguish between managers and colleagues for some of the items e.g., 'relationships at work are strained.' This does not allow the respondent to consider this item in terms of colleagues and/or managers. Anyone completing this may answer this fully considering both together and this therefore may suggest why the area has been skewed and identified as a significant area in terms of impact on crew well-being.

Peer also was highlighted as an area of significance. The consensus amongst crew is that they will work together civilly and respectfully to get the job done and if there are difficulties, they will work together to overcome these as teamwork is essentially what their role entails. However, being able to work together is one thing but if crew do not feel they are genuinely supported by one another this can have a detrimental impact to their well-being. Some of the participants may have reflected on the questions linked to peer and answered these honestly and based upon how they felt. This has therefore shown that within the sample many of the crew have felt that there is a lack of genuine support towards each other when at work.

Future work would need to consider how to identify where the problems are with relationships and peer support between crew and whether these are problems which are inherent of how the industry functions, the nature of the work they do or whether this is an area which the industry could look to address better. Work is a fertile ground for the development of both instrumental and friendly social bonds, and work relationships are said to be the very foundations of organisations and contemporary embodiment of how work gets accomplished (Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Summers, Basik and Buckley, 2009; Simon, Judge, Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2010). Sliter, Jex, Wolford and McInnerney (2010) states that negative relationships at work with colleagues and customers can be considered as one of the most damaging hassles to an employee's well-being. If there are positive work relationships and employees are satisfied with one another they are most likely to befriend each other and this can have a significant impact on job satisfaction but also spill over into employee's life satisfaction (Simon, Judge and Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2010).

Tsaur, Hsu and Kung (2020) suggest crew can experience issues with working relationships when any of three problems occur. These are uneven work assignments, poor work cohesion among crew and poor work cohesion between cockpit and crew. Further stress can occur when crew are on duty and they must work with people they have never worked with before (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). This is another suggestion as to why relationships and peer have shown as being significant in the analysis. Having to work with a different team each time can require crew to blend their personalities to accommodate the team dynamics (Smith, Harrington and Neck, 2000; Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). The need for crew to work in this way is deliberate and it is so familiarity is not gained, and crew do not become complacent at work (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). It is expected crew should always be ready to face an unfamiliar emergency which may include aircraft defect, medical emergency or sudden turbulence (Ko, Lee and Hyun, 2021). If a team is skilled and cooperative an unexpected occurrence should not cause major panic and crew should be responsive (Ko, Lee and Hyun, 2021). The idea of working with someone new per flight helps to cause less preparedness, relaxation and prevent attention not being made to vital security aspects (Wahlstedt, Lindgren, Norback, Wieslander and Runeson, 2010). Crew often work with limited space and time and cannot directly contact the outside world so the need for teamwork is considered as a crucial factor for sophisticated work performance (Ko, Lee, Hyun, 2021; Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). On a long-haul flight, crew can work in a team of up to ten or more members and a minor mistake by one can negatively influence the remaining team members (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). Partridge and Goodman (2016) outline that cabin crew must work so dynamically with each other to pull together and work quickly as a team from when they first check in for a flight and attend pre-flight briefings. Tuckman's (1965) forming, storming and norming model can be linked with the work of cabin crew as it suggests that crew need to be comfortable and capable of reaching the performance stage before passengers' board the aircraft. By the time they reach the 'mourning' stage they are often disembarking one flight and boarding another or going their separate ways which can ultimately see 'flight friendships' cut short and a lack of continuity, trust and development occurring.

They then must re-commence the whole process again with a whole different crew and in effect they are not forming any relationships due to the mechanic nature of what they are expected to do. This process of working with unfamiliarity and the tacit understanding among team members can often lead to conflict when performing duties and lead to frustrations between the crew (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). Some cabin crew can have a negative influence on the overall team's performance due to maladjustment and/or neglect of work (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). This has been referred to by some researchers as the '*problem employee'* (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). '*Problem employees'* are defined as employees who are indolent, lack ability and who fail to perform in a project (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022, p.2). They can be categorised into various categories which include lack of cooperation with others, poor job performance, resistance to change and disobedience to boss feedback (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). Most '*problem employees'* possess characteristics and for cabin crew this may include providing passengers with poor service quality, no cooperation with team crew members, lack of self-management, inadequate knowledge regarding work and failure to respond to supervisors or feedback (Kim, Yu and Hyun, 2022). '*Problem employees'* are seen as a challenge for the aviation industry with no studies specifically focusing on how to manage '*problem employees'* and their impact on teamwork within the industry. Personalities clashes can also make working together as crew difficult from time to time and as Drayton (2021) details personality of employees can play a significant role in influencing employees experience of stress and burnout. Jennings (2008) carried out research which involved nurses and found that personality greatly contributed to how they experienced stress/burnout. Not all individuals found the same demands/elements of their job stressful. Jennings (2008) stated that the specific personality characteristics which best cope is still unclear.

Crew are also challenged when working across cultures (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). Seriwatana and Charoensukmongkol (2020) state that cultural differences between employees can lead to communication barriers and misunderstandings. For example, cabin crew can present differing expectations and opinions around how work should be done and the pace in which the work should be done.

Poor communication often displays between crew at fraught times such as delivering meal or refreshment services. They are required to work to tight timescales when doing so and whilst some crew may be laid back in their approach others feel the work should be done at a quicker pace and/or are more punctual with service delivery. Jamal (2005) details that cross cultural working can pose differences in attitudes and behaviours. People who come from a collectivist culture may have more of an emphasis on belonging in a group as this can provide security and protection from others and is often useful when situations are difficult and unpleasant i.e., chronic job stress (Jamal, 2005). Whereas individualist cultures prefer to work from their initiative and achievement and would prefer to work alone when presented with difficult or unpleasant situations as a way of coping/handling this. Additional issues that can arise for crew is when they are being asked to do something which may be different or conflict with their own thoughts/knowledge/experience on doing things and this can then create further tensions (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). As the literature has suggested there are many areas which can support why relationships and peer can have a significant impact on crew well-being. The area is worthy of further exploration as it is difficult to determine what aspects of crew relationships and peer support are the areas contributing to the stress/burnout they experience. A more precise indication may help with understanding this more but also to suggest ways in which the situation can be made better.

6.1.2 Demands

Another area which significantly contributed to cabin crew stress and burnout was demands. Crew have experienced in recent years the need to work more intensively with reduced numbers of employees on board. This has been dictated by their employing airline companies for a range of reasons with many being that cost saving measures were needed within some companies, but also still needing to have a level of compliance with health and safety requirements in terms of staffing an aircraft. This has had some impact on the employees however and they are finding (dependent on carrier) that time has become more restrictive in terms of turnaround time and rest breaks and for some airline carriers operating on a low-cost basis crew are asked to abandon non-essential tasks so that the aircraft can be back in the skies in a shorter amount of time. For crew it is making the work more challenging, pressurised and they are having to do more with less. The crew involved within this data collection sample are experienced members and as a result have witnessed the deterioration that has occurred within their employing airlines but also across the industry over a period of time.

Crew have also acquired a new pressure across all airline carrier types that requires them to sell more products/services to passengers. This is bringing more revenue in for airline companies but putting more pressure on the crew as it is an additional '*chore*' they must do in the limited time they have on board. Another large aspect of a cabin crew's job role is to deal with customer demands often using emotional labour skills to deal with these. Hopfl (1995) discusses how this is a longstanding problem for crew and links it to acting and theatrical performance. Hopfl (1995) details how crew defined themselves as marionettes who often displayed deliberate, robotic movements and highly styled gestures to help deliver a condescending parody of cabin service. The items linked to 'Demands' on the HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool do refer to demands from people but it does not go into much depth. It would be interesting to consider this area more in future research plans and use a different scale to probe more to determine how much and what aspects of emotional labour are contributing to the stress/burnout the crew experience.

Job demands are defined as the work context that overburdens employees' personal capacities. These can be linked and have been discovered in this study with physiological and/or psychological costs such as exhaustion/cynicism i.e., burnout (Van den Broeck, Cuyper, De Witte and Vansteenkiste, 2010). Job demands can include task interruptions, workload, role ambiguity and work–home interference (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Employees who have high job demands will initially try to withstand them and put more energy into completing these and will initially experience exhaustion but not disengagement in their work (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001). The real challenge arises when the employee has a prolonged exposure to demands and they must find ways to cope with these which can wear the employee out and deplete their personal energy resources (Van den Broeck, Cuyper, De Witte and Vansteenkiste, 2010; Chen and Chen, 2012; Chen and Kao, 2012 and Cheng, Chang and Chan, 2018). To try and avoid such things these employees may look for ways to lower their performance by perhaps reducing their work tempo or not being punctual. The withdrawal can make the employee vulnerable in terms of keeping in employment but also in terms of experiencing and dealing with burnout (Van den Broeck et al, 2010). There is a clear relationship that suggests job demands are contributing to health impairment and they have a positive relationship with burnout, and this is evident within the JD-CS Model which underpins this study (Karasek and Theorell, 1990; Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer and Schaufeli, 2003a; Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008).

One of the main demands on crew is passengers and the crew deal with these for the longest time during the flight and must extend communication during the service delivery process as well as influence the image perceptions of the passengers about the airlines through their behaviours and emotional attitudes (Yeh, 2014; Yelgin and Ergun, 2021). They also have to deal with abusive / drunk/intoxicated and uncivil passengers as well as occasional difficulties communicating with people from different cultures. Tourigny, Baba and Wang (2010), Hu and King (2017), and Cheng, Hong and Yang (2018) all carried out research into cabin crew job demands and found these all had negative impacts on cabin crew's well-being and increased the stress/burnout they experienced within their role.

Yelgin and Ergun (2021) suggested personality as a factor that can influence how crew cope with some of the elements of their job. It is considered that if they have the right mentality and personality, it could help them succeed within the occupation. The term 'hardiness' links with how a person views and manages stressors (Leon and Halbesleden, 2013). This term first appeared in psychological research when Kobasa (1979) examined workplace behaviours of managers in a telephone company. The results showed those who did not fall unwell had certain attitudes that buffered the effects of stress including a strong commitment to self, control, and engagement with the environment. Bergman and Gillberg (2015) state that as cabin crew gain in experience they generally learn to handle the level of demands better and this is done through various mechanisms such as exercising, resting when they can and watching what they eat and drink. Recovery and a fit body are prerequisites for coping with the work that they do. As such employees can access benefits such as gym memberships to help encourage them towards achieving a more 'healthy mind and body.' However, some challenges are still present in terms of recovery and resting as detailed in the health and safety section of the key informant findings.

6.1.3 Work family conflict

This area was identified as one of the highest areas of significance in terms of its contribution to stress/burnout amongst cabin crew involved in this research. Working in an industry that does not take a routine holiday and which works to schedules means that crew spend large amounts of time away from home and family/friends. This can make it very difficult for them to achieve a good work life balance and can create a large amount of stress and tension especially in situations where crew may have young children, caring responsibilities and/or have partners who they cannot see or spend much time with. Crew often as a result suffer with loneliness, isolation and being in unusual surroundings and they often seek comfort from bonding with other colleagues on stopovers who all experience the same problems. The industry is known as not being designed to be family friendly and as such women are tasked with choosing between their careers and a family life. This can see women leave the occupation, struggle through the occupation or for some deciding not to work in the area at all.

However, the aviation industry often offers fractional employment contracts which would typically attract women looking to come back into work after having a family. Another way the issue of work-family conflict can be addressed amongst crew is for management to consider employees' individual needs against crew rostering. Although this does not always work favourably, and some managers cannot deploy employees in ways that make the best use of their skills, experiences, and abilities. They also can struggle with accessing training and promotional opportunities within the company. Some crew therefore choose to leave the industry if they cannot find a way to balance work and family commitments and this is likely to continue unless a solution is proposed.

Work life conflict has been noted by scholars for some time as a role stressor (Parasuraman, Greenhaus and Granrose, 1992; Carlson and Perrewe, 1999). This particularly has focused on the negative work–home interference that can occur due to the erosion of working time standards and the shift that has occurred from industry work to service work in many Western societies (Parker, Wall and Cordery, 2001; Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte and Vansteenkiste, 2010). Kanter (1977) proposed that the traditional view of work and family life in the business world is something that should be seen as two separate domains. Although, in more recent times businesses have realised that work and family are intertwined and need to be treated as such (Muse, Harris, Giles and Feild, 2008). Crew do work uncommon work shifts as well as needing to be on standby for duty on occasions as such they lack control over their lifestyles, and they cannot say when, where and how they will work (Fleetwood, 2007; Whitelegg, 2009; Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). They are tasked with constant alteration between adaptations to their work life and their home life in relation to their daily living and this creates a sense of two existing worlds to them known as a professional one and a private one (Eriksen, 2016). This leads to tension when role pressures from being a member of an organisation (work) conflict with pressures from the individual also being part of another group (family) (Kinman, 2009). Social psychologists state it is normal for an individual to have over ten different roles within daily life including employee, mother/father, spouse, sibling, volunteer etc (Bolton and Boyd, 2003; Joseph, 2018).

Crew regularly deal with tension at home, and this can have an impact on relationships both personally and at work (Ballard, Corradi, Lauria, Mazzanti, Scaravelli, Sgorbissa, Romito and Verdecchia, 2004; Chang and Chiu 2009; Kinman, 2009; Chen and Chen, 2012; Bergman and Gillberg, 2015; Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). Guest (2002a) and Lu, Cheng and Huang (2016) have highlighted that having an ineffective work life balance can result in negative consequences on a person's well-being and functioning. Fiksenbaum (2014) states that employees who struggled with work family conflict also reported lower levels of life satisfaction, less energy and less dedication to work.

Guest (2002a) details five typical models associated with gaining an understanding of the work life balance relationship. These are the segmentation model, the spill-over model, the compensation model, the instrumental model and the conflict model. When considering how cabin crew may fit with these models and reflecting on the results gathered for this study it would indicate that crew could fit with a number of these models. However, the model that most clearly matches the crew experiences highlighted in the present study is the spill-over model which can see one world influencing the other in either a positive or negative way. Guest (2002a) states there needs to be more detailed propositions about the nature, causes and consequences of spill-over. It is also quite possible that some crew may reflect the instrumental model which sees activities in one area facilitating success in the other area. In this case crew would go to work and experience the conditions they do to provide for their families/partner. On the other hand, it is also possible for some crew and especially those used in this study to experience a total level of conflict and high demand in all areas of their employment and their personal/family life resulting in difficult decisions being made and the overload on the individual experiencing that situation. It has been pointed out by Guest (2002a) that the models are descriptive and for them to be of value they need to incorporate an analysis of their causes and consequences.

The industry is very constrained in terms of how it can address the issue of work-family conflict as much of this is inherited as a characteristic of working within the industry. Traditional work life balance initiatives used within some other industries do not work for cabin crew.

Flexible working initiatives could be put in place for some crew members who have family/caring commitments however there would still be the requirement for the employees to adhere to their duties and tasks such as dropping a child off at school and picking them up is not something that can be achieved if the crew member is on an eight-hour transatlantic flight. Crew are made aware within the recruitment stages of entering the occupation that they will spend time away from family and friends and that it is not an occupation for someone who craves routine.

6.1.4 Job security

This area was another form of stressor contributing to cabin crew's well-being and was detailed in both the key informant and quantitative findings. Job security or rather insecurity is something which is commonly experienced across the aviation and service industries. This is because the industries are dependent on people having disposable income to spend within them and they suffer with peaks and troughs in the economy. This therefore creates a high level of instability in terms of employment and the contractual arrangements offered to employees are usually part time, fractional and seasonal. These do not generally offer a great deal of stability to an employee who may be wishing to buy a house, start a family or have a steady monthly income/annual salary. The industry recognises this although there is very little again that can be done as it is inherently how the industry operates. Many charter and low cost airlines recruit employees for the peak of the tourist season and they work until the end of the season with a small amount of employees being kept on to cover reduced winter season flights. For others however this can mean they need to find employment to see them through the winter months until the next point of recruitment for the summer season. This arrangement can work for some employees but not all. It would be beneficial for airline companies to try and retain as many employees as they can and develop them into veteran crew as it can become costly to keep recruiting crew and then lose them months into the position. Considering when this data was collected it was mid to late season and the timing of its collection may have been at a time where the lack of job security was on many of the respondent's minds.

It also happened at a time when the industry was witnessing companies such as Thomas Cook going bankrupt and prior to this airlines such as Monarch who also went bankrupt. Some of the respondents had also lost colleagues through redundancies because of these actions. It would be interesting to revisit this area in future studies to determine if there is a difference in views in relation to this area and whether employees' perceptions have changed because of the Covid-19 pandemic where the industry has seen skills shortages with people leaving the industry to help other sectors.

Another concern amongst crew which linked to job security was around the limited level of progression opportunities. They could either progress by leaving the company, or they would be faced with lots of competition when positions do become available due to the vast number of employees all at the same level who all would be wishing to progress their careers. Many of the crew involved in this sample were considered as being with their airline for several years and many in the same role from when they were initially recruited to the airline.

In literature, job security is defined as *"the level of uncertainty a person feels in relation to his or her job continuity" (*Wang, Lu and Siu, 2014, p.1). Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and Konig (2010), Wang, Lu and Siu (2015) and Darvishmotevali, Arasli, and Kilic (2017) all suggest that constantly experiencing job insecurity can be one of the most stressful experiences an employee can go through in their career. Individuals can react differently to the level of threat. The reaction is often dependent on several factors-labour market characteristics, employability, individual characteristics, family responsibility, age and gender (Sverke and Hellgren, 2002). If a person feels they can get a job quite easily they may view the situation of job insecurity positively. To help alleviate some of the concerns employees have around job security employers should seek to look for effective strategies to use with employees to help them cope with the level of threat whilst also keeping them productive and engaged in their work (Sverke and Hellgren, 2002; Wang, Lu and Siu, 2014).

Vander Elst, Baillien, Cuyper and De Witte (2010) states that the approach organisations take to supporting employees suffering with job insecurity is often determined by the quality of their communication and participation and whether this is an antecedent or a buffer. Vander Elst, Baillien, Cuyper and De Witte (2010) found that organisational communication and participation had a negative relationship with job insecurity, and it was therefore suggested that managers had to work on improving this specially to support employees through challenging times. Similar findings have also been found in Shin, Lee and Hur (2021) who detailed supervisors have a strong impact on employees and what they experience in the workplace and as a result perceptions of job insecurity can be influenced by supervisor's attitudes and behaviours. Markey, Ravenswood, Webber, and Knudsen (2013) suggest that a level of emotional support from line management/supervisors is required when dealing with employees who are working insecurely as well as promoting the opportunity for continued education, enhancement, information transparency and more open communication. If this is achieved, it is considered that employee's may be happier, and it may contribute to better levels of well-being overall.

The issue of job security is one which cannot really be removed within the aviation industry however small steps such as airline companies showing support towards employees around the issue are a positive motion. They could also show some support and initiatives towards upgrading skills in employees who have been with the airline for several years to make them prepared for advancement opportunities when they arise. The issue of job instability and unemployment is one recognised as a serious national problem and there are calls for governments to actively help and support the aviation industry (Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung, 2022). Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung (2022) detail that in Scandinavian countries there is a motto "*Protect the worker, not the job*." This notion helps their citizens to sustain their livelihoods by providing financial support to citizens for training and enhancing their employability. This could be one way a UK government could show some willing towards supporting the aviation workforce.

6.2 Non-significant findings

In this section some of the areas which were not found to be statistically significant will be explored and suggestions will be made as to why these may not have shown much impact on cabin crew well-being. It may seem unusual to spend time discussing what was not insignificant but as the HSE Standards Indicator Tool is so widely used and well validated it is worth taking time to consider why some of their established factors for predicting stress and burnout proved not to be significant in terms of this cabin crew sample.

6.2.1 Role

The '*Role*' scale on the HSE Standards Indicator Tool explored whether participants know what is expected of them at work and whether they are clear about their duties and responsibilities. Cabin crew generally felt they had a clear understanding of how to do their job and some of the reasoning to support this could be that the sample was representative of experienced crew who had carried out the role for many years. Some aspects of the work of cabin crew do not change and can be very prescribed tasks where every member of employee would have the same responsibility e.g., safety. Crew therefore would have a good level of understanding of what was expected of them and could be considered as having extensive role clarity. This would possibly suggest why this area has resulted in not having much impact on crew's day to day well-being or contributing to stress/burnout within the role. The industry offers very rigorous and comprehensive training to anyone who joins it and as such this clearly details what employee roles are (Bolton and Boyd, 2003). Most airline companies believe that training employees is a top priority activity because this ensures the safety of the flights that they operate (Tobisová, and Vajdová, 2018). A typical example of the training a member of cabin crew may undertake includes general theoretical knowledge of aerospace and aeronautical regulations, human factors, and optimisation of crew activity, first aid, survival training, fire and safety training, dangerous goods and handling passenger situations onboard as well as occupational health and safety training (Tobisová, and Vajdová, 2018)

6.2.2 Control

The HSE Standards Indicator Tool items based around *'Control'* probed respondents around having choices over how employees did their work and deciding what they did at work. Some of these items are not choices crew can have much control over due to the nature of the work they do. The concept of control generally may be seen to some as a stressor because they have no control when boarding an aircraft to carry out their work. However, experienced crew would recognise that this is the nature of their work, and this would be something they would need to accept and agree to at the time of application/recruitment. Crew are compliant with much of their work and there is no element of choice a lot of the time for them to deviate therefore the crew may have answered questions in relation to this item and considered that control is not a feature of their role and as a result they do not get stressed about it or allow for it to affect their well-being.

Safety is the main priority to anyone on board an aircraft and the aviation industry operates working to heavy regulations which are set out by the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). These regulations state that regardless of geographical region or operational context every airline must operate to strict industry guidelines (Lovegrove, 2000; Forsyth, 2016). The industry provides a quality level of safety development and is regularly monitored and audited for compliance with regulations with it being the most controlled industry in terms of safety (Oster, Strong and Zorn, 2013).

6.2.3 Manager support

This factor was also found to be non-significant in relation to impact on crew well-being. The way cabin crew are managed however is different from what many might experience in other industries, and they have never been a group of employees that are overly managed. As such crew often do not see a line manager and may only contact a member of management if they have a problem or are called upon.

Once on-board an aircraft crew work autonomously but will have a point of contact onboard known as a cabin services manager who will allocate on board work tasks and provide direction where needed. Cabin services managers often do not consider themselves as management and engage as part of the working team on board. When asked the items around '*Managers support'* from the HSE Standards Indicator Tool some of the participants may have felt that overall, they were being treated reasonably in relation to the items they were asked however the negative impact of management activity may have been better picked up in other items aligned with '*Relationships*' or '*Demands*' which consequently came out as significant stressors to impact on crew well-being. Crew may have a neutral opinion on management because it is possible that because of the absence of line managers much of their work such as rostering is controlled by technological systems which tells them where and when they need to be somewhere. It is also possible that because of this crew would not necessarily go to management with an issue they may have as they may feel they do not know them enough to approach them and/or they would deal with their issue via electronic communication with points of contacts that are made aware to them. It is also worth considering that the crew who were involved in this research were experienced and would have become accustomed to working with an absence of management over a period of time. When crew have been asked about managers their first reactions may be that there were no significant issues linked to what the items probed them on. This analogy can be compared to Warr's vitamin model in that a human could have a vitamin deficiency, but it may not become known to them until there was a problem. Crew have suggested in key informant work that support from managers can vary and can be dependent on the problem they have. For some things such as health they can be supportive but for other matters such as time off or performance issues they are usually poorly dealt with.

It would be interesting to consider in future research that if there was more presence of management for crew would this make any difference, or would it be that it could be a resource that companies heavily invest in, but crew may feel that they do not need it or even make use of it. The literature suggests manager support on a day-to-day basis can be helpful to support employees with work demands that occur from their role (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004).

They can also positively influence employee engagement, motivation, and well-being (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010; Van Dierendonck & Jacobs, 2012; Breevaart, Bakker, Hetland, Demerouti, Olsen and Espevik, 2014). Crew do have a level of autonomy to their work (Williams, 2003). Yet the lack of supervision on board can highlight the novelty of the working environment as crew often regard themselves as total separates from management and as a result interpret, manipulate, and implement the managerially prescribed roles of engagement (Bolton and Boyd, 2003) which could potentially be another reason they do not really feel management have much impact on their day-to-day well-being.

6.2.4 Change

This scale on the HSE Standards Indicator Tool is quite a small one and only consists of a few items. This area was not highlighted as having much impact on cabin crew well-being and there could be several reasons as to why this may have occurred. It is expected that the organisations crew work on behalf of will engage with change, but the changes are generally seen as broad trends which will have an impact on the whole of operations within the industry such as more work intensification for cabin crew through direct selling or dealing with increasing demands of passengers. '*Change*' therefore could be perceived by crew as not being deliberate changes from their employer and therefore for this reason they do not see it as having any impact on their well-being levels when at work. Crew also as part of their recruitment process are often selected for being people who can adapt well to change due to what is required of them within their role, and this also could be a reason as to why this area did not feature as having much impact on their well-being.

Change is considered in literature as something that is inevitable, constant, unpredictable, and sometimes alarming and if it stands still, it could cause decay and stagnation (Page, Wallace, McFarlane and Law, 2008). The climate in which airlines operate are regularly responsive to various changes such as increased technological acceleration, changing government regulations, political events and a dynamic economic environment which are all catalysts for supporting ongoing and often major organisational change (Lercel, 2019).

When considering cabin crew within their day-to-day role they are expected to deal with many people and emotional labour features as a large part of their role. Bolton and Boyd (2003) acknowledge crew as skilled emotional managers who can juggle and synthesise different types of emotion work dependent on situational demands.

Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004) state that employees who can use their emotions appropriately, often being very optimistic and taking to initiatives can support change that occurs within organisations better as they usually reframe their perceptions of a newly proposed change as an exciting challenge. This could also be considered as relevant to the work of crew supporting another reason why change may not have been seen as having any real impact on their stress/burnout.

6.3 Key informant findings

This next section will focus on the findings from some of the key informant interviews that were carried out. The main areas that were suggested as having an impact on stress and burnout will each be discussed in turn. Two of the areas which were job security and work–family conflict was picked up in the previous section from the questionnaire findings and therefore will not be discussed further here.

6.3.1 Feeling valued

The first area and which was a topic of particular interest for UNITE as the trade union body who support crew was '*value*.' Some of the crew detailed that they did not feel valued for the work that they do, and this was something not only did they experience from their employer but also from the customers they regularly deal with.

Within some of the airlines used within this research many of the employees are working on seasonal contracts and due to the flexibility of such a contract this can contribute to crew not feeling valued by their employer as they often do not gain access to some of the rewards and benefits a more permanent employee may have when working.

Crew also regularly deal with rude, aggressive, intoxicated, and drugged passengers and due to the anonymous service interaction, that often occurs, passengers get away with this form of incivility towards crew. The mentality of many service facing organisations is that the '*customer is always right'* which also makes it very difficult for crew to suggest otherwise.
Some ways airline companies could show more consideration towards their employees is using crew reward days in which crew get the opportunity to indulge in an activity or leisure pursuit they find enjoyment in. This would also act as a way of helping form supportive bonds between crew members. There could also be reporting systems or communication channels brought in where crew can log concerns around any incidents they have experienced when dealing with challenging passengers and these can be viewed by management. However, this could be a challenge as once an aircraft is on the ground there is very little way to trace a particular passenger especially if the crew have not known the name of the passenger.

Other ways to enhance crew value and recognition could be with the use of simple gestures from management such as thanking employees, showing an interest in the work they do, cabin crew employee of the month awards, issuing retail vouchers to employees and regular company newsletters. If these things are done this can have an impact by showing some appreciation to the employees but also by showing a good level of communication around what is happening within the organisation. Additional measures could also include revising reward and benefit packages that are available to crew and providing some perks to employees even if only employed on seasonal contracts. This could however be subject to the financial position of the airline.

Value and recognition at work is one of the highest needs amongst employees and a reward based on monetary and compensative benefits cannot be applied as a sole motivator for motivating an employee (Danish and Usman, 2010). The topic of value and recognition of employees is gaining much more research attention and awareness because organisations are doing such a bad job of enabling this and it is impacting on employee's morale, motivation, productivity and health/well-being (Baum, 2015).

Customer incivility is claimed to be experienced by many service-based employees, and it often involves rude, impolite and/or discourteous behaviour (Sliter, Jex, Wolford and McInnerney, 2010). Payne and Webber (2006), Sliter, Jex, Wolford and McInnerney (2010) and Arnold and Walsh (2015) state it is not unusual for there to be negative customer employee interaction however it can be harmful for the service employee's well-being as well as violating the social norms of mutual respect and courtesy. Customer incivility is something which is unique because of the social positioning of the employee in service interactions and the frequent nature of them (Grandey, Kern and Frone, 2007). McNeely, Gale, Tager, Kincl, Bradley, Coull, and Hecker (2014) and Bergman and Gillberg (2015) note that the work of cabin crew remains very similar to the early days when air travel was established however the working conditions and status of work has changed dramatically.

Increasingly, the concept of creating fun at work is being considered by more organisations and has attracted attention in many research areas such as organisational psychology, HR, public policy and economics (Karl, Peluchette, Hall and Harland, 2005; Tews, Michel and Bartlett, 2012; Becker and Tews, 2016; Mousa, 2020). The idea of fun at work can sometimes feel foreign, irrelevant, inappropriate, or even culturally taboo to some (Brooks, 2016). The purpose of it however is to act as a vehicle to facilitate a host of desired outcomes such as increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, to lower stress and to reduce turnover intention (Yerkes, 2007; Viegas, Vora, Mistry, and D'Cunha, 2012; Tews, Michel, Xu and Drost, 2015; Tsaur, Hsu and Lin, 2019).

Baptiste (2008) describes workplace fun as including but not limited to laughter, social gatherings, after work parties, recognition awards, barbeques, fishing trips, hula hoop marathons and other activities that are experienced which can bring happiness, enjoyment and/or humour. The culture and work of cabin crew links with the notion of '*work hard, play hard*' used in some workplaces (Costea, Crump and Holm, 2005). Many of the activities described by Baptiste (2008) are quite easily activities crew would get involved with as part of their time travelling or on stopovers.

Simpson (2014) also details how crew regularly engage with humour whilst working to help with the demands of their work but also to create a subversion of prescribed behavioural norms. Simpson (2014) goes on to detail a game that crew would play when on larger aircrafts with two aisles.

Two crew would stand at the front and would then race each other up the aisles to see who could reach the back galley without making eye contact with passengers or dealing with requests. This is one example of how the use of creative space could be transformed into a play arena whilst still being at work. It is also of course a somewhat subversive act and not one of which management would approve. It is important to consider that whilst fun at work can be created it may also be something that is taken for granted by some or not fully considered as something that can add value to their role. Mousa (2020) details that workplace fun is a complex social and organisational activity and what one employee perceives as fun can be perceived by another as demeaning or offensive.

From an employee's perspective if an organisation can create a sense of fun to their work environment it can help to make them feel more motivated, productive, energised, enhance job performance and commitment, contribute to better levels of well-being and in some cases alleviate anger, emotional exhaustion, work pressure and turnover intention they may experience as part of their role/duties (Tsaur, Hsu and Lin, 2019). Kalawilapathirage, Omisakin and Zeidan (2019) note many employees prefer to work for companies which have prestigious reputations as this can provide psychological satisfaction for employees when sharing ideas and views with colleagues who work for equally competitive airlines. Another way employee value can be enhanced is through management's interactions with employees. In a CIPD report which featured around 2,000 mixed employees within the UK they found that around 25% of employees found that their manager rarely or never made their work feel like it counted. Additionally, 50% of all employees claimed they were not involved on 'matters of importance' nor were kept informed of things occurring across their organisations by their managers (Truss, Soane, Edwards, Wisdom, Croll and Burnett, 2006).

6.3.2 Manager support

The topic of management was also seen as a contentious area for some of the crew who took part in key informant interviews. They believed that some of the interactions they have with management are stressful. How crew are managed is quite unusual in comparison to other industries and they have never been a group of employees that have been overly managed. Crew described in key informant interviews that they do not see a line manager a lot of the time and may only contact a member of management if they have a problem or are called upon. Crew also stated throughout the key informant interviews that many managers who are said to be responsible for managing them have also come into the roles from other industries and do not understand the pressures that face crew and/or have ever done the jobs for themselves to understand it. Crew therefore tend to work autonomously.

Crew have claimed that management often have little consideration for their well-being and the crew claimed many of them were working in a blame/toxic culture where management would look to blame employees for things that happen. Crew suggest that there is a lot of micromanagement and bureaucratic processes from management they interact with. Crew also claimed that there was a lack of trust generally between crew and management. This has been created because of a lack of presence but also from poor communication and supervisor incivility. The extent to which employees feel their supervisor values their well-being is one of the most studied antecedents of innovative work behaviour (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner and Hammer 2011; Imran, Zaheer and Noreen 2011). There have always been tensions between management and employees, and this has been acknowledged in many studies including Gillbreath and Benson (2004), Halbesleben and Buckley (2006), Kara, Uysal, Sirgy and Lee (2013) and more recently Shin, Lee and Hur (2021). Mistreatment from supervisors can be detrimental to service workers and their level of occupational health and performance (Gilbreath and Benson 2004; Vanhala and Tuomi 2006; Purcell and Hutchinson 2007; Baptiste 2008; Poulsen and Ipsen 2017; Shin, Lee and Hur, 2021). Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway and McKee (2007), Kuoppala, Lamminpa, Liira and Vainio (2008) and Poulsen and Ipsen (2017) all suggested that if there is a level of high-quality leadership within an organisation it would be expected that a good level of employee well-being would follow and if this wasn't the case employees would suffer.

Wright (2000) states that trying to change this approach is impossible in some organisations as it is so ingrained into their corporate culture, and this is often the case for many big corporate airline companies and employees that were involved in this research collection. Rasool, Wang, Tang, Saeed and Iqbal (2021) discuss the idea of a toxic work environment and state that in such a place employees would experience cruelty and even violent treatment which could jeopardise their health and safety. Hartel, Cooper and Ashkanasy (2008) states that a friendly gesture in this environment can be interpreted with scepticism and doubt due to the lack of trust. It is also said that any employee working in such an environment would be unwilling to speak up and log a formal complaint against such behaviour (Taylor and Rew, 2011). This may be largely due to fear and anxiety and as Hartel, Cooper and Ashkanasy (2008) state these are usually toxic emotions. As people are often unwilling to openly discuss their experiences it makes it very difficult to study this area fully due to employee's avoidance and/or silence (Rasool, Wang, Tang, Saeed and Iqbal, 2021). It is believed however that this does have a negative impact on employee well-being (Rasool, Wang, Tang, Saeed and Iqbal, 2021).

Another area that can be associated with working in a toxic work environment is the concept of *supervisor incivility* (Shin, Lee and Hur, 2021). This is something crew are exposed to, and it can involve rude, uncivil behaviour perpetrated by the supervisor in the form of rude or sarcastic words, hostile facial expressions, ignorance and gossip (Shin, Lee and Hur, 2021). Upchurch (2010) suggests within aviation there is a culture of management driven authoritarian oppressiveness and a deliberate notion of a climate of fear which can intimidate employees. Kuang-Man (2013) explored the breaches of the psychological contract, mistrust and cynicism which exists within much of the airline industry. When employees work within an organisation that they believe fails to fulfill their duties, the psychological contract can be breached which can harm the relationship between the employer and the employee. It can also lead to disillusionment and mistrust towards the organisation as well as creating negative attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation as well as low job satisfaction, reduced work performances and decreased organisational citizenship behaviours (Turnley and Feldman, 1999; Kuang - Man, 2013).

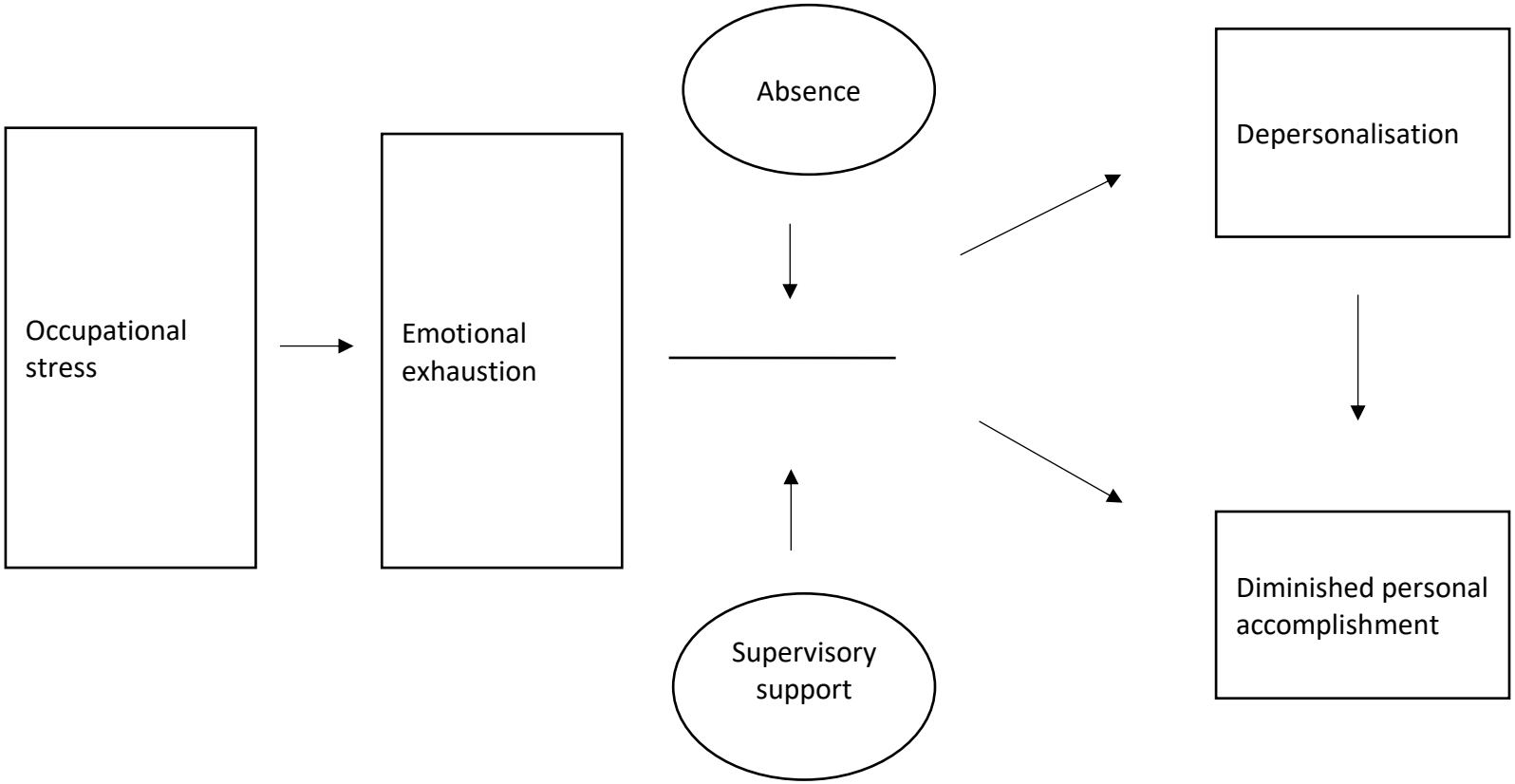
Aryee, Chen and Budhwar (2004) claim if there is also no support for employees to develop trust, the employment relationship is lost, and employees are more likely to seek alternative employment and exit the organisation. Many factors can contribute to employee cynicism. Employees often can experience and witness greed, near-sightedness, high competition, and unethical leadership behaviours within their employment and this can encourage cynicism to spread (Kuang-Man, 2013).

Tourigny, Baba and Lituchy (2005) suggest cultural differences can also sometimes deter the relationship employees have with their supervisors/management. They found Japanese cabin crew were more closely managed than other employees in Western cultures and that they are less likely to disagree with management members. In Japanese culture supervisors would look for ways to engage and achieve consensus with employees. A model also proposed by Tourigny, Baba and Lituchy (2005) displayed the impact supervisor support can have on employees who are suffering with stress/burnout. The model can be seen in figure **(6).** From the model it is apparent that supervisory support and absence can help to moderate the relationship employees have with emotional exhaustion and psychological outcomes (e.g. depersonalisation and diminished personal accomplishments), highlighting the need for a good relationship with supervisors/managers to reduce some of the troubles crew appear to be experiencing. This can however create further strain and tension and add to existing workloads for crew (Demerouti, Van den Heuvel, Xanthopoulou, Dubbelt and Gordon, 2017).

As crew have claimed in key informant interviews that there is a lack of presence, interaction, and some tension with management it may be that this area needs to be investigated further in future studies. As crew have described a toxic work culture existing in some airline companies it may be that some crew feel they cannot speak openly about their experiences, but they may also feel they cannot approach designated managers about their concerns because they may not have empathy, knowledge and/or experience in the work or issues they face daily.

When considering this area in relation to the JD-CS Model manager support would be an area which would support the buffering hypothesis. However, more research is needed in future work to determine where the issues are with management support towards crew and also to consider managements thoughts in relation to how they feel they are supporting their crew in relation to their well-being.

Figure (6): Tourigny et al (2005) Supervisor support



6.3.3 Bullying and harassment

Bullying and harassment was another topic crew spoke about which they consider contributes to increased stress and burnout. UNITE, claim many of its members regularly experience bullying and harassment both from customers and employees. Some of the bullying can occur from interactions crew may have with management, while harassment is mainly from customers.

The industry portrays itself as a sexualised glamourous environment to work in and the use of aesthetic labour throughout crew recruitment and selection processes supports crew to appear in a particular way to represent the airline they work on behalf of. If the customer's senses are appealed to with '*good looking'* employees or employees projecting the right look this can encourage more business for their brand. However, this has contributed to overexposure of female cabin crew to sexual harassment. There is a need for the industry to do more around recognising and dealing with this issue. A positive intervention that exists within a British branded airline includes using a platform called '*Crewcare*'. This service is run by a group of trained counsellors, of which they have either worked as cabin crew or are crew and have at least two years' experience of the role. They run a 24/7 manned hotline available for crew to try and encourage discussion around bullying incidents and any other incidents they may have experienced when at work. They also can provide guidance to working parents who are combining family and work and can also offer stress management programmes and initiatives to help the long-term sick employees back into work. Other initiatives that can help raise awareness around tackling the issue of bullying and harassment at work for crew is using targeted event days and panel events where employees can go along and voice concerns around issues they are experiencing within their work. This would encourage issues to be discussed and recorded so management within airline companies have awareness of what crew are experiencing and so they can then look for better ways to support crew within their work. It may be more difficult to deal with bullying incidence in this way as it may involve management and so other ways would need to be considered for employees who experience bullying.

A confidential reporting system may be a better way of enabling sensitive topics to be dealt with. Crew are also often not prepared enough with sufficient training or tools to challenge abusive and difficult behaviour from passengers. If there is more presence of training and particularly in person in this area it may also act as a coping method as crew can share their challenges with others who similarly may be experiencing them and who understand the work, lifestyle, and its uniqueness.

It is claimed many airline companies are responsible for embedding a culture of bullying and authoritarianism which is derived from the top echelons of the company hierarchy (Upchurch, 2010). Workplace bullying is a huge issue and has featured in a vast amount of academic studies (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir 2008; Power, Brotheridge, Blenkinsopp, Bowes-Sperry, Bozionelos, Buzády, Chuang, Drnevich, Garzon-Vico, Leighton, and Madero, 2013; Nielsen, Magerøy, Gjerstad, & Einarsen 2014; Zapf, Escartin, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia 2020).

Workplace bullying can include '*emotional abuse and exposures to negative behaviour (violence, threats and sexual harassment) at the hands of both supervisor (s) and peer bullying'* (Nelson, Azevedo, Dias, de Sousa, Carvalho, Silva and Rabelo 2014, p.400). Thompson (2003) and Godard (2004) claim that management in many contexts have been faced with a series of disconnects relating to political and economic difficulties and this has put many managers under pressure themselves. They may then retaliate towards employees with an 'inconsiderate' or weak management style or alternatively display a bullying management style. In 2000, a survey of over 5000 employees in 70 UK based organisations found managers were responsible for 74.7% of employee bullying cases (Hoel and Cooper, 2000). Showing little consideration for employees can have a major impact on employee performance, well-being and evoke feelings of being exploited and/or not valued by the organisation (Ramsay, Scholarios, & Harley, 2000; Godard, 2001; Guest 2002, Giorgi, 2010; Peccei, Van de Voorde, Van Veldhoven, Pauuwe, Guest and Wright, 2013; De Silva and Chandrika, 2017; Veld and Alfes, 2017; Sheehan, McCabe and Garavan, 2020).

If an employee is witness to bullying at work it can undermine their well-being and see them experiencing issues with anxiety and depression six months later (Sprigg, Niven, Dawson, Farley and Armitage, 2019). If there is a strong co-worker relationship this can reduce the relationship between witnessing bullying and the impact on employee well-being (Sprigg et al, 2019).

Gale, Morduckhovich, Newlan and McNeely (2019) investigated sexual harassment in a study involving 4,549 US and Canadian cabin crew. Over a one-year period 63% of crew experienced verbal abuse, 26% experienced sexual harassment and 2% had been sexually assaulted. Tsaur, Hsu and Kung (2020) also found that as many as a quarter of crew working on a Far East airline revealed they had been subjected to sexual harassment in the last twelve months of working onboard. Half of respondents also stated they had witnessed or heard of colleagues who had experienced sexual harassment whilst being on duty. Morgan and Pritchard (2019) and Ferla and Graham (2019) state that the industry provides a sexualised environment and marketing which can encourage customers to treat employees as sex objects rather than workers. The role of crew members has been greatly exploited, commercialised, and sexualised from the 1950s onwards and training has been focused on the needs of the male passenger (Ferla and Graham 2019).

The heavy use of aesthetic labour by some airline companies also magnifies this as detailed in Taylor and Tyler (2000), Spiess and Waring (2005), Baum (2012) and Ren (2017). Warhurst and Nickson (2009) detail that aesthetic labour focuses on embodiment and suggests that corporeality not just feelings of employees are 'organisationally appropriated' for commercial benefit. The #metoo and time's up movements which has been called for by The Association of Flight Attendants is an example of positive reactive movement where airlines, regulators, legislators, unions, and passengers all work together to step up and take actions against sexual harassment and abuse and to make the work environment safe (Ferla and Graham, 2019).

6.3.4 Health and Safety

Another area that was highlighted as a potential stressor for crew was around health and safety on board aircraft. There were no major breaches reported, however the crew expressed concerns around several Aero toxic syndrome events which have a significant impact on the operation of the aircraft and their working day. This occurrence occurs when airline engine oils contaminate the air that comes into the cabin. It can be termed as 'bleed air.' These fumes contain hazardous substances, including organophosphates which can cause ill health amongst employees and passengers. The crew spoke of regular occurrences happening on their employing airlines. When these occur, aircrafts are often forced to land so that the cabin and engines can be checked by engineers before they can be deemed safe to return to service. In some cases, employees and passengers must go to hospital to be checked over. Crew also discussed how working at altitude can also have an impact on their body. They often experience tiredness due to the nature of the occupation and working across time zones, but they also stated that they do have fears around exposure to cosmic radiation. Some crew felt they were more at risk of developing diseases such as cancer and respiratory infections. Working in pressurised cabins with cold environmental temperatures, insufficient break/rest opportunities and a lack of healthy food options on board can all have an impact also on their well-being. Crew also spoke about how passengers will often also board flights with infectious diseases and not make these known to crew. Crew often experience repercussions when they are contacted at a later point by Public Health and asked to isolate which can be frightening and provide inconveniences for both them and their families.

Crew felt that some of the main difficulties in their role was being provided with appropriate rest breaks and fatigue. Crew find it difficult to get adequate rest because of work requirements, family demands or poor sleep habits. If crew are on a stopover this can often determine how much rest, they get as the lure of sightseeing and recreation can often take priority. If they are at home, they also might find rest difficult as attention may need to be paid to family members or caring responsibilities.

Boyd and Bain (1998) and more recently Eriksen (2016) both noted several health and safety risks in their research which included exposure to air quality in cabins linked with airborne pollutants, recurring lethargy, headaches, influenza complaints, as well as greater risk of exposure to the ozone which could create pulmonary symptoms such as loss of concentration. There are some claims that cabin crew and pilots suffer with greater exposure to cosmic ionising radiation and due to working at high altitudes the rate of the radiation can be higher (Griffiths and Powell, 2012; Pukkala, Helminen, Haldorsen, Hammar, Kojo, Linnersjo, Rafnsson, Tulinius, Tveten and Auvinen, 2012; McNeely, Gale, Tager, Klinc, Bradley, Coull and Hecker, 2014). This combined with their work schedule of working irregular hours and disturbances to their circadian rhythm are all said to put crew at more risk of developing illnesses such as cancer (Whelan, 2003; Sigurdson and Ron, 2004; Pukkala, Helminen, Haldorsen, Hammar, Kojo, Linnersjö, Rafnsson, Tulinius, Tveten, and Auvinen, 2012). However epidemiological evidence remains inconclusive on this (Whelan, 2003; McNeely et al, 2014).

Similarly, Knutsson (2003) states there is no evidence to suggest working shifts has any impact on longevity. It was claimed however that shift workers may experience gastrointestinal disorders due to working abnormal hours and through the night. Knutsson (2003) also concludes that health problems generally can be mediated by any sleep problem and an employee's lifestyle and stress level also can contribute to any level of disease they may experience. Lindgren, Andersson, Dammerstrom and Norback (2002) found the main threat to cabin crew health was tiredness and fatigue. Additional complaints were associated with digestive difficulties, dry skin, lower back pain, sore throats, eyes and sinus problems.

Sleep and fatigue are a usual complaint from aviation employees (Wen, Nicholas, Clarke-Errey, Howard, Trinder and Jordan, 2021). Fatigue and sleepiness can have a detrimental impact on employees' physical and mental health and fatigue is recognised as an occupational health and safety hazard (Griffiths and Powell, 2012; Vallieres, Azaiez, Moreau, LeBlanc, Morin, 2014; Dall'Ora, Ball, Recio – Saucedo and Griffith, 2016; Wen et al, 2021).

Wen, Nicholas, Clarke-Errey, Howard, Trinder and Jordan (2021) state cabin crew often underestimate their levels of fatigue and sleepiness and often start their day with insufficient rest and as many as 84% of crew reported being fatigued on duty with 71% of crew suggesting their safety related performances were impaired. Caldwell (1997) claimed the effects of fatigue can also cause crew to become *sloppy, inattentive, careless,* and *inefficient.* Eriksen (2016) states that the only cure for fatigue is for crew to get adequate sleep. Each flight that operates has a minimum cabin crew dispatch limit, flight hours and minimum rest time limits (Tsaur, Hsu and Kung, 2020). This is in line with the Civil Aviation Authority's legislation which states that all commercial operations are required to carry a specific number of cabin crew on each flight to adhere to safety regulations (Eriksen, 2016).

Suggestions have been made that crew should have designated rest spaces on board where they can relax away from passengers (Van den Berg, Signal and Gander, 2019). This is offered by many airlines however breaks can be challenging to fit in within a busy onboard work schedule when the customers' needs have to come first. Eriksen (2016) points out that in research carried out with cabin crew senior members of the occupation suggested only after years of flying did, they find a way of managing irregular sleeping patterns.

6.4 Theoretical contribution

This study has contributed to literature in several ways. It has provided a general contribution around the work of cabin crew which is considered as an occupation where there are only limited research studies available on how the work is experienced by its employees. The study has had an employee centred approach to its data collection, and this should be considered upon reflection of the results. In the literature review of this study several theoretical models were explored which have provided some understanding around exploring employee's stress and burnout. The model which has best suited this study was the JD-CS Model from Karasek and Theorell (1990). This model works by identifying a range of job stressors which has been something that has occurred in this study.

The model asserts that when job stress is felt it usually can result in poor job performance and manifests in employees who experience a high isolation strain job who experience high job demands, low job control and low social support work contexts (Odetunde, 2021).
This is something that resonates with cabin crew employees, and this has been found within the findings showing some consistency with the literature/theory for this model. This study has shown that it fully supports the iso strain hypothesis associated with the JDCS Model, but it may only partially support the buffering hypothesis linked to the model and to ascertain this future research would be needed to identify if this is the case or not. It is important to consider overall that the JD-CS Model has inconsistent findings around the buffering effects in literature and there is a need for a general review of the model to account for these inconclusive findings (Odetunde, 2021).

6.5 Practical implications

Alongside the theoretical contributions this study has provided there are also some practical implications which could be useful for industry employers and trade union bodies. The study's findings have suggested that there are some factors that could be better in the cabin crew's work environment. If some of these areas are addressed or even considered this could provide more conducive ways of working and help some of the crew who are struggling with stress and burnout.

Some of the practical suggestions may need to be varied for some employees as they may have been with the same company for several years and may have become more disengaged and demotivated in comparison to younger and newer entrants of crew.
A refresh of employee rewards and benefits package which changes based on number of years of service an employee has with the organisation is one way to provide revived motivation and can encourage company loyalty by providing goals to reach different levels of rewards/benefits. Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) state that a rewards package for employees should be something important to them and which addresses their needs.

Pfau and Kay (2002) suggest that when organisations structure their reward and benefit packages correctly employees should inherently perform well to achieve organisational goals as well as their own. Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) claim that organisations in recent years have had to find alternative less costly forms of rewards that still work to attract, retain and motivate employees. The use of '*total rewards'* schemes are reward strategies which combine compensation, employee benefits, work–life balance, personal recognition and career development and offers a more flexible approach for employees (Snelgar, Renard and Venter 2013). Offering such schemes would be advantageous for some cabin crew however it may be difficult to offer some of the options due to the nature of their employment. Some aspects such as achieving a work life balance and increased job security are not something that can be greatly achieved and so having a tailor-made reward package specialised for crew and their work may work to identify and address their needs better. A current industry employer in 2021 offered the following in terms of their revised rewards/benefits package to employees. This can be seen in figure **(7).**

Figure (7): Reward and Benefits Package Sample

- Fantastic holiday benefits including discounts, special offers and life assurance
- Health and Well-being support in five key areas – Financial, Health, Social, Community and Career
- Excellent rates with foreign exchange
- Pension scheme

Source: TUI UK, 2021

The reward and benefits package detailed is not something which is directly tailored to cabin crew needs and more consideration could be given to this in future. What is interesting is that they have attempted to show some direct support towards employee health and well-being and that package is split down to five key areas. These are Financial, Health, Social, Community and Career. This initiative is very similar to a five-point framework produced by Rath and Harter (2010), see appendix **(10).**

Rath and Harter (2010) believe the areas identified in their model are universal and can work to differentiate between a thriving life and one spent suffering. Rath and Harter (2010) also state that 66% of people are believed to be doing well in only one of the areas and as little as 7% are doing well in all five areas, suggesting well-being generally is a very difficult concept to balance within society. A revised reward package considering employee well-being is a positive movement to come from industry and shows that some of the large airline companies are beginning to see the importance of supporting their employees' well-being. It also provides hope for improved employee retention and relations amongst the aviation workforce for years to come.

Some additional stressors on cabin crew well-being found in this study were around relationships, peer support and demands. To some extent relationships at work cannot be changed as there is always going to be some element of personality clash between employees. However, it is possible that industry employers could try and encourage better peer support for crew when at work. Some of this may involve organisations providing training opportunities and team building initiatives such as retreats or action-based pursuits to try and attempt to bridge the gap between colleagues, enhance service delivery, promote a better person-group fit as well as helping crew to perform better in their day-to-day roles (Leon and Halbesleden, 2013). The concept of person–group fit is also something that airline companies may need to pay more attention to when recruiting for positions. Person-group fit is considered as the relationship match between an employee and his/her colleagues (Leon and Halbesleden, 2013). To try and get this balance right training focusing on communication and group problem solving strategies can help members with providing more constructive feedback, defining roles and prioritising tasks (Leon and Halbesleden, 2013). Some of these initiatives may also help employees with dealing with demands however demands are an area which cannot really be changed as long as airlines have passengers however learning how to handle and manage demands through training may be useful to some employees who struggle.

7 CONCLUSION

7.0 Introduction

The aviation industry has been the setting for this study, and it has been described as an industry which is sensitive and vulnerable to any economic changes, and it is known for being unstable, unpredictable, largely responsive to political and environmental circumstances and precarious for investors (Wensveen and Leick, 2009; Brezoňáková, Badánik, and Davies, 2019). Countries are reliant on air travel however due to globalisation and people's desires to travel and airline companies are a success because of this. The increasing pressure from a global health pandemic in 2020 alongside other long-standing pressures is likely to see challenging times continue for many airline companies as they head towards the future. New ways of working and instilling employee and customer confidence is going to be vital for successful airline operations as well as being able to be responsive to the levels of demand for air travel.

7.1 The study

This study's aim was to explore what the main stressors were to cabin crew work within the UK aviation industry. It has collected data from a substantial sample of unionised cabin crew employees employed across full cost, low cost and charter airline carriers operating from the UK. The key stressors were found to be demands, relationships, peer, work-family conflict and job security and these have all contributed towards stress/burnout which is experienced in the occupation. These stressors accounted for 42% of stress and burnout. It is worth considering in future research what the remaining 58.3% may be made up of. Some of the key informant work with crew found that they also showed concerns around feeling valued at work, health and safety, manager support, job insecurity and bullying and harassment and the crew felt these all had some impact on the crew and their levels of well-being when at work.

One of the additional intentions of the study was to suggest ways in which airline organisations can assist those employees better who are most at risk of experiencing high levels of stress/burnout. Burnout interventions are most successful when they are tailor made to address the most important job demands and resources in specific working environments (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker and Demerouti, 2018). Bakker and Demerouti (2018) detailed some steps which can be taken to prevent stress/burnout. Some of these include organisations regularly monitoring prevailing job demands and resources as well as well-being to be able to recognise potential problems that require action. The second step is to constantly improve work processes and introduce more employee friendly/high performance practices with a top-down approach to interventions which benefit both individual employees but also organisational performance. Bakker and Demerouti (2018) also suggest that supervisors should be trained sufficiently to help provide resources for employees to deal with excessive job demands. Bakker and Demerouti (2018) consider that employees should be trained to redesign their own jobs through initiatives such as job crafting so that their job becomes better tailored to their preferences and abilities. This could be difficult for cabin crew however as they are required to perform specific roles as part of their job duties and cannot move around as such and are often working in confined spaces.

Drayton (2021) also made many suggestions around general workplace interventions that can help employees struggling with burnout. The suggestions however are not ones which would necessarily be of benefit to the cabin crew occupation because of the nature of their work. Some suggestions from Drayton (2021) are to raise energy amongst employees through measures such as setting boundaries for employees e.g. discouraging people from working too early or late; taking regular breaks, engagement in physical activities – setting up a lunchtime fitness class or walking group, gym memberships and/or access to leisure facilities; better access to healthier nutrition – e.g. providing healthy and nutritious meal options for employees when at work and encouraging more use of flexible working. These suggested examples are mainly suitable for most office-based roles and not so versatile or useful for groups of cabin crew employees who are not desk bound.

Drayton (2021) also mentions that alongside physical energy there is the need for increased emotional energy and for giving meaning to work for employees. Some suggested ways to achieve this is using exercises which get employees to reflect upon the things which have gone well and helping employees reconnect with their work through the creation of corporate events on an annual basis where they meet their customers and reflect on how their service delivery has had an impact on the customers and their lives (Drayton, 2021). A final suggestion is to enable employees to become customers (Drayton, 2021). This would work in a way where the employee may spend a night in accommodation as a guest or in the case of cabin crew, they could become a passenger for a flight. Drayton (2021) suggest that energy needs to be enhanced in several ways which must include considering all aspects of being a human through physical, emotional, cognitive, and spiritual ways. Only if this is achieved will there be any positive impact on happier and healthier employees.

When considering some of the interventions mentioned and how these could be applied to cabin crew some of the ways companies could embrace physical energy into their employees could be to emphasise the need for exercise and good nutrition (which most airline companies currently do). However, this could be reiterated to crew through well-being officers/coaches. Companies could also look at rest break policies for crew to ensure that crew are getting adequate rest periods whilst working as well as factoring in adequate timings between shifts as this has been mentioned through research to be an area of concern. Having a range of social interactive events alongside shift patterns could also encourage more physical and active participation. To increase emotional energy, they could encourage crew to journal interactions or experiences they have on board and encourage them to identify through reflection what went well and what could have worked better. They could also flag if additional support is needed, and the use of support mentor/buddies may also help provide a level of support for crew who are struggling. There may be a need for some specialised training around the practice of reflection to help crew do this effectively, but reflection could also be encouraged in crew who may be on stop overs together or using regular catch-up training events/sessions about what is being experienced day to day by crew.

An additional way of crew gaining increased meaning to their work could be achieved with some of the interventions Drayton (2021) has detailed as some of the airline companies are already offering reward products for their employees such as access to several free flights where they can travel as a passenger on their employing airline. A refresh of employee rewards and benefits will also keep employees revived if they have worked for the company for several years and may contribute to some extent to providing some recognition for employees. Employee pay is also an area of contention which may also need future consideration by airline companies especially as there are skills shortages regularly occurring across the sector.

7.2 Future study plans and limitations

Some of the limitations to this study have been the timing of when the research was collected. This happened pre Covid pandemic but also pre-Brexit (after the referendum but before the UK finally left the EU) and a lot has changed in a short amount of time within the aviation industry. It is expected that there will now be a greater emphasis on health and well-being within the aviation workforce due to the health pandemic with suggestions that added job stressors may now feature around hygiene requirements, safety concerns and unstable jobs (Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung, 2022). It is also expected that there will be an increasing level of anxiety and mental health issues from some employees about returning to work post covid. Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung (2022) have explored the stressors which were affecting airline employees during the pandemic. Their findings detail that 49% of respondents reported symptoms of anxiety/depression during the pandemic. There has been limited effort in determining the relationship between airline employees' job-related stressors and their organisational (e.g., job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job performance, turnover intention, loyalty, and company image) and personal (e.g., subjective well-being, pro – social behaviour, emotional symptoms and mental health) consequences amidst the pandemic (Kim, Wong, Han and Yeung (2022). This could be worthy of more investigation.

IATA (2021) have also detailed that many of the crew have worked at home for prolonged periods of time and partners and children began to become use to having them at home more. This has probably been the one time when crew managed to gain some extra time at home, and some could have achieved a better work-life balance because of this. A post pandemic study may find that the return to work has presented more tension in areas linked to work-life balance.

The sample of data that was collected whilst, being a generous number of responses, it is skewed and has mainly concentrated on two airlines. With reference to generalisability, it could not be stated with certainty that what has been discovered from this study is generalised as to what is experienced across all UK airlines. In terms of additional methods that were used the study has presented very much a unionised employee view of what they experience in terms of stress/burnout and there has been a lack of managerial input on this topic due to management being difficult to engage/communicate with. In future work it would be encouraging to gather some management input around this topic as the data collection for this study has been guided by the aviation trade union and they have provided guidance around how the questionnaire should be designed and collected to achieve a good sample response from crew. Crew were described by the unions as being '*over surveyed'* and '*time poor*.' They also have stated how the questionnaire should be made available with the union representatives being responsible for forwarding on the questionnaire link to union cabin crew members. A trade off also exists around if the questionnaire was done again and if there were any more questions added to increase the length of it would it encourage a lower response rate. The questionnaire currently stands at 59 questions and could not really be any longer than it currently is to ensure a good response.

In future research, it would be interesting to explore the area of stress and burnout amongst cabin crew employees on an international scale to see if any international airlines are doing any better or any worse in relation to this area or whether some of the key stressors are generic to how the industry operates globally. This may enable some comparisons to be made and could potentially draw on good practice which may help others. Surmising it may be that stress/burnout is something that is characteristically related to the role.

Cross cultural working can sometimes differ significantly, and well-being can also be considered differently in various areas of the world/cultures. This would therefore mean that a range of factors would need to be considered before engaging in this kind of study approach. Another intention would be to re attempt some data collection with a post covid 19 workforce to see if anything has changed. This would involve a redesign of a questionnaire and measures being taken out that had no significance on crew stress/burnout. Some additional measures may be added in linking to areas which would measure '*boreout*' and emotional labour. '*Boreout*' became an interest after learning that most service workers experience this and therefore it was considered whether crew were actually suffering with burnout or *'boreout'* within their role or a combination. '*Boreout*' is common in many service-based roles when employees have nothing better to do than wait for customers (Loukidou, Loan Clarke and Daniels 2009; Karatepe and Kim 2020). The term is a negative psychological state of low arousal and is represented by three indicators (crisis of meaning at work, job boredom and crisis of growth) which can see them devoid of having the chance to learn anything new and achieve personal goals (Stock, 2015). This can have a significant impact on employee's levels of well-being and performance at work (Stock, 2015). It is quite possible that some participants in this study do suffer with '*boreout*' as some of them have been crew who have been employed within the same role/company for several years. Morgan, Van Haveren and Pearson (2002) and Seriwatana and Charoensukmongkol (2020) suggest the risk of burnout grows the longer a member of cabin crew stays in the occupation.'*Boreout'* has received less attention than burnout however they both present with the same symptoms of exhaustion, emptiness, demotivation, low self-esteem, a crisis of social identity, anxiety, sadness, depression, unproductivity, less creativity and conflict between work and life demands (Stock 2015; Karatepe and Kim 2020; Abubakar, Rezapouraghdam, Behravesh, and Megeirhi, 2021). A future study direction may be to determine if '*boreout*' is featuring as something that could be contributing to crew's levels of stress and burnout. Additionally, this research may be useful to use to compare the experiences of stress/burnout of crew to other professions/occupations and again there could be similarities and differences between professions/occupations as one would expect.

Cabin crew have had to deal with experiences that nobody could have anticipated yet the next few years will be no less difficult for them (IATA, 2021). As the world makes a recovery attempt from the pandemic there is now a new crisis for the industry to respond to in relation to staffing and recruitment obstacles. The industry has lost large volumes of experienced and skilled employees during the pandemic and now as the industry prepares for a more sustainable future, employees who do enter now need to have the correct skills set (IATA, 2022). Training is going to be an important resource as people start to join from various sectors and an understanding of the importance of safety culture is going to be a key detail new entrants will have to have. Aviation has set itself an ambitious target in relation to sustainability and alongside this it is going to need training around how to support this (IATA, 2022). There are some vast challenges ahead for the industry to address and only as time evolves will we see if these are achievable and whether these will continue to have a positive or negative outcome on their employee's well-being.

7.3 Recommendations

Some recommendations from the study and which can help to enhance future cabin crew well-being experience at work can include;

- Airline companies reviewing their current offerings in relation to how they are supporting employee well-being and having/or introducing specific well-being officers/well-being champions or points of contact who crew would feel comfortable liaising with to discuss any aspect of their well-being or experiences. Some airline companies do have counselling services already in operation or are familiar with a similar concept known as an employee assistance programmes, common with many of the US based airlines. The idea of an employee assistance programme is to provide counselling benefits to psychologically distressed employees and sometimes their dependents with fully qualified mental health professionals (Arthur, 2000). The idea of having a specific well-being officer would not only be to deal with those employees who are psychologically distressed but also looking after the whole workforce even if employees appear to be coping well. The designated officer ideally will have worked as crew and would understand the pressures of the role, share good practice and promote good health and well-being habits amongst the workforce to help them deal with the demands and challenges their occupation presents them with.

- Investment in e-training that is flexibly delivered online to fit around a crew member's shift patterns that would help them become more aware of handling stress and burnout within their occupation and to help promote good well-being practices in the workplace.

- There is a need to build more trust and visible value and recognition efforts into the employment relationship cabin crew have with their employers to make them feel valued and recognised for the work that they do. This would lead to increased sense of belonging and better overall well-being levels.

- Better engagement, visibility and communication between management figures and employees. Starting from executive level management right down to front line employee level.

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9. Appendices

Appendix (1): Cabin Crew Job Description Template:

We are searching for a professional and friendly flight attendant to oversee the safety and comfort of passengers aboard our flights. In this position, your chief goal will be to maximise revenue growth and improve customer satisfaction. Your duties will include performing safety checks, attending pre-flight briefings, demonstrating safety routines, and serving snacks to passengers.

The ideal candidate will be customer service-oriented and demonstrate excellent problem-solving and interpersonal skills. To excel in this role, you should be fluent in English and available to work different work schedules.

Responsibilities:

- Conduct pre-flight safety checks and ensure the plane is clean.
- Show safety and emergency measures such as the use of oxygen masks, seat belts, and exit doors.
- Offer information and support for safety and comfort to passengers.
- Welcome passengers, verify their tickets, and direct them to their seats.
- Make and serve beverages and food to passengers.
- Respond to passengers' questions about flights, travel routes, and arrival times.
- Go to pre-flight briefings and study all the details of the flight.
- Lead passengers in case of emergency and give first aid to passengers if necessary.
- Offer support to passengers with special needs including children, disabled persons, or elders.
- Prepare analytic reports concerning flight issues.

Requirements:

- High school diploma or equivalent qualification.
- Cabin crew certification and training required.
- A minimum of 2 years experience as a flight attendant.
- Must be fluent in English and possess excellent interpersonal communication skills.
- Outstanding problem-solving skills and aptitude to handle difficult situations.
- Fluency in multiple languages is an advantage.

Source: Taken from https://www.betterteam.com/flight-attendant-job-description (2/6/21 at 13.20).

Appendix (2): Mackenzie and Knipe (2006)

Research Paradigms	Terminology often associated with basic research paradigm	Basic Methods	Data Collection Methods
			Experiments Half experiments Tests Scales
			Interview Observation Document study Image data analysis
			A wide spectrum of measures, a special need to prevent discrimination, for example, sexism, racism and homophobia.
			There can be used measures from positivist as well as from interpretivist paradigm, for example, interviews, observations, testing and experimentation.

Appendix (3): Interview Transcript

Interview with HR manager from XXX XX around managing cabin crew

Positivist/Post Positivist	Experimental Half experimental Correlating Reductionism Theory examination Causal relative Determination Regulatory	Quantitative. "Although this paradigm can use a qualitative method, usually quantitative methods dominate…" (Mertens, 2014)
Interpretivist/ Constructivist	Naturalistic Phenomenological Hermeneutic Interpretivist Ethnographic Many participants value the social and historical interpretation Theories creation Symbolic interaction	Qualitative methods dominate although quantitative methods can be used, too
Transforming	Critical theory Neo-Marxist Feminist Critical race theory Based on the philosophy of Freire Promoting participation Emancipating Defense The overall picture Focused on empowerment problem Focused on changes Interventionistic Nonstandardized sexuality theory Depending on race Political	Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. Contextual and historical factors are described, especially how they are related to oppression
Pragmatist	Action consequences. Focused on the problems Pluralist Focused on the application in the real world Mixed methods	Qualitative and/or quantitative methods can be used. They are conformed to concrete research questions or aim.

Please can you tell me what some of the challenges are when leading and managing groups of cabin crew?

Currently we are experiencing challenges with engagement between line managers and crew. Crew generally enjoy their day to day work and form cohesive relationships with one another however there is a lack of involvement/engagement with managers which leaves them disgruntled. We have questioned whether our line management structures are appropriate and are continually assessing this. We are unsure if we have it right.

Crew say to us they feel they lack a connection with the wider company and feel that is just them and the customer. We want them to feel like we are one big team but it can be a challenge getting everyone on board with that vision.

What are the career opportunities for crew? Is there a supported career structure in place?

The way promotion works at XXX XX is fairly simple. We award employees on a superiority basis. This is dependent on length of service with the company and not on performance. We may have one employee who has been with the company five years and is a good performer and another who has been with the company for ten years but a poor performer. It would always be that the ten year employee would receive the promotion and that is how we are currently working with the unions. Engagement and motivation is impacted by the current practices that are in place.

Do you experience problems with high staff turnover due to some of the mentioned and the nature of contract work within this industry?

No issues really in terms of turnover. We are constantly recruiting as a high percentage of our employees are on fixed term contracts but this can result in getting a permanent/part time contract after a period of time. Some people cannot hack it. Some people prefer to work in this way as they work the summer months for us March – October and get Christmas jobs over the winter months. We only keep on a small percentage of staff continually through out the winter months and it is determined by capacity.

Is the pay sufficient for cabin crew?

Everyone is paid the same and we have annual pay reviews with the unions. If you are a poor performer within your role it can have an impact on your take home pay. At the moment we are not using performance related pay but this may change.

Do you feel the communications between management and cabin crew could be better?

It is a bit limited at the moment and we are launching a new project called project Diamond. We have been made aware that crew are struggling with picking up communications/news from managers so have issued all crew with an iPad where they can check their email etc before boarding flights/in the crew room.

Do crew receive rosters in advance?

We are constantly challenged with this and at times we sometimes think they should do it themselves and see how difficult it can be. We use a computer based system to produce them and it works on a 6 week basis. It is difficult using this as it gives no opportunity for considering someone's work life balance. However, manual rostering is a possibility but even with that it takes time and not everyone is going to be happy with the way it plans out.

- Health and Safety,
- Bullying and harassment,
- Employment security/employability,

- Participative/supportive management
- Flexible/family friendly work arrangements.

Appendix (4): Handout

Airline: _____

The focus of what I am trying to achieve with my research for PhD is; to explore cabin crew well-being and how this can be determined by elements of HR practices and factors in their work environment that are applied within the airline they work for.

The framework identifies five core HR areas and I would like you to look at these areas and rate how you feel the **airline** you represent performs overall in delivering the practice(s). Using the rating system;

Well, Adequate and Poor.

Then I need you to assess how you feel these things could impact on cabin crew well-being. The rating system in terms of its impact on well-being is

Major, Moderate and Minor.

By participating in this exercise you are giving your consent to sharing your views on this topic. If you do not wish to provide views please do not complete this. All views will be treated confidentially and used solely for research purposes for this study.

Contact Details:
Miss Stephanie Preston,
Senior Lecturer and Programme Leader for International Tourism, Hospitality and HR
Sunderland University. Research study conducted with Northumbria University
Email: Stephanie.a.preston@sunderland.ac.uk and Stephanie.preston@northumbria.ac.uk

Recruitment and Selection	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Training and Development	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Mentoring and Career Support	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Jobs designed to provide autonomy and challenge (variety of work available)	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Information provision and feedback	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Skill utilization	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Health and Safety	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Equal opportunities and diversity management	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Zero tolerance for bullying and harassment	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Required and optional social interaction (are you provided with the opportunity for social interaction at work)	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Fair collective rewards/ high basic pay	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**

Employment security/ employability	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Two way communication	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Employee surveys	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Collective representation	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Participative / supportive management	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Involvement climate/practices (are employees encouraged to be involved)	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Flexible and family friendly work arrangements	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**
Developmental performance management	**Well Adequate Poorly**	**Major Moderate Minor**

Thank you for taking part. All views will be kept confidential and used purely for research purpose

Appendix (5): Results

Impact on Wellbeing	Airline A	Airline B	Airline C	Airline D	Airline E	Airline F	Airline G	Airline H	Airline I	Airline J	
Recruitment and Selection											5
Training and Development											4
Mentoring and Career Support											6
Jobs designed to provide autonomy and challenge											4
Information Provision and Feedback											4
Skills Utilisation											3
Health and Safety											7
Equal Opportunities/Diversity Management											6
Zero Tolerance for Bullying and Harassment											9
Social Interaction											4
Fair Collective Rewards/High Basic Pay											6
Employment Security/Employability											7
Two Way Communication											6
Employee Surveys											2
Collective Representation											4
Participative/Supportive Management											8
Involvement Climate/ Pracices											3
Flexible /Family Friendly Work Arrangements											7
Developmental Performance Management											4

Appendix (6): Questionnaire

Cabin crew well-being questionnaire

Details of study:

As part of a PhD research study with Northumbria University the topic of cabin crew well-being is being investigated. It is recognised that working conditions can have an impact on employee's levels of well-being and particularly in a sector such as aviation. Please read the questions outlined and answer in accordance to your own experiences at work. All views are greatly appreciated and will be kept anonymous, confidential and only used to support research purposes.

1. **Airline**: _____

1a) **Do you fly;**

☐ Short Haul ☐ Long Haul ☐ Mixed Fleet ☐ Domestic

1b**) Sex:**

? Male ? Female ? Other

1c) **Age:**

? Under 20 ? 20 – 29 years ? 30 – 39 years ? 40 – 49 years ? 50 – 59 years

? 60 years +

1d) **Length of service with current airline:**

? Under 6 months ? 6 – 12 months ? 1- 5 years ? 6 – 10 years ? 11- 15 years ? 16 – 20 years ? 21 – 25 years ? 26 – 30 years ? 30 years +

1e) **In general how do you feel you health is:**

?Prefer not to comment ?Excellent ? Very good ? Good ? Fair ? Poor

Stress and Burnout

2. **How often have you felt worn out?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

3. **How often have you been physically exhausted?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

4. **How often have you been emotionally exhausted?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

5. **How often have you felt tired?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

6. **How often have you had problems relaxing?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

7. **How often have you been irritable?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

8. **How often have you been tense?**
   - All of the time
   - A large part of the time
   - Part of the time
   - A small part of the time
   - Not at all

9. **How often have you been stressed?**

- All of the time
- A large part of the time
- Part of the time
- A small part of the time
- Not at all

Expectations at work

10. **I am clear what is expected of me at work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

11. **I can decide when to take a break**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

12. **Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

13. **I know how to go about getting my job done**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

14. **I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

15. **I have unachievable deadlines**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

16. **If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

17. **I am given supportive feedback on the work I do**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

18. **I have to work very intensively**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

19. **I have a say in my own work speed**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

20. **I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

21. **I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

22. **I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

23. **There is friction or anger between colleagues**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

24. **I have a choice in deciding how I do my work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

25. **I am unable to take sufficient breaks**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

26. **I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organisation**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

27. **I am pressured to work long hours**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

28. **I have a choice in deciding how I do my work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

29. **I have to work very fast**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

30. **I am subject to bullying at work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

31. **I have unrealistic time pressures**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

Support at Work

32. **I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

33. **I get help and support I need from colleagues**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

34. **I have some say over the way I work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

35. **I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

36. **I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

37. **Staff are always consulted about change at work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

38. **I can talk to my line manager about something that has upset or annoyed me about work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

39. **My working time can be flexible**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

40. **My colleagues are willing to listen to my work related problems**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

41. **When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

42. **I am supported through emotionally demanding work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

43. **Relationships at work are strained**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

44. **My line manager encourages me at work**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Job Security

45. **Are you worried about becoming unemployed**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

46. **Are you worried about new technologies making you redundant**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

47. **Are you worried about it being difficult for you to find another job if you become unemployed**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

48. **Are you worried about being transferred to another job against your will**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

49. **How likely are you to leave the cabin crew profession in the near future**

- very likely
- likely
- maybe
- not likely
- not at all

Work Family Conflict

50. **Do you feel conflict between your work and your personal life, making you want to be in both places at the same time**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

51. **Do you feel that your work drains so much of your energy that it has a negative effect on your personal life**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

52. **Do you feel that your work takes so much of your time that it has a negative effect on your personal life**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

53. **Do your friends or family tell you that you work too much**

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Value and Recognition

54. **I feel valued as an employee at work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

55. **I feel I am recognized for positive contributions I make at work**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

56. **I feel I am under pressure when at work due to working to unrealistic sales targets**

- Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

57. **Do you consider the status of crew work has diminished drastically**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

58. **Do you feel that work as cabin crew is still your dream occupation**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

59. **Do you consider there to be a level of mistrust in the management**

- To a very large extent
- To a large extent
- Somewhat
- To a small extent
- Not at all

Appendix (7): Ethics

about:blank

Reply all | Delete | Junk | Block | ...

Research Ethics: Your submission has been approved

Flag for follow up.

EthicsOnline@Northumbria
Mon 04/03/2019 13:07

To: stephanie.preston
Cc: John Blenkinsopp

Dear stephanie.preston,

Submission Ref: 11710

Following independent peer review of the above proposal*, I am pleased to inform you that **APPROVAL** has been granted on the basis of this proposal and subject to continued compliance with the University policies on ethics, informed consent, and any other policies applicable to your individual research. You should also have current Disclosure & Barring Service (DBS) clearance if your research involves working with children and/or vulnerable adults.

* note: Staff Low Risk applications are auto-approved without independent peer review.

The University's Policies and Procedures are here

All researchers must also notify this office of the following:

- Any significant changes to the study design, by submitting an 'Ethics Amendment Form'
- Any incidents which have an adverse effect on participants, researchers or study outcomes, by submitting an 'Ethical incident Form'
- Any suspension or abandonment of the study.

Please check your approved proposal for any Approval Conditions upon which approval has been made.

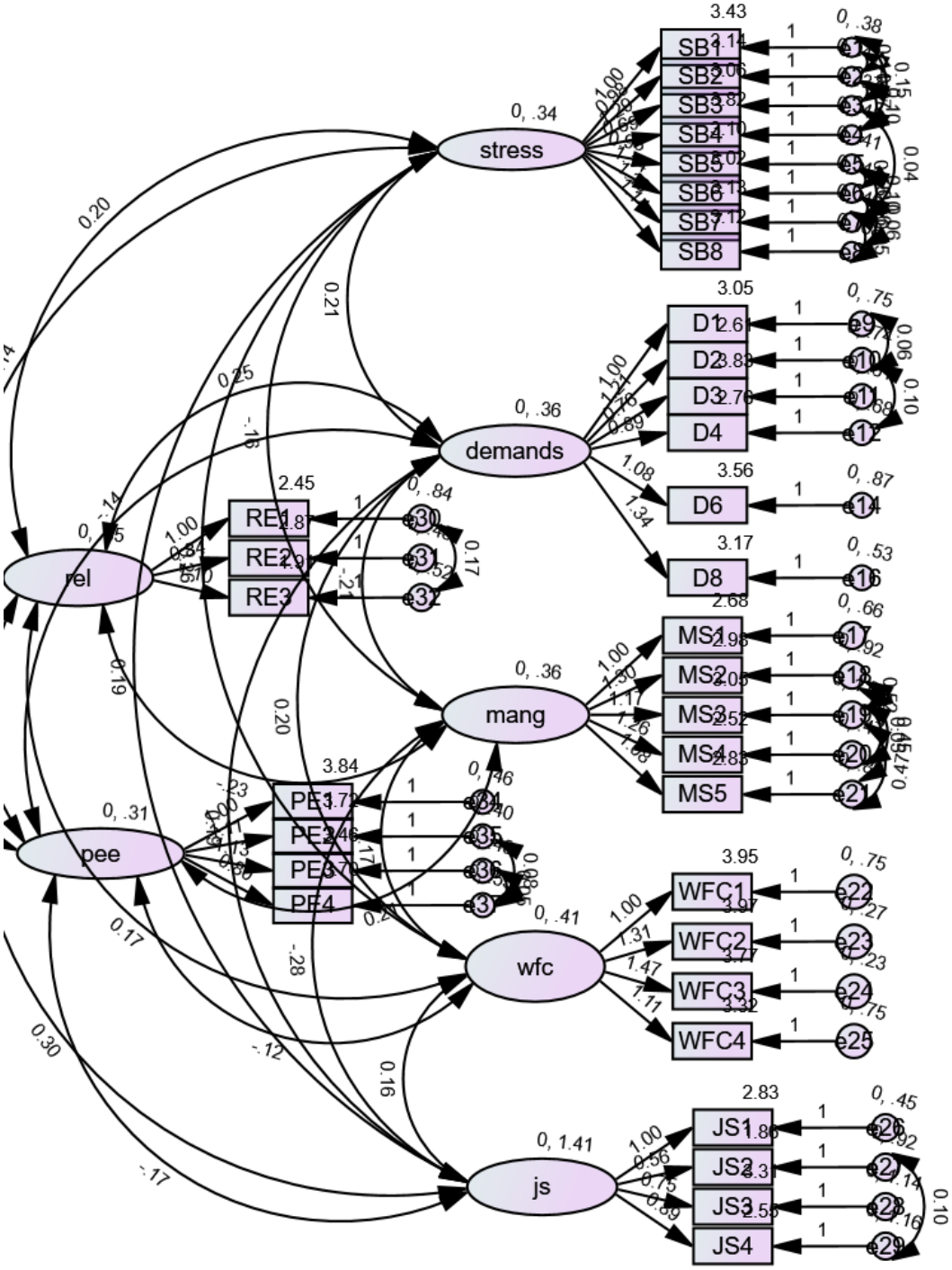
Use this link to view the submission: View Submission

Research Ethics Home: Research Ethics Home

Please do not reply to this email. This is an unmonitored mailbox. If you are a student, queries should be discussed with your Module Tutor/Supervisor. If you are a member of staff please consult your Department Ethics Lead.

Reply | Reply all | Forward

Appendix (8): CFA



Appendix (9): Modification Indices /Co-Variances

E36-E37
E18-E19
E19-E21
E15-E16
E14-E15
E11-E15
E11-E15
E10-E12
E6-E7

E5-E7
E5-E6
E4-E6
E3-E7
E2-E4
E2-E3
E1-E2
E30-E32
E27-E29

E4-E6
E1-E3
E3-E6
E7-E8
E9-E10
E18-E21
E19-E20

Appendix (10): Rath and Harter

Career Well-being: How you occupy your time/liking what you do each day

Social Well-being: Relationships and love in your life

Financial Well-being: Managing your economic life to reduce stress and increase security

Physical Well-being: Good health and enough energy to get things done on a daily basis

Community Well-being: Engagement and involvement in the area where you live

Source: Rath and Harter (2010),

END