Emotional intelligence and its influence on burnout from surface acting in a seasonal service industry

by

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Dedication

This paper is dedicated to my late Grandfather, Dr. Arnold Weissler M.D., my inspiration for completing the journey of obtaining my Ph.D. His accomplishments in academia and his contributions to medicine never cease to amaze me, and his achievements solidified my resolution to ensure this chapter of my life would be completed. When running into challenges, his support, and relentless requests to *Be the Chief* stay with me to this day and through this dissertation.

To my fiancé, Maria (and Yofi), thank you for supporting me throughout this process unconditionally. I appreciate your sacrifices and patience with me when I could not spend as much time together during my studies. Going through this experience with you while we race to become Doctors together has strengthened my appreciation and admiration for you.

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Abstract

Emotional intelligence and its influence on burnout from surface acting in a seasonal service industry

In the world of customer service, it is commonly believed that the customer is always right, even when they may not be or may be. Roles that carry immediate interaction with the consumer have certain expectations that employees must fulfill, necessitating both surface acting and deep acting; tenets of emotional labor (Diefendorff et al., 2006). Previous research has revealed that relying solely on surface acting can lead to emotional exhaustion and burnout, impacting individuals and even spreading through emotional contagion (Mawritz et al., 2012; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Leaders turn to emotional intelligence to address these challenges, which can potentially moderate the negative consequences of emotional labor and prevent burnout. This study investigates the role of emotional intelligence as a moderator in reducing burnout resulting from surface acting among summer employees in aerial adventure and zipline parks. Utilizing a quantitative, non-experimental approach our findings contribute to the fields of emotional intelligence and emotional labor.

Chapter 1

Introduction to the study

In workplaces around the world, employees constantly find themselves in emotionally challenging and draining situations. Imagine a customer service agent who is required to provide a facade of unrelenting positivity, even in the face of angry or irrational customers. This result of suppressing genuine felt emotions beneath the surface and exterior in the name of professionalism can be tiring. This chapter will review the relationship between emotional labor, emotional intelligence, employee well-being, and burnout. It will begin by highlighting the significance of the study in discussing the daily emotional demands of the modern workplace. Next, it will review historical contexts, current benchmarks, and the need for further research in this arena. Following, the purpose of the study, research questions, and hypothesis, all grounded in a strong theoretical and conceptual framework, will be discussed, followed by an outlining of research approaches, procedures, and significance. Being mindful, the chapter will outline limitations, define key terms, and review the following chapters.

Introduction to the problem

Even though emotions are a preeminent part of the human experience, they are frequently perceived as disruptive elements in the workplace and viewed as potentially clouding judgment and not integrated into the professional environment and experience (Grandey, 2000). Over time, in the evolving landscape of the workplace, emotions have become more prominent, and are now considered an endemic feature and possibly a discriminant in performance in a variety of settings, which has led to a multitude of empirical research and reviews to comprehensively understand their role. Central to this research is an overriding theme that roles in the service industry, such as in nursing or customer service, impose distinctive emotional job requirements.

These demands, while known to exert negative effects on individuals' well-being, play a critical role in evaluating the effectiveness of an employee relative to their job duties (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). This reality has prompted a more critical examination of the dynamics of emotions in the workplace, as they intersect with job performance, job satisfaction, and employee well-being.

Increased competition among service providers has prompted organizations to focus time and capital on the interface and interactions between the company, their proxies, such as employees, and the consumer. The theoretical underpinning of this approach is that interactions between customers and staff are hypothesized to be a significant aspect of the role that improves service quality and satisfaction (Zapf & Holz, 2006), as well as serving to build positive relationships. These in tandem serve to provide the organization with a competitive advantage over its competitors. Emotional displays by employees have critical consequences for organizations, positively related to customer affect and evaluations of the service received (Pugh, 2001), as well as their willingness to return for subsequent purchases (Tsai, 2001), and increased sales (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). This has led to organizations paying increased attention to their consumer experience, with a vast majority of customer service-based organizations having created, implemented, monitored, and enforced rules related to how employees display emotions to their customers. These new job requirements have resulted in a new type of workload conceptualized as emotional labor.

The first advocate of the concept of emotional labor is Hochschild (1983). Having created the term, she defines it as an effort on behalf of employees to produce, elicit, and display particular emotions and behaviors that are specific to a job position that carries value toward the consumer. The concept of emotional labor has been explored and recognized within a variety of

occupations, such as waitresses, call center employees, airline attendants, and nurses, where face-to-face or over-the-phone interactions encompass a critical element of the role. During this interaction with the consumer, clients, or peers, employees engage in emotional labor to comply with display rules which are acceptable or required expressions that are delineated by the organization (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

A common rule in these industries is "service with a smile" where friendliness and enthusiasm are required (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), which results in a frequent promotion of positive emotions and suppression of negative ones (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). These display rules are prescriptions by employers of how to interact with the consumer, which is reinforced through role theory (Biddle, 2013). These actors will then display feelings anticipated to the situation and will require cognitive and emotional skills.

Over time, however, emotional labor can negatively affect performance, as the concept has been linked to job stress, burnout, and turnover as a result of a continued effort to reconcile between felt emotions and those required to be expressed (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983; Pugh, 2002). In other words, the forced alignment of expressed emotions to work expectations when felt emotions are disparate produces exhaustion. The ability to manage emotions effectively could serve to mitigate this misalignment and reduce the negative effects.

This study undertook a nuanced examination of the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion while also considering the role of emotional intelligence as a potential moderator. Surface acting is the process of displaying an emotion that is different from an individual's felt emotions, and as such, hiding true emotions (Hochschild, 1983), whereas deep acting is described as an emotional labor strategy that exists when one makes a cognitive effort

to produce a required emotional display by modifying both their outer expressions, but also their feelings to make the specific situation match their true feelings with the desired emotions by reappraising the scenario or centering their mind to positive thoughts (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Specifically, the researcher investigated how emotional intelligence can contribute to reducing the levels of emotional exhaustion experienced by employees engaged in surface acting. Employing a quantitative research approach, the researcher gathered data from seasonal service team members employed in the summer-intensive seasonal industry of aerial adventure and zipline parks at the conclusion of their season. Seasonality, characterized by shorter business operations periods or periods of increased demand, presents unique challenges for retaining seasonal employees, making the study of paramount importance (Andriotis, 2005; Baum, 1999; Butler, 1994).

Background of the study

Since Hochschild introduced emotional labor, there has been an increase in interest in the role emotions play in the workplace, which has increased in pace since the increased prevalence of attention to emotions in an attempt to study organizational behavior and organizational psychology. Surface acting is considered to be omnipresent within service professions and is linked to several outcomes for the employee, as well as the organization at large. What is more, researchers have offered that the cognitive dissonance between emotional states and work rules can be detrimental to employee well-being (Abraham, 1998; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Other research on emotional labor has shown mixed findings between emotional labor and its effects on well-being, with some studies citing positive (Wharton, 1983) and negative

(Bono & Vey, 2005) consequences. Several scholars proposed that one significant factor in determining the outcomes of emotional labor is the employee's ability or lack of ability to regulate emotions within themselves, or the emotional labor strategy they employ to adhere to occupational display rules (Grandey, 2000; Johnson & Spector, 2007). Provided that the two strategies of emotional labor may offer disparate results on well-being, Brotheridge (2006a) calls for the need to distinguish the two strategies to better adjudicate contradicting results within the literature.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has become an intriguing topic of research for academics and practitioners, as research in this area has shown organizational benefits. Researchers have found emotional intelligence to be a critical component of jobs involving emotional labor (Gutierrez & Mullen, 2016; Mancini & Lawson, 2009; Mann & Cowburn, 2005), finding that emotional intelligence can minimize negative consequences associated with emotional labor, serving to increase employee-wellness (Karimi et al., 2014). Some research has shown that EI should also relate to job outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Abraham,1999; Ashkanasy & Hooper, 1999; Goleman, 1998; Wong & Law, 2002), many of which are associated with emotional labor and surface acting specifically, underscoring a possible moderating effect of the construct.

Although emotional labor has been shown to affect the well-being of employees in the workplace, the discovery of the moderators on the relationship between surface acting and well-being is scant. Studies have suggested that individual skills, such as emotional intelligence can help to explain individual differences in effects (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Grandey, 2000), however, EI as a moderating variable to emotional labor has not been studied (Bono & Vey, 2005). While studies have found a correlation between emotional intelligence and burnout, they

did not take place in Western cultures, nor in customer service roles (Nauman et al., 2019; Santos et al., 2015).

Mayer and Salovey (1990, 1997) explain that individuals who are emotionally intelligent carry the skill of managing and regulating their emotions in the workplace and are more effective in general, which results in more positive outcomes. Exploring the theoretical value of emotional intelligence as an asset in professional settings could play a significant part in moderating the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting in customer service professions. This study attempts to address the gap in the literature by focusing on emotional intelligence as a moderator of surface acting and burnout, such that it is hypothetically able to moderate the effect, bridging the gap empirically between these constructs.

Statement of the Problem

In advanced economies, 70% of employment involves service work (Kinman, 2007). Customer satisfaction and its underlying factors as a result of service work have long been a crucial element of businesses, impacting purchase decisions, product awareness, and overall product evaluation (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). The landscape of customer interactions has evolved with the advent of social media, which has brought about an increased rate of communication and global dialogue. In this dynamic environment, companies have recognized the significance of online ratings and electronic word of mouth (eWOM) as reliable sources influencing purchase decisions (Tran, 2015). It is now common practice for consumers to consult online reviews before making a purchase (Suresh et al., 2014) making eWOM an essential consideration for businesses aiming to ensure positive experiences. Moreover, negative reviews carry even greater weight than positive reviews, meaning a reduction in aggregate rating will be more impactful than an increase (Park & Nicolau, 2015). This reality fosters an imperative for

businesses, particularly those in service industries, to ensure a positive consumer experience. Moreover, this imperative is personified in seasonal service industries, whereas a shortened year will produce more exacerbated results of negative reviews when revenue-generating periods are less frequent than year-round counterparts.

Moreover, it is required that applicants in service industries have a smiling face and be able to interact in a friendly manner (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). This industry expectation has led to the consideration that even when the customer is always right, employees do not always agree, and experiencing this internal strife can be difficult. To comply with job requirements of service roles, employees will engage in emotional labor and the tenet of surface acting to match their response to their environment as needed, even when they may feel disparate (Diefendorff et al., 2006). The necessity for emotional labor introduces a complex challenge - how to maintain a positive consumer experience while managing the emotional toll it takes on employees. Furthermore, the consequences of emotional labor extend beyond the immediate context. Studies by Totterdell and Holman (2003) shed light on the lasting effect of emotional labor, revealing its association with increased employee exhaustion and decreased valance, suggesting the effort invested in surface acting not only affects employee well-being at the moment but also has broader implications for the work experience.

The popularized concept of emotional intelligence (EI), which encompasses an individual's ability to recognize, understand, and manage their own emotions and those of others (Mayer et al., 2004) has been shown to possibly influence whether an individual will engage in surface or deep acting, with deep acting being shown to produce less adverse outcomes (Grandey, 2000). Individuals with high EI can recognize and control emotions and organize their emotions to solve problems. Given the multifaceted nature of EI and its potential impact on

emotional regulation strategies, it prompts the question: Can emotional intelligence mitigate the strain put on service employees? Additionally, an intriguing inquiry arises concerning leaders and whether their status and experience help in dealing with surface acting themselves. These compelling questions are at the heart of the present study.

The conceptual model for this research (see Figure 1) illustrates a possible relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and the posited health outcomes of burnout. The framework features a moderating variable, emotional intelligence, which moderates the relationship between surface acting and the associated burnout consequences.

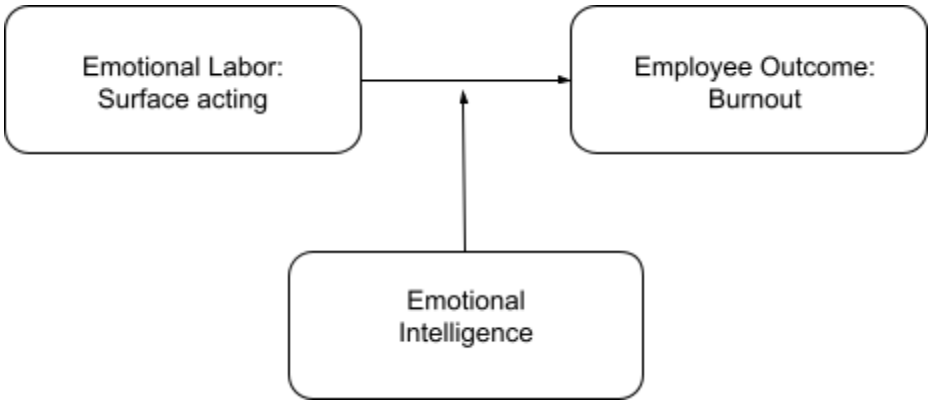


Figure 1. Conceptual Research Model

Purpose of the Study

With the increase in the growth of the service sector, organizations have an imperative to recognize the importance of potential outcomes of emotional labor, particularly in the context of surface acting. In doing so, these entities can realize the implications the practice holds for their front-line employees. Moreover, they have the opportunity to enhance job satisfaction and mitigate the adverse effects that accompany surface acting, such as emotional exhaustion and burnout (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). This recognition will extend beyond the well-being of team members and will begin to explore theoretical moderating factors that can mitigate the effects emotional labor has on service sector workers.

Customer service roles carry a critical function for many organizations. Team members who frequently interact with the consumer are often required to utilize emotional labor, or the process of managing one's emotions to meet a job's demands (Hochschild, 1983). In customer service, this most often involves suppressing negative emotions and displaying positive emotions, even when there is emotional dissonance. Emotional labor can be stressful and lead to emotional exhaustion, burnout, and decreased job satisfaction. Given these consequences in the literature, the purpose of this study is a fewfold.

First, this study will explore the relationship between surface acting, burnout, and emotional intelligence's potential moderating effects within the context of seasonal service industries. To achieve this aim, surface acting and its relationship to burnout among summer-intensive seasonal service workers was investigated. The second purpose was to review the relationship between EI in workers, as well as leaders and burnout in customer-facing roles, and investigate whether leaders can more effectively engage in surface acting and receive fewer or reduced consequences. Although the consequences of emotional labor have been examined, research has yet to establish a moderating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between surface acting and burnout. Scholars have empirically pointed to emotionally intelligent individuals as having significant advances in the organizational climate through skills of self-awareness, emotional management, empathy, and relationship building (Goleman, 1995). These abilities should afford these employees the ability to have a stronger grasp on their understanding, regulating, and engagement with their emotions (Härtel et al., 2005), which theoretically will avert some of the consequences of surface acting. Third, tenure will be investigated to discern whether more experience acts as a variable in the relationship. Moreover, the research centered on summer-employed seasonal service team members to provide valuable

insight into the unique dynamics of seasonal service industries, which have limited domestic reconnaissance.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and burnout among a sample of seasonal service employees?

Ha1: There will be a positive correlation between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service industry employees.

H01: There will be no correlation between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service industry employees.

RQ2: Do levels of emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and burnout in seasonal service employees?

Ha2: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service industry employees, whereas individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence will correlate a weaker relationship between surface acting and burnout.

H02: Emotional intelligence will not moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout in seasonal service industry employees, whereas individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence will experience a similar correlation between surface acting and burnout as compared to those with lower levels of emotional intelligence.

RQ3: Does supervisor status moderate the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and burnout within a sample of seasonal service industry employees?

Ha3: Supervisory status will moderate the correlation between surface acting and burnout in seasonal service industry supervisory positions, whereas supervisors of other employees will correlate a weaker relationship between surface acting and burnout.

H03: Supervisory status will not moderate the correlation between surface acting and burnout in seasonal service industry supervisory positions, whereas supervisors of other employees will experience a similar correlation between surface acting and burnout as compared to those who are not supervisors or of supervisory status.

RQ4: How does the level of experience among seasonal service industry employees influence the relationship between surface acting and burnout?

Ha4: Work experience moderates the relationship between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service industry employees, whereas individuals with greater work experience will correlate a weaker relationship between surface acting and burnout.

H04: Work experience will not moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service industry employees, whereas individuals with higher levels of work experience will experience a similar correlation between surface acting and burnout as compared to those with less working experience.

Approach & Procedures

Given the research purpose of exploring the relationship between surface acting, burnout, and emotional intelligence within the context of the seasonal adventure park industry, the research approach was that of completing the study utilizing a quantitative approach. The quantitative methodology aligns with the predominant methodology in the social sciences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) and aims to craft quantifiable and reliable data for validation. The research utilized the methods of self-report surveys, data collection via web surveys, and statistical

analysis. Self-report surveys will be provided to participating employees three nine different aerial adventure and zipline parks within the United States. These parks operate seasonally, generally, from April through October, and offer a unique context for examining emotional labor and its effects on employees. Participants in this study largely held positions that involved direct communication with customers, with positions such as check-in personnel, adventure park monitors, and other front-facing customer service roles. A convenience-based sampling method was used as a result of the industry's seasonality.

In order to measure the associated constructs, the research employed three self-report instruments with established reliability and validity. The three measurement tools include the surface-acting subscale (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005) to assess the degree of surface acting engaged in by participants, where they express emotions that do not genuinely reflect their felt, internal emotions. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (Carlos & Rodrigues, 2015) captures burnout as a result of work, asking participants to respond to a series of statements with a Likert scale providing insights into self-reported burnout within job roles. Third, the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, an established and frequently utilized tool was employed to measure various elements of emotional intelligence (Salovey et al., 1995), measuring skills associated with emotional intelligence, including clarity, attention to feelings, and repair.

The data collection procedure included web-based surveys, with subjects receiving email invitations containing consent forms and survey links. Once consent was obtained, participants were asked to complete the questionnaires within approximately 10 days to ensure data collection was within a defined period, while maintaining anonymity through Qualtrics. Data analysis commenced once all respondents completed their assessments. Responses were reviewed for completeness, with surveys including one or more excluded assessments being

removed from the study. Coded data then underwent correlation analysis in SPSS, which was then followed by hierarchical moderated regression analysis to explore how the variables predict the nature of the relationship between variables. Predictors and moderators were centered to avoid multicollinearity, which was suggested by Aiken and West (1991). An independent analysis verified the analysis to increase its finding reliability (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). A more comprehensive methodology section will be provided in Chapter Three.

Significance of the Study

Organizations have implicit or explicit requirements for how employees should interact with customers, and how they express themselves emotionally in public (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). These requirements are formalized in work display rules (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). As such, the abilities, or lack thereof, of employees to deal with the stress and emotional requirements of their work will result in discrepancies between their felt emotions and their quality of service (Van Dijk & Kirk-Brown, 2006). While emotional labor is beneficial to the organization, leading employees to meet job requirements (Hochschild, 1983), Grandey (2000) delineates an imperative to balance the need for an organization to maintain positive customer relations, as well as recognizing the strain this may have on employees. Moreover, there have been studies concluding that emotional labor may negatively affect job performance (Chen et al., 2012; Duke et al., 2009), demonstrating the dark side of emotional labor. However, there has been growing evidence of a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance (Côté & Miners, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002). Ultimately, there has been an underwhelming amount of research focusing on emotional labor and its influence on job performance (Duke et al., 2009), and even fewer reviewing the relationship between surface acting, emotional intelligence, and emotional exhaustion (Santos et al., 2015).

Since emotional labor can influence employee well-being in the workplace, and outside the workplace (Bartels et al., 2023), this study allows professionals in organizational behavior, psychology, and leadership to investigate and realize the internal detriment of surface acting within an organization and discern whether emotional intelligence can mitigate the consequences brought into the arena through the emotional dissonance.

Practitioners in various professions and disciplines can benefit from this study, particularly in workplaces where employees are frequently required to interact with customers, or in spaces where emotional labor and surface acting is present. Researchers call for organizations to recognize the risks associated with surface acting and help them by implementing solutions to mitigate associated adverse outcomes (Kinman, 2007). Particularly, if emotional intelligence can establish a moderating effect on the correlation between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, practitioners can institute training programs to promote or enhance their team's emotional intelligence, or at a minimum become more cognizant of the benefits associated with emotional intelligence to become stewards for the construct within the ranks of their organizations. Furthermore, this study may demonstrate emotional intelligence to be fundamental to increasing one's well-being holistically through the effective management and regulations of affect.

The outcomes of this study offer an increased understanding of the role of emotional intelligence in seasonal service sectors where customer interaction and surface acting are frequented. At a minimum, it offers the opportunity for practitioners to become aware of its possible benefits and could direct leadership to see a need for their employees to hone their emotional intelligence through the promotion and potential sponsoring of emotional intelligence training, which could outmaneuver outcomes that would otherwise negatively affect not only

employee well-being within service sectors but also the bottom line. As such, this dissertation adds to the existing literature on emotions and furthers the dialogue by establishing its importance in the workplace, which is commonly overlooked.

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The research focuses exclusively on the seasonal service industry, particularly that of the summer variety by way of nine adventure and zipline parks within the United States. As a result, the findings may not be able to be generalized to other sectors or geographic boundaries with different employment structures and demands. The distinct characteristics of seasonal work, marked by temporary work arrangements and specific job requirements, may not equally represent the experience of year-round employees and those in other industries (Baum, 1999). Moreover, the study relies exclusively on self-report surveys as the primary data collection method, where responses may have been affected by common method variance in statistical analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2003). More latently, while this type of survey is convenient and effective, it may not provide accurate responses, which is especially salient when evaluating subjective constructs, and may feature exaggerated relationships among variables (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007).

Additionally, this study employs a cross-sectional design that is necessitated by the seasonality of the industry. While this approach will offer valuable insight into the relationships between the constructs at any given time, the surveys are not longitudinal in nature and inherently limit the opportunity to explore causal relationships and changes over time, which would increase correlational probability. This constraint is salient to consider when interpreting the findings to reflect that findings are specific to a moment, rather than exploring dynamic trends.

Furthermore, the selection of subjects at seasonal adventure parks within the United States introduces a geographic limitation. While the parks serve as a valuable representative of the seasonal industry, there is an acknowledgment that the dynamics and experiences of employees within this setting may not be representative of other seasonal work environments or geographical regions, such as in other countries. The experiences and challenges encountered by agents in other seasonal industries or locations may differ slightly and findings should be interpreted with this regional specificity. Additionally, the study relies on a convenience-based sampling method due to constraints on the seasonal timeline and access. While this method is practical, it may introduce selection bias from those who elect to take part in the study.

Definitions of Terms

Burnout occurs when ongoing workplace stress manifests, including factors such as extreme physical and emotional fatigue, feelings of disconnectedness, or disinterest in work, that feature an absence of creating positive or productive outcomes at work (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout is a psychological condition that is a result of chronic job stress that results in exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Leiter et al., 2014).

Deep acting is an emotional labor strategy that exists when one makes a cognitive effort to produce a required emotional display by modifying both their outer expressions and their feelings to make the specific situation match their true feelings with the desired emotions by reappraising the scenario or centering their mind to positive thoughts (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Emotion is "An integrated feeling state involving physiological changes, motor preparedness, cognition about action, and inner experiences that emerge from an appraisal of the self or situation" (Mayer et al., 2008, p. 508-509).

Emotional Intelligence is defined as, "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer et al., 2004, p. 197). This study focuses on the Mayer and Salovey model (Salovey, Bracket & Mayer, 2004). The approach is distinct from Goleman's (1995) approach to emotional intelligence, as well as the newer Bar-On EQ approach (Bar-On, 2006). The Mayer and Salovey approach specifically views EI as a subset of social intelligence that incorporates a person's ability to monitor their own emotions, and the emotions of others, and to discriminate among the emotions and use the information to guide thoughts and actions (Salovey, Bracket & Mayer, 2004). Having EI involves possessing the ability to perceive emotions accurately, appraise them, and express emotion, as well as the ability to access or generate feelings to facilitate thought. Moreover, it means understanding emotions and having the ability to alter emotions to promote growth (Salovey, Bracket & Mayer, 2004).

Emotional Exhaustion is a preeminent component of burnout and describes, "feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people" (Leiter & Maslach, 1988, p. 297), characterized by a constant state of tiredness (Maslach, 2003).

Emotional Labor is regulating and managing emotions and expressions at work to conform to organizational norms and expectations as job requirements (Hochschild, 1983). Grandey (2000) defined emotional labor as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals" (p. 97). Grandey's definition suggests that emotional labor can be thought of as surface and deep acting, and as such, this definition will be most appropriate.

Surface Acting is the process of displaying an emotion that is different from an individual's felt emotions, and as such, hiding true emotions (Hochschild, 1983).

Summary

This chapter lays the foundation for the study, introducing the complex relationship between surface acting, emotional intelligence, and burnout within the summer-intensive seasonal service industry of aerial adventure and zipline parks. It begins by exploring the historical evolution of emotions in the workplace, delineating their growing significance, especially in service-oriented industries where emotional job requirements are present. The rise of emotional labor as a component is acknowledged, underscoring its influence on employee well-being, and job performance. The purpose is then discussed, emphasizing the imperative to discern deeper into emotional dynamics within the workplace. Then, a set of research questions and hypotheses are presented that probe the relationships between these constructs, both between employees and their leadership within a unique employment context, and will be tested through quantitative methodology.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

Historic views of job responsibilities outline physical labor and cognitive requirements. However, there is an increasing understanding of how much work it is to manage and produce appropriate emotions in the workplace (Guy, 2019; Guy et al., 2019a). Emotional labor does not just mean offering a smile, it is a mechanism where an employee must manage or regulate their affect, such as being helpful toward a customer to fulfill a company-delineated offering for customers (Totterdale & Holman, 2003). As such, the industrialization of human emotion brings with it a variety of health-related costs to employees, which has become a focal concern for those within the service industry (Hochschild, 1983). The expansion of the service sector means not only greater importance should be placed on the display of emotions, but moreover, more consideration should be given to the variables that would aid in reducing health-related costs. Such a construct to be examined is emotional intelligence, which requires a consideration of both emotions and intelligence, which Meyer and Salovey (1997) conclude to be considered a mental ability because the outcomes of studies share characteristics with similarly well-known measures of intelligence. Found to be a set of interrelated skills, emotional intelligence provides individuals with the ability to process emotionally relevant information accurately and efficiently (Mayer et al., 1999).

This chapter will focus on the most critical elements and theoretical formation of emotional labor to discern its purpose, strategies, and consequences for those service employees who employ its methodology. The literature review will also discuss the concept of burnout and its negative effects on employees. Emotional intelligence will also be discussed and offer theories and analysis of measures found within scholarly research, and the review will present a

potential relationship between the emotional intelligence and emotional labor theories and the fundamental role emotional intelligence plays in moderating the negative effects of emotional labor.

The resources selected for this literature review were selected through consideration of the research questions, which center the focus on the core concepts of emotional intelligence, burnout, and surface acting. During the selection process, I aimed to capture a fully encompassing view of the topics and explore the concepts of interdisciplinary relationships. Once guided by the research question, a myriad of variables could influence the outcomes of surface acting. To address this broad horizon, research articles that explored these elements were included. This allowed for a comprehensive review of the topics to account for extraneous factors.

In selecting sources, peer-reviewed journals were prioritized as the primary sources. These articles were selected in multiple disciplines, including but not limited to psychology, business, and hospitality. To find these articles, databases including Google Scholar, EBSCOHost, and JStor were used to locate relevant articles by utilizing keywords in the search procedure. Examples of keywords included emotional intelligence, burnout at work, and emotional intelligence and burnout. This approach served to incorporate diverse perspectives to share the widest possible array of insights and perspectives. In addition to journal articles, academic books were included in the review to offer a broader explanation of the topics serving to support the analysis of research findings.

The quality of these sources was greatly considered during the selection process. Journal articles with strong purpose statements, data collection, discussion, and review of limitations were prioritized to help improve the credibility of the findings. Moreover, the use of reputable

databases, peer-reviewed articles, and respectable journals aided in the goal of locating meaningful information.

Emotional Labor

It is a requirement that employees bring with them a smile on their face, and an ability to interact well with others, including customers and fellow employees, just as much as it is a requirement they bring their lunch with them (Steinberg & Figart, 1999). When Hochschild (1983) first introduced her concept of emotional labor, she offered two anecdotes to illustrate the concept, the flight attendant, and the bill collector. What these two roles share is their direct interaction with the consumer and the need to present oneself in a prescribed manner no matter the scenario. Oftentimes, customer service employees may end up suppressing negative emotions in favor of more socially or corporately acceptable ones, all to appease the consumer, even to the detriment of their personal health. Hochschild (1990) refers to this concept of conforming emotions to social expectations as emotion work, whereas the suppression of one's emotions to comply with one's occupational requirements is considered emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983).

History of Emotional Labor

The original definition of emotional labor was offered by Hochschild (1983, p.10) as, "the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display which is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value." In her text, she explains that jobs that need to utilize emotional labor have three common underlying elements. First, employees will interact in person or over the phone with the consumer. Next, the goal of the employee is to elicit a particular response from another person. Third, the text presupposes that employers can exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of their employees. Hochschild (1983) explains that feelings are not isolated within us, but rather they are led and forged by an intentional

contribution from the agent, both within social and organizational institutions, or that emotions are tasked to be selected to achieve an objective. This is the transmutation of emotion or the commercialization of emotions for the means of the organization and profit.

Transmutation carries three elements with it. First is emotional work, second is feeling rules, and third is social exchange (Hochschild, 1983). This act is described as a theatrical performance where actors perform as if they are on stage. Emotion work is then considered to be emotions expressed as if they align with a play script, whereas feeling rules are adopted through processes within an organization, such as through training, and then reinforced through role theory (Biddle, 2013). These actors will then display feelings anticipated to the situation and will require cognitive and emotional skills both verbally and non-verbally.

The value in non-verbal communication in emotional labor cannot be overstated. According to Mehrabian's (1972) seminal work on non-verbal communication, 55% of communication is delivered through body language, while 38% is attributed to voice and tone, with just 7% relying on spoken word. Mehrabian (1972) instructs that these percentages are situationally dependent, however, and not universal to every scenario. In emotional labor, where performers act like they are on stage, non-verbal cues become critical elements of communication. The skills these actors utilize will include both the suppression and expression of emotion (Guy et al., 2008). Diefendorff et al., (2006) illustrate that emotional expectations are seen as job requirements, imperatives, and not suggestions. These expectations are called organizational display rules that prescribe the utilization of certain emotions (Cropanzano et al., 2004), suggesting certain emotions are best suited for particular scenarios and how they should be manufactured to achieve the attainment of job outcomes (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

Grandey (2000) goes as far as to explain that these rules could be presented in training materials or observed by other colleagues.

Causes of Emotional Labor

Display rules are quasi-rules provided by an organization and include the standards, policies, or guidelines for how to appropriately express one's affect at work, which is a presupposition to emotional labor. The guidelines help to provide employees with a prescription for how and when to exhibit specific emotions (Cropanzano et al., 2004), and describe what emotions are appropriate for particular situations, but go as far as to detail how emotions should be utilized to elicit performance objectives (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). These guidelines are reinforced through an overall perception of an organization (Totterdale & Holman, 2003), and by creating positive customer experiences and willingness to execute purchases.

Display rules are put into place and reinforced through an overall perception of an organization (Totterdale & Holman, 2003; Zapf, 2002), and by creating positive customer experiences and willingness to execute purchases. There is an empirical link between emotional labor and customer satisfaction and when staff present positive emotions display customer willingness to return and share positive feedback with others (Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001). Commonly, employees are asked to remain calm and polite when interacting with their guests, or diffusing tense situations, even when they may feel angry. In frequent interactions where a customer service interaction goes wrong and the encounter is unpleasant with a dissatisfied consumer, the most frequent expectation of the employee is that they maintain their poise and convey a demeanor of calmness and politeness to diffuse the situation. This experience is an illustration of emotional regulation, where the staff member conquers their gloomy emotions, even if it creates an emotional dissonance between felt and applied emotions. The inverse may

also be true where workplace expectations are such that employees are tasked with conveying calloused emotions, such as in the role of a debt collector. Another example is human resource professionals who are tasked with working with upset team members and who have a professional obligation to maintain neutrality and not express their personal emotions. Grandey (2000) notes that in each of these interactions, emotional control crafts a work role, which will improve workplace interactions.

The suppression of negative or positive emotions, or promotion of calloused or positive emotions, are associated with emotional dissonance and can be uncomfortable. Since these felt emotions are disparate from the desired emotions, they must amend their feelings to match the desired employer expectations (Zapf, 2002), which can lead to stress and even heart disease (Mann, 2004). When role expectations and high commitment to a role exist, the more dissonance or difference between expectations and felt emotions relative to expectations, the greater the likelihood of emotional stress (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Hochschild (1983) reinforces this idea in her initial presentation by explaining that the separation of felt emotion from experienced emotion is related to job stress, burnout, and emotional dissonance. However, the type of acting or emotional labor approach exerted to achieve organizational expectations is paramount in personal and organizational outcomes. In the literature, it is generally agreed that emotional labor has two main strategies: surface acting and deep acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2003, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Mann, 2004). Next, this researcher will review the three lenses of emotional labor, followed by a more detailed view of its two main strategies.

The Three Lenses of Emotional Labor

Researchers have discovered that there are three prevailing lenses through which emotional labor is viewed (Grandey et al., 2013) that move from a more operational means to achieving goals, to how emotional displays are informed through occupational requirements, concluded with how employees process and manage emotions at work. This trajectory aligns with a migration from a modern approach to postmodern approaches in leadership studies.

The first of these lenses was introduced by Hochschild (1983); her initial conception viewed emotional labor as a vehicle for achieving organizational goals. The author illustrates that roles that feature emotional labor share three common characteristics: (1) voice or facial contact with the public, (2) the worker is required to manufacture an emotional state or response to a consumer, and (3) the role affords the employee a degree of control over their emotional states (Hochschild, 1983). The prevailing concept of this lens and approach is that the control of emotions necessitates energy exertion on behalf of the employee. As such, within these roles, staff are indoctrinated to rules of effect, where norms are established as to how to react or how they should feel with the consumer. Put simply, this view places the foci on feelings over the expression of affect.

The second lens of emotional labor research came a decade later and focuses on emotional displays more significantly than how they are felt and are informed by roles within a working environment (Ashford & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). This framework is built upon the initial conceptualization of emotional labor and contends that proper customer service is based on the emotions that the agent expresses (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Within the service sector, since positive emotions were expected, it became an element of the role. This framework emphasizes the root basis of work expectations, and that emotions are elicited as a

way to meet these expectations and the subsequent results that are experienced, interestingly both as an individual and as a collective, the first such distinction of organizational and personal outcomes being considered. Ashford and Humphrey (1993) view emotional labor as the function of exhibiting predefined emotions with an end of complying with display rules, which are defined as a company's expectations of how emotions are to be expressed (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Distinct from the initial lens of emotional labor, this second viewpoint is focused on the display rules of the organization, rather than the emotional being or status of the employee. Moreover, this distinction places the customer central to the concern, exhibiting its importance as a critical figure in the service provider, service-recipient relationship. Encapsulating this ethos, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) explain that employees may adhere to these norms unescorted by a need to govern their affect.

The third branch of emotional labor was crafted and developed in the 15 years after the conceptualization to the present time. This approach blends the prior lenses and sees emotional labor as an experience of processing and managing emotions while at work (Grandey et al., 2013). Within this lens, scholars have defined the concept as, "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal interactions" (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). Building upon this foundation, Grandey (2000) adds that emotional labor is a process where individuals regulate their expressions and feelings to meet company objectives. Moreso, it is here that scholars view the effect emotional labor has on its subjects, with some beginning to view the theory through the eyes of emotional regulation (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Moreover, this view is the first to consider the emotional dissonance experienced with a mismatch between display rules and felt emotions. Morris and Feldman (1996) were the first to illustrate how this emotional dissonance present during this phenomenon

can, at times, lead to emotional exhaustion, whereas when the body performs inauthentic emotional expressions, other psychological or neurological processes begin to reshape and control expression. This illuminating finding has prompted the researchers Hulsheger and Schewe (2011) to explore the ways emotional labor may lead to burnout, and its link with emotional dissonance through a preeminent meta-analysis citing multiple instances of such occurrence. This approach incorporates the two other definitions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983) by giving differences to the internal states of employees and the expectations of employers, and the findings alerted the academic community to the potential dangers beneath the otherwise innocuous activity and set the stage for a consideration of how emotional display rules affect employee well-being.

Scholars have viewed emotional labor through three varying lenses in a stepwise progression of consideration. The first lens focused more exclusively on emotional display rules as job requirements, such as with the bill collector (Hochschild, 1983). Next, the second lens prompted consideration of an employee's external displays concerning display rules, and the interplay between the two. In culmination, the third viewpoint sees the behind-the-scenes processes and experiences internal to the organizational agent, and the outcomes of the regulation of emotional expressions while at work. These three conceptions of emotional labor provide useful insight into how the various leaders in the field of emotional labor saw its prominence, but are only one of the myriad types of research conducted on the concept (Diefendorff et al., 2011).

Emotional Labor Strategies: Surface and Deep Acting

Defined as how an agent willfully controls their emotional expression to align with personal environments or work requirements (Hochschild, 2012), employees utilize the concept

of emotional labor, including surface and deep acting, for interactions with consumers and team members for desired outcomes such as improved customer experience (Humphrey, 2012, leading more effectively, and improving staff affect (Bhave & Glomb, 2016). For these outcomes, individuals use emotion regulation strategies such as suppressing emotion or aiming to amend feelings to match display rules which are required (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). There is general agreement that emotional labor features two main strategies: surface and deep acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Mann, 2004; Van Dijk & Kirk-Brown, 2006) to maintain organizational display rules.

Surface acting is referred to as pretending expression, or the regulation of one's emotional expression, but while having dissonant inner feelings and not changing them. This is otherwise known as "faking" affective displays (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), or an action of the body, but not the soul (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting can be seen as a concerted effort to hide emotional dissonance (Zapf, 2002), and may include facial distortion, physical posturing, voice changes, or other physically observable actions. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) famously view surface acting as "faking in bad faith" due to an employee's conformity to display rules, not to help their consumer or organization, but to keep their job. However, the underlying emotional state of the actor in this phenomenon is not known. Therefore, if the agent's internal state is in dissimilarity with their external physical or emotional expression, they would be surface acting. This act is related to emotional dissonance (Abraham, 1988) and has been linked to low job satisfaction (Amissah et al., 2022), emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Bhave & Glomb, 2016; Richards & Gross, 1999; Riforgiate et al., 2021; Totterdell & Holman, 2003).

In complete and direct contrast to surface acting, deep acting and authentic expression are similar concepts in that authentic expression can be thought of as felt emotion, but where no

transmutation occurs (Hochschild, 1983). In this way, emotional display is congruent with the genuine emotion felt and involves the modification of one's feelings to match expressions. Examples of this situation would be a professional psychologist feeling and expressing gratification for the improvement in their patient's psychological state, or similarly, a frustrated service employee feeling and expressing their disdain toward a frustrated customer. In both of these cases the respective employee is expressing their authentic feelings. This relates exclusively to an employee having an emotional display that matches their authentic emotional state, as opposed to a display rule or a required or preferred emotional expression as delineated by an employer or organization at large.

Deep acting will incorporate the transmutation of emotion that aligns felt emotion with the expressions of such, as well as the true feelings of the actor. Even without being in the target an emotional state, the agent will engage in deep acting to modify their own emotions more deeply to complement the desired state within the professional setting. Hochschild (2012) presents an example of deep acting where an actor in the role of a patient expresses genuine fear while acting. In such a scenario, the emotions were transmuted as a result of the presentation and emerged in the feeling. Much like its counterpart, deep acting has also been linked to adverse reactions, such as burnout and even cardiovascular activations as a result of emotional suppression in general (Richards & Gross, 1999).

While it is often presumed that surface acting requires less effort of the individual due to its focus on physical display without invoking true emotions, the reality paints a different picture as sometimes the road less traveled most easily is not the most effective in meeting the requirements of the situation. Scholars have illustrated that stress is linked to surface acting; however, deep acting bears no such relationship (Grandey, 2003; Hsieh, 2014). These findings

have been replicated among many other studies (Bhave & Glomb, 2016; Guy, 2019; Totterdell & Holman, 2003) indicating psychological strain is likely attributable to the emotional dissonance within the regulation and emotional reconciliation processes. While the degree to which surface acting occurs is not apparent, neuroscientific research indicates that a psychological reaction is likely to have occurred or will occur no matter how much acting takes place (Garland et al., 2010). In other words, in acting, an agent partakes in emotional regulation, which may assist with matching emotions to workplace rules; however, its physiological effects are entangled in hormonal reactions that can be detrimental to one's physical health.

An individual's emotional journey does not end at 5:00 p.m. It extends into the evening. Emotional laborers describe physical and mental emotional exhaustion at the end of their workday, continually reassessing their decisions and emotions as a post-mortem, worrying about the outcome of their reactions or outcomes (Guy et al., 2008), extending to their relationships at home (Bartels et al., 2023), and promoting antisocial behavior (Brill, 2000). These impacts on the worker are why emotional labor is of interest, with emotional exhaustion leading to feelings of fatigue referring to both physical and/or emotional tiredness, and explains that an individual will feel lethargic in terms of physical fatigue and emotionally drained in emotional fatigue (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Therefore, despite the misalignment in the definition of emotional labor (Glomb & Tews, 2004), generally, it is agreed that it includes managing and regulating emotions and expression in the workplace to align with organizational rules and expectations in exchange for a wage (Bono & Vey, 2004; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Mann, 2004).

Theoretical Model of Emotional Regulation

When faced with a divergence between emotional display rules and internal affect, employees will typically leverage emotional regulation strategies in order to achieve the end display (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Emotional labor theory underscores the stress of controlling one's emotions when their role(s) at work requires certain behaviors and emotions to be exhibited to the consumer, making emotional regulation a critical underlying element of emotional labor (Grandey, 2000).

Grandey (2000) proposes an emotional labor model in an effort to integrate the perspectives of the three different lenses of emotional labor, endeavoring to incorporate and integrate the various perspectives. The model is a preeminent guide to recognizing the control mechanisms that emotional labor presents, such as organizational factors, and personal emotion, and discerning the long-term repercussions of emotional labor (EL). By integrating the work of Hochschild (1983), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), the leading researchers within the three lenses of EL, Grandey (2000) describes emotional labor as a process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals. Within the first lens, this definition entails the imperative that workers are to control their emotions while at work. Secondarily, the definitions make mention of the features of the jobs and delineate their function as antecedents and the impetus for emotional labor vis a vis Morris and Feldman's (1996) framework. Lastly, related to the third lens, Grandey (2000) details the goals of emotional labor to contextually be the attainment of loyal consumers, attending to behavioral outcomes of the act (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Grandey (2000) outlines a variety of precursors to cues in which emotional labor would be required. These signals are precipitated by a work setting, and a need to control emotions.

These antecedents are conveyed through consumer interaction, and include elements such as the variety of interactions, the recurrence, and prevalence, as well as the length of time, in tandem with the formal display rules reinforced through training (Biddle, 2013). Both positive and negative experiences can be viewed as precursors to emotional labor, such as when a frustrated consumer becomes upset with an employee, even if the concern is out of their control, or when a customer becomes elated over the results of their scratch-off lottery ticket. In both scenarios, the emotional regulation is required to maintain the most suitable impression at work and can act as an instantaneous stimulus on the agent's emotions.

Grandey (2000) delineates that Gross's (1998) self-regulation theory can be seen as a helpful north star in guiding emotional regulation theory by considering the phenomena of physiological arousal. Gross's (1998) theory stipulates that responses are focused on emotion regulation and the precursor that precipitates the regulation. In other words, self-regulation is an effort to modify emotional experience through five different types of strategies such as situational selection, modification of the situation, attention deployment, change of thoughts surrounding the situation, or response modulation. These five elements together complement Grandey's (2000) notions of emotional labor, which she furthers in her presentation.

Grandey (2000) points to the longevity or suppression of the excitement, and how the experience may lead to burnout and offers significant explanation and discernment within the emotional labor literature. This process or phenomenon is onset by display rule perceptions and reinforcement, which are satisfied by one of two strategies. Grandey (2000) offers that these strategies include surface and deep acting. Surface acting is likened to response-focused emotions, which feature corrective behavior once affect is established and can include suppression, or amplification of an emotional response. In contrast, antecedent-focused

regulation is characterized by modifying inceptive emotions in the situation or the cognitive appraisal of the state of affairs (Grandey, 2000). The author furthers their commitment to their position by commenting that both a response and antecedent approach to emotions can illustrate the constructive and disadvantageous results of emotional labor. As such, the acts of surface and deep acting will directly associate with an existing theoretical model, outlining why the management of emotions ought to relate to the outcomes desired (Grandey, 2000).

Organizational work expectations serve as antecedent indicators for employees. These indicators elicit the requirement for employees to manage their emotions through emotional regulation, and more specifically through deep acting and surface acting (Grandey, 2000). This is furthered by the assertion and finding that emotional labor is associated with stress (Gross, 1998) and other related long-term health consequences to employees (Bono & Vey, 2005; Feldman, 1996; Kinman, 2007; Kuok et al., 2022; Pugh, 2002; Totterdale & Holman, 2003), and organizational-level results (Chen et al., 2012; Duke et al., 2009). However, the literature has indicated that deep acting is more positively related to performance than service acting (Humphrey et al., 2015; Johnson & Spector, 2007). Greater research appears necessary to empirically review the conflicting outcomes associated with deep acting.

Critically, Grandey (2000) incorporates extraneous variables in her framework that are of particular interest to this study. The first includes organizational characteristics, such as supervisor support, or co-worker support in which a strong cohort of team members could theoretically shield one another from negative work consequences. Second, individual differences, which include gender, or constructs such as emotional intelligence could factor in as a potential influencer of workplace outcomes. These two elements are opined to have potential moderating effects on the frequency or amount of emotional labor performed, as well as the

potential consequences resulting from its use. As such, within this review, Grandey's (2000) framework is seen as a guiding framework for the research, especially in reviewing the potential moderating relationship between emotional labor, strategy selection, and outcomes.

This research focused on the ability of individual factors to moderate emotional labor strategies and their purported consequences. As demonstrated by Grandey (2000), emotional intelligence may act as a moderator on the outcome relationship.

Consequences of Emotional Labor

From its initial conception, emotional labor was thought to carry with it the potential for harmful outcomes for the employee, such as burnout, inauthenticity, or emotional exhaustion (Hochschild, 1983). Rafaeli & Sutton (1989) were first to correlate a relationship between emotional labor, psychological well-being, and organizational outcomes in a variety of workplaces. Building on this work, when considering the level of suppression or faking of emotions in light of display rules relative to job satisfaction and psychological distress in the roles of telemarketers and flight attendants, Kinman (2007) was able to replicate negative outcomes of the emotional labor regardless of it being in person, or over the phone, and was the first to conclude that its effects extend beyond the workplace and into one's personal and home life.

However, despite the many negative consequences of emotional labor, Zammunier and Galli (2005) detail that the regulation process is a key feature of customer service roles that feature employer-to-consumer interaction. The kind of regulation, its frequency, intensity, and duration are important considerations with an implication for health and well-being. Their study found an implication that emotional labor is nested in relationships with job requirements such as frequency and intensity of relations with the consumer, which also correlates to the associated

potential negative health consequences. The feelings of emotional inauthenticity that result from a disconnect between felt and required emotions contribute to emotional exhaustion, physical ailments, job dissatisfaction, and disengagement (Bono & Vey, 2005).

The psychological consequence of emotional dissonance has been explored extensively concerning surface acting (Grandey, 2003). The concept of emotional dissonance is housed upon three facets: (1) display rules or required emotions are present, (2) expressed emotions, and (3) genuine emotions (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Grandey (2000) views emotional dissonance as the disconnect between expressed emotions and genuine emotions, which has become the most widely accepted definition. Employees who experience emotional dissonance or inauthenticity often feel tension and increased levels of anxiety (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Wagner et al., (2014) found that experiences of emotional dissonance or felt inauthenticity may lead to work-to-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and a reduction in sleep, and is a core element of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). These outcomes create a link between the adverse effects of emotional labor on an employee's health and raise questions surrounding how surface acting affects job outcomes themselves.

Surface acting is associated with many negative consequences, including all three dimensions of burnout, including emotional exhaustion, mitigated personal accomplishment, and depersonalization (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). More fully encompassing organizational outcomes, such as turnover intentions and reduced performance are also associated with burnout (Cropanzano et al., 2003). More acutely, Chen et al. (2019) found that emotional exhaustion carries predictive validity of burnout and is one of its most harmful repercussions.

Emotional exhaustion is said to result when workers feel both physically and psychologically diminished due to a lack of resources (Maslach et al., 2001). As a result, surface

acting's negative subsequent personal outcomes can reverberate beyond the individual workers to larger organizational-level consequences. Further, research has drawn the line between surface acting and outcomes such as low job satisfaction (Amissah et al., 2022; Grandey, 2000), job performance (Grandey, 2003), organizational attachment (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011), turnover intention (Wang et al., 2023), antisocial behaviors (Brill, 2000), motivation depletion (Xanthopoulou et al., 2018), negative relationship satisfaction at home (Bartels et al., 2023), and burnout itself (Bhave & Glomb, 2016; Riforgiate et al., 2021). These findings detail how surface acting in general is a detrimental act and a regulation approach that leads to negative health and performance outcomes, leading scholars and practitioners to encourage against its use.

Subsequent empirical results have shown different outcomes from emotional labor suggesting that it is generally not adverse towards workers (Wharton, 1993), contrary to the aforementioned litany of empirical studies demonstrating negative outcomes of the construct. These mixed findings may suggest that there are moderating variables that could influence the outcomes of emotional labor. Wharton (1993) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and emotional labor, suggesting that workers enjoy their workplace social interactions. Even in this study, however, the author consents to emotional labor becoming a challenge for workers when job autonomy was low, suggesting a specific subset of conditions that could allow for emotional labor to occur without concern for the employee's well-being Scholars can draw the potential for moderators within certain workplaces to help embrace emotional regulation.

Scholars have indicated that inconsistencies within the research between emotional labor and personal and organizational outcomes could be a result of the emotional labor strategy undertaken (Johnson & Spector, 2007). Ashforth and Tomiuk (2000) encourage the

differentiation between surface and deep acting strategies due to these contrarian findings on the effects on employee health. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) echo this sentiment and argue that surface acting and deep acting will offer incongruent internal physiological activities that have different outcomes, which is agreed upon by Grandey (2000).

Laboratory studies have also concluded that subjects asked to suppress emotions, which is akin to surface acting, showed signs of increased psychological arousal, and impaired cognitive function (Richards & Gross, 2000). In contrast, when emotional reappraisal was utilized, akin to deep acting, the same cognitive effects were not produced. In a related study that compared cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression, which can be likened to deep and surface acting when experiencing negative emotions, reappraisal reduced the negative emotions one would encounter, while expressive suppression served to reduce negative emotions and physical cues of negative emotion. Those in this second category would see an impact on their brain activity (Goldin et al., 2008). These findings, in tandem, help to suggest that the strategy of emotional labor utilized will serve as a key determinant of the relationship between emotional labor and health and fitness (Grandey, 2000). As such, in an attempt to improve the workplace experience and well-being of customer service sector employees, this study focused on the mitigation of surface acting and examined a potential key moderator in the relationship between the probable association among surface acting and emotional exhaustion.

Surface Acting and Burnout

Within the literature, emotional exhaustion is a frequently hypothesized outcome as a result of emotional labor (Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Emotional exhaustion is an element of burnout, defined as being comprised of three dimensions including (1) an overwhelming exhaustion, (2) a feeling of detachment from a work

environment, and (3) a feeling of ineffectiveness or lack of success (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). The concept's three-pronged approach to the definition places the stress experience within the social arena, incorporating the idealization of oneself and others.

Numerous studies have consistently shown that surface acting, as opposed to deep acting, is more likely to lead to employees experiencing emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Morris & Feldman, 1997). This phenomenon is frequently attributed to the interplay between one's felt emotions and outwardly expressed emotions, a concept referred to as emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983). This emotional dissonance has been linked to various health issues over the years (Zapf, 2002). With surface acting, actors generally will not exert effort towards amending their internal affect but will take measures to moderate and change their outward expression of emotion, which causes emotional dissonance. This act will serve to either suppress negative emotions to meet a required effect or promote a positive outward display to meet the consumer's expectations. This is thought to be more strenuous than deep acting where one endeavors to change internal effects to align with work expectations by choreographing their thoughts or feelings to evoke the desired state. This orchestration of internal emotion will create congruence between felt and required emotion, which mitigates the need to concern oneself with display rules, in contrast to surface acting where emotional dissonance remains, creating a scene where a conflict between what is asked of the employee and what is genuine will continue to be demanding emotionally, which will lead to detrimental health outcomes (Johnson & Spector, 2007).

In a more significant indictment of its consequences, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) offer results that garner support for a disparity in the outcomes associated with the two emotional labor strategies of surface and deep acting. More explicitly, it was suggested that only surface

acting, not deep acting, was associated with all three factors of burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), a finding that was bolstered by Zammunier's and Galli's (2005) finding two of the indexes, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, carry a relationship with surface acting. Moreover, those who fabricated their emotions and impeded their felt emotion experienced more emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). These results carry practical implications that further the theory that surface acting is deleterious to one's personal well-being. Grandey (2003) expanded on this supposition by offering that surface acting may lead to adverse outcomes due to the need to expend energy on conforming to emotional display rules. Her findings showed that although surface acting and emotional exhaustion were shown to carry a relationship with one another, deep acting was negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion. Montogomery et al. (2006) bolstered these claims by establishing a relationship between surface acting and adverse health outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and psychosomatic complaints in a government organization; however, they found no such relationship with deep acting. These findings further the supposition that the need to conform to display rules by either suppressing negative emotions or promoting inauthentic positive ones through surface acting is correlated to burnout and its associated factors.

In examining burnout and emotional labor, Naring et al., (2006) studied teachers and concluded there to be a relationship between surface acting and the burnout factors of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Moreover, in reviewing the construct of personal accomplishment in relation to deep and surface acting, these researchers found a correlation between affecting congruence and personal accomplishment. This led to the conclusion that deep acting is not correlated to any of the burnout elements, however, does have a relationship with

personal accomplishment (Naring et al., 2006). This study asserts the original conceptualization offered by Hochschild (1983) that surface acting can come at the cost of personal negative health ailments once more.

In the research, while there have been a few studies linking deep acting to elements of burnout (Bono & Vey; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), the association has been particularly weak. Interestingly, within these studies the assertion of a strong relationship among surface acting and factors of burnout was consistent. However, a variety of other studies have found no such relationship between deep acting and burnout theoretically as a result of the lack of emotional dissonance experienced (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Grandey, 2003; Totterdell & Holman, 2002). This finding fortifies the conjecture that surface acting is the significantly more detrimental strategy within emotional labor. It is with this knowledge that this study focused on the act of surface acting and moderators which may serve to mitigate these adverse effects.

Burnout

Occurring when stress is left to fester uncontrolled, burnout goes beyond the general conceptualization of stress within a moment in time. Maslach et al. (2001) define burnout as a "prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job and is defined by three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy" (p. 397). As such, the implications resulting from burnout may be significant, particularly for service employees in roles requiring consistent interaction with customers. The consequences of burnout, such as physical health ailments and diminished professional efficacy are especially significant for service sector employees. When considering frontline service employees, poor encounters with customers will prompt burnout (Han et al., 2016) and the consequential deterioration in organizational outcomes

(Schilpzand et al., 2016; Yang & Lau, 2019). In such roles where interactions with the customer are frequent-to-incessant, employees experiencing burnout may exhibit these symptoms quickly and often. Moreover, in a service context where customer satisfaction is paramount, burnout consequences can have distinct and significant negative performance outcomes for the organization such as negative customer perceptions of service performance and outcomes (Nesher-Shoshan & Sonnentag, 2020).

Burnout at any level of the organization presents negative associations with a variety of business functions, such as culture or financial solvency. Accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic, burnout has become a top-of-mind challenge for leaders and employees alike. To date, a large proportion of the studies, definitions, and even the origin of the concept of burnout have emanated from the healthcare sector (Reith, 2018) and have been shown to carry negative consequences in service industries (Nesher-Shoshan & Sonnentag, 2020). Some causes of burnout could include intense work demands, lack of control, or meaningful work. Symptoms of burnout, however, are varied and can result in poor performance and physical ailments; however, individuals can prevent burnout with mindful intervention (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Burnout is particularly of concern in the service sector in which employees work on the front lines and are asked to meet work demands without the ability to control their required responses, two of the key causes of burnout. For example, an employee working in a retail setting does not have control over the need to keep the customer in a positive position; and with these demands, employees may move toward burnout more quickly. Some of the burnout outcomes, such as poor performance, can be detrimental to the organization's sales, particularly in a service sector where employee interactions can be key to the purchase decision. The forthcoming review of the

literature will explore elements of burnout and its mitigation through history, signs, consequences, and opportunities for prevention.

History of Burnout

Freudenberger, a psychologist, first diagnosed and defined the symptoms of burnout in 1974 (Reith, 2018). The initial notion was described as emotional fatigue, which was noted to be prevalent in health care workers, and the antecedent for the definition was interestingly due to the workload provided by health care volunteers within his facility. Coinciding with Freudenberger's conceptualization, Maslach (1976) identified the theory of burnout through interviews with several service workers (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Within its initial presentation, burnout was strictly minimized to a component of emotional exhaustion. It was only when the list of symptoms was expanded that the symptoms of cynicism and reduced effectiveness at work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) were included, and in the late 1980s, scholars and practitioners began to realize that burnout could span beyond healthcare workers and that the general workforce is susceptible (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

Causes of Burnout

The state of continual workplace stress, described by an inability to step away from work requirements, is the first key factor in burnout, with scholars acknowledging several different settings will influence the state (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Stress factors can also contribute to burnout, such as a lack of role clarity, low resources, and a misalignment between job requirements and outputs (Leiter et al., 2014). In addition to these elements, isolation and weak relationships over a long period (Rook et al., 2016) and a lack of workload control (Leiter et al., 2014) can also contribute to burnout. Next, there is a review of the aforementioned factors in brief.

For the purposes of this study, worker-and-task misalignment is the most salient of the causes of burnout. This state describes the mismatch between worker skills and task requirements (Leiter et al., 2014). For example, if an employee's role brings with it an expectation that a task be completed without the requisite training or abilities, burnout may result. Without the organization or employee becoming cognizant of this discrepancy and taking measures to mitigate it, the lack of success that follows will lead to unmet expectations and will despirit the employee, leading to burnout (Leiter et al., 2014). This scenario and cause are relevant to this study as it describes the possible confluence of factors between authentically felt and required emotions within the workplace. This relationship will be addressed more thoroughly later.

A lack of resources can also lead to burnout if job demands cannot be met. These demands refer to work that is to be accomplished within the scope of one's role. Leiter et al. (2014) offer that to sustain responsibilities within the workplace, employees must replenish both their emotional and physical reserves. Such continual pressure to access psychological and physical resources, without the opportunity to recharge, leads to burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). A lack of resources typically occurs as a result of demanding workloads (Maslach & Leiter, 2022), and meeting these requirements without access to rest and replenishment of resources can be debilitating and can lead to health impairments and burnout (Leiter et al., 2014).

Lack of clarity in role responsibilities at work can also cause burnout (Leiter et al., 2014). An unclear job role occurs when a worker does not have stated expectations, responsibilities, or outcomes, or is under a state of continual change, and those employees who experience a lack of clarity in their roles will experience burnout over time (Leiter et al., 2014). To overcome this potential outcome Maslach and Leiter (2022) teach that conversation between peers regarding

work expectations clarifies one's role(s). Isolation is also a cause of burnout, with researchers explaining that a strong community at work can keep employees from burnout; however, in isolation, employees can experience burnout. Leiter et al. (2014) opine that this isolation likely results from a dearth of manager support. As such, the prescription of strong community and manager support can serve to reduce isolation and subsequent burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2022). In a service sector where employees are interacting with the public consistently, isolation may not occur in terms of interactions with the consumer but could become prevalent if employees do not have relationships with others in similar roles to share their experiences.

Lastly, an employee can experience burnout as a result of a lack of control or autonomy in their workload (Leiter et al., 2014). Maslach and Leiter (2022) viewed freedom as a choice in how and when work is completed, and a rigid and unaccommodating work environment reduces control for the worker and creates an environment where there is a lack of autonomy and control. In a post-COVID-19 world, an example of a rigid working environment could be a company in which one individual makes all the decisions, leaving no agency for the other team members to be autonomous.

Burnout Symptoms

Frequent symptoms of burnout include emotional exhaustion, a dearth of professional productivity, and cynicism (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). When a position requires energy exertion above and beyond the cognitive or physical limits over time, individuals will experience emotional exhaustion (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). This is a state that goes beyond being tired after a long workday; it is a fully encompassing feeling of being drained. A lack of professional efficacy, or a lack of productivity, typically presents as missing deadlines and poor decision-making. When employees are missing professional efficacy, organizations could

experience directly negative performance outcomes in the aggregate. Finally, cynicism is viewed as a reduction of emotion towards work and can lead to isolation, and returning from this state can be challenging, if not impossible (Maslach et al., 2001). Similar to those experiencing a lack of productivity due to burnout, these employees may craft a negative view towards the organization or its goals, values, and culture, and cause potentially irreparable damage to interpersonal relationships within the workplace. Burnout is a complex phenomenon with three generalized symptoms that can cause widespread harm to an organization. Understanding these symptoms is crucial to recognizing and addressing burnout.

Consequences of Burnout

Burnout can create consequences for individuals in two related aspects. Chiefly, these outcomes can manifest themselves in terms of physical health ailments. Some of these include weight gain, depression, heart attack, stroke, high blood pressure, lung disease (Hakanen et al., 2008; Leiter et al., 2014; Toker et al., 2023; von Kanel et al., 2020;), insomnia, drug abuse, and resistance to spending time with loved ones (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). A majority of these studies utilized the Maslach Burnout Inventory to assess their levels of burnout (von Kanel et al., 2020). This measurement tool will be discussed more thoroughly in the methodology chapter.

When burnout occurs, oftentimes, symptoms of depression are to follow. Using the Maslach Burnout Inventory as a measurement tool, a study of university staff members found that those with high levels of burnout were also included in the category of those with high blood pressure or other chronic ailments (de Araujuo Leite et al., 2019). In considering North American nurses, a longitudinal study found a connection between burnout and depression, and it was concluded that burnout and depression frequently occur at the same time (Leiter et al.,

2014). The physical maladies of depression can present through physiological demonstrations like poor posture (Dehcheshmeh et al., 2023), which is associated with reduced cardiovascular function (Weissler et al., 1962), conveying the severity of this condition.

The second category in which the symptoms of burnout are manifested is within the factor of professional efficacy. This could include not meeting career goals, working with a role-skill mismatch, diminished personal workplace relationships, or facing professional discipline (Gentry & Shanock, 2008). In other words, employees who are burned out will likely perform poorly within the workplace, perhaps from work avoidance, adding to the myriad of contributors to the organization-wide influence of burnout that spans beyond the individual employee.

The consequences of burnout, such as physical health ailments and diminished professional efficacy are especially significant for service sector employees. In such roles in which interactions with the consumer are frequent-to-incessant, employees experiencing burnout may exhibit these symptoms without the ability to escape. Moreover, in a service context where customer satisfaction is paramount, burnout-induced workplace relationships and production may directly affect an organization's success. Hence, the outcomes of burnout reverberate distinctly within the service industry, where customer service quality and employee well-being are intimately linked.

Burnout Prevention

The many consequences of burnout have been provided previously in this chapter and should inform organizations' justification to address these underlying challenges through related practice. If burnout is present, however, organizations have every impetus to take measures to mitigate its presence, and symptoms, to minimize or cease its consequences. Both individuals

and organizations have strategies they can engage in to prevent and mitigate burnout (Leiter et al., 2014). These strategies will be provided in this section.

Individually, workers can engage in practices that help them manage stress and attempt to prevent burnout (Leiter, 2022). While some strategies may include relaxation practices to reduce stress or remove oneself from work (Leiter et al., 2014), another strategy is improving the construct of emotional intelligence, which is the ability to manage one's own emotions and to interpret and understand others in an effective way (Goleman, 2001). Several studies have shown an empirical link between emotional intelligence and its ability to reduce stress. Wiens (2016) illustrated that several factors that emotional intelligence features were found useful in managing stress through increased coping mechanisms and reappraisal of otherwise stressful stimuli, and that generally, emotional intelligence can help prevent burnout. Pierce (2019) reinforced this finding in a study on 50 professional leaders, finding that coaching and mentoring build emotional intelligence, which then reduces burnout through an improved ability to cope with stress. These findings are especially interesting given the present study and its endeavor to examine emotional intelligence as a moderator of burnout from surface acting.

However, scholars have come to a consensus that burnout reduction can occur in several ways (Leiter et al., 2014). Other strategies for mitigating burnout include mindfulness activities such as yoga, sleep, and exercise which have been shown to reduce stress (Leiter, 2022). Relatedly, as mentioned, psychological distancing from work can serve to help with the replenishment of the resource process (Leiter et al., 2014). Furthermore, these similar daily rituals can be unique and individualized for each worker and can be as simple as engaging in a personal activity after the workday (Bakker et al., 2014), such as playing sports or joining a club of interest, for example, playing cards. Mastery activities, like hobbies, result in this recharging

process, and heavy engagement in non-work tasks such as these may help prevent burnout (Leiter et al., 2014).

In addition to the personal steps that employees can take towards mitigating burnout, organizations also have strategies they can employ. For example, there are training programs that could include mindfulness, meditation, and yoga that help to prevent burnout (Leiter et al., 2014). Moreover, a study of nurses found that when nurses took time to practice meditation, it was shown to reduce burnout as well (Copeland, 2021). In general, employer-sponsored wellness initiatives that are offered as a part of fringe benefit packages have shown similar efficacy in reducing burnout (Leiter et al., 2014) and could include elements such as nutrition coaching or incentives to receive medical treatment.

Furthermore, in addition to hard or tangible strategies, other soft constructs such as coaching and mentoring programs have also been shown to assist with burnout, be it through formal or informal measures, since they allow mentors and mentees to invest time in others, which creates a supportive relationship to assist with coping mechanisms (Grant, 2017). Related to the aforementioned consequence of isolation, creating a sense of community at work is also an effective strategy for organizations (Maslach et al., 2001). The absence of such community, or relationships can lead to stress and subsequent burnout. These community aspects are described as those that focus on positive elements of the workplace, as opposed to negative ones (Leiter et al., 2014). Interestingly, leaders play an outsized role in the burnout process both for themselves and their team members, carrying tremendous influence on how the organization as a whole handles stress and burnout (Shanafelt & Noseworthy, 2017). This leads to the imperative to review leaders' relationship with burnout to anticipate challenges and headwinds within organizations' ranks. Relatedly, the relationship between an employee and their supervisor serves

as a key metric for burnout, with findings that supervisory support can reduce emotional exhaustion, one of the three elements of burnout (Leiter et al., 2014). It is through these many strategies that organizations can realize their imperative to not sit on the sidelines in the fight against burnout and open their eyes to their potential to contribute to the burnout mitigation strategy for employees at all levels through direct intervention. Baron and Kenny (1986) explain a moderating variable is useful to identify causal relationships that have inconclusive relationships among predictors and dependent variables. The moderator this researcher explored is known as emotional intelligence, which is one's ability to understand and regulate emotions (Grandey, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) measures the ability of individuals to perceive and understand emotions, both within themselves and in others through interpretation, and use this information to embark on the most effective action (Goleman, 2000). Emotions can comprise sentiments such as joy, hate, sadness, anger, and shame, which typically are felt strongly and result from one's circumstances, relationships, or mood. Emotional intelligence also focuses on an individual's personal and social competencies, in addition to mental elements, which inform individuals with emotionally-relevant knowledge and context for processing information (Goleman, 1995; Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1990, 1993). Emotional intelligence has gone through a transformation over time, with emotions beginning as an afterthought in the intelligence vernacular, only to become more prevalent and front-of-mind in recent years. In the subsequent section, this researcher will explain the history of the construct, discuss the variety of approaches scholars have taken to the construct, discuss outcomes, and then review its potential moderating role in the workplace.

History of Emotional Intelligence

The concept of emotional intelligence was conceptualized in the 20th century as a complement to the traditional intelligence quotient (IQ). With EI, what began to be considered were non-cognitive elements. Mayer and Salovey (1990) help to explain this phenomenon by stipulating that the assessment was made that people have different abilities that help to explain success in life, such as emotional abilities. The inclusion of emotions in the dialogue was prompted by Thorndike (1920) who proposed the theory of social intelligence through an assertion that there was more than one intelligence to be considered in determining one's intelligence that would traditionally be viewed through the lens of intelligence quotient (IQ) tests, which was a singular unit in measuring intelligence. He, therefore, proposed the theory of social intelligence and defined it as an individual's ability, or lack thereof, to discern others and to act intelligently in relation to them. Wechsler (1943) furthered the dialogue by suggesting that non-cognitive elements were critical to predicting success in life. Gardner (1983) then ripened the concept further by introducing multiple intelligence theory, which has been incorporated into present emotional intelligence literature through the inclusion of personal intelligence subtypes, such as interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, which are delineated by the ability to understand one's own emotions, and the other as an ability to discern others' emotions and act accordingly.

The term emotional intelligence was first featured in a dissertation by Payne (1986), who led the charge as a vocal contributor to the literature on including emotions in academia, much like other hard skills. This assertion resulted in large part from the psychological research that was being conducted at the time by Lazarus (1982) on the link between emotions and intelligence. Payne was measuring emotional intelligence from an organizational psychology

perspective to measure ability, as opposed to measuring emotional ability, specifically. This work laid the foundation for the first widely accepted definition of EI, which was offered by Salovey and Mayer (1990) as, "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). Initially concerned with a more limited scope of the ability to perceive and regulate emotion, rather than any thought work that goes into the construct, this definition was later defined into four related abilities and an updated definition as, the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; p. 10). This study followed the Mayer & Salovey approach to EI, which will be discussed further in later sections. Studies on leaders with emotionally intelligent leadership discovered increased employee engagement (Palmer & Gignac, 2012), satisfaction, and decreased turnover intention (Prentice, 2019), offering an impetus for its usage in the workplace.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Since the introduction of emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey (1990) there has been fierce debate over its definition. This debate is centered squarely on whether the construct is associated with social and emotional competencies (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995), described as specific skills or subsets of skills individuals possess, whereas others believe EI is tied to emotions and their relationship to emotions, (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), meaning the interaction between emotions and individuals, and how the relationship is controlled and maintained. The variety in definitions for EI has led to multiple definitions of emotional intelligence, and

ultimately, two groupings of emotional intelligence theories, ability models and mixed models (Mayer et al., 2000). These have been derived from the debate on whether the concept entails social and emotional competencies (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995) or emotions and their interactions with cognition (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). At present, there are three guiding models with different perspectives that fall into these two categories. This study features the ability model developed by Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Of the groupings, each of the three that are utilized in the literature carries a different frame of reference for the concept. The first model is Mayer's and Salovey's (1997) ability-based four-branch model, which views EI in the dimensions of perceiving, facilitating, and regulating emotions and represents the ability model. Next, the more popularized researcher of the grouping, Goleman (1995) offers his emotional competence model, which is flanked by Bar-On's (1997) model of emotional-social intelligence. Both of the latter two approaches are the designees for the mixed model approaches to emotional intelligence. This researcher will review each of these models in more depth in the subsequent sections and delineate between the perspectives in each of the models, offering the baseline theory and its associated measurement. In doing so, this researcher articulates the most appropriate framework to conduct this present study.

Mayer and Salovey's Four-Branch Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence.

Conceivably seen as the founders of the modern concept of emotional intelligence, Mayer and Salovey's four-brand ability model could be seen as the most influential presentation of emotional intelligence in its storied history (O'Connor et al., 2019). This approach to EI is the only one to distinguish the components of emotions from intelligence, all the while maintaining the concepts as connected (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Central to its approach is the idea that

individuals can greatly vary in their ability to comprehend and use their emotions to interact with others and come to solutions.

Mayer et al. (2008) offer that emotional intelligence rests on the capability to reason accurately with one's emotions, as well as the ability to leverage emotions and emotional knowledge to improve thought work and decision-making, implying that emotions can be used in support of performing well. The model features four components, or branches, of emotional intelligence. These four factors are germane in understanding the underlying ethos of emotional intelligence. Through this model, emotional intelligence is the ability to (1) perceive and appraise emotions, (2) use emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understand emotions, and (4) regulate one's emotions (Mayer et al., 2004). The four elements of the definition are arranged from the most basic to the most complex and involve a process that incorporates greater externalities. Apart from these branches, the theory asserts that as an individual grows, so do mental abilities, which can improve over time and with age (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), suggesting that emotional intelligence does not remain static, but rather can be bolstered through practice.

The first element of this model, the ability to perceive and appraise emotions, is the most basic of the four. This encompasses one's ability to acknowledge the emotions of others in their physical cues, such as facial expressions or posture, and includes facets such as voice pitch, overall emotion assessment, and evaluation of physical clues to the emotions of oneself, and others. Through the lens of understanding emotions, the ability to perceive emotions either through the face or inflection of others is but the starting point in the assessment of emotions, which is a key element within this model. Asking others how they are doing is a classic example of perceiving the emotions of others, along with asking oneself how a conversation partner's physical status conveys their present affect.

The second facet of the Mayer-Salovey (1990) model is the ability to use emotions as a way to facilitate thought. Put more plainly, this is the process of evaluating one's or others' emotions before giving them due deference and encapsulates the age-old adage of *think before you speak*. Moreover, this can be seen as a means to wield emotions to cultivate one's thought direction, such as recognizing the feeling of anger or frustration and calming oneself before interacting with others. This skill is especially helpful in the workplace as an individual will therefore be able to make better decisions by understanding the reactions of others and themselves. The thought process of electing between various emotions can serve to facilitate cognitive activities and encourage creativity (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). This construct extends to problem-solving, which could be theoretically enhanced by greater facilitation of thought activities, which will enable one to use emotional input as a guide in decision making.

Understanding one's and others' emotions is the third factor and involves the ability to be conscious of feelings and how they transfer from one individual or level to another. Comprehending emotion language or information and admiring the complex relationships between emotions can lead to the understanding of the information an individual is conveying (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). For example, an individual feeling anger may experience a sudden surge of frustration. This may be associated with heightened blood pressure or pulse, raising one's voice, or a desire to be confrontational. The ability to grasp the anger and its potential detrimental outcomes lies in the ability to discern the underlying impetus for the condition. This state can be produced by perceived injustice or violation of personal values; however, understanding this status informs the individual of the underlying condition and allows them to determine how best to respond, such as through direct confrontation or withdrawal. This

evaluation of the emotion's underlying meaning and subsequent decision-making is an essential element of emotional intelligence.

The fourth and final skill of the model is managing emotions, which is the most critical of the four for the purposes of this study, as well as the most complex. Those who master this element will be viewed as the most competent in EI. An example of one's management of emotions is an individual able to stay calm when angry or elated to not affect others and their emotional states (Mayer et al., 1999). As long as emotions are not too intense and can be managed by the individual, they should be able to enhance their personal and professional goals through effective management of their focus and attention. Mayer et al. (2000) also suggest mastery of this skill will aid in the ability to reduce anxiety in another person, which extends the concept beyond the intrapersonal, to the interpersonal, which amplifies its potential impact both personally and professionally.

While there are a variety of reliable measurement tools that align with this approach to emotional intelligence, there are two that are viewed most favorably. First is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) which was founded by Mayer et al. (2001). This tool utilizes a performance-based scale, such as emotional items, that carry incorrect and correct responses to examine the respondents' emotional abilities. What was once a 402-item scale has now been reduced to 141 over eight subscales (Version 2.0 of MSCEIT). The MSCEIT was created to "measure how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems" (p. 1) and was designed to measure the four branches of EI offered by Mayer and Salovey (1997). However, for the purpose of this study, a well-studied and highly-regarded self-report study was leveraged.

The trait meta-mood scale (TMMS) is one of the most widely used self-report measures of EI and was developed to assess an individual's perception of their own emotional intelligence competencies (Extremera & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005; Salovey et al., 1995). This scale taps into perceived emotional intelligence, which is the knowledge individuals have of their own emotional abilities rather than through other rater-perceived capacities (Mayer et al., 2000). The TMMS is a scale to assess the level of one's emotional attention or the perceived attention paid to one's emotional states, clarity, the perceived understanding of one's emotional states, and emotional repair, or the perceived ability to regulate one's emotional states (Extremera & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005), also aligning with the Mayer-Salovey four-branch model as a tool typically used in the ability model of EI consistent with Mayer and Salovey's theory (Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012). This method was utilized in the present study and described in greater detail in the methodology chapter.

Goleman Model of Emotional Intelligence

Perhaps the most well-known of the emotional intelligence scholars through his publication and popularization, Goleman's 1995 preeminent text was built on Mayer and Salovey's (1990) theory foundation. The teaching purported that emotional intelligence is as important, or even more important than traditional IQ, as an indicator of an individual's life and career success (Goleman, 1995). Goleman (1995) defined EI as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope" (p. 34). This definition demonstrates the associated psychological elements that Goleman interpreted EI to be based on. Following Goleman's publication, emotional intelligence rose in popularity, particularly in the occupational setting through features in trade journals such

as the Harvard Business Review (Goleman 2000, 2013), and greater attention was given to ways for individuals to improve their emotional intelligence.

While most trait theories have been fairly static in their presentation and implementation in that they remain the same over time and are unable to be improved, Goleman initially saw emotional intelligence as a set of personal and social competencies. In its broadest and most initial presentation from Goleman (1995), the former includes self-awareness, confidence, self-regulation, conscientiousness, and motivation, while the latter includes empathy and social skills such as communication or change management.

The first personal competency initially provided by Goleman (1995), self-awareness, is the capacity to comprehend one's own emotions and awareness of their impact on performance and interpersonal relationships. Next, confidence is characterized by the self-efficacy one has in their abilities, and whether one trusts themselves to accomplish set goals. Self-regulation includes the ability to control unwelcomed emotions and urges, for example, anger or sadness as needed. Conscientiousness is being able to direct oneself and one's responsibilities. Finally, motivation would be personified by an internal and consistent focus on improvement, achievement, initiative, and activation to act on opportunities, positivity, and resiliency (Goleman, 1995).

Within the social competencies of empathy and social skills, empathy is far more straightforward. This construct is highlighted as the skill of interpreting others' emotions, appreciating their perspective, and undertaking a vested interest in their concerns. Empathy has become a common term in the leadership vernacular and has been offered as a factor to other leadership types, including servant leadership (Spears, 2002). Social skills can be seen as far more vague and were ultimately categorized by Goleman (2000) as an entire disparate capability

of emotional intelligence that would include communication and change management, but which has been expanded to include developing others, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration.

Over time, Goleman (1998) has modified his categorization of emotional labor to include four capabilities, as opposed to the initial six. First, self-awareness, which is a holdover from his introduction of the topic, is compartmentalized more specifically as emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Practitioners can glean that the inclusion of self-confidence, a previously separate factor, in the more updated exhibition begins the consolidation of categories. Second, self-management can be likened to the initial prescription of self-awareness and includes self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, which was initially its subset, adaptability, as well as achievement orientation, and initiative, which can both be likened to the motivation characteristic from the initial portrayal (Goleman, 1998).

Third, a new introduction of social awareness was offered, which would present organizational awareness, service orientation, and previously delineated empathy, a subset of social skills. Goleman (2013) goes on to explain the three disparate types of empathy, seeing this construct as a key catalyst for effective emotional intelligence efficacy. Cognitive empathy is the ability to recognize another person's perspective. Emotional empathy is the capacity to sense what someone else feels. Empathic concern allows individuals to describe themselves in a meaningful way while being able to understand what another individual requires of them (Goleman, 2013). Lastly, Goleman (2013) remains steadfast in his display of social skill as the fourth factor to emotional intelligence, and includes visionary leadership, influence, developing others, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and training and collaboration.

Once the groundwork had been laid by Goleman (2000) to discern the varying characteristics of emotional intelligence, he then outlined six styles of leadership that use different components. Some styles have a positive impact on morale, while others bring negative repercussions. Regardless of its impact on emotions, each style of leadership has its unique benefits that can be prescribed to varying scenarios for positive outcomes.

The first style of leadership is coercive, by which managers would demand immediate compliance with directives. These leaders typically have a negative outcome on their employees' emotions, though the coercive style could be the best approach when an organization requires a leader who must cease a problem and become the change agent for turnaround efforts. Those displaying this type of leadership would be classified as possessing a drive to achieve, initiative, and self-control. Second, the authoritative leadership style moves people towards a common goal and is best in organizations where change is required, such as a new vision, or when a clear direction is needed. Authoritative leaders improve the climate of their workplace and are exhibited in leaders with the emotional intelligence-related traits of confidence, empathy, and being a change catalyst, a subset of social skills. Affiliative leaders forge affective bonds with others and have a positive impact on their environment. They are best suited to heal interpersonal dissonance or to encourage people in trying times. Those who display empathy and the social skills of building relationships and communication would fall under this categorization (Goleman, 2000).

Those displaying democratic leadership forge decision-making processes through collaboration and consensus. Demonstrated by those with effective skills in collaboration, team leadership, and communication, democratic leaders have a positive impact on morale, and their best use cases are when obtaining buy-in is imperative, a consensus is needed, or to obtain

feedback from valuable team members. Pacesetters harm their environment and are categorized by high benchmarking and performance standards. These individuals typically have a strong drive to achieve and initiative, but also are conscientious. Pacesetters are best for quick results within a highly proficient and goal-oriented team. Lastly, the coaching style places a priority on developing people for the future. Coaches positively influence their teams' morale and are personified through leaders' abilities to develop others, empathy, and self-awareness. These types of leaders are best used to aid an individual in outcome improvement or to develop long-term strengths (Goleman, 2000). Goleman (2000) provides these six styles of leadership for practitioners to be able to match their skills to the most applicable and responsible approach to their surroundings.

The emotional competence inventory (ECI) is a multi-rater 360-degree tool to measure the emotional competencies of a person through the facilitation of a group of raters to offer accurate feedback from their experience knowing and working with the individual being assessed. This measurement tool is based on Goleman's (1995) work and assesses the four emotional competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. However, in alignment with Goleman's teachings, this methodology carries a number of limitations. Chiefly, the panel-style evaluation is susceptible to bias as it relies heavily on the rater's ability to evaluate the respondent's emotional intelligence accurately and appropriately. More explicitly, these evaluations could preclude significant details that the evaluators do not know about the individual they are evaluating or have not yet had an opportunity to experience. Moreover, the instrument shows that its efficacy is only moderately correlated with the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBPI) test, which is a Type A/B personality measure, the Managerial Style Inventory, and the Organizational Climate Survey (Goleman et al., 2002).

Presently, little evidence exists to support the reliability and validity of this tool as a measurement tool for emotional intelligence.

Bar-On Emotional-Social Intelligence Model

Similar to Goleman's (1995) model, Reuven Bar-On's (1997) model is also viewed as a mixed model of emotional intelligence and takes into consideration a variety of personality constructs, in addition to social competencies. Bar-On (1997) illustrates emotional intelligence as a combination of non-cognitive, affective competencies and skills that dictate one's ability to flourish when experiencing environmental requirements and constraints.

The conceptualization of EI envisions what comprises emotionally and socially competent individuals. According to Bar-On (1997), the model is the most prescriptive of the three and features five separate competencies that together serve to craft the most proficient and emotionally intelligent individual possible. First, emotionally and socially competent individuals have the intrapersonal ability, or the ability to self-regard, carry self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, or self-actualization, Next, they possess interpersonal ability which encapsulates empathy, social reliability, interpersonal relationships, and self-regard. Third, competent individuals have adaptability, featuring flexibility, and problem-solving. Optimism and happiness are categorized as a general mood as the fourth component of the model, while lastly, stress management or stress tolerance and impulse control, similar to the concept of cognitive control (Ochsner & Gross, 2005) round out the core features.

The first to use the term emotional quotient, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), now available in version 2.0, was developed by Bar-On (2006) and was the first tool to be published by a psychological test publisher (Bar-On, 1997). Presently, EQ-I is a widely utilized psychometric instrument of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 2006) and was initially

developed to measure the various elements of Bar-On's model. Bar-On's (1997) desire to answer why some people are more psychologically fit than others was predicated on his clinical psychology background and desire to discern why some succeed in life when compared to others. This consideration is what drew him to creating the EQ-i. The EQ-i is dissimilar to self-report instruments such as the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, and evaluates the basis of a clinical approach that reviews personal qualities that allow people to have better well-being than others, as opposed to more occupational-based settings (Cherniss, 2000). The self-report measure bears 133 questions that evaluate behavioral and social behavior among five scales and fifteen subscales which correspond with Bar-On's model (1997). The five scales include (1) intrapersonal, which includes self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization, (2) interpersonal, comprised of empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship (3) stress management, including stress tolerance and impulse control, (4) adaptability, comprising reality-testing, flexibility, and problem-solving (5) and general mood, incorporating optimism and happiness (Bar-On, 1997). This tool could be seen as an alternative to emotional intelligence evaluation (Wong & Law, 2002), however, it was not used in this study. Next, the outcomes of emotional intelligence competency, or lack thereof will be described.

Benefits & Limitations of Emotional Intelligence

The literature on emotional intelligence prescribes a variety of benefits to those who achieve competency in the construct. Chiefly, leadership is one of the factors that emotional intelligence predicts and emphasizes. In leadership, one is required to be adaptable to the demands of their role(s) and the directions they are pulled in (Kannaiah & Shanthi, 2015). Studies have found that EI is critical to job performance, interpersonal connection, and

improving health and well-being. Moreover, the constructs and elements of EI such as empathy and relationship building are key for effective leadership (Thakrar, 2018).

Moreover, emotional intelligence carries a significant effect on job satisfaction, and through increased adaptation, can create more productive behavior in the workplace. More specifically, EI can serve to furnish one's emotions with the ability to create and maintain positive and helpful relationships that result in increased job satisfaction (Miao et al. 2016; Stoyanova-Bozhkova et al., 2022). Positive climates provide motivation and productivity for employees (Marsland et al., 1999). As such, when skills are tied directly to work, such can influence job satisfaction. Other studies have concluded that emotional intelligence could be associated with higher levels of motivation in leaders and their followers (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Stoyanova-Bozhkova et al., 2022), greater supervisor effectiveness (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), academic performance (MaCann et al., 2020), increased staff satisfaction, and overall business productivity (Stoyanova-Bozhkova et al., 2022; Wong & Law, 2002), organizational commitment (Palmer & Gignac, 2012; Wong & Law, 2002), creativity and affect (Ivcevic et al., 2021), and reduced turnover intentions (Miao et al., 2016). These numerous organizational and professional-related outcomes underscore the importance of emotional intelligence.

There are also physiological benefits to emotional intelligence as well. Through a meta-analysis of 7,898 participants, Chiefly and Jain (2018) found a relationship between the construct and improved mental well-being. Schutte et al. (2007) further illustrated an association between EI, mental health, psychosomatic health, and physical health through the use of the EQ-i scale (Bar-On, 2000). Years later, Martins et al. (2010) expanded on this research, including studies published after Schutte et al.'s (2007) work, and non-English studies which expanded the study to 19,815 participants. The researchers found global support of the previous findings that

EI was strongly associated with physical health, mental health, and psychosomatic health, and formulated encouraging plausibility of emotional intelligence as a health predictor. In recent years, greater attention has been given to health that cannot be seen, such as mental disorders. Zhang et al. (2022) conducted a meta-analysis to review EI's relationship to eating disorders and found that higher levels of emotional intelligence in individuals were negatively associated with occurrences of eating disorders. These findings propose the existence of noticeable mental health advantages related to emotional intelligence, beyond previous assumptions. These results may suggest a possible inter-generational effect, where parental EI may result in improved mental health in their children (Gonzalez et al., 2021). Moreover, Wapano's (2021) research reinforces the importance of emotional intelligence by uncovering its correlation with reduced anxiety, depression, and reactivity in adolescents. The consistency found across this diverse research underpins the applicability of findings across different age groups and emphasizes the potential for wide-ranging benefits.

However, while many scholars assert the many potential benefits resulting from emotional intelligence, there is a segment of researchers who bring criticisms concerning possible benefits of EI. Chiefly, the criticisms have been focused on ability-based and mixed models of emotional intelligence, pointing out the inconclusive evidence of its prediction of performance (Bass 2008; Blank, 2008; Cherniss, 2010; Zeidner et al., 2004). Scholars have refuted these claims, pointing to the fact that mixed model approaches, such as Goleman's are significantly disparate from ability-based models (Mayer et al., 2000). Furthermore, these researchers assert that the inclusion of other factors like behaviors and personality dilute the original scientific rigor of emotional intelligence, claiming that these non-cognitive elements explain the variance (Mayer et al., 2003), which is supported by research that shows overlap

between mixed models of EI and personality through the Big Five personality model (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003). These mixed findings may draw inclusivity for the construct's ability to predict performance, however, this does not diminish its potential moderating effects for the purposes of this study.

Goleman, naturally disagreed with the notions of EI's criticisms, suggesting that his research was intended to explore emotional intelligence as a conceptualization, rather than to systematically articulate it (Cherniss et al., 2001). Goleman goes on to argue the model he crafted is a good example of an ability-based model; but despite this assertion, is refuted even by his colleague, with Cherniss (2010) sorting the presentation into a mixed-model definition. The confusion of definitions and the contradictions it creates, even between supporters of the construct, led researchers to suggest that the two models, skill and ability-based, may measure disparate constructs (Van Rooy et al., 2005). However, these scholars were intentional to point out that this assertion should not detract from the utility or value of either stream of research. Methodologies based on both models of emotional intelligence have seen acceptable levels of validity and reliability for important factors such as job success, and thus, both approaches could be practical and functional, depending on the situation.

Emotional Intelligence as a Moderator

Individually, emotional labor and emotional intelligence offer a unique perspective and model useful in workplace engagement, and present a framework for interpreting the interactions, consequences, and outcomes of their existence. When considered in tandem, one can recognize the relationship between emotional labor and employee outcomes, and the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the workplace. When a large part of the organization's success is determined by customer interactions, display rules are established to

govern the relationship and maintain quality. Thus, the ability of an employee engaging in emotional labor to perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage their and others' emotions when engaging with them could theoretically be driven by their level of emotional intelligence.

Grandey (2000) suggested that emotional intelligence may influence whether one will utilize surface or deep acting or even moderate the outcomes. Next, Brotheridge (2006b) illustrated a positive relationship between EI and deep acting such that higher levels of emotional intelligence led to a higher frequency of deep acting because these individuals perceive how to utilize their emotions in response to situational demands. Daus et al., (2004) went further in finding a relationship between emotional labor strategies and emotional intelligence. Moreover, all four branches of emotional intelligence were associated with deep acting, while surface acting was associated with but one branch, which was understanding emotions. Possessing high levels of emotional intelligence carries the ability to make use of their ability to regulate workplace emotions. Seminal researchers have asserted that limited work has been conducted focused on moderators of the relationship between emotional labor strategies and well-being, and go so far as to suggest investigating such moderators (Bono & Vey, 2005; Grancey, 2000; Johnson & Spector, 2007). Once the relationship between surface acting and negative outcomes had been established, scholars called for means to mitigate such effects. While there has been research completed on emotional intelligence and its relationship to life success (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), few studies have been conducted in the workplace setting and considering job outcomes.

There is no shortage of support for emotional intelligence in the domain of emotional labor, particularly in workplace positions that create an imperative to interact with the public (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). In one such examination, Totterdell and Holman (2003) found positive associations between customer service clerks' levels of emotional intelligence and their

ability to control positive emotions. In a similar field, Giardini and Freese (2006) studied emotional competence, defined as an ability to reduce the negative effects of those who engage in emotional work, and found that this constructs moderate relationships between work rules, emotional dissonance, and outcome variables in the workplace.

Other studies have been conducted to examine the role of emotional intelligence in surface acting more explicitly. Prati et al. (2009) found that increased levels of emotional intelligence resulted in a depressed relationship between surface-acting strain. Moreover, the authors found when EI was high, it would mitigate the relationship between surface acting and depressed mood at work. Conversely, Johnson and Spector (2007) had inconclusive results when determining if emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between emotional labor strategies and life outcomes. In a recent meta-analysis, Miao et al. (2019) found mixed results for the moderating effects of EI on emotional labor and job satisfaction, while Nauman et al. (2019) were able to illustrate through the lens of the conservation of resource theory, indicating a negative relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction when EI was low, and a positive relationship when EI was high. In studies of Chinese and South Korean public service employees, scholars revealed that the emotional dimension of self-regulation was the sole critical mediating variable in the EI and emotional labor relationship (Lu et al., 2020), whereas a similar study of South Korean public service employees found only a relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction (Lee, 2021). These conflicting and current findings only further the need for future research in these domains.

Theoretically, individuals with greater aptitude in emotional intelligence will be better able to perceive and regulate emotions in themselves and others. Salovey and Mayer (1990) offer that highly emotionally intelligent individuals are better equipped to use their emotions to

motivate their behaviors. Therefore, those with this skill should be able to leverage their strengths when engaging in emotional labor. In this way, it is possible that emotional intelligence can moderate the adverse relationship between surface acting and burnout since practitioners in the workplace can better discern their surroundings and self to mitigate the usage and impact of surface acting. The literature has inclusive and mixed empirical findings that this research intended to help reconcile.

Conclusion

It is essential to realize that emotional labor is a significant and ever-evolving element within service industries and is especially relevant during seasonal peaks. Service employees are frequently placed in situations in which they are tasked with navigating complex emotional displays and work rules, including managing consumer interaction and balancing those exchanges with display rules set forth by their employer. Such requirements can strain one's emotional resources over time and contribute toward the development of burnout as an outcome.

Emotional labor, as conceptualized by Hochschild (1983), is integral to the service industry and their roles related to interfacing with customers. Whether it is cordial hellos by greeters and check-in staff at an adventure park, the empathetic responses of healthcare employees, or patience demonstrated by retail employees, the requirement to regulate emotions to meet company expectations for these interactions is undeniable and pervasive. In the seasonal service industry, this element of work takes on increased importance as staff frequently confront heightened pressure and greater interactions during the peak season. While critical to maintaining consumer happiness and organizational efficacy in the service industry, these interactions take a toll on employees.

Burnout is a term used to illustrate the mental, emotional, and even physical exhaustion that results from never-relenting workplace stress (Maslach et al., 2001). Burnout is a well-researched concept in a variety of professions and the relationship between burnout and emotional labor has been reviewed extensively (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Seasonal team members who experience noticeable and frequent fluctuations in work demands are particularly susceptible to burnout during times of peak business. Burnout not only influences an employee's ability to maintain their well-being, it can also have larger organizational consequences such as greater turnover rates (Cropanzano et al., 2003) or reduced consumer satisfaction (Nesher-Shoshan & Sonnentag, 2020).

Emotional intelligence emerges as a key element in this context by equipping individuals with the ability to understand, regulate, and leverage emotions effectively (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Encompassing self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 1995), this construct is valuable in navigating emotional interactions and regulation in the service industry. With these abilities, being faced with the requirement to surface act, emotional intelligence could serve as protection for employees to maintain their well-being and job satisfaction, and mitigate the possibility of burnout. Moreover, the added element of leadership must be considered. Leaders play a key role in shaping their teams and the climate within the organization. Potentially possessing greater levels of emotional intelligence, leaders may enhance their abilities to buffer themselves from the adverse outcomes of surface acting. Employees who feel understood and supported by their leaders have been shown to be less likely to experience burnout, even when being placed in an emotionally demanding workplace (Cherniss et al., 2001), which may be the case if supervisors are predisposed to a weaker relationship with burnout from surface acting.

This study aimed to discern the dynamics of the relationship between these variables to offer practical and attributable insights and solutions to organizations and leaders alike who are hoping to increase the well-being and performance of their employees and organizations in general. Examining how emotional labor, emotional intelligence, and other factors influence one another towards the presence and propensities to experience burnout within the service sector, this study adds to the literature pertaining to understanding the dynamic and ever-changing workplace environment of customer service organizations.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

Introduction

The intent of this chapter is to describe the methodology employed in answering the research questions. Its contents begin with a discussion of the purpose of the study, followed by the research design. Thereafter, the characteristics of the research plan, site, population, and sample will be discussed, which is then followed by the data collection and analysis section. The role of the researcher, study timeline, validity, and triangulations and limitations are also discussed. The conclusion of the chapter will precede the results of the study and forecast expected findings.

Research Purpose

As delineated by Hochschild (1983) and Grandey (2000), the display rules of an organization are part of the roles and responsibilities of employees and are reinforced through the perception of the organization (Totterdale & Holman, 2003). This reality causes acting, which causes negative effects both inside and outside the workplace (Kinman, 2007; Kuok et al., 2022), can continue throughout the day (Lan et al., 2022), and contribute to emotional exhaustion, job dissatisfaction, and disengagement (Bono & Vey, 2005). Johnson and Spector (2007) note that little work has been completed on moderators on the relationship between emotional labor and well-being. Therefore, the preeminent objective of the study was to discern the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and its relationship to emotional intelligence as a moderator in levels of burnout among a sample of seasonal service industry employees.

The second objective of this study was to examine the relationship between leaders, work experience, and this relationship between surface acting and burnout. Conceptually, the

constructs of emotional intelligence consisting of self-awareness, emotional management, empathy, and relationship building (Goleman, 1995), should serve to help individuals and leaders better understand, regulate, and engage with their emotions (Härtel et al., 2005). As a result, EI can potentially moderate the negative effects of emotional labor, preventing or mitigating resulting exhaustion.

Research Design

The research was conducted using a quantitative approach, aligning with the predominant methodology in the social sciences (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The primary aim of this approach is to produce quantifiable and reliable data for subsequent validation. The study design was correlational, which can review the extent of differences in one variable or characteristic and how it is related to differences in one or more other variables or characteristics (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). Lending itself to the goal of comparing the relationship between surface acting and the outcome of burnout, as well as conceptualizing if one's emotional intelligence levels moderate the relationship, the correlational approach was utilized, allowing for the exploration of relationships between variables. Within this framework of correlation analysis, a moderator is a third variable that affects the relationship between two others (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For this study's purposes, if emotional intelligence levels change the relationship between surface acting and burnout, then a moderating relationship would be said to exist. As such, if there is such a hypothesized relationship, emotional intelligence will serve to either minimize or pronounce the relationship between surface acting and burnout. Since this study aimed to examine existing relationships and potential moderating effects, the design did not involve experimental manipulation (Creswell, 2017).

Nature of Methodology

Correlational research endeavors to discern the relationship between variables or characteristics. Its strength lies in its ability to make forecasts about future events or outcomes. Moreover, this approach can serve to develop or uncover future questions that researchers would like to investigate including cause-and-effect relationships through after-the-fact causal-comparative studies. Correlational research does feature limitations, such that causal relationships cannot be inferred (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Since the subjects who participated in this study were not arbitrarily assigned treatment conditions, this approach did not offer the best support towards causal relationships, which may weaken some of its internal validity. External validity can also be threatened in this type of research. This weakness can be mitigated, however, by the reproduction of the study or similar studies in related industries and service employee roles with different participants, which will serve to increase external validity.

Research Plan

Target Population

Since a tourist's experience is closely related to employee performance (Lundberg et al., 2009), the study's target population included front-facing customer service employees employed in seasonal positions in aerial adventure and zipline parks within the United States. An aerial adventure park is categorized as a ropes course suspended 10 - 50 feet in the trees where climbers traverse obstacles, intermixed with zip lines, all proactively observed for safety by what are referred to as park monitors (monitors). Park monitors fill a number of roles, none of which are less important than providing groups of climbers with 10 - 15-minute safety orientations describing the operations of the park, safety equipment, and harnesses. These individuals also monitor climbers throughout their time at the park, assisting where needed within the trees

themselves when climbers need aid with their equipment or are too tired or unable to continue on their selected course. These positions can be physically demanding and strenuous psychologically when working with guests who are nervous about the height or having trouble or are frustrated with their equipment. Generally, the interactions they have with climbers are pleasant but can be categorized as critical to the safety of the climber, with errors potentially causing harm to the consumer. The nature of the work of these employees featured the frequent use of emotional labor due to their consistent interaction with the consumer, whether it be in the check-in area or on the course. A smaller sampling strategy was decided upon, focusing on nine adventure parks within the United States.

Selection and Description of Site

Selection was based on a convenience-based method, with a variety of sites contacted, and the nine electing to participate with their employees. Three of the sites were based in Michigan, one was in Illinois, another in the Chicago, Illinois area, as well as two in the State of Washington, and one each in New York and Massachusetts near New York City and Boston respectively. The parks utilized have a wide disparity in visitors, hosting from 15,000 - to 100,000 guests annually in each park, and include the ropes courses, check-in areas, restrooms, and light food and beverage options.

Tourism is traditionally seasonal in nature with peaks and valleys in demand occurring throughout the year. The parks that are utilized in this study operate from April through October, generally, and demand increases significantly during the summer period with schools being out of session and good weather. This particular industry carries with it an expensive price tag on an hourly basis for the customer, with tickets costing approximately USD $60 per three-hour session, which creates high expectations for their climb. As large operators, some companies

must interact with the climbers' high expectations virtually in remote call center positions, in addition to the in-person dialogue that takes place during climbing visits. The parks that were surveyed within this study had high average Google reviews, with the lower average scores still being above 4.5 on a 5-point scale, suggesting that customers leave generally pleased with their experiences on-site. A challenging and delicate balance that must be made is relative to a consumer's concern, contrasted to the paramount emphasis placed on the safety of both employees and guests who may not be as familiar with the needed elements of the operations and only view their problem as operating in a closed-loop environment.

The first of the sites was TreeRunner Adventure Parks. TreeRunner operates aerial adventure parks in two states, Michigan and North Carolina. There are two sites in the Metropolitan Detroit area, one in Grand Rapids, Michigan, and one location in Raleigh, North Carolina. Their Michigan parks operate from approximately late March to early November, while the North Carolina location maintains operations from mid-February to mid-December. Parks cater to groups during the weekdays in the school year and are open on the weekends for general admission. During the summer, the parks operate six or seven days a week for general admission. Each of the parks features aerial adventure courses, two of the locations feature a gem mining additive and junior park for younger climbers, while one of the parks features an 18-hole miniature golf course. During the summer, the three Michigan parks feature a drop-off summer program, likened to a day camp. None of the four parks feature extensive food and beverage options, however, they do all have a retail area adjacent to the check-in facility.

The second participating organization within the study was Boundless Adventures (Boundless) with three parks in Purchase, New York near New York City, Berlin, Massachusetts, near Boston, and Kenosha, Wisconsin, the mid-point between Chicago and Milwaukee.

Boundless parks feature aerial adventure parks, while the Purchase, New York park maintains a junior park, and the Kenosha location has axe throwing available for rental. All the parks offer a summer day camp for climbers during the weekdays. Similar to TreeRunner, during the operating school year, these parks are open for general admission on the weekends and open for groups on school days. During the summer these parks are also open six or seven days a week. None of these locations carry significant food and beverage offerings, however, there are retail areas for purchasing light snacks.

The third of the organizations to take part in the survey dissemination was High Trek Adventures. High Trek has two parks in the state of Washington, with one in Everett, near Seattle, and the other in the vacation area of Chelan. These parks both feature ropes courses like the first two, but also feature a myriad of other offerings, such as laser tag, axe throwing, miniature golf, a climbing wall, and gelly ball. The facilities all feature youth camps and cater to groups with a good number of add-ons, such as tent rentals. Their Everett Park is open close to year-round with closures during the months of January and February, while their Chelan Park operates from late March through October. Neither of the locations has significant food and beverage offerings and both are adjacent to areas of public consumption, such as a park, or water park.

Selection and Description of Population -

The target population for this study included seasonal employees who were employed at aerial adventure parks during the summer season in the United States and worked with customers on a regular basis. Due to the nature of their work, these team members working in parks perform emotional labor consistently while they engage with the consumer. There are between 200 and 450 aerial adventure parks in the United States (O'Neil, 2022).

As a result of its seasonality, the typical demographic for the employees of such an organization is college-aged individuals. The outcome of this reality is many of the employees are well-educated, however, not experienced professionally.

Selection and Description of Sample -

At the onset of the study, the researcher reached out to approximately seven aerial adventure parks operators with invitations to participate in the study, and of those, three organizations elected to take part. For those who were involved in the study, each park's manager disseminated the surveys to their staff via email requesting their involvement. Once received, the employees were asked to respond to the survey directly via hyperlink to maintain their anonymity. Approximately 300 employees were asked to take part in the survey, which was by the total number of staff members employed at the participating companies. The methodology used convenience sampling as all members of the associated organizations were asked to participate. While not all the organizations within the aerial adventure park industry agreed to participate in the study, the three that did were some of the larger entities in the space.

To be included in this study participants had to be employed by one of the nine aerial adventure parks. To determine eligibility to be included in the final study, the participants must be active or recently departed employees within the preceding month, and in good standing of the aerial adventure parks. An exclusion question was asked within the survey to ensure all respondents fit this criterion, which can be found in Appendix A.

Data Collection

Data collection for this research was web-based, utilizing an online web survey through Qualtrics. Qualtrics is a preeminent survey creation and implementation website for students and researchers that combines standard survey controls with security policies and procedures. The

survey was disseminated by the leaders of each park via email in an introductory email that included the request and hyperlink. The process to complete the survey was delineated and described in the email correspondence.

Once the Institutional Review Board at Anderson University approved the research (approval number: AU202308IRB), initial steps were undertaken to prepare the research. The first stage of this process was to draw a sample of participants to participate in the survey. The sample in this study were customer-facing employees employed by a group of summer aerial adventure and zipline parks throughout the United States. The invitation letter was created by the author and delivered via email to each employer's designee who then sent out the email to the potential participants from the population segment to invite them to engage in the study to maintain anonymity. Those who were interested in taking part were asked to click on a link provided in their message or copy and paste the hyperlink into their web browser to reach the Qualtrics survey.

Once the survey was accessed, the respondent was presented with a consent form that was electronically displayed for their review. The form provided the purpose and nature of the study before being granted access to the questionnaires, and the form included the rights of a participant, including their right to refuse to complete the survey, offered information on their participation in the survey, any potential harmful associated risks it may cause, and assured anonymity of responses. Once complete, the continue button served as an acknowledgment of consent to participate. Subsequently, they were asked to complete three surveys to measure their levels of burnout, frequency of occurrence and intensity of surface acting, and an assessment of their emotional intelligence. The survey concluded by asking a few questions to the respondents to ensure they met the criteria for the study and the identification of potential secondary

moderating variables. Within these concluding questions there was an optional email entry to win a raffle for a $50 gift card. To maintain anonymity, the raffle encouraged the use of a fake email address or an email belonging to one of their friends. Once the survey was completed, the respondents received a notice that they had concluded the questions. At the conclusion of the survey, all the data that was collected was exported to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 29 for data analysis.

As indicated previously, this survey was entirely anonymous. To ensure anonymity, the records were kept confidential and carried no personally identifiable information whatsoever, other than the optional email to enter the gift card drawing. Specifically, the participants were not asked to provide their names on any of the materials and their data cannot be traced to them; as such, even the researcher could not identify responses to respondents and their responses. The participants were told that the study's results could be published, but their responses would be viewed only as aggregate data, and as such, even published outcomes would not include any personal information or responses. Only the researcher has access to the data, which will be expunged seven years after the collection.

Instruments

Emotional Labor Scale (ELS)

Grandey (2000) suggested that measuring emotional labor in terms of surface and deep acting is helpful if the goal is to understand individual outcomes from each approach. The surface and deep-acting subscales of the ELS are used to measure the emotional labor utilized by respondents when they are managing emotions while at work (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998). The survey was created by selecting items through a review of the emotional labor literature and

focused on the concept of regulating emotions through hiding feelings, faking emotions, or modifying emotions to conform to work rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

The survey began by asking only two non-five-point Likert response questions, determining how frequently and to what extent the individual interacts with customers. Then, they were asked how they typically felt when interacting with customers and responded to a series of questions with a Likert-style response scale (1 = never, 5 = always) that measures their frequency, intensity, and variety of emotional labor, then concluding with questions centered around surface and deep acting explicitly. There were a total of 14 questions, and the two subscales demonstrated internal consistency, as indicated by Cronbach's *a* (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). There were three questions in the deep acting subscale that reviewed how often an employee had to modify feelings to comply with display rules ($a = 0.82$), while the surface acting questions also feature three questions that indicated the intensity to which employees conveyed emotions that were not felt and the suppression of feelings that contradict display rules ($a = 0.83$). Once the study was completed, the scores for the items that corresponded to each subscale were summed separately, not as an aggregate, which was then utilized to create an average for each scale based on the number of items in each subscale across the respondents. In this scenario, the maximum score for either surface or deep acting was 5, and on average, conveys how often the respondents would engage in each component. The variable coding for this data can be found in Appendix A.

Burnout

Maslach and Jackson (1981) introduced the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), which was created as a self-report tool to evaluate one's perceived levels of three different affective dimensions of burnout, which includes three elements, including a sense of emotional

exhaustion, depersonalization, and a lack of effectiveness or personal accomplishment related to one's work role or interactions with others within the workplace. Within this study, the 22-item MBI survey was utilized. Utilizing a 7-point Likert Sale (0 = never, 6 = every day) the tool measured feelings of being emotionally overworked or exhausted by work requirements or requests. The sum of these responses is given a total burnout score.

The three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory are the three components are exhaustion, depersonalization or loss of empathy, and personal accomplishment. Each of these three corresponded to non-consecutive questions within the measurement tool. Over the course of nine questions related to occupational exhaustion, the scores of participants in the high, moderate, and low degree of inclusion ranges were 30+, 18 - 29, and 0 - 17 respectively. Relative to depersonalization, which is related to five questions, the scores of respondents in the high, moderate, and low degree of inclusion ranges were 12+, 6 - 11, and 0 - 5 respectively. Lastly, eight questions related to personal accomplishment, and the scores that correspond to the high, moderate, and low degrees of symptoms were 40+, 34 - 39, and 0 - 33. Interestingly, although the personal accomplishment questions were fewer than those measuring exhaustion, the scores required for inclusion in the moderate or high degree of burnout were greater. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) have found high internal consistency and reliability for this scale (a = .91). Moreover, several studies reported a test-retest coefficient that was deemed strong (Maslach et al., 1981), with Wheeler et al. (2011) finding that alpha estimates consistently fell within the range of acceptance through a meta-analysis of MBI reliability, underscoring its utility in research studies. The variable coding for this data can be found in Appendix A.

Emotional Intelligence

In an effort to assess emotional intelligence, this study employed the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), which was designed to evaluate generally stable individual differences in tendencies to attend to moods and emotions, discriminate between them, and regulate them (Salovey et al., 1995). The TMMS is one of the most widely used self-report measures of EI (Extremera & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2005) and was the first self-report measurement tool to evaluate perceived emotional intelligence through a 5-point Likert format (Aradilla-Herrero et al., 2013). This tool is typically used in the ability model of EI consistent with Mayer and Salovey's theory (Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012) based on the premises of the initial model of emotional intelligence they (1990) developed, attending to the three dimensions of attention, clarity, and repair, and has been utilized in similar studies measuring EI as a moderator of organizational commitment (Aghdasi et al., 2011), burnout, job satisfaction, and overall health (Soto-Rubio et al., 2020), and work stress (Augusto Landa, 2008), which helps to support its relevance to the study. Initially, the TMMS was developed using a 48-item scale, but since its inception, the authors recommend more efficient, shorter versions such as the one this study employed (Salovey et al., 1995).

The scale has three elements, attention, clarity, and repair, which relate closely to Mayer and Salovey's (1995) initial offering. First, attention relates to the attention to emotions of the respondent and considers how much attention individuals give to their inner feelings and emotional states, which can be likened to the first element of using emotions to recognize emotions (Mayer et al., 2004). Second, clarity of emotional perception is defined as the ability to discern and discriminate between feelings, corresponding to the second and third factors of the initial model (Mayer et al., 2004). Last, emotional repair, or simply put, repair, includes the

perceived ability to regulate moods, repair adverse emotional feelings, and maintain positive ones, aligning well with the fourth factor of the model, the ability to regulate one's emotions (Mayer et al., 2004). The authors initially designed the TMMS to evaluate the construct relative to scores on each of the three subscales, not as an aggregate measure (Aradilla-Herrero et al., 2013). The internal consistency of these three subscales was high: Attention, $a = 0.86$, Clarity, $a = 0.87$, and Repair, $a = 0.82$ (Salovey et al. 1995), and overall reliability of the TMMS has been reported to be .82 - .88 (Bru-Luna, 2021).

Helping to convey its universal applicability, the TMMS has been adapted into various languages, such as German (Otto et al., 2001), Turkish (Aksoz et al., 2010), Chinese (Li et al., 2002), and Spanish (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2004). This study utilized the Spanish TMMS-24 in English, which shows strong internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90, 0.90, and 0.86 for the three scales of attention, clarity, and repair respectively (Fernandez-Berrocal et al., 2004). Studies reviewing the three scales have shown mixed results, suggesting there could be a fourth factor (Palmer et al., 2003); however, this finding is inconclusive.

Limitations

The quantitative approach of stepwise moderated regression is an effective way to detect how variables predict the nature of the relationship between two variables (Saunders, 1956); however, this study does have limitations. The findings of this study are based exclusively on data collected utilizing self-report questionnaires. Therefore, a limitation of the findings is the possibility that responses may have been affected by common method variance in statistical analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2003) as well as bias, effects of self-consciousness, or modeling (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Even though some scholars claim that the most prudent approach to measuring the subjective state of mind, dispositions, or attitudes is through a self-report

mechanism (Howard, 1994; Spector, 1994; Wallbott & Scherer, 1989), self-reporting methods could result in exaggerated relationships between variables. As such, the influence of same-source variance on the results should not be overlooked, and future research should aim to replicate these findings using alternative methods or more diverse strategies that could use a combination of sources to depict attitudes, traits, and the like. A sufficient sample and power size help to mitigate this limitation, with the researcher recruiting the largest sample population possible given resources for the study, as well as the demographics and size of the industry. Furthermore, utilizing empirically tested survey instruments to measure the constructs will help to reduce this limitation. Even though the collection of data was intended to be collected over a short period, data was collected over a period of time, nonetheless. Observations and data collection over a longitudinal study would provide more data and add another element of improvement over time to strengthen the correlational probability.

The industry context itself introduced limitations. The seasonal nature, characterized by shorter employment durations, may limit the exposure to burnout as a consequence of the brief duration with the employer. This element may not fully encapsulate the challenges faced by year-round employees. To this end, the demographic characteristics of the study's participants, with a strong majority of 78.41% of respondents having fewer than five years of working experience, are reflective of a seasonal industry's reliance on younger individuals for temporary employment, and may limit the generalization of the findings to a wider age range. In other words, it is possible that a more balanced age distribution would be more representative of work experience in the general public. The focus within the seasonal industry may also result in emotional labor being under or overrepresented as the context may not capture all the nuances of EL experiences that are prevalent in other service sectors. While this study intended to uncover

valuable insights, the findings within this study should be interpreted with an awareness of the study's limitations. Further research can build upon the findings to address the challenges and dynamics in other contexts and demographics.

Chapter 4 - Results

Introduction

The goal of this study was to review the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and the outcome of emotional exhaustion in a sample of seasonal aerial adventure park employees. In addition to investigating this relationship, this study examined the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. This chapter will move through three sections of statistical analysis. The first element will be a review of the demographic data of the survey respondents, followed by the summary of results and analysis for each of the research questions and associated hypotheses while providing the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics. The concluding section of this chapter will synthesize the findings and discuss the initial implications.

Demographic Data of Participants

The data utilized in this study was collected from a sample of seasonal service employees within the aerial zipline park industry from nine different parks in seven disparate geographical locations within the United States. The data was collected through Qualtrics surveys and included three different surveys to measure levels of emotional intelligence, surface acting, and emotional exhaustion. While the study's subjects remained anonymous, demographic information for the sample population was procured, including questions regarding the participants' gender, working region, work department, work experience, and supervisory status. All the data collected was set up into a Google Sheets spreadsheet, which was then exported to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for data analysis.

After a review of the data, a total of 94 respondents were included in the final study and analysis, 90 of whom elected to respond to all demographic questions. An equal number of the

respondents consisted of male and female participants with 41 males and 41 females (45.56% respectively). In contrast, 6 respondents reported being non-binary (6.67%) and 2 participants (2.22%) preferred not to respond to the gender inquiry. Fifty-two participants (57.78%) reported not being in a supervisory capacity at work, while 38 (42.22%) indicated they held supervisor responsibility. When reviewing professional experience, the majority of respondents indicated having 0 - 1 years of professional experience (32.95%), while a larger segment reported 1 - 2 years of work experience (15.91%), followed by 3 - 4 years (29.55%), and 5 - 8 years (14.77%) rounded out with those indicating 9+ years of experience (6.82%). With 78.4% of the sample participants having less than 5 years of working experience, this grouping well encapsulated the younger demographic of many seasonal service industry employees.

The vast percentage of subjects indicated they work in their respective parks with guests as park staff (67.78%), while the next largest segment of subjects were customer service and phone center employees (11.11%). Customer-facing food service employees (4.44%) and back-of-house food and beverage employees (8.89%) comprised the next largest portion of the subjects, followed by small percentages in check-in areas (3.33%), maintenance (2.22%), sales (1.11%), or other (1.11%). Relative to the working region, the largest segment of the population worked in Eastern Michigan (31.11%), followed by employees in the Western United States (20%). Respondents working in Illinois/Wisconsin and Eastern Michigan (15.56% respectively), with both regions having large segments of employees, followed by Western Michigan (11.11%) and North Carolina (6.67%). This data is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. *Frequencies and Percentages of the Demographic Variables (N = 90)*

Gender	**n**	**%**
Male	41	45.55%
Female	41	45.55%
Non-Binary	6	6.67%
Prefer to Not Say	2	2.22%
Supervisory Level	**n**	**%**
Not a Supervisor	52	57.78%
Supervisor	38	42.22%
Work Experience	**n**	**%**
0 - 1 years	29	32.95%
1 - 2 years	14	15.91%
3 - 4 years	26	29.55%
5 - 8 years	13	14.77%
9+ years	6	6.82%
Region	**n**	**%**
Illinois/Wisconsin	14	15.56%
Eastern US	14	15.56%
Eastern MI	28	31.11%
Western MI	10	11.11%
North Carolina	6	6.67%
Western US	18	20.00%
Work Department	**n**	**%**
On-site Park Staff	61	67.78%
Gift Shop/Check-In	3	3.33%
Customer Service Center	10	11.11%
Foodservice -- Customer-Facing	4	4.44%
Foodservice -- BOH	8	8.89%
Maintenance	2	2.22%
Sales	1	1.11%
Other	1	1.11%

Reliability of the Measures

Although each individual measure and its subscales were empirically tested and supported through prior research, Cronbach's *a* was conducted to measure the internal consistency of the study's measures. Table 2 displayed the *a* of each scale and subscale. All scales that were utilized for this study were found to be internally consistent. Moreover, the subscales of each measure carried higher *a* scores than the aggregate measures, suggesting that each subscale uniquely measures specific constructs effectively, with high levels of internal reliability. This data is depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. *Cronbach's Alpha for the Study Measures*

Scale	n	Alpha
Trait Meta-Mood Scale - Attention	94	0.75
Trait Meta-Mood Scale - Clarity	94	0.81
Trait Meta-Mood Scale - Repair	94	0.79
Trait Meta-Mood Scale - Aggregate	94	0.79
Maslach Burnout Inventory - Exhaustion	94	0.87
Maslach Burnout Inventory - Depersonalization	94	0.71
Maslach Burnout Inventory - Personal Accomplishment	94	0.75
Maslach Burnout Inventory - Aggregate	94	0.89
Emotional Labor Scale - Frequency	94	0.67
Emotional Labor Scale - Intensity	94	0.75
Emotional Labor Scale - Variety	94	0.88
Emotional Labor Scale - Deep Acting	94	0.81
Emotional Labor Scale - Surface Acting	94	0.80
Emotional Labor Scale - Aggregate	94	0.67

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

The descriptive statistics offered in Table 3 provide a thorough view of the study's variables. The range of values within each variable illuminates the distinction between respondent responses. For example, the "MBI_Exhuastion_Mean" delineating the subscale of the MBI reviewing exhaustion has variables ranging from 1.22 to 7, which represents a wide spectrum of reported scores among participants in the study. The means, or average scores provide insight into the central tendencies of the variables insofar that "ELS_Frequency_Mean" carries a variable mean of 4.1738 which is interpreted as, on average, participants tend to report a moderate level of frequency related to emotional labor. The standard deviations measure the dispersion of data around the mean and will help the viewer interpret the variability within each variable. A small standard deviation will indicate more consistent scores among participants.

Skewness values provide insight into the shape of the data distribution, with negative skewness indicating a leftward skew in a plotted histogram of distributed scores. It is worth noting that all histograms examined appear to exhibit normal distributions, indicating that the data is generally normally distributed without the need for transformations. This is critical as the normality assumption is paramount to statistical analyses and ensuring the validity of the tests. The histograms of the survey scores are offered in Appendix B.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables*

Descriptive Statistics	N	Min	Max	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error
TMMS_Attention_Mean	94	2.25	5	3.6915	0.58392	-0.379	0.249
TMMS_Clarity_Mean	94	1.75	5	3.5319	0.62026	-0.057	0.249
TMMS_Repair_Mean	94	2.25	4.75	3.5532	0.56692	-0.275	0.249
TMMS_Total_Mean	94	2.46	4.67	3.5922	0.40664	-0.214	0.249
MBI_Exhaustion_Mean	94	1.22	7	3.6017	1.22352	0.212	0.249
MBI_Depersonalization_Mean	94	1	7	2.834	1.29503	0.781	0.249
MBI_PersonalAccomplishment_Mean	94	2.5	7	5.2686	0.94701	-0.172	0.249
MBI_Mean_Correct	94	1.23	6.45	3.1107	0.95685	0.506	0.249
ELS_Frequency_Mean	94	2.33	5	4.1738	0.67332	-0.575	0.249
ELS_Intensity_Mean	94	1	5	2.7234	0.98542	0.085	0.249
ELS_Variety_Mean	94	1	5	2.8759	0.9491	0.232	0.249
ELS_DeepActing_Mean	94	1	5	3.4326	0.87829	-0.238	0.249
ELS_SurfaceActing_Mean2	94	1	5	3.1454	0.91131	-0.313	0.249
ELS_Total_Mean	94	2.36	4.5	3.3093	0.44297	0.251	0.249

Analysis and Interpretation

Each of the three surveys utilized for this survey had subscales related to each of their respective constructs. These scale scores were aggregated and obtained for the variable of emotional labor, specifically to consider both surface acting subscales, subscales of the measures for emotional intelligence and the trait meta-mood scale, clarity, attention, and repair, and subscales for the Maslach Burnout Inventory, exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment related to one's work role or interactions with others within the workplace (Maslach, 1981). These subscale scores were utilized to conduct the analysis surrounding the research questions.

To address research question 1 as to whether there is a relationship between surface acting and burnout among the sample, hypothesis 1 proposed that there will be a positive

correlation between surface acting and burnout. To test this proposition, Pearson's correlations were conducted. A one-tailed significance level of 0.05 was utilized to test the relationship. Research questions 2, 3, and 4 focused on whether emotional intelligence, supervisory status, or work experience could moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout among the sample. To test the associated hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 that higher levels of emotional intelligence, supervisory status, and work experience would moderate the relationship with higher levels of emotional intelligence, supervisory status, and work experience correlated to a weaker relationship between these variables, hierarchical moderated regression procedures were utilized. Both predictor and moderator variables were centered to eliminate any possible multicollinearity effects between prediction, moderator, and their associated interaction terms.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that there would be a positive correlation between surface acting and burnout among the seasonal service industry employee sample. When Pearson's correlation was calculated, the findings in Table 4 advise that this hypothesis was supported. As such, this researcher rejects the null hypothesis that suggests there is no relationship between surface acting and burnout and accepts that surface acting is highly correlated to burnout among the sample ($p<0.01$) for all subscales and aggregate of burnout.

Table 4. *Pearson's Correlation between Surface Acting and Burnout*

	MBI Mean	MBI - Exhaustion	MBI - Depersonalization	MBI - Personal Accomplishment	SurfaceActing
MBI Mean	1	.911**	.823**	-.752**	.471**
MBI - Exhaustion	.911**	1	.685**	-.492**	.416**
MBI - Depersonalization	.823**	.685**	1	-.436**	.402**
MBI - Personal Accomplishment	-.752**	-.492**	-.436**	1	-.361**
SurfaceActing	.471**	.416**	.402**	-.361**	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

The second hypothesis postulated that emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service employees such that higher levels of emotional intelligence will correspond to a weaker relationship between surface acting and burnout. The regression analysis results in Table 5 indicate that the interaction variable is not significant with a p-value of .555 and thus the hypothesis is not supported, therefore this researcher accepts the null hypothesis that there is no moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between surface acting and burnout.

Table 5. *Linear Regression Results for the Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Surface Acting and Burnout*

	Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standard Coeff Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.457	2.623		0.556	0.58
Surface Acting	0.931	0.787	0.886	1.182	0.24
TMMS Total Mean	0.037	0.699	0.016	0.053	0.958
SurFaceActing x EI Interaction	-0.125	0.211	-0.447	-0.592	0.555

a. Dependent Variable: MBI_Mean_Correct

Hypothesis 3 intimated that supervisory or leadership status would moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout. It was opined that supervisors would carry a weaker correlation between surface acting and burnout among seasonal service supervisors in the aerial adventure park industry. Table 6 findings indicate that the interactions between supervisor status and surface acting were not significant with a p-value of .389, indicating that this hypothesis was not supported, and this researcher accepts the null hypothesis that there is no relationship moderating effect of supervisory status on the relationship between surface acting and burnout.

Table 6. *Linear Regression Results for the Moderating Effect of Leader Status on Surface Acting and Burnout*

	Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standard Coeff Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.457	2.623		0.556	0.58
Leader Status	-0.116	0.62	-0.061	-0.188	0.851
Surface Acting	0.409	0.133	0.397	3.071	0.003
SurfaceActing x Leader	0.165	0.191	0.287	0.865	0.389

a. Dependent Variable: MBI Mean

The fourth hypothesis proposes that work experience will have a moderating effect on the relationship between surface acting and burnout. The proposition is that employees with greater levels of work experience will have a reduced relationship between surface acting and burnout. Findings indicated in Table 7 disclose that the interaction variable between working experience and surface acting was insignificant at a p-value of .828. Therefore, this researcher accepts the null hypothesis that there is no moderating effect of work experience on the adverse relationship between surface acting and burnout.

Table 7. *Linear Regression Results for the Moderating Effect of Work Experience on Surface Acting and Burnout*

	Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standard Coeff Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	1.140	.699		1.631	.107
Surface Acting	.516	.217	.502	2.3758	.020
Work Experience	.181	.259	.242	.697	.487
Surface Acting x Work Experience	-.018	0.259	-.087	-.218	.828

a. Dependent Variable: MBI Mean

Conclusion

This study explored the relationship between the emotional labor strategy of surface acting, and burnout within the seasonal aerial adventure park industry by way of seasonal service

employees. It also sought to review whether emotional intelligence, supervisory status, and work experience play moderating roles in the relationship between surface acting and burnout. The analysis of the study's demographic data provided details on the characteristics of the sample population, including balanced gender distribution, a significant presence of employees with less than 5 years of working experience, and a focus on direct guest engagement and interaction. After this review, the reliability analysis confirmed the internal consistency of the study's measures. A thorough review of descriptive statistics offered an understanding of the variables, while histograms illustrated normal data distributions.

The hypotheses addressed in this study centered on portraying a positive correlation between surface acting and burnout, in addition to reviewing the influence of emotional intelligence, supervisory status, and work experience on this relationship. While there was a significant positive correlation between surface acting and burnout, the hypothesized moderating variables did not yield statistically significant results. These findings help further the understanding of the emotional labor dynamics among seasonal service employees and draw researchers to future dialogue into the factors that may influence these relationships.

Table 8. *Correlation Matrix for Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Labor*

	TMMS Mean	TMMS Attention Mean	TMMS Clarity Mean	TMMS Repair Mean
Deep Acting	.350	0.13	.241	.355
Surface Acting	-0.17	0.005	-0.053	-.313

Table 9. *Linear Regression Results for the Moderating Effect of The Number of Customers Services in a Day on Surface Acting, and Burnout*

	Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standard Coeff Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2.396	0.532		4.500	<.001
Surface Acting	.268	.164	.255	1.635	.105
Number of Customers	-.008	.04	-.758	-1.943	.055
Surface Acting x Customers	.002	.001	.703	1.711	.091

a Dependent Variable: MBI Mean

Chapter 5 - Discussion

Overview

In this concluding chapter, this researcher will review the study's findings to draw conclusions meant to resonate within the seasonal service sector and broader workplace dynamics. This analysis is to explore the relationships between emotional labor, emotional intelligence, and burnout and toward overall employee well-being. This researcher will review the findings of the study and their individual implications for practitioners, discussing how the findings resonate with the existing literature. Future avenues of research will be explored as well as a discussion of the limitations and weaknesses of the existing study, and areas for future research for practitioners and researchers alike.

Summary and Discussion of Results

Service sector employees are only going to increase in number in the coming years, which will cause an increase in jobs and workforces that require the utilization of emotional labor and the strategy of surface acting. The upward trajectory within service sector employment will require frequent interactions with the consumers, which will require them to utilize surface acting. As the workforce in this area grows, there is compelling demand to analyze the impacts of surface acting on practitioners when considering the potential adverse effects on health and well-being both inside and outside work (Abraham, 1998; Bartels et al., 2023; Brill, 2000; Guy et al., 2008; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zapf, 2002). With this as a backdrop, this research takes a novel approach by reviewing the seasonal aerial adventure park industry to review the relationship between surface acting and burnout, which is closely related to employee well-being. The unique element of seasonal employees within the study adds a distinctive layer to our review, emphasizing the value of exploring emotional labor within unique

employment settings. This research goes beyond contributing solely to the emotional labor literature as it extends to the overlooked challenges faced by seasonal workers in an industry differentiated by its operational patterns.

While there have been other studies to review the outcomes from surface acting, there was little research reviewing the potential moderating role of emotional intelligence and other variables on the relationship between surface acting and its negative outcomes on employee burnout. As a result, the purpose of this study was to address the gap in the literature by reviewing whether emotional intelligence would be utilized as a resource to reduce these negative relationships. Moreover, in an attempt to explore other potential moderating variables, the study maintained an objective to delineate whether supervisory status or work experience would also moderate the aforementioned relationship.

Study Findings and Conclusions about Research Question 1

To achieve the first study objective, it was expected that surface acting would have a positive relationship with burnout. Scholars call for a need to distinguish between surface and deep acting given their disparate influence on outcomes (Grandey, 2003), and to reinforce these claims it was hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between surface acting and burnout. In testing this hypothesis, Pearson's correlation analysis was used to discern whether the relationship existed. A significant finding in this study was that surface acting was positively related to burnout, an outcome that was consistently supported in the literature. However, in a related regression analysis within the study, deep acting was shown to have a negative relationship with burnout, consistent with Hochschild's (1983) and Grandey's (2003) positions.

These results imply that when seasonal service employees within the aerial adventure park industry portray emotions that are incongruent with their felt emotions, they will experience

a higher level of emotional exhaustion. Researchers have found that this discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions, also referred to as emotional dissonance, is found to foster emotional exhaustion and burnout (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), a position that was bolstered within these findings.

Interestingly, when conducting a correlation matrix for subscales for the three scales utilized for this study, similar findings were portrayed. Specifically, all three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, exhaustion ($p = .416$), depersonalization (.402), and personal accomplishment (.361) were strongly and positively correlated to surface acting. This is reinforced by deep acting's strong negative correlation to MBI aggregate (-.497), and subscales of exhaustion (-.410), depersonalization (-.440), and personal accomplishment (-.407). These findings are presented in Appendix C and further bolster the findings and intimate a strong and consistent relationship between these variables. These findings support further exploration of potential moderating variables for the relationship between surface acting and burnout and training and greater emphasis surrounding the utilization of deep acting instead of surface acting for consumer interactions.

Reviewing potential moderating variables will be critical to better understanding the relationship between surface acting and burnout in the seasonal aerial adventure park industry. Pinpointing factors that may influence the impact of surface acting on burnout could help develop knowledge for targeted mitigation efforts. For example, exploring the role of organizational support or training programs in this relationship could influence the relationship and improve employee well-being. This research not only adds to the academic discourse but also carries implications for practitioners hoping to improve their workplace experience.

The evidence developed in this study leads to an assessment that surface acting predicts burnout and holds consistency amongst all subscales of burnout. Although correlations were utilized to demonstrate relationships there is a possible causal pathway within this relationship. Logically, the incongruence between felt and displayed emotions, the underpinning of surface acting, is described as emotional dissonance, leading to emotional exhaustion and burnout. This interpretation is aligned with existing research (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) and outlines the value of reviewing other potential moderating variables in gaining a greater understanding of the effect of surface acting on burnout in the seasonal aerial adventure park industry and the workplace at large.

Study Findings and Conclusions about Research Question 2

It was hypothesized that emotional intelligence would help to reduce the relationship between surface acting and burnout. Mayer and Salovey (1997) instruct that emotional intelligence incorporates one's ability to perceive emotions, assess and generate emotions to facilitate thought, understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and regulate emotions to promote both emotional and intellectual growth. Given this definition, Grandey (2000) suggested that emotional intelligence could serve as a significant construct to moderate the emotional labor strategies that service employees utilize at work to bridge the discrepancy between felt and expressed emotions that are created through display rules.

Contrary to this proposed relationship, when conducting a regression analysis, no support was generated for the moderating effect of emotional intelligence as measured by the Trait Meta-Mood Scale on this relationship. The moderator effects found that the interaction term variable was not statistically significant and, therefore, not supported. Ultimately, this study indicates that emotional intelligence did not serve to minimize the negative outcome of surface

acting, and the results support the null hypothesis that emotional intelligence levels do not moderate or alter the strength of the relationship between emotional labor strategies and ultimate outcomes.

In a similar study, Johnson and Spector (2007) found inclusive results determining whether emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between both deep and surface acting and life outcomes. A possible implication or suggested rationale to explain this lack of moderating effects is that these seasonal service employees may regard their emotional displays as part of their job description, without due deference to levels of emotional intelligence. The lack of professional experience may have also aided these employees in shielding them from adverse outcomes and burnout as a result of their surface acting behavior. Furthermore, another possible explanation is the shorter duration of employment due to their seasonal nature may also have aided employees and mitigated these adverse outcomes as a result of their lack of long-term exposure. This researcher will review these extraneous concepts in more detail later.

In conducting the review, given that the researcher conceptualized the TMMS to evaluate scores on each of the three subscales (Aradilla-Herrero et al., 2013), regression analysis was conducted on the various subscales of emotional intelligence, clarity, attention, and repair, in addition to its aggregate score. While the interaction variables of surface acting with attention ($p = .959$) and clarity (.312) did not bear significant relationships, repair's interaction variable did carry a moderately significant relationship ($p = .067$). Rephrasing, the repair subscale, which describes one's ability to regulate moods, address negative emotional states, and improve emotions, carried a moderately significant relationship when interacting with surface acting, implying the emotional intelligence dimension that incorporates repairing and managing emotions may play a meaningful role in the moderating role with surface acting on burnout. In

essence, individuals with a higher aptitude for emotional repair, as measured by TMMS, may see a reduced influence of surface acting on burnout compared to those with lower scores in this subscale. This finding would support the researcher indicating its efficacy by Mayer et al. (2004) and will be reviewed later.

When viewing the aforementioned correlation matrix, a significant and more direct relationship can be depicted between the impetus of those with higher levels of emotional intelligence to engage in deep acting, as opposed to surface acting, as shown in Table 8. These outcomes illustrate a propensity for emotionally intelligent individuals to migrate towards the healthier alternative of emotional labor in deep acting with all three subscales and aggregate positively correlated, whereas the same scale and subscales are all largely negatively associated with surface acting, except for the subscale of attention. These correlations suggest that emotionally intelligent individuals are better equipped to self-regulate their emotions and elect the healthier alternative of matching their felt and expressed emotions through deep acting.

Study Findings and Conclusions about Research Question 3

Leaders are tasked with the great opportunity to lead and shape their followers and team. Part of this responsibility is as a result of greater responsibility placed on them to support and nurture their staff. As such, it was hypothesized that supervisory status would moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout. In opposition to this supposition, there was no significance to the interaction variable for leadership status and surface acting ($p = .389$), and this researcher has accepted the null hypothesis that supervisor status has no moderating effect on the surface acting, burnout relationship. This finding suggests that the correlation between surface acting and burnout was similar both for employees and supervisors.

Further regression analyses were taken to isolate the three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory of exhaustion, burnout, and personal accomplishment to further investigate the possible relationship. Findings indicated that the inclusion of these three subscales as dependent variables did not alter the significance or outcome of the study and supported the existing findings with an exhaustion p-value of .398, depersonalization of .994, and personal accomplishment of .720. These results support the initial analysis and suggest further the outcome that supervisory status does not have any influence on the relationship between surface acting and burnout.

Study Findings and Conclusions about Research Question 4

Relative to the fourth research question, research was aimed at reviewing whether work experience would effectively moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout, reducing the relationship. It was suggested that the more experienced an individual is, the better equipped they would be to effectively reconcile their work responsibilities relative to emotional labor and bridge the gap between felt emotions and work expectations. Through linear regression it was discovered that while work experience has a slightly significant relationship to burnout, and surface acting has a significant relationship to burnout, the interaction variable was not statistically significant, thus the null hypothesis was accepted that work experience does not have an impact on the aforementioned relationship. This finding indicates that regardless of working experience surface acting leads to burnout, supporting the notion that surface acting is not a good strategy, regardless of working level experience. Within this study, however, a possible explanation for this outcome is that many of the participants in the study had similar levels of work experience, and as such, if a significant proportion of the sample falls within a narrow range of work experience, there may not be enough variation to detect a moderating effect.

Emotional Labor

The ultimate findings of this study were found to largely corroborate with emotional labor theories that surface acting is directly linked to burnout (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). Moreover, it also supports general emotional regulation theory, which illustrates a theoretical underpinning intimating that even though surface acting and deep acting will both require individuals to utilize energy in modifying expressions, the outcomes exhibit disparate relationships with well-being outcomes, specifically burnout (Cote, 2005; Johnson & Spector, 2007).

Generally, the results indicate that surface acting provides a negative effect on employee well-being. This is similar to earlier studies that illustrate a link between surface acting and negative employee outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion, dissatisfaction, and depersonalization, the factors of burnout (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Prati et al., 2009, Totterdell & Holman, 2003). In the existing research, this is generally ascribed to the emotional and cognitive dissonance associated with the mismatch between felt emotions and expressed emotions, particularly when this mismatch is fortified and reinforced through the display rules within the workplace. Interestingly, the finding that leadership status and experience did not moderate the relationship offers latent support for the negative effects of surface acting being pervasive, regardless of work experience.

When conducting surface acting, workers utilize an emotional facade incorporating the suppression of felt emotions within their body, along with an expression of emotions that are not genuine. Service workers who frequently engage in surface acting feel a loss of personal authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) which then leads to feelings of self-alienation from one's feelings and personal affect, leading to emotional exhaustion (Hochschild, 1983) that extends

beyond the workplace and bleeds into home life (Kinman, 2007). Emotional dissonance theory scholars intimate that the mismatch between felt and expressed emotions during engagement with customers and service employees creates internal strife and psychological stress that becomes uncomfortable (Mann, 2009; Morris & Feldman, 1997), which ultimately leads to physiological outcomes such as emotional exhaustion (Morris & Feldman, 1997), psychological strains (Hochschild, 1983), and burnout, which can subsequently lead to consequential outcomes of weight gain, depression, lung disease, insomnia, and heart attack (Hakanen et al., 2008; Leiter et al., 2014; Toker et al., 2023; von Kanel et al., 2020). Within this context, research findings suggest that the facade behind positive outlooks and emotions of seasonal service staff members hide a possibly damaging element of their work that goes undiscussed.

Contrarily, deep acting behaviors express emotions that minimize the conflict between felt and expressed emotions. In this phenomenon, the agent of the employer goes beyond the simple modification of expressed emotions and more deeply regulates internal states, thoughts, and feelings through cognitive reappraisal (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) to match their outward appearance and expression with the display rules of the organization and scenario more genuinely. This outcome generates an authentic symmetry and, therefore, emotional congruence within the individual.

Scholars have suggested that even though deep acting typically requires greater effort from individuals, it generally ends in better alignment between actual and displayed emotions, which therefore results in a reduction in emotional dissonance (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008). Grandey (2003) concluded that given the level of labor in enacting deep acting, the payoffs for its utilization are reduced emotional dissonance, and critical for customer service industries like the aerial adventure park case presented in this study, positive feedback from customers, which

could prove to help recoup emotional resources in a way that surface acting is unable to do. More latently, deep acting may offer its users a feeling of satisfaction as it serves as a shield from the feelings of inauthenticity and maintains a sense of legitimacy throughout their interactions with the consumer.

Generally, the existing literature regarding research on emotional labor and well-being of employees and individuals intimates that those who engage in emotional work as a part of their role, particularly those in service industries, will potentially see a diminishing of well-being. However, this outcome appears particularly more acute for those who engage in surface acting. These results indicate that seasonal service employees in the aerial adventure park industry who fake their true emotions through surface acting may be more likely to experience detrimental well-being outcomes and feel burnout than those who endeavor to match their internal felt emotions with work display rules through surface acting when engaging with the consumer. The frequent and consistent findings in past and present literature indicate the detrimental effects of surface acting on outcomes, and that the deep acting alternative can be more effective and beneficial to employee well-being.

The practical implications of this study provide actionable insights for organizations, especially those operating within service industries, in recommending emotional labor to promote the well-being of their employees. The findings align with established emotional labor theories, emphasizing that surface acting is directly linked to burnout. As such, leaders and organizations should acknowledge the negative effects of surface acting and conduct proactive measures to mitigate its usage.

First, companies should recognize the importance of emotional congruence and felt authenticity in employee dialogue with the consumer. Encouraging related deep acting behaviors

to align internal interests with company objectives through customer engagement and organizational display rules can directly reduce emotional dissonance and foster positive outcomes. As such, organizations should consider providing training and support to help employees develop skills for cognitive reappraisal, a requirement of deep acting. Relatedly, companies should also consider addressing the burnout risks associated with frequent surface acting.

This study highlights both the potential psychological and physiological consequences of burnout as a result of surface acting. Therefore, organizations should implement strategies to minimize surface acting demands, for example, revising display rules or offering emotional support to employees. Finally, this research helps underscore the value of emotional intelligence, specifically as it relates to emotional repair, as a potential moderating variable and improving mechanism for employee well-being. As such, organizations can consider implementing training exercises and programs to develop this construct, and possibly the sub-construct of repair specifically in their workforce which may help to buffer the negative effects of surface acting, or possibly promote the usage of healthier deep acting strategies.

Emotional Intelligence

Grandey's (2000) model of emotional intelligence surmises that the construct plays a moderating role in the relationship between emotional labor and well-being. The research has intimated that emotional intelligence can moderate employee reactions to adverse outcomes emotionally, which suggests a reducing effect in the interplay between surface acting and well-being (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). This study, however, did not support this common conception that higher levels of emotional intelligence can have a moderating effect between emotional labor and burnout despite a theoretical basis for expecting significant moderating

effects. However, as delineated earlier, certain elements of emotional intelligence, those associated with repair did carry a moderately significant relationship ($p = .067$). The implication of this finding suggests that Mayer et al.'s (2004) factor of the ability to regulate emotions could specifically be seen as a potential moderating variable. While the findings within this study did not support the idea that higher levels of emotional intelligence have a moderating effect between surface acting and burnout, the mixed results relative to certain elements of emotional intelligence, particularly those associated with repair, introduce a new area of consideration. The finding suggests that the specific construct of repair within emotional intelligence might serve as a potential moderating variable within this relationship, suggesting more practically that intervention or training programs focused on improving an employee's ability to regulate emotions, particularly in the realm of repairing negative emotional conditions could hold promise in mitigating burnout resulting from surface acting.

One other empirical study resonates with the findings of this study in Johnson and Spector's (2007), which found that, similarly, the interaction variables were not significant, and therefore, emotional intelligence did not have the moderating effects between emotional labor strategies and outcomes of job satisfaction, affective well-being, and emotional exhaustion that were hypothesized. However, in this particular research, no further explanation for these outcomes was provided.

Relatedly, this study found a significant and strong positive correlation between higher levels of emotional intelligence and utilization of deep acting and a negative correlation to the surface acting strategy. A possible explanation for this is that those with higher levels of emotional intelligence are better equipped to gravitate towards the emotional labor strategy of deep acting where genuine manipulation of affect is undergone. Theoretically, without the ability

to recognize the meaning of emotions, and to reason and solve problems with them (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), one would default to the easier of the two strategies and not recognize the dissonance that is taking place within their internal dynamics. Another study by Silter et al., (2013) assessed that emotional intelligence can partially moderate this determination in a similar review of service employees.

The implication of this study suggests that even though emotional intelligence may not have significant moderating effects on the relationship between surface acting and burnout, certain specific elements of emotional intelligence, especially those associated with the skill of understanding, regulating, and utilizing emotions to facilitate thought could play a role in moderating the relationship. These findings underscore the importance of considering facets of emotional intelligence in the realm of employee well-being and emotional labor management.

Additionally, the reported strong positive correlation between emotional intelligence and deep acting, as well as the negative correlation of emotional intelligence to surface acting suggests that organizations could benefit from fostering emotional intelligence among their employees. These results suggest that employees with greater EI will utilize deep acting to lead to genuine emotional engagement over surface acting, even though it may require more up-front effort to circumvent the surface acting to burnout progression entirely. Furthermore, the study's agreement with Johnson and Spector's (2007) findings reinforces the need for organizations to review the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace. While emotional intelligence may not be a universal moderator, its specific components should be considered to design and implement interventions and training programs with the goal of improving employee well-being and workplace outcomes.

Supervisory Status and Work Experience

Research questions three and four were related to reviewing whether particular work status or working experience antecedents could moderate the relationship between surface acting and burnout. The purpose of this approach was to extend the possible moderating variables to other constructs or professional standings. There was a theoretical link that supervisor support can reduce emotional exhaustion within burnout (Leiter et al., 2014), such that perhaps leaders would be better equipped to handle engaging in surface acting. However, within this study sample, there was no significance to the interaction variable for supervisory status as a moderating variable for the aggregate scale of the burnout inventory, but also each of its subscales. As such, further support is garnered for the avoidance of surface acting as a strategy in workforces regardless of their level of leadership, and more, supervisory status did not prove to be a significant determinant of burnout as a result of emotional labor, and its implications are such that supervisors are not better equipped to engage in surface acting without experiencing burnout when compared to non-supervisory employees.

Next, the working experience was reviewed as a potential moderating variable to the reviewed relationship. In reviewing how the age of employees can influence the determination between surface and deep acting, Silter et al., (2013) found that older employees were more positively correlated to deep acting behaviors, and negatively related to surface acting. This extended the possibility of work experience being able to moderate the surface acting and burnout relationship, such that employees with greater work experience are more likely to be older than those without the same level of experience. As such, there would be a theoretical link in these findings to suggest that these more experienced employees were better able to engage in

surface acting without fear of detrimental consequences to their well-being in the same way as their less tenured counterparts.

One implication of the findings relative to research questions three and four is the consistency of surface acting as an emotional labor strategy effect on burnout across different levels of leadership and degrees of working experience. The study's practical implications for practitioners and organizations are such that promoting surface acting as a strategy with the consumer or peers may not be a viable solution to mitigate burnout, even for those in supervisory positions, or those with greater levels of work experience. Instead, organizations should consider alternative conceptualizations to address burnout and promote their employee well-being. The findings reinforce the value of crafting a working environment where policies are created and disseminated to prioritize employee well-being, regardless of their work experience or leadership status within the organization.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present study offers legitimate and viable avenues for future research that presently warrants future investigation. Although these results did not conclude that emotional intelligence as an aggregate construct moderated the surface acting-outcome of burnout, it would be prudent to further investigate the various branches of emotional intelligence as depicted in the ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) to determine whether these elements can influence the aforementioned relationship. The better part of the present studies exploring emotional intelligence have assessed the construct unilaterally and as a single dimension, without further discussion on how each of its branches of the ability to identify, use, understand, and manage emotions may moderate particular outcomes. Moreover, given the moderate significance of the repair subscale of the Trait Meta-Mood theory as a moderating variable to the relationship,

greater inspection of this and other dependent variables is recommended. Exploring the moderating effect of emotional intelligence both inside and outside of the workplace, given its potential effectiveness when assisting others, could also be an area for other examinations.

Additionally, future research could explore individual differences, such as personality traits or gender, and organizational characteristics outside of supervisory status and work experience that may buffer and shield service employees from adverse outcomes of surface acting. In the case of personal characteristics, some elements such as extraversion or depression may influence the surface acting and burnout relationship, for example where there could be less of a relationship between the antecedent and burnout for extraverts, as opposed to introverts, or that depression may amplify these effects as a predisposition. Additionally, considering differing cultural backgrounds, emotional labor could be a significant element in determining how this relationship can differ from individual to individual.

From an organization's perspective, results presented in Table 9 show that the number of customers an employee engages with daily has a moderately statistically significant moderating effect with a p-value of .091 on their burnout resulting from surface acting. Given such, it would be prudent to further inspect this finding and discern what other external factors an organization could control for that would assist their employees. In this case, the implication could be that organizations should limit their employees' exposure to customers by rotating shifts, for example, in order to improve their well-being. Moreover, other organizational characteristics such as leadership style or communication strategies could help review as potential moderators.

In light of these findings on the relationship between surface acting and employee well-being within the seasonal aerial adventure park industry, several recommendations for the industry can be provided. Chiefly, putting training programs in place for supervisors to be aware

of the negative consequences on employee well-being resulting from surface acting behavior is paramount. These trainings should stress not only surface acting but also the importance of creating a positive work environment and the benefits of opting for deep acting as a more positive practice and approach towards employee well-being. Additionally, practitioners should look into the possibility of utilizing rotational shifts for team members to control the number of customer interactions each day for employees to help reduce burnout. Development of customer interaction policies will also be paramount to ensure team members are prepared to have potentially challenging or unpleasant experiences with the consumer and equip them with tools and protocols for how to escalate these emotionally demanding interactions effectively. Finally, it appears paramount to establish long-term relationships and mechanisms with employees, such as counseling services, to assist team members with the repair elements of emotional intelligence, as well as coping mechanisms for their requisite emotional labor. In implementing these strategies, organizations within the seasonal aerial adventure park industry can actively contribute to the well-being of their employees.

Other organizational-level interactions could contribute to this relationship and should be researched. For example, building on the finding relative to the moderating effects of the number of customers engaged, other specifics of customer interactions, such as difficult customers vis-a-vis routine interactions, or shift times may influence well-being and provide practical and actionable insights. These potential moderators could increase our understanding of the surface acting phenomenon and the relationship between existing individual constructs and variables and may create avenues for ways to circumvent the negative outcomes entirely both for the employee and the organization.

Previously mentioned as a limitation, conducting a review of work experience as a potential moderating variable on a sample that is more age-representative of the general public would also be recommended. Moreover, generally speaking, more qualitative surveys and research are warranted to address the gap in understanding how, why, and when emotional labor, and more specifically surface acting, can have diminished negative effects on employee well-being. This would help scholars in discerning which results are significant, and which are not, and create a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon for practitioners to engage with and utilize in their everyday practice. Furthermore, conducting longitudinal studies to track the long-term effects of surface acting on employees, and the moderating effect of the constructs within this study would be prudent to create a more comprehensive understanding of emotional labor over time.

As a limitation of this study, it is critical to review the use of the survey for emotional intelligence measurement. The Trait Meta-Mood Scale that was used may have limitations in capturing all aspects of emotional intelligence. Future research could utilize other measures that may be more sensitive, such as the Bar-On EQ-i or emotional competence inventory (ECI), which are both known as strong evaluators of emotional intelligence. Utilizing these other measures could help add to this research and the understanding of emotional intelligence in the context of surface acting and employee well-being.

Conducting this research in other settings and cultures would also be advisable. For example, replicating this study across other cultures would be beneficial to discern if these findings will be supported across contexts, or whether cultural norms could be moderating factors. For example, in areas of the world where authenticity is valued more strongly, perhaps there is an exacerbated relationship between surface acting and burnout as its utilization violates

cultural norms and expectations. Relatedly, conducting this study in a year-round environment or dissimilar industries, such as technology would be helpful to review whether findings are generalizable, or whether these results are industry-specific. And finally, given the strong and consistent correlation between surface acting and burnout, research, and research into intervention strategies aimed at mitigating these effects are well-advised. Such research could develop and test interventions that aid employees in coping with the demands of emotional labor with the -goal of improving employee well-being.

Appendix A - Variable Coding Table

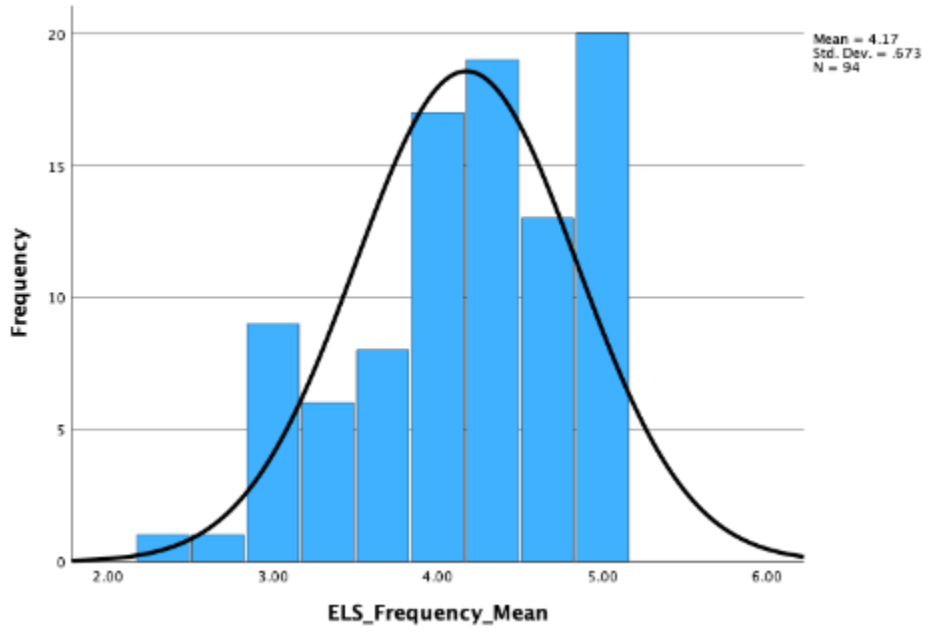
Variable	Definition
Block 1: Dependent Variables – Emotional Intelligence	
Emotional Intelligence: Attention	Scale variable measured through the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the degree to which the following described the respondent (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree): I pay a lot of attention to my feelings; I am usually very conscious of what I feel; I usually spend time thinking about my emotions; I think my emotions and state of mind deserve to be paid attention to; I allow my feelings to affect my thoughts; I constantly think about my state of mind; I often think about my feelings; I pay a lot of attention to the way I feel.
Emotional Intelligence: Clarity	Scale variable measured through the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the degree to which the following described the respondent (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree): My feelings are clear to me; I can usually define my feelings; I nearly always know how I feel; I usually know how I feel about people; I often become aware of my feelings in different situations; I can say how I feel; I can sometimes say which emotions I am experiencing; I can manage to understand my feelings
Emotional Intelligence: Repair	Scale variable measured through the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 6-point Likert response scale based on the degree to which the following described the respondent (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree): I usually have an optimistic outlook, although sometimes I feel sad, even when I feel sad; I try to think about pleasant things; When I am sad, I think about all life's pleasures; I try to have positive thoughts even when I feel bad; If I think about things too much and end up complicating them, I try to calm myself down; I am concerned about having a good state of mind; I have a lot of energy when I feel happy; When I am angry, I try to change my state of mind
Block 3: Emotional	

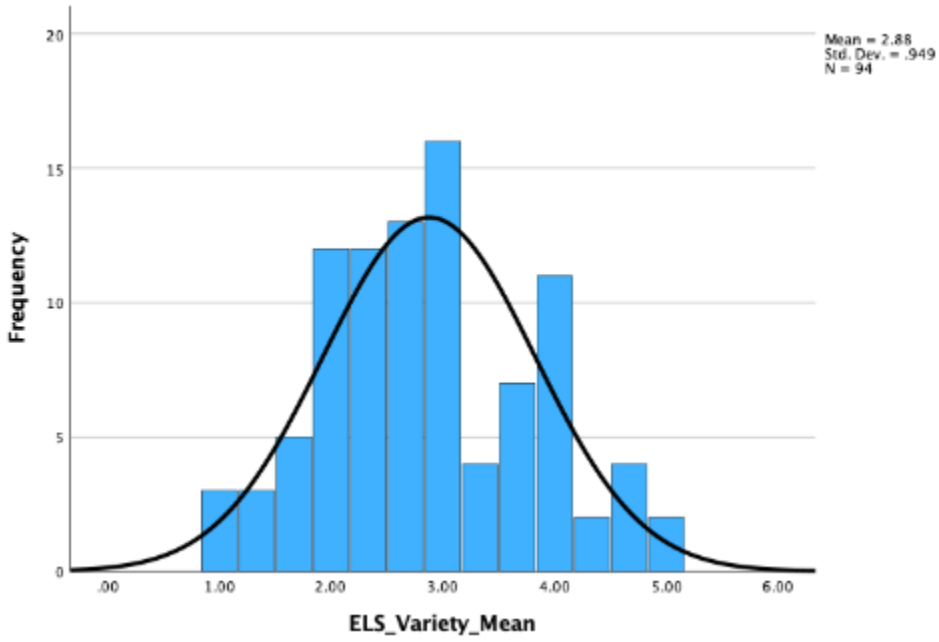
Exhaustion	
Emotional Exhaustion: Exhaustion	Scale variable from the Maslach Burnout Inventory, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 7-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (0 = never and 6 = every day): I feel emotionally exhausted because of my work; I feel worn out at the end of a working day; I feel tired as soon as I get up in the morning and see a new working day stretched out in front of me; Working with people the whole day is stressful for me; I feel burned out because of my work, I feel frustrated by my work, I get the feeling that I work too hard, Being in direct contact with people at work is too stressful, I feel as if I'm at my wits' end
Emotional Exhaustion: Depersonalization	Scale variable from the Maslach Burnout Inventory, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 7-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (0 = never and 6 = every day): I get the feeling that I treat some clients/colleagues impersonally, as if they were objects; I have become more callous to people since I have started doing this job; I'm afraid that my work makes me emotionally harder; I'm not really interested in what is going on with many of my colleagues; I have the feeling that my colleagues blame me for some of their problems
Emotional Exhaustion: Personal Accomplishment	Scale variable from the Maslach Burnout Inventory, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 7-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (0 = never and 6 = every day): I can easily understand the actions of my colleagues/supervisors; I deal with other people's problems successfully; I feel that I influence other people positively through my work; I feel full of energy, I find it easy to build a relaxed atmosphere in my working environment; I feel stimulated when I been working closely with my colleagues; I have achieved many rewarding objectives in my work; In my work I am very relaxed when dealing with emotional problems
Block 4: Emotional Labor Scale	
Frequency of Interaction with Customers	Response to one item: How many customers do you have in a typical day? Responses are coded as 1 = 0; 2 = 2 - 10; 3 = 11 - 25; 4 = 25 - 49; 5 = 50 and over

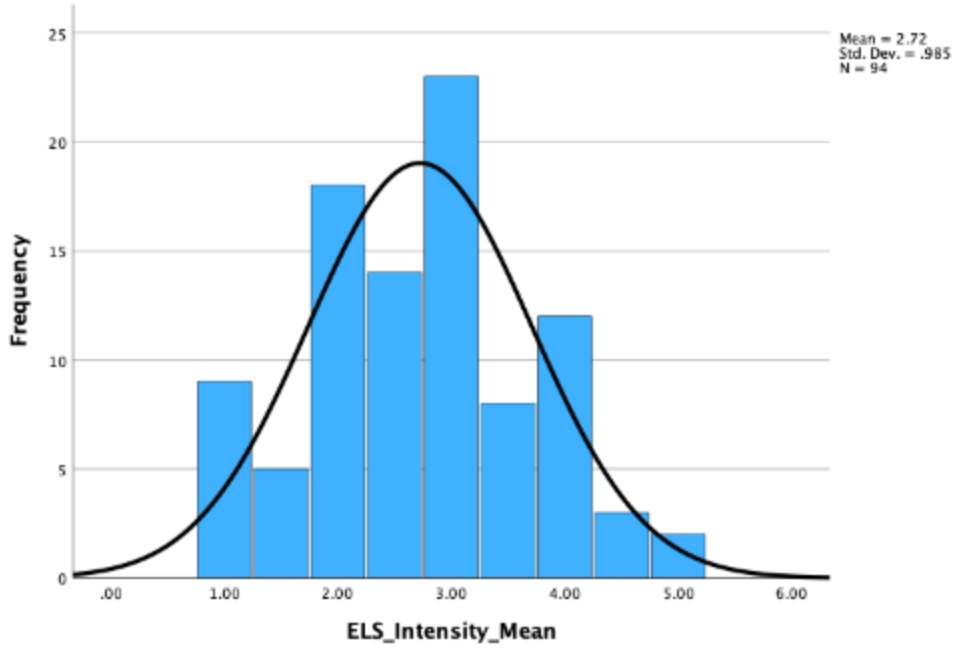
Duration of Interaction with Customers	Response to one item: A typical interaction I have with a customer takes: Responses are coded as 1 = 10 seconds or less; 2 = 11 – 30 seconds; 3 = 30 seconds – 1 minute; 4 = 1 minute – 5 minutes; 5 = 5 minutes and over
Emotional Exhaustion: Frequency	Scale variable, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (1 = never and 5 = always): Interact with customers; Adopt certain emotions as part of your job; Express particular emotions needed for your job
Emotional Exhaustion: Intensity	Scale variable, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (1 = never and 5 = always): Express intense emotions; Show some strong emotions
Emotional Exhaustion: Variety	Scale variable, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (1 = never and 5 = always): Display many different kinds of emotions; Express many different emotions; Display many different emotions when interacting with others
Emotional Exhaustion: Deep Acting	Scale variable, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (1 = never and 5 = always): Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others; Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show; Really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job
Emotional Exhaustion: Surface Acting	Scale variable, composed of the mean of two items, each with a 5-point Likert response scale based on the frequency to which the respondent experienced (1 = never and 5 = always): Resist expressing my true feelings; Pretend to have emotions that I don't really have; Hide my true feelings about a situation
Block 2: Demographic Variables	
Gender	Response to one item: The gender I identify with is: Responses are coded as 1 = Male; 2 = Female; 3 = Non-binary; 4 = Prefer not to say; 5 = Other
Seasonal Work	Respond to one item: I work for a seasonal employer: 1 = Yes; 2 = No

Seasonal Period	Response to one item: I work primarily during this season: 1 = Spring; 2 = Summer; 3 = Fall; 4 = Winter
Work Experience	Response to one item: What is your working experience? Responses are coded as 1 = 0 - 1 years; 2 = 1 - 2 years; 3 = 4 - 4 years; 4 = 5 - 8 years; 5 = 9+ years
Work Department	Response to one item: I work in this department: 1 = On-Site Park Staff; 2= Gift shop/check-in; 3 = Phone/customer service center; 4 = Food Service - Customer Facing; 5 = Food Service - Back of House; 6 = Maintenance/Facilities; 7 = Sales; 8 = Other
Work Region	Response to one item: I work in this region/State of the United States: 1 = Illinois/Wisconsin; 2 = Eastern United States; 3 = Eastern Michigan; 4 = Western Michigan; 5 = Minnesota; 6 = North Carolina; 7 = Southern United States; 8 = Western United States; 9 = Other
Supervisory Level	Response to one item: What is your supervisory level? Responses are coded as 1 = Not a supervisor; 2 = Supervisor of work group
Gift Card Raffle	Response to one item: If you'd like to be entered into a contest to win 1 of 3 $50 amazon gift cards for completing this survey, enter your email here. This is entirely optional, and should you want to remain anonymous, you can create a new email address or use a friend's.

Appendix B - Histograms



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Std. Dev. = .985
N = 94
Frequency
25
20
15
10
5
0
.00
1.00
2.00
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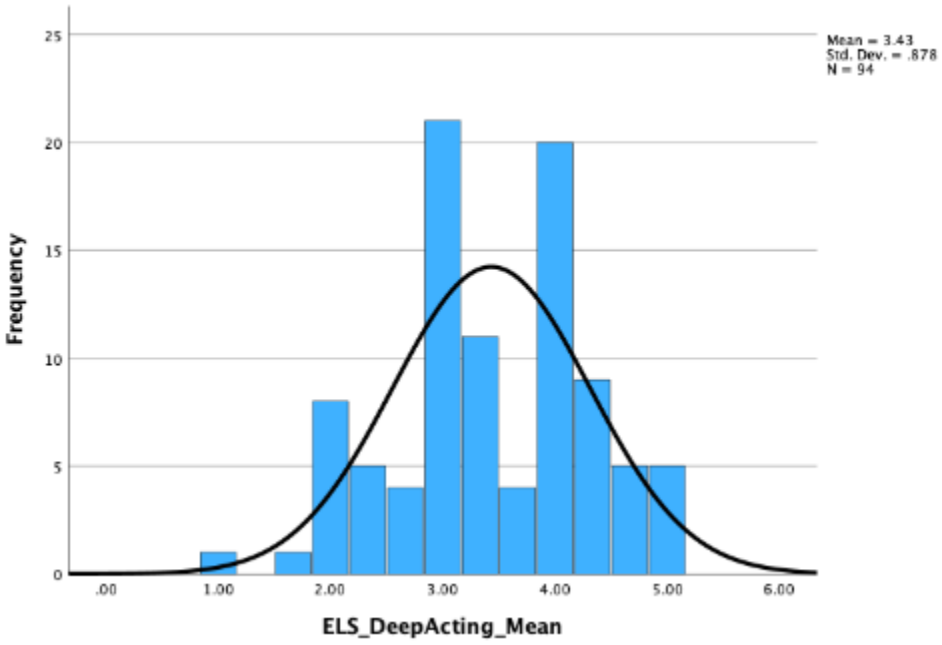
5.00
6.00
ELS_Intensity_Mean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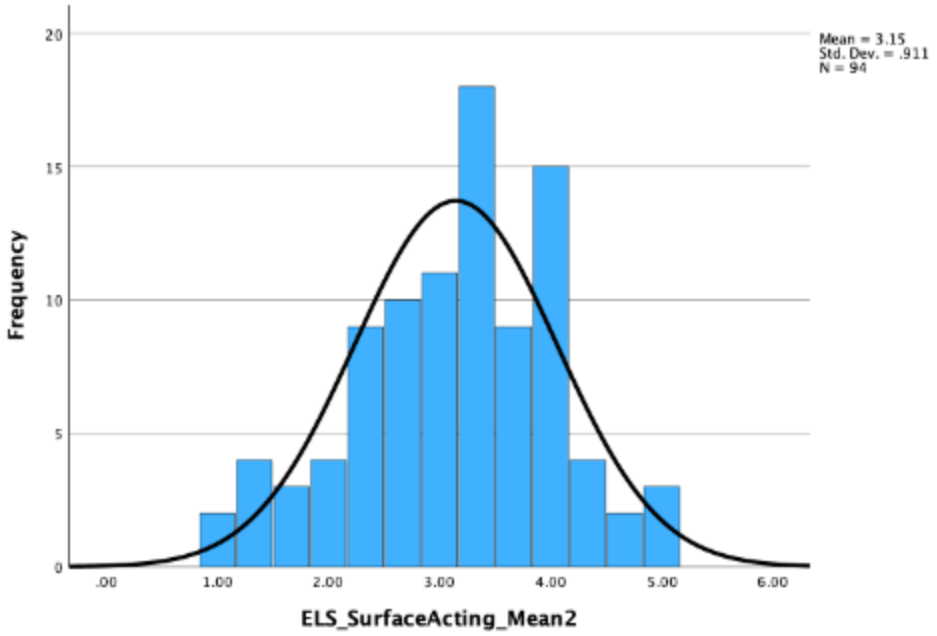
Std. Dev. = .878
N = 94
Frequency
25
20
15
10
5
0
.00
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
ELS_DeepActing_Mean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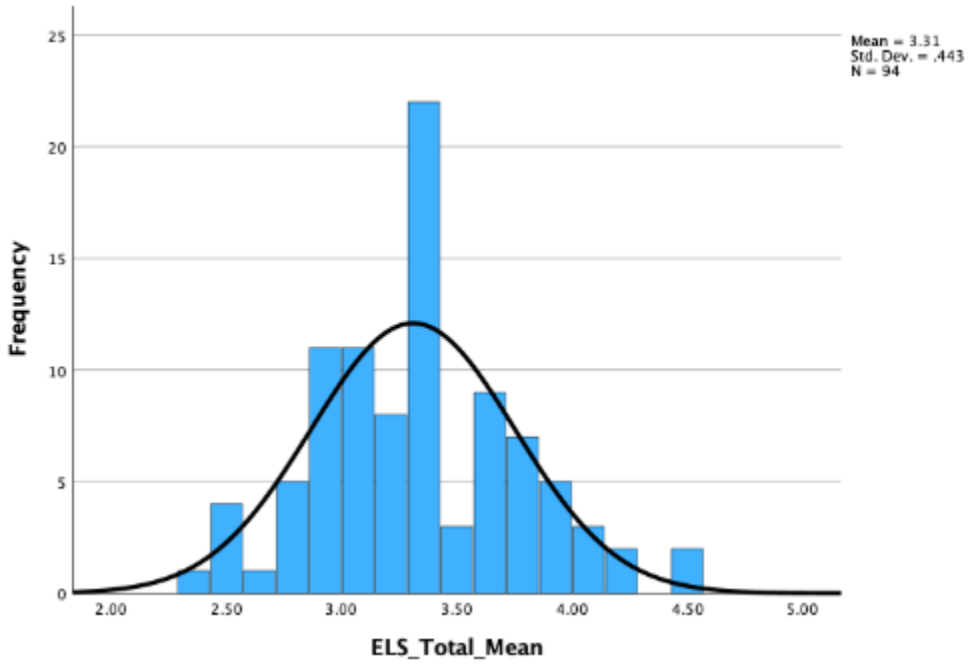
Std. Dev. = .911
N = 94
Frequency
20
15
10
5
0
.00
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
ELS_SurfaceActing_Mean2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Std. Dev. = .443
N = 94
Frequency
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10
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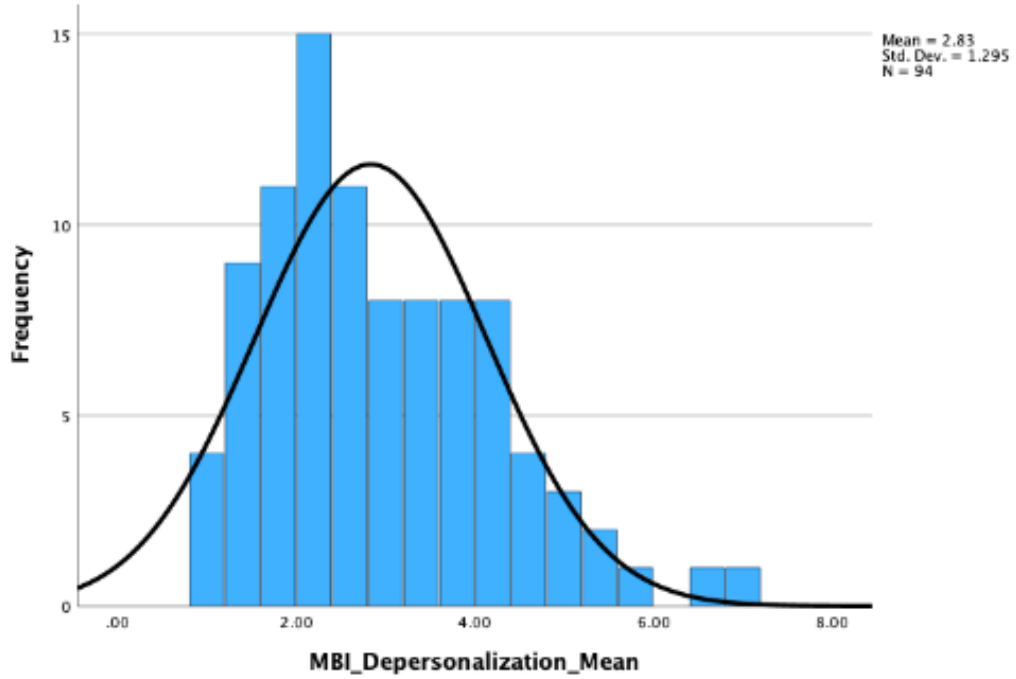
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
ELS_Total_Mean


Mean = 2.83
Std. Dev. = 1.295
N = 94
Frequency
15
10
5
0
.00
2.00
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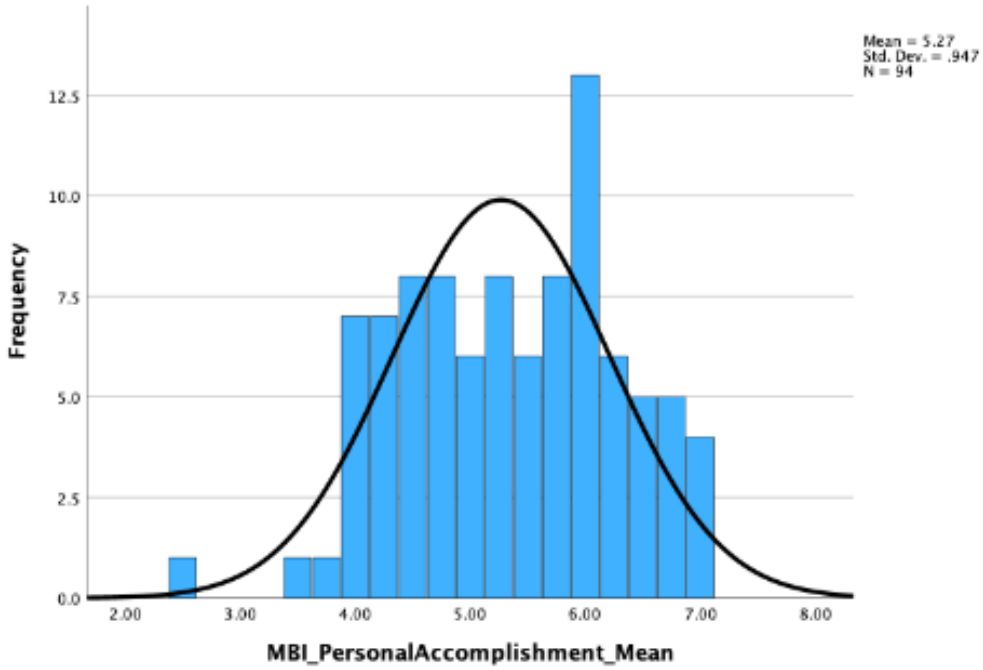
6.00
8.00
MBI_Depersonalization_Mean


Mean = 5.27
Std. Dev. = .947
N = 94
Frequency
12.5
10.0
7.5
5.0
2.5
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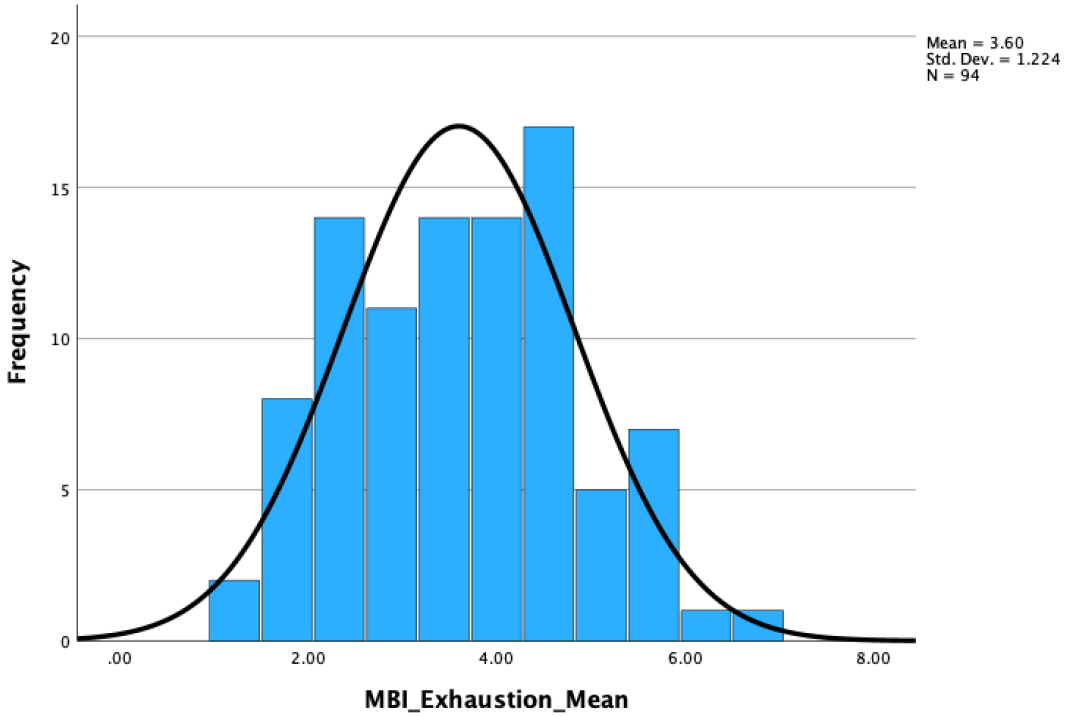
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
7.00
8.00
MBI_PersonalAccomplishment_Mean


Mean = 3.60
Std. Dev. = 1.224
N = 94
Frequency
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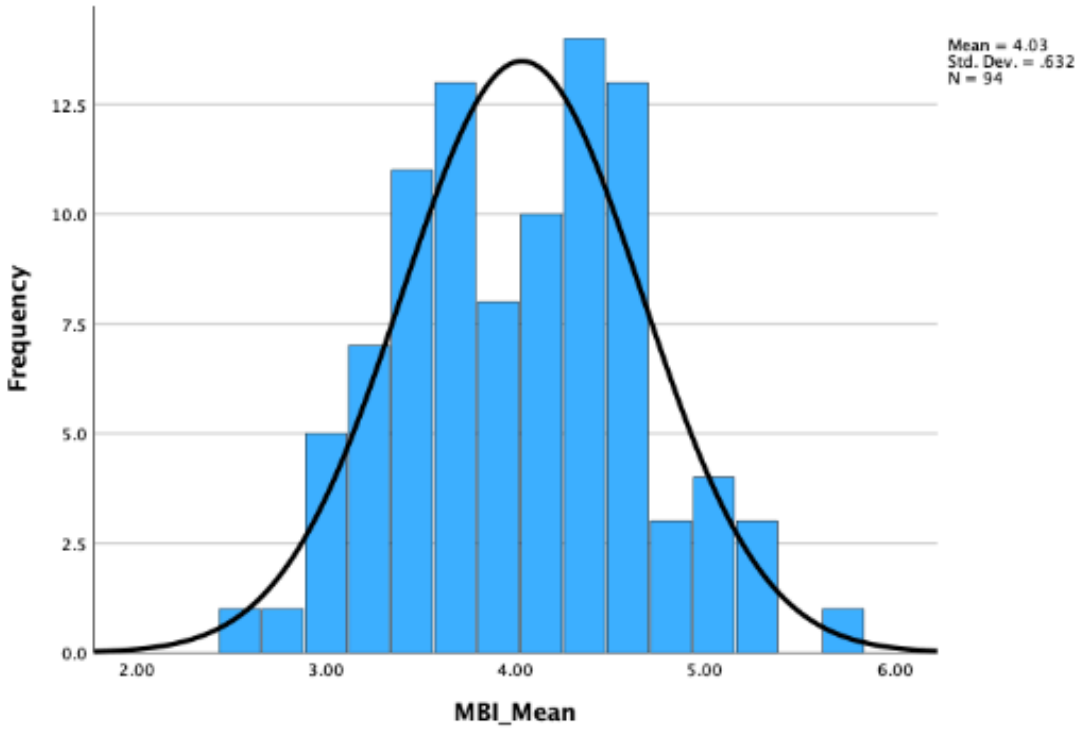
6.00
8.00
MBI_Exhaustion_Mean


Mean = 4.03
Std. Dev. = .632
N = 94
Frequency
12.5
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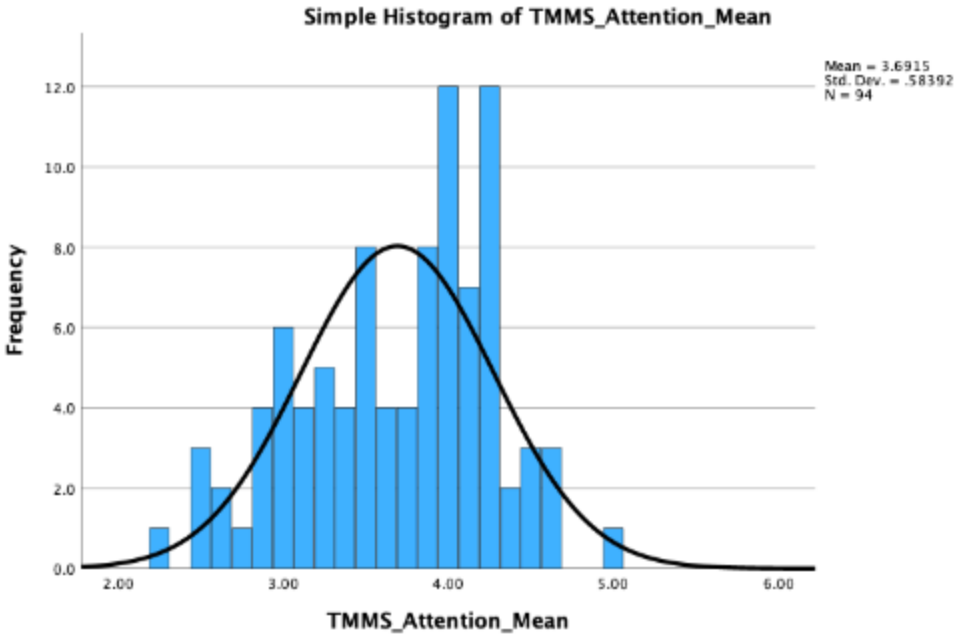
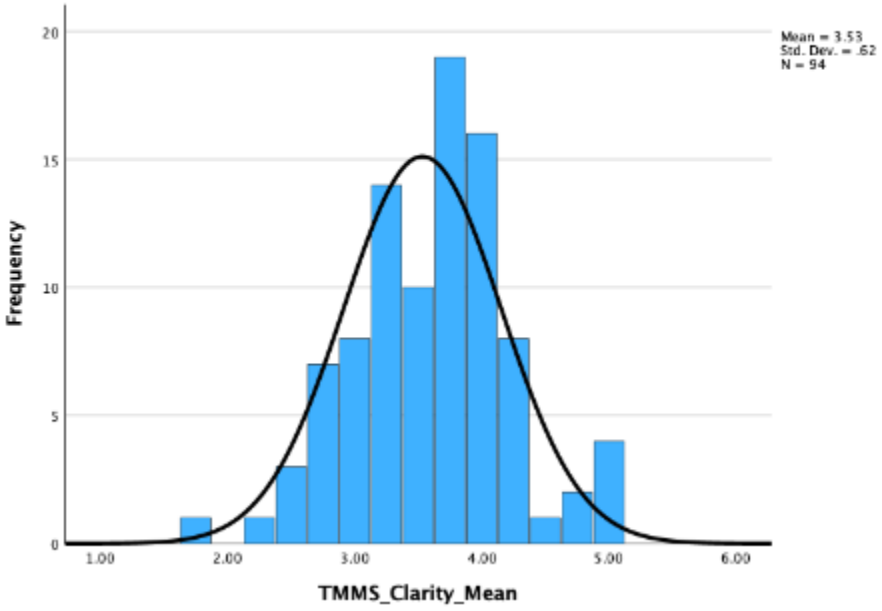
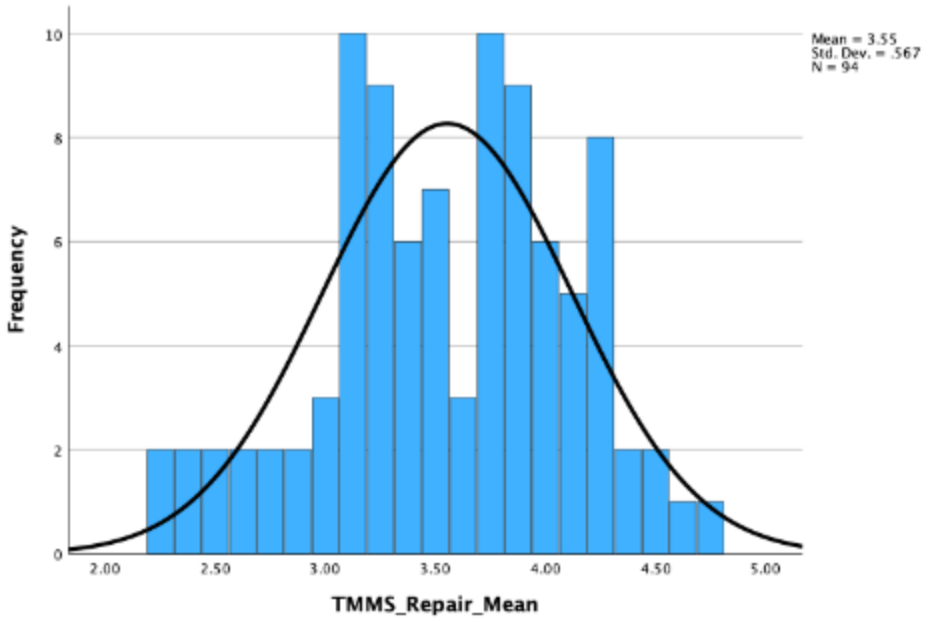
2.5
0.0
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
MBI_Mean

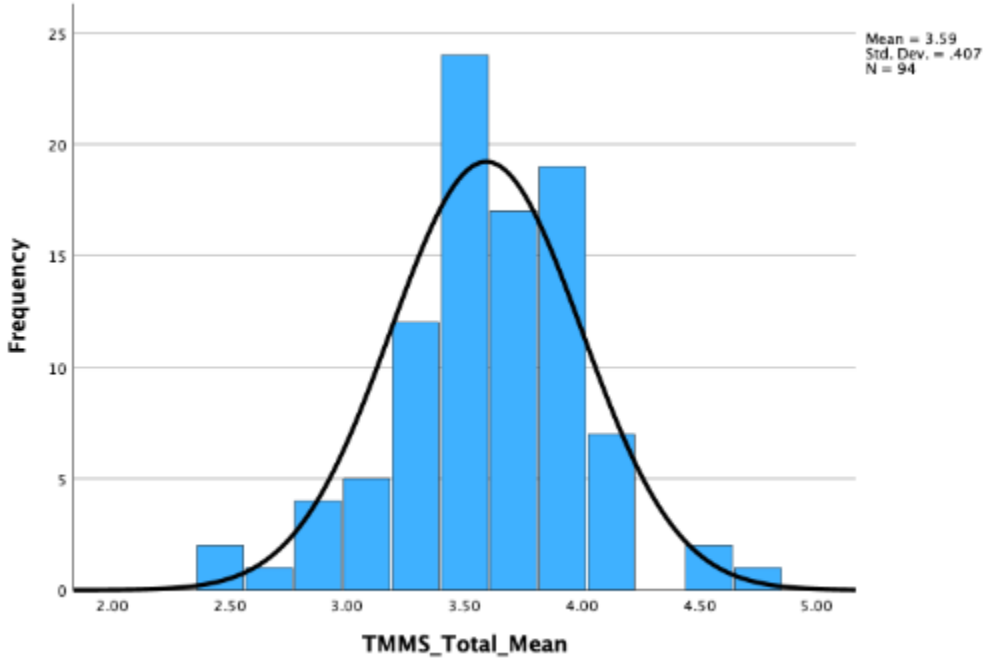
GGraph



Graph




Mean = 3.55
Std. Dev. = .567
N = 94
Frequency
TMMS_Repair_Mean


Mean = 3.59
Std. Dev. = .407
N = 94
Frequency
TMMS_Total_Mean

Appendix C - Correlation Matrix of All Subscales

Correlations

		TMMS_Total_Mean	TMMS_Attention_Mean	TMMS_Clarity_Mean	TMMS_Repair_Mean	MBI_Mean_Correct	MBI_Exhaustion_Mean	MBI_Depersonalization_Mean	MBI_PersonalAccomplishment_Mean	ELS_Total_Mean	ELS_Frequency_Mean	ELS_Intensity_Mean	ELS_DeepActing_Mean	ELS_SurfaceActing_Mean2	ELS_Variety_Mean
TMMS_Total_Mean	Pearson Correlation	1	.644**	.740**	.679**	-.227*	-.175	-.077	.310**	.234*	.124	.112	.350**	-.170	.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001	.028	.091	.458	.002	.023	.235	.281	<.001	.101	.077
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
TMMS_Attention_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.644**	1	.200	.137	.042	.088	.014	.022	.271**	.147	.115	.130	.005	.280**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		.054	.187	.685	.399	.896	.835	.008	.158	.269	.211	.960	.006
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
TMMS_Clarity_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.740**	.200	1	.292**	-.137	-.114	.019	.232*	.165	.080	.136	.241*	-.053	.037
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.054		.004	.188	.276	.858	.025	.111	.444	.193	.019	.614	.722
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
TMMS_Repair_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.679**	.137	.292**	1	-.382**	-.344**	-.201	.391**	.044	.027	-.025	.355**	-.313**	.065
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.187	.004		<.001	<.001	.052	<.001	.677	.795	.810	<.001	.002	.535
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
MBI_Mean_Correct	Pearson Correlation	-.227*	.042	-.137	-.382**	1	.911**	.823**	-.752**	.052	-.106	.162	-.497**	.471**	.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.685	.188	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001	.616	.311	.120	<.001	<.001	.420
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
MBI_Exhaustion_Mean	Pearson Correlation	-.175	.088	-.114	-.344**	.911**	1	.685**	-.492**	.089	-.021	.164	-.410**	.416**	.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.399	.276	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001	.395	.838	.115	<.001	<.001	.471
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
MBI_Depersonalization_Mean	Pearson Correlation	-.077	.014	.019	-.201	.823**	.685**	1	-.436**	.090	-.110	.250*	-.440**	.402**	.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.458	.896	.858	.052	<.001	<.001		<.001	.386	.293	.015	<.001	<.001	.235
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
MBI_PersonalAccomplishment_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.310**	.022	.232*	.391**	-.752**	-.492**	-.436**	1	.061	.168	.003	.407**	-.361**	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.835	.025	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001		.561	.105	.979	<.001	<.001	.857
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_Total_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.234*	.271**	.165	.044	.052	.089	.090	.061	1	.476**	.683**	.370**	.374**	.665**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.008	.111	.677	.616	.395	.386	.561		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_Frequency_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.124	.147	.080	.027	-.106	-.021	-.110	.168	.476**	1	.095	-.017	.210*	.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.235	.158	.444	.795	.311	.838	.293	.105	<.001		.363	.868	.043	.460
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_Intensity_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.112	.115	.136	-.025	.162	.164	.250*	.003	.683**	.095	1	.102	.115	.522**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.281	.269	.193	.810	.120	.115	.015	.979	<.001	.363		.326	.269	<.001
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_DeepActing_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.350**	.130	.241*	.355**	-.497**	-.410**	-.440**	.407**	.370**	-.017	.102	1	-.312**	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.211	.019	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.868	.326		.002	.240
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_SurfaceActing_Mean2	Pearson Correlation	-.170	.005	-.053	-.313**	.471**	.416**	.402**	-.361**	.374**	.210*	.115	-.312**	1	-.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.101	.960	.614	.002	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.043	.269	.002		.421
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94
ELS_Variety_Mean	Pearson Correlation	.183	.280**	.037	.065	.084	.075	.124	-.019	.665**	.077	.522**	.122	-.084	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.077	.006	.722	.535	.420	.471	.235	.857	<.001	.460	<.001	.240	.421	
	N	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	94

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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