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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT
AMONG CABIN CREW: THE ROLES OF PERSON-JOB FIT AND WORK-FAMILY
CONFLICT

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT AMONG CABIN CREW:
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KABİN EKİPLERİ ARASINDA DUYGUSAL EMEK VE TÜKENMİŞLİK İLİŞKİSİ: KİŞİ-İŞ UYUMU VE
İŞ-AİLE ÇATIŞMASININ ROLÜ

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- 1) emotional labor
- 2) person-job fit
- 3) work-family life conflict
- 4) burnout
- 5) cabin crew

*Remember the flight,
The bird is mortal.*

- Forugh Farrokhzad

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EL	Emotional Labor
SA	Surface Acting
DA	Deep Acting
GE	Genuine Emotion
WFC	Work-Family Conflict
WFLC	Work-Family Life Conflict
EE	Emotional Exhaustion
DP	Depersonalization
LPA	Lack of Personal Accomplishment

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to understand the role of work-family life conflict on the effect of emotional labor on burnout and the impact of person-job fit on this mediation effect. Following this purpose, quantitative research was carried out with 209 cabin crew.

In the study, the Emotional Labor Scale, the Work-Family Conflict Scale, and the Maslach Burnout Inventory were used. It was examined whether the emotional labor styles exhibited by cabin crews as a requirement of their jobs lead to exhaustion, and the effect of role conflict between work and family life to this effect. Person-job fit was added to this relationship using Person-Job Fit Scale. It was examined whether there is a difference between people who are fit/non-fit with their job on the level of the strain that they arise to the effect of emotional labor strategy displayed by cabin crews on the other areas of their lives.

According to the results of the study, there are significant relationships between the variables. A positive relationship was found between emotional labor and burnout. Another variable that had a positive effect on burnout is the work-family life conflict. Work-family life conflict is also affected by emotional labor positively. Moreover, it was thought that person-job fit is an essential mechanism in the relationship between emotional labor and work-family life conflict. However, there was no relationship of moderated mediation in the model in which all the variables were included.

When the previous studies were analyzed, the number of studies done with cabin crews is very low, especially in Organizational Psychology. With the increasing importance of the aviation sector and these variables in literature and the working life, this study is expected to shed light on different researches in the future.

Key Words: emotional labor, person-job fit, work-family life conflict, burnout, cabin crew.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, duygusal emeğin tükenmişlik üzerindeki etkisinde iş-aile yaşam çatışmasının rolünü ve bu aracılık etkisine kişi-iş uyumunun etkisini anlamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, 209 kişiden oluşan kabin ekibi örnekleme ile nicel bir araştırma gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çalışmada, Duygusal Emek Ölçeği, İş-Aile Çatışması Ölçeği ve Maslach Tükenmişlik Envanteri kullanılarak kabin ekiplerinin işlerinin gereği olarak sergiledikleri duygusal emek stillerinin, tükenmelerine yol açıp açmadığı ve bu etkide, iş ve aile hayatları arasındaki rol çatışmasının etkisi incelenmiştir. Bu ilişkiye, Kişi-İş Uyumu Ölçeği kullanılarak, kişi-iş uyumu dahil edilmiş ve kabin ekiplerinin sergiledikleri duygusal emek stratejisinin hayatlarının diğer alanlarında yol açtığı gerginlik düzeyinde, işiyle uyumlu olanlar ve olmayanlar arasında fark olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır.

Yapılan çalışmanın sonucunda değişkenler arasında önemli ilişkiler olduğu saptanmıştır. Duygusal emek ve tükenmişlik arasında pozitif ilişki bulunmuştur. Tükenmişlik üzerinde pozitif etkisi olan bir diğer değişken iş-aile yaşam çatışmasıdır. İş-aile yaşam çatışması da pozitif yönde duygusal emekten etkilenmektedir. Ayrıca, kişi-iş uyumunun, duygusal emek ile iş-aile yaşam çatışması arasındaki ilişkisinde önemli bir mekanizma olduğu düşünülmektedir. Ancak, araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre, tüm değişkenlerin birlikte yer aldığı modelde biçimlendirilmiş aracılık ilişkisi bulunamamıştır.

Daha önce yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde, özellikle Örgütsel Psikoloji alanında kabin ekipleri ile gerçekleştirilen çalışmalarının sayısının oldukça az olduğu görülmektedir. Havacılık sektörünün ve çalışmamızdaki değişkenlerin hem literatürde hem de yaşam da artan önemi ile, bu çalışmanın gelecekte yapılacak farklı araştırmalara ışık olması hedeflenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: duygusal emek, kişi-iş uyumu, iş-aile yaşam çatışması, tükenmişlik, kabin ekibi

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Emotion is a concept with cognitive, physiological, psychological, and sociological aspects. It has been a subject of studies since the 1800s (Seçer, 2009). Various approaches have emerged in the literature since William James asked that "What is an emotion?" in 1884 (Fineman, 1996). There is the naturalistic approach that treats emotions as reflexes resulting from instincts and impulses. On the other hand, the symbolic interactionist approach treats emotions as impressions that result from social interactions (Karaman, 2017). The naturalistic approach argues that a stimulus produces the same emotion physiologically every time.

In contrast, the symbolic interactionist approach argues that a stimulus can produce various emotions according to how it is socially interpreted (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Rafaeli and Worline (2001) said that people are social entities, so they are a combination of their emotions. Hence, emotions cannot be explained without considering social environments for symbolic interactionists (Seçer, 2009).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) took interpretive approach to emotional experience as a third option. They said that emotional experience is not mediated cognitively and/or socially (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Similar to the naturalistic approach (Seçer, 2009), a stimulus can trigger an emotion. However, the individual may not fully understand the physiological change created by the stimulus. At this point, the person can interpret this physiological change within the social context. Therefore social situations determine how the person feel (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Hence, they said that for the approach of Ashforth and Humphrey (1995), both the physiological structure and the social context affect the reveal of emotions.

Although emotions in human-life have been a subject of studies since the 1800s, emotions in work-life were handled by ignoring the feelings and forgetting that human is a social being (Seçer, 2009). The reason for this is the rationality

imposed by Taylorism (Oral & Köse, 2011). In the 1920-1930s, emotions were handled as an irrational activity within the organizational system. The ideal organization was where emotions were managed or suppressed (Fineman, 1996). However, employees are social and emotional beings, as Hawthorne studies (from 1927 to 1932) depicted. At the same time, with the behavioral management approach that started to develop, rationality and emotionality were handled equally in organizations (Oral & Köse, 2011). Just as how Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) stated that it should be. They considered rationality and emotionality as interpenetrated issues. They stated that this association could be used functionally in terms of organization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

With the view that emotions must exist for rationality to function, organizations were started to look for ways to use emotions effectively (Karaman, 2017). Researchers have begun to discover particularly how to manage the emotions of employees to improve job outcomes (Grandey, 2000). Because at the same time, the service sector was on a significant rise. In this period, the competitive element became customer satisfaction (Oral & Köse, 2011). Therefore, how the employees regulated their emotions to provide customer satisfaction was the subject of research (Grandey, 2000).

These questions brought the researchers to the concept of emotional labor. Unlike the traditionally mentioned physical and mental labor concepts, Hochschild first mentioned the concept of emotional labor in 1983. Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labor as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7). In summary, emotional labor is the process in which workers are needed to manage their emotions according to the organization's rules to ensure customer satisfaction with the rise of the service industry (Wharton, 2009).

Hochschild (1983) said that there are three common characteristics of the jobs that require emotional labor. Firstly, to communicate with the customer face to face or voice to voice. Secondly, to expect the employee to display certain emotions to have an impact on the customer. Third, to give employers to control the emotions

of their employees. Moreover, she stated that one of these jobs was flight attendant. Similarly, Bayram, Aytaç, and Dursun (2012) stated that emotional labor was intense in some occupations such as doctors, nurses, teachers, flight attendants, social service experts, call center employees, and salespeople. Chang and Chiu (2009) also classified the flight attendants as employees with highly displayed emotional labor.

The primary duties of flight attendants are security, safety, and customer service. Nowadays, expected customer service roles have become a significant competitive factor in the work done on an airplane. Hence, the organization expects flight attendants to display specific behavior and emotions while providing customer service (Okabe, 2018). However, just as customers are affected by behavior and attitudes of flight attendants, also flight attendants can be affected by the complex customer temperament. Therefore, some working conditions such as longtime customer service, the uncertainty of working hours, and cabin environment can cause various problems (Chang & Chiu, 2009).

Emotional labor displayed by flight attendants during customer service to ensure customer satisfaction creates adverse effects on their mental and physical health (Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Zapf, 2002). One result of the dissonance between the emotion felt and displayed is the burnout. For instance, Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, and Isic (1999) found that there is a relationship between emotional dissonance and all dimensions of burnout. Maslach (2003) said that the probability of experiencing higher-level emotional exhaustion is more likely among people who have frequent face to face and emotionally charged interactions with customers.

Of course, while emotional labor affects burnout, various mediator variables play essential roles. The researchers showed that emotional labor also affects work-family life conflict, which has an impact on burnout. One reason for that is the spillover of pressures in one area to another area. Montgomery, Panagopolou, and Benos (2005) stated that due to emotional spillover, the obligation to display the emotional rules at work leads to work-family conflict. Montgomery, Peeters,

Schaufeli, and Ouden (2003) found that work-family conflict had a mediator effect on the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout. Thereby, emotional labor affects work-family life conflict, and that effect causes burnout in the long-term.

The literature also shows that jobs with intense emotional needs will harm well-being and may result in both burnout and role conflict. Furthermore, this result is consistent with person-environment fit theories (Zapf et al., 1999). It means the main reason for that negative impact may be the misfit between the nature of the person and work. According to Humphrey, Ashforth, and Diefendorff, (2015), a person-job fit is a vital moderator that determines the consequences of emotional labor affecting the well-being of the employee. The negative consequences of emotional labor do not stem directly from emotional labor but person-job misfit. Performing emotional labor when people do the job that fits them can result in positive, not negative. For instance, Karatepe and Karadas (2016) found that when there is a fit between the employee and the demands of the job, the employee could solve the problems that arise due to work-family conflict and family-work conflict.

When the terms "kabin ekibi", "kabin memuru", "hostes", "cabin crew", "cabin attendant", and "flight attendant" are examined in Thesis Databases of YÖK, there are about 70 theses whose samples are cabin crew. Almost all of these studies were carried out after 2010. Besides, these studies were in various fields as Business Administration, Civil Aviation, and Psychology and about multiple topics as crew resource management, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The studies on the sample of cabin crew from the field of Organizational Psychology in Turkey are not numerous.

Moreover, Organizational Psychology literature examining the influence of emotional labor on burnout, and the association of burnout with work-family life conflict is sparse. Unlike all these studies, the current study predicts that the person-job fit has a moderator role in the relationship between emotional labor and work-family life conflict. Moreover, it is predicted that the work-family life conflict has a mediator role in the relationship between emotional labor and burnout.

The flight attendants are expected to show emotional labor since they are in the service sector. The purpose of this study is to understand the relationship between the emotional labor of cabin crew and the work-family life conflict that they face, especially among the flight attendants who are not fit with this job. Another aim is to understand the effects of these two factors on burnout if there is burnout. We estimate that emotional labor affects work-family life conflict, especially if there is a person-job misfit. Moreover, we estimate that emotional labor and work-family life conflict affect burnout. Thus, we can expect that emotional labor may have an effect on burnout in the long-term.

1.1. Emotional Labor

After the 1929 World Economic Crisis, the insufficient aspects of Classical Management Approaches emerged, which treated emotions as a subjective phenomenon to be avoided in business life. According to the Classic Management Approach, emotions must be suppressed and hidden in order to achieve success in the workplace. However, Behavioral Management and Organization Theory (Neo-Classical Approach) has been developed as a new management approach since the 1930s. In this period, with the developing service sector, emotions started to be considered as a necessity in the workplace. With the understanding of the importance of emotions in customer satisfaction and organizational profitability, an environment that brings the concept of emotional labor to academic literature with scientific studies started (Güngör, 2009).

All the skills and competencies of the employees put forward are called labor. According to the nature of the work, this labor can be mental labor in which the employees show their knowledge and abilities or can be physical labor that requires physical efforts. Employees add their emotions to the labor process (Güngör, 2009) as well. In the service sector, it is not sufficient to use physical or mental skills, but

meeting customer demands by showing appropriate emotions according to the nature of the work is vital (Çelik & Turunç, 2011).

Emotional Labor (EL) was first articulated in *The Managed Heart*, the book of sociologist Arlie Russell Hochschild, in 1983. She evaluates EL separately from physical and mental labor. For instance, when a cabin crew lifts the passenger's heavy luggage, she spends physical effort; while organizing emergency landings and departures according to instructions, she spends mental effort; and while suppressing emotions to guarantee passengers' satisfaction, she spends EL. Hochschild (1983) defined EL as “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” (p. 7). According to Hochschild (1983), due to the rising importance of the service sector, the intense relationship with the customer, and the desire for sustainable competition, customer satisfaction gains more importance, and the emotional expressions of the employees are handled within the scope of management tools in this sector. Also, Hochschild (1983) demonstrated that EL could be bought and sold for a wage, and therefore it has a commercial value. Hochschild generally describes EL as “managing emotions for a wage” (Grandey, 2000, p. 95).

In conjunction with Hochschild's approach, three basic approaches to EL are accepted in the literature. These are studies of Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Grandey (2000). According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), “emotional labor is the display of expected emotions by service agents during service encounters” (p. 88). Their definition differs from Hochschild's (1983) definition because they state that they focus on behavior, not emotions that are supposed to underlie behavior. Again, unlike Hochschild, they said that it is not about "managing" emotions but observable behavior (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Morris and Feldman (1996) defined EL as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (p. 987). Grandey (2000) described EL as the process of regulating not only emotions but also expressions that are expressed to accomplish organizational goals. Besides, according to Grandey (2000), the concept of EL

cannot be fully explained by previous approaches, and conceptualization will only be possible with a synthesis of all approaches.

1.1.1. The Basic Emotional Labor Approaches

Although there are many studies on emotional labor, four approaches are widely accepted in the literature. These approaches are examined in chronological order below.

1.1.1.1. Hochschild's (1983) Approach

Sociologist A.R. Hochschild (1983) used the concept of EL for the first time in her study with Delta Airlines' flight attendants. First, she made various observations in the training center of Delta Airlines and later conducted interviews with people working in Delta Airlines, like officers, supervisors, and flight attendants. She observed that a trainee wrote her notebook that "Smile is important. Do not forget to smile."; others mentioned that their smiles were on their faces but not part of them. For a flight attendant, the smile is a component to coordinate herself and her emotions. Hiding fatigue is also an element of the job. Hochschild (1983) defined EL as employees' managing own emotions within the "feeling rules" set by the organization in the workplace and doing this as part of work and for a wage. In this sense, emotions have become a commercial commodity, and it has an exchange value.

The basis of Hochschild's study is the dramaturgical approach to customer interactions: EL is a process of acting where the employee is an actor, the customer is an audience, service is a show, and the workplace is a stage (Chu, Baker, & Murrmann, 2012). Based on this similarity established by Hochschild (1983), the actor (employee) performs acting (emotional labor) to the audience (customer),

adhering to the scenario (the expectations of the organization) (Seçer & Tınar, 2004). In this dramaturgical perspective, Hochschild was influenced by Goffman (1959), actors can manage emotions in two different aspects. The first is to regulate the emotional expressions of the person with surface acting (SA). The second is to consciously change the emotions to express the required emotion with deep acting (DA) (Grandey, 2000). In SA, we are trying to change our appearance. For instance, the actor does not experience this particular feeling but tries to look that way. The way we trick others about our feelings, as not tricking ourselves, is SA. On the other hand, the natural outcome of effort on the feelings is the appearance in DA. This shows up spontaneously; there is no effort of the actor to look happy or sad. Thus, Hochschild said that DA is tricking oneself as well as tricking others. In doing so, the actor believes that emotion exists.

Emotions in SA are not "part of" the actor; "put on" them. Besides that, in DA, the actor feels that emotions are the result of a conscious mental work (Hochschild, 1983). Therefore, in both methods, the actor has to manage emotions, and this requires an effort. In case of conflict between how the person feels and what the organizations set the display rules, EL is exhibited that pushes the employee into self-alienation and emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983), which leads to strain following a long-time conflict between feelings and acting. Hence, Hochschild relates burnout and job stress to EL (Grandey, 2000).

1.1.1.2. Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) Approach

Unlike Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) approached EL as noticeable behavior, not managing feelings. They argue that rather than the emotions that employees felt, it is crucial to reflect the emotions determined by display rules of the organization. Because customers observe and pay attention to behavior, actions emerging as consequence of emotions are at the scope. For that

reason, they said that “we prefer the term display rules to feeling rules” (1993, p. 89).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) added the concept of genuine emotion to EL behavior concepts that Hochschild (1983) described as SA and DA, which are ways to manage the emotion. According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), employees may already be feeling the emotion they should display in any situation. In this case, there is no need for people to “act” (surface acting) nor try to match their emotions with the situation (deep acting). It is enough to reflect the feeling they experience genuinely. Thus, in addition to the SA and DA concepts of Hochschild, they introduced the concept of GE (Köse, Oral, & Türesin, 2011). GE is the situation in which, without any effort, the employees genuinely experience the feeling that would trigger the expected behavior (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). It is what the individuals spontaneously feel and express without having to act (Zapf, 2002).

While Hochschild focuses on the negative consequences of EL, according to Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), the consequences of EL may be both positive and negative, depending on the context. Ashforth and Humphrey focused on task effectiveness and task performance by likening EL to a double-edged sword. If employees can show the behavior that the organization expects from them, this leads to an increase in task efficiency. EL regulates interaction and prevents interpersonal problems; thus, it can facilitate task performance. However, if priority expectations for excellent service are not met, it can reduce performance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Therefore, they stated that EL should be related to task effectiveness, provided that the customer senses the expression sincerely. However, EL may be dysfunctional for employees if employees are not expressing natural expressions (Grandey, 2000).

According to Grandey (2000), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) have two important aspects that differ from Hochschild (1989): “First, they focus on observable behavior rather than emotions. Second, they highlighted the effect of

EL on-task activity, rather than the impact on the individual's health or stress" (p. 96).

1.1.1.3. Morris and Feldman's (1996) Approach

Morris and Feldman did the first study to explain the dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes of EL by using quantitative empirical methods in 1996 (Krumls & Geddes, 2000). They defined EL as an effort, planning, and control to display the emotions desired by the organization in interpersonal relations (Morris & Feldman, 1996) based on "an interactionist approach that claims that emotions are expressed in, and partially determined by, the social environment" (Grandey, 2000, p. 97). They stated that this definition is based on four assumptions. First, this definition includes an interactionist model that shows that emotions are socially constructed. Second, they believe that emotions cannot be expressed without effort or "labor," even if the emotion that the individual feels and the emotion that is demanded by the organization is the same. Third, similar to Hochschild (1983), they recognize that emotional expression has now become a commercial commodity. However, they differ from Hochschild's definition by focusing on expressive behavior rather than focusing on emotion management. Fourth, by previous definitions, they accept that some rules determine how and when emotions are displayed (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Similarly, Hochschild (1983) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), their approach (1996) accept that emotions can be changed and moderated by the people. Also, the wider social environment affects when this will happen. However, unlike Ashforth and Humphrey's approach (1993), they claim that even though the feelings determined by the organization and the feelings of the employee are the same, employees will make a special effort to display the behavior as expected. Morris and Feldman have emphasized the "effort" that employees display while fulfilling the emotional display rules determined by the organization. Because,

according to them, all kinds of emotional display in organizations require a specific effort (Çolak, 2018).

Another point where Morris and Feldman (1996) differ from other approaches is the dimensions of EL. They claimed that the best conceptualize of EL could be in four different dimensions:

- a) ***Frequency of appropriate emotional displays:*** Customers establish an emotional bond with the organization through the behavior of employees, thereby, the probability of the organization gaining customer loyalty increases. The more social-emotional indicators contained in the job description of a role, the organization expects a higher emotional display from the employee. According to Morris and Feldman (1996), an essential indicator of EL is the frequency of emotional display.
- b) ***Attentiveness to required display rules:*** According to Morris and Feldman (1996), as the attention increases, the psychological energy and physical effort that the service job expects from employees increases, thus increases in EL displays. From their perspective, this dimension has two categories: The duration of emotional display and the intensity of these emotions. Based on the works of Sutton and Rafaeli (1988) and Rafaeli (1989), they concluded that long-term emotional displays cause more effort and therefore require more EL. The same equation applies to the emotional intensity defined as “how strongly or what magnitude an emotion is experienced or expressed” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 990). Because emotional intensity is often challenging to imitate, EL efforts of employees who work in jobs that need intense emotional displays will also increase. Morris and Feldman (1996) also indicated that emotional intensity is an essential determinant in the differentiation of the level of EL required by service jobs and compared various groups of service workers in this sense.
- c) ***Variety of emotions to be displayed:*** According to the third dimension, the more the diversity of emotions displayed, the more the amount of psychological energy that the employees have to spend, and this will bring

the higher EL. Morris and Feldman (1996) stated that variety could significantly affect the number of EL included in regulating the emotional expression. The extent of the variety of emotions can also affect the planning and adjustment desired to display the emotions expected by the organization. Therefore, planning and anticipation require more EL.

- d) ***Emotional dissonance***: Morris and Feldman (1996) considered the concept of emotional dissonance, which was considered as the result of EL in previous studies, as a dimension of EL. Reportedly from Middleton (1989), emotional dissonance is the conflict between the emotions that should be exhibited in the organizations and GE of the employees. More skill, control, and attentive action will be required when there are mismatches between the emotions that genuinely felt and organizationally required. This situation will be required more EL (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

In a later empirical study, where they tested the antecedents and consequences of EL, Morris and Feldman (1997) stated that EL had three dimensions: frequency, duration, and emotional dissonance (Kim, 2008). In this study, they found that only emotional dissonance was related to consequences. According to their results, as emotional dissonance increases, emotional exhaustion increases, and job satisfaction decreases. There is no relationship between other dimensions and emotional exhaustion (Morris & Feldman, 1997).

1.1.1.4. Grandey's (2000) Approach

The first feature of Grandey's (2000) approach is that it is the combination of previous approaches. The second feature is that her model includes the concept of emotion regulation. Grandey (2000) accepted EL as a process, and she stated the importance of SA and DA in the EL process. Also, she argued that the SA and DA model points to a well-structured theory of emotional regulation. According to

Grandey (2000), EL is a process like emotion regulation, which is defined as “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” by Gross (1998, p. 275). Employees regulate the stimulation and cognition which define emotions, and they display them according to the display rules defined by the organization. The difference of this view is that employees can not only change the emotions which they forecast they will experience, but also, they can change their emotions immediately while the situation is experiencing (Ünler Öz, 2007).

Grandey (2000) stated that evaluating EL as a two-dimensional process has several advantages. One of them is that when considered SA and DA are a process, it turns out that EL outputs can be not only negative but also positive (Gosserand, 2003). Such a difference makes it possible for both organizational and individual outcomes to be improved and made positive by stress management training (Grandey, 2000). Another benefit of approaching EL as SA and DA is directly associated with the theory of emotion regulation. In the emotion regulation theory of Gross (1998), there are two factors which the antecedent-focused emotion regulation that occurs before emotion is produced and the response-focused emotion regulation that occurs after the emotion is produced. That is, one means input (stimulus) regulation, and the other means output (response) regulation (Ünler Öz, 2007). Grandey (2000) said that they are corresponded respectively to DA and SA, because one of them is changing of feelings, and the other is the managing of observable expressions of emotions (Gosserand, 2003). At this point, Gosserand (2003) said that basing the dimensions of EL on the theory of emotion regulation validates the ability to train the skills to manage emotions involved in EL and display appropriate emotions in certain situations. According to him, it means that the situational conditions can determine which emotion regulation technique is required, and employees can be trained to perform either DA or SA depending on the characteristics of the situation.

Grandey's (2000) model, which accepts SA and DA as the dimensions of EL, involves situational conditions, individual factors, and organizational factors as the

antecedents of EL. Interactions, expectations, and emotional events are ,situational conditions. Individual factors are gender, emotional expressiveness, emotional intelligence, and affectivity. Job autonomy, supervisor support, and coworker support are categorized under organizational factors. EL may cause positive and negative consequences that affect both individual well-being and organizational well-being in this model. Burnout and job satisfaction are concepts of individual well-being. Performance and withdrawal behavior are concepts of organizational well-being.

1.1.2. Emotional Labor Strategies

The common point of the approaches mentioned above is that organizational emotional display rules determine the behavior of employees in the workplace, and the employees control their emotions according to these rules.

The dimensions of EL have been determined by Hochschild (1983) as SA and DA. In addition to these two behavioral dimensions, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) brought GE to the EL approach as the third dimension. SA associated with “bad faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, p. 32) signifies that employees hide or fake their emotions. DA associated with “good faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, p. 32) signifies that employees make an effort to experience the emotions defined in the organization's display rules (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005). Furthermore, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) have called GE to some cases in which emotions of employees that may naturally match up with the expectations of the organization.

1.1.2.1. Surface Acting

Grandey (2000) defined SA as managing observable expressions. In this EL strategy, employees try to express the emotions they do not feel but should show. So, there is no change in emotions felt, but their looks (facial expressions, gestures, voice tones) change. Employees just display of a regulated behavior. It means they do not work to feel the emotions they want to revive. They wear fake smiles and other emotional appearances, which not their true feelings (Hochschild, 1983).

Therefore, there is either a non-existent emotion that turns into behavior or a real emotion that does not turn into behavior (Avcı & Boylu, 2010). The emotion people have to show is very different from how they feel. In this case, the individuals show the behavior required by the emotional display rules, but their own emotions do not change (Köse et al., 2011).

It is to display the behavior that is compatible with the emotion that desired to be reflected in the customer without internalizing this emotion (Grandey, 2003). Reflecting inconsistent expressions of emotions without internalizing them was associated with stress outcomes due to internal tension caused by suppressing real emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). For instance, the fact that emotions felt do not coincide with the emotions that the organization expects is expressed as the emotional dissonance by Morris and Feldman (1997). According to their model, as the emotional dissonance increases, emotional exhaustion increases.

1.1.2.2. Deep Acting

While SA means changing expressions, DA means changing emotions (Allen, Pugh, Grandey, & Groth, 2010). In the words of Diefendorff et al. (2005), when the individuals try to experience the desired emotion, they exhibit DA. When the emotion they have to exhibit is different from the emotion they feel, the people first choose to change their emotions and adapt them to the circumstances. Exhibited emotion is an expected result of working on the emotion felt (Hochschild, 1983). This practical action, that is, DA corresponds to the dimension of emotive effort in

the model of Kruml and Geddes (2000). Starting from this point of view, while there is an effort in the SA towards the outwardly reflected behavior, there is an effort towards the direct inner feelings in DA. Here emotions are consciously suppressed, stimulated, or shaped (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

DA may be required where SA remains superficial in meeting expectations of customers (Zapf, 2002). If employees succeed in exhibiting DA, they are perceived more genuinely (Kim, 2008). Thus, DA is related to better customer satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2015) with an effect on organizational well-being. In terms of individual well-being, when employees display more DA, they notice lower emotional exhaustion and higher emotional well-being (Cheung & Tang, 2010). Although the relationship between DA and burnout varies in various studies, DA does not generally affect the well-being of the employee. There is evidence shared by Humphrey et al. (2015) that DA is related to satisfaction, commitment, and performance.

1.1.2.3. Genuine Emotion

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) expressed that the two-dimensional view of EL does not allow situations where spontaneous and genuinely experienced emotion match with the emotion expected to be displayed. They said that a service provider could naturally exhibit the emotions she/he should exhibit with relatively little effort. At this point, they gave an example of the nurse who sympathizes with helping an injured child. The study by Diefendorff et al. (2005) was among the first evidence that EL has three dimensions (Humphrey et al., 2015). Moreover, in this study, Diefendorff et al. (2005) reported that spontaneous and GE can be quite common, and it is the most approved among the three strategies. According to this strategy, employees use their naturally felt emotions while interacting with customers without changing their inner feelings.

According to the results of Chu et al. (2012), reflecting GE, which is followed by DA, offers a more personalized and original service quality. In another study, genuine positive emotional expression was negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion, while it was positively correlated with job satisfaction and emotional commitment (Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner, & Doverspike, 2011). Humphrey et al. (2015) believed that DA and genuine acting, which are strategies other than SA, had a positive effect on well-being and job performance. Therefore, these are considered as the bright side of EL.

1.1.3. Antecedents of Emotional Labor

There are different classifications in the literature on the antecedents of EL (e.g., Grandey, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1997). The classification of Oral and Köse (2011) was used in this study, and the antecedents of EL are evaluated under three headings: individual factors, organizational factors, and interaction features.

1.1.3.1. Individual Factors

The individual antecedents of EL are gender, affection, empathy, self-monitoring, and emotional intelligence.

- a) **Gender:** Hochschild (1983) said that women are naturally more successful in being sensitive to others' needs, controlling their emotions, and giving positive emotional reactions. Although everyone shows EL in the workplace, it is mostly expected from women. Even there is a gender-based distinction in some jobs (Oral & Köse, 2011). Although their performance is better because they are more successful in managing their emotions, but their stress will be higher because they will suppress their genuine emotions

more (Grandey, 2000). Consistent with Grandey's view, gender and emotional dissonance are associated with each other, according to Kruml and Geddes's (2000) findings. Women expressed that they feel different from what they display.

- b) Affectivity:* The affectivity is the emotional tendency of individuals towards anything (Oral & Köse, 2011). There are two types: Positive and negative affectivity. Positive affectivity means having a positive point of view (e.g., positive emotions) and negative affectivity means having a negative point of view (e.g., negative emotions) towards life (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002). According to Morris and Feldman (1996), when the positive/negative emotions need to be displayed, the owner of the negative/positive affectivity can experience emotional dissonance. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) found that only SA is associated positively with negative affectivity and negatively with positive affectivity. According to them, this result suggested that people who exhibit SA may be more tending to suffer negative results of EL.
- c) Empathy:* According to Chu et al. (2012), empathy “is the ability to feel how another person feels” (p. 908). They found that when the emotional contagion, which is one of the dimensions of empathy and means the spread of emotions from one person to another, is high, the probability of spending more effort to meet the customer expectations is increased. At this point, Grandey (2000) also stated that DA and empathy are related concepts, and this relation leads to positive customer experience.
- d) Self-Monitoring:* Self-monitoring is defined as individuals' observing and controlling their presentation and behaviors they express (Snyder, 1974). Individuals with high self-monitoring organize their presentation and behavior according to the requirements of the relevant situation, whereas those with low self-monitoring do not observe or control their behavior, regardless of the situational requirements. Therefore, self-monitoring is essential in jobs where EL is expected. Self-monitoring can predict EL

(Grandey, 2000). For instance, high self-monitors have been associated with high SA, as they can simulate essential emotions without actually feeling them. However, low self-monitors prone reflect their emotions as they are; they cannot exhibit acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005).

- e) ***Emotional Intelligence (EI)***: *EI* is “an ability to recognize the meaning of emotions and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis on them” (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000, p. 267). Evidence that emotional intelligence has a vital role in the work-life success of employees has been revealed in the work of Salovey and Grewal (2005). They said that one of the critical effects here comes from the fact that emotional intelligence provides the ability to establish personal relationships. People who have high emotional intelligence people can be more successful in the customer relationship, as they can understand other people's emotions. Moreover, they can direct their thoughts and also can transform their real emotions as required by their job (Oral & Köse, 2011). In some studies, although SA and emotional intelligence were not related to each other significantly, this expectation was confirmed by the positive relation between DA and emotional intelligence (e.g., Brotheridge, 2006; Ramachandran, Jordan, Troth, & Lawrence, 2011).

1.1.3.2. Organizational Factors

The organizational antecedents of EL are emotional display rules, job autonomy, and social support.

- a) ***Display Rules***: Ekman and Friesen (1969), who used the concept of display rules for the first time, defined these as rules learned in the early stages of life, requiring compliance with different behavior management procedures in different social settings, and roles. They set four display rules. First, displaying an emotion that is felt intense, as if it is felt less. Second, the

exaggerated display of the emotion. Third, the neutral display of the emotion as if it was not felt. Fourth, reflecting the emotion as if another emotion by masking a feeling (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). EL requires expressions to act upon these display rules, not like how a person actually feels (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Hochschild conceptualized these rules as “*feeling rules*” as the other EL researchers named “*display rules*” since organizations can manage observable behaviors (Humphrey, 2012). Grandey (2003) said that employees' awareness of the expectations of their organizations performing these expectations for customers has an essential role in predicting the possibility of acting. She argued that display rules are related to DA, but there is no relationship with SA. It means that SA is the response to the work environment rather than the general rules, while DA is the response to the work demands. Dieffendorf et al. (2005) divided the display rules into two as positive and negative. In their study, they found that display rules and DA are positively related, but display rules and SA are negatively related to each other. Also, negative display rules and naturally felt emotions (genuine acting) are negatively associated too. That is, when employees need to display positive emotions at work, they focus on showing positive emotions and change their emotions in this way. When they have to suppress their negative emotions at work, they are likely to fake and mask their true feelings. Finally, when employees need to hide negative emotions, they show less the emotions they naturally feel.

- b) ***Job Autonomy:*** The level of independence employee experience in planning of tasks and in determining the procedures to be used while implementing is the job autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Morris and Feldman (1996) found that the more autonomous the job, the less emotional dissonance the person experiences. Because they stated that employees with high degrees of autonomy would tend to violate organizational display rules when their required emotional response does not match their naturally felt emotion, therefore, in cases where strict rules bound the emotional

expressions of individuals, the negative consequences of EL become strong (Oral & Köse, 2011).

- c) **Social Support:** The prevailing opinion of EL researchers is that social support received from colleagues and managers in the work environment is a factor that reduces the harmful effects of EL (Oral & Köse, 2011). Grandey (2000) said that if interpersonal relationships are supportive and beneficial, you can naturally feel the emotions required for the service environment. In the customer service sector, where positive expressions are required, when people feel positive about the social environment, they may need to show less EL. Social support in service environments can be beneficial to maintain people against stress. Similarly, Hochschild (1983) stated that the cabin staff felt emotionally more relaxed with the social support they received from their colleagues.

1.1.3.3. Interaction Features

The interaction antecedents of EL are duration, frequency, and variety. Hochschild (1983) states that in jobs where face to face or voice communication is intense, the nature of interaction with customers can request higher level EL.

- a) **Duration:** One of the features that Morris and Feldman (1996) add to the interaction features is the duration (Grandey, 2000). Morris and Feldman (1996) stated that long-term interactions where emotional representations need to be displayed require more effort and, therefore, more labor. At this point, as Hochschild (1983) mentioned, the situation becomes less dependent on the scenario, and displaying required emotions becomes more difficult. As the interaction prolongs, the employee acquires information about the customer, therefore violates corporate norms and cannot hide their feelings (Smith, as cited in Morris & Feldman, 1996). Similar to the work of Brotheridge and Grandey (2002), Dieffendorf et al.

(2005) found that duration is associated with DA, but not associated with SA. These results showed that, in extended interactions, employees make more effort to experience the emotion that they should show.

- b) **Frequency:** The frequency of displaying EL expected from employees varies, as some professional roles require interaction with very short intervals, while others require less frequent interaction. Morris and Feldman (1997) said that “emotional labor can best be described in terms of frequency of emotional labor” (p. 257). They expected that as the frequency of interactions increased, employees also masked and changed the emotions they felt according to the display rules expected from them (Morris & Feldman, 1996). There is a significant relationship among frequency and both SA and DA (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). However, Dieffendorf et al. (2005) found that there is no significant relationship between frequency, SA, and DA, similar to Grandey's study in 1999 (as cited in Grandey, 2000). However, they found that the frequency and genuine acting positively related (Dieffendorf et al., 2005).
- c) **Variety:** The other feature that Morris and Feldman (1996) add to the interaction features is the variety (Grandey, 2000). They stated that the higher the variety of emotions that employees should exhibit, the more EL they will have to display (Morris & Feldman, 1996). As changing situations reveal the need to plan more to show the appropriate emotion, the wider the variety of emotions to show, the higher the amount of psychological energy that employees should invest in EL (Zapf, 2002). Furthermore, there is a negative relationship between a variety of emotions displayed and emotional dissonance. Because of the limited number of emotions to be displayed at the workplace will increase the likelihood of employees showing emotions that they do not feel (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

1.1.4. Consequences of Emotional Labor

In this study, the consequences of EL are classified as positive and negative outcomes.

1.1.4.1. Positive Outcomes

Humphrey et al. (2015) showed that focusing intensely on the negative aspects of EL would create a shadow over potential benefits, particularly DA, and genuine acting could have positive effects. They believe that the negative aspects of EL are only due to its improper use of the SA. DA and genuine acting do not prevent employee well-being. On the contrary, there is evidence that they are associated with job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment. Therefore, EL can increase employee well-being, customer satisfaction, and overall organizational effectiveness when properly implemented and managed.

In terms of organizational effectiveness, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) stated that there are three positive results of EL: (a) the immediate gains, such as tips; (b) the encore gains, such as being a preferred organization again and again by the customers; (c) the contagion gains, such as the client's comments conveyed to the third party.

Considering the individually positive results of EL, it observed that there is an increase in both the financial, mental, and physical well-being of individuals. For example, studies between EL and financial well-being showed that friendly approaches are rewarded with tips. Moreover, laughing while performing EL makes employees feel happy (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). This situation is referred to as the facial feedback hypothesis of Adelman (1995).

In addition to the positive results of EL on individuals, for some employees, jobs that require intensive EL increase job satisfaction compared to jobs that require less EL (Wharton, 1993). Similar to this result, in the study of Seçer and Tınar (2004), results were found that EL increased personal accomplishment.

1.1.4.2. Negative Outcomes

One of the factors that mediate the negative consequences of EL is the feeling of insincerity or the dissonance between expressions and emotions (Pugliesi, 1999). According to Hochschild (1983), emotional dissonance arises when expressed emotions and inner emotions are incompatible. Furthermore, emotional dissonance causes person-role conflict. As role conflict causes emotional exhaustion, it can be said that emotional dissonance is one of the predictors of emotional exhaustion (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) stated that if emotional dissonance often occurs, a decrease in personal and work-based adjustment, such as a decrease in self-esteem, psychological distress, cynicism, and alienation from work happens.

In addition to the emotional dissonance dimension, there is also an emotional management dimension. Although EL is perceived as empowering when it comes to managing the feelings of others, trying to change the feelings of herself/himself, a colleague or customer increases work stress, reduces satisfaction, and increases psychological distress (Pugliesi, 1999).

Hochschild (1983) argued that managing emotions is negatively affect job satisfaction of individuals. Also, as a result of her work with the Delta Airlines cabin crew, Hochschild (1983) found that EL caused low self-esteem, decreased sense of insincerity, loss of feelings, and burnout. According to her, the pressure of EL has consequences such as drug addiction, alcoholism, severe physical pain, sexual disorders, and absenteeism.

In the literature, the relation among EL, job satisfaction, and burnout is especially emphasized (Oral & Köse, 2011). The study of Morris and Feldman (1997) is another study that stated that there is a relationship between emotional dissonance and both emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Kruml and Geddes (2000) also found a relationship between the SA dimension of EL and emotional exhaustion. According to Grandey's (2000) model, burnout and job satisfaction are the adverse effects of EL on individual well-being.

There is one more negative effect dimension of Grandey's (2000) model, and this is organizational well-being. According to her, EL, customer service performance and, withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, leaving the work, and turnover are negatively associated with each other. For instance, employees who suffer from physical and personal negative consequences of EL do not want to continue working under these conditions, and therefore, their withdrawal behaviors increase (Ünler Öz, 2007).

Despite all these findings, the negative effects of EL would not apply in all conditions and for all employees. In other words, the adverse effects vary depending on environmental and personal factors (Oral & Köse, 2011).

1.2. Person-Job Fit

Person-job fit is defined by Brkich, Jeffs, and Carless (2002) as the level of compatibility between preferences, knowledge, skills, abilities (KSA), needs, and values of the employee and the job requirements. It is one of the multiple forms of person-environment fit (Lam, Huo, & Chen, 2017).

Person-environment (PE) fit is the compatibility that arises when the nature of the work environment and the person match well (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The concept of environment includes individuals, jobs, groups, or the overall organizations. The match of the person with another person, such as the manager, is that the person-individual fit (PI) form of person-environment fit.

The compatibility of the person with her/his job is that the person-job fit (PJ) form of person-environment fit. The compatibility of the person with the groups with she/he works is that the person-group fit (PG) form of person-environment fit. Moreover, the compatibility of the person with all dimensions of the organization is that the person-organization fit (PO) form of the person-environment fit (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007). There is another "fit" form of person-environment fit that is person-vocation fit (PV), which means is that matching people with career opportunities that fit them (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). Also, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) discussed the concept of person-person (PP) fit, stating that one person may have a substantial effect on the work experience of another person. They said that person-environment fit is an "overall abstraction" of these various aspects of fit, it means, it is a multidimensional construct.

There are two main perspectives in person-environment fit studies: supplementary and complementary fit (Uysal Irak, 2012). The supplementary model of fit is the comparative fit between the environment and the person in characteristics such as personality, attitudes, values, and goals (Kristof, 1996). Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) stated that supplementary fit arises when the person "supplements, embellishes or possesses" similar features with others in this environment (p. 269). While they differentiate the supplementary fit from the complementary fit, they state that the complementary fit arises when a person complements the lack of the environment (Kristof, 1996). It means, "the weakness or need of the environment is offset by the strength of the individual and vice versa" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 198, p. 271). The definition of the environment is the main difference between supplementary and complementary models of fit. Because in the supplementary model, the environment is defined according to the people who take part in it. However, in the complementary model, the environment is defined by people who are outside and not included in it. In the complementary model, it is mostly determined according to the demands and requirements of the environment (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Cable and DeRue (2002) said that the complementary model subsumes both the needs-supplies fit and the demands-abilities fit. When an environment matches the needs, desires, and preferences of the person, it can be mentioned about the needs-supplies fit. It can be mentioned about the demands-abilities fit when the person meets the demands of the environment (Kristof, 1996). Therefore, it can be discriminated between individualistic needs and environmental needs (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

As Edwards and Shipp (2007) said that differences between the levels of the environment (organization and job) are confused with differences supplementary and complementary fit, generally the supplementary model is used in researches to determine person-organization fit. However, the complementary model is used in researches to determine the person-job fit (Uysal Irak, 2012). However, Edwards and Shipp (2007) added that if the environment at the 'job' level refers to demands, supplies, or other people holding the job, the confusion mentioned above will disappear.

Generally, the person-job fit is defined by subheadings of the complementary model, which are need-supplies fit and demand-abilities fit. Person-job fit is the match between the abilities of employees and what the job expects from employees (demand-abilities) or what the employees expect from their job and the characteristics of the job (needs-supplies) (Edwards, 1991). The first perspective of this definition shows the requirements of the environment and the degree to which the employee can meet these requirements using knowledge, skills, abilities (KSAs), and resources (e.g., time, energy). The environmental requirements, that is, the demands of the job, consisting of the structural features of the job, such as task, work role, or qualitative-quantitative workload. The abilities of the employee consist of substitutes for aptitudes, which are education, experience, knowledge, skills, and resources. The second perspective of this definition shows the requirements of the employee and the degree to which the job can meet these requirements using their resources. The needs of the employee consists of features such as physiological requirements, psychological needs, goals, values, desires,

interests, preferences. The supplies of the job consist of the profession, wages, participation in decision-making, role clarity, and all general or private aspects of the job (Edwards, 1991; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Sekiguchi, 2004). In summary, the difference between these two perspectives of person-job fit is that one focuses on the capability to perform the work. In contrast, the other focuses on a person's interests (Uçanok, 2008).

1.2.1. Antecedents of Person-Job Fit

Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) stated that person-environment fit is a multidimensional construct consisting of the sum of person-vocation fit, person-job fit, person-organization fit, person-group fit, and person-person fit. They argued that, according to various individual, environmental, and temporal factors, noticeability of all these aspects of the person-environment fit increase or decrease. Individual differences are agreeableness, conscientiousness, value, and achievement. Environmental differences are culture strength, size, and degree of the hierarchy. The temporal stages are pre-recruitment, recruitment/job search, selection/job choice, socialization, and long-term tenure. They are antecedents of the person-job fit and, thus, antecedents of the person-environment fit (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006).

Sekiguchi (2004) also focused on the temporal factors in Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) work and mentioned that self-selection and recruitment processes are the most important precursors of person-job fit. He also mentioned that designing the job after the employment process can help ensure the person-job fit.

Yu (2009) said that work-related effects might be stronger to ensure fit at the workplace. For instance, according to Tak (2011), employers must engage in applications such as job rotation/job transfers to increase employee adjustment. These applications can be useful in increasing P-J fit. As a similar example, Lu, Wang, Lu, Du and Bakker (2011) noted that work engagement, which is a crucial

work-related effect, has an impact on N-S and D-A through relational and physical job crafting.

Moreover, the socialization of the person with the group she/he works is a work-related factor, and the socialization tactics of the new employees facilitate the person-job fit process (Supatn, 2011).

According to Yazıcı and Esen (2018), organizations also should take into account factors such as cultural harmony, objectivity, personality, proper management, physiological and psychological features, personal perception, and value phenomenon in order to achieve person-job fit with their applicants.

1.2.2. Consequences of Person-Job Fit

In previous studies, the consequences of person-environment fit, and person-job fit are mentioned under similar headings. Edwards and Shipp (2007) formulated the results of person-environment fit under three headings. The first heading is attitudes, and it includes job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The second heading is stress, and it includes mental and physical health. The third heading is signified contributions of the people to their employer, and it includes task and contextual performance.

According to Edwards (1991), the person and job variables, especially the needs of the employee and the supplies of the job, are related to many individual and organizational results, and most importantly, job satisfaction. Psychological and physical health, coping and adaption, motivation, performance, absenteeism, turnover, and vocational choice are another outcome of person-job fit. Employees whose KSA's, needs, and values are compatible with their jobs are delighted with their jobs (Brkich et al., 2002). Job satisfaction is one of the individual-level outcomes of person-job fit in Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) model. According to them, the other individual-level outcomes are commitment, withdrawal, and adjustment.

Another outcome frequently mentioned in fit studies is that organizational commitment (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). According to Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), there is a positive relationship between person-job fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and there is a negative relationship between intention to quit. Sekiguchi (2004) also said that person-job fit causes to increase job satisfaction, adjustment, and organizational commitment, and to reduce intention to quit.

The fit of the person and the environment is adequate for psychological and physical well-being (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). Contrary, if the characteristics of the person and the work do not match, the well-being of the person decreases (Lin, Yu, & Yi, 2014).

In another study, the fit between the person's strengths and weaknesses and the requirements of the job was positively correlated with job performance (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990). According to Sekiguchi (2004), if the concept of person-job fit is considered as demands-abilities fit, it can be said that person-job fit and task performance are related to each other positively. Similar to what he said, Edwards and Shipp (2007) said that it would facilitate task performance as talent will improve knowledge and skills about the job. So, demands-abilities fit can predict task performance. In contrast, contextual performance, which is not explicitly stated in job descriptions and meaning voluntary and positive business behavior, has been associated with the needs-supplies fit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

1.3. Work-Family Conflict

The history of the concept of work-family conflict is derived from the study of role theory done by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal in 1964. One of the role theory structures is role conflict. It is meaning the conflict that occurs as a result of the fact that undertaking more than one role at the same time creates pressure on the person (Efeoğlu, 2006). Since the role at work and the role in the

family is two crucial roles in adult life, WFC can be considered as a subtitle of inter-role conflict (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). The inter-role conflict in WFC results because involvement in any of the job or family roles makes participation in the other more difficult (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition of WFC is the most used definition in the literature. According to them, it is "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (1985, p. 77). Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) defined this concept as the job creates pressures such as irritability, fatigue, and depression on the family or the family creates pressures on the job in the same way. Adiller (2011) also defined the concept of WFC as the process of the effect of time, labor, and energy spent on meeting the family's needs on the person's work and the effect of time, labor and energy spent on meeting work's needs on the person's family.

There are time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict in WFC types (Adiller, 2011). As mentioned below, in these types, there is time, labor, and energy spent by the individual. However, the effort made in one role makes it challenging to fulfill the requirements of another (Elloy & Smith, 2004).

- a) ***Time-based conflict:*** Efeoğlu (2006) highlights that the time allocated to either work or family restricts the time that can be allocated to another (family/work). This type of conflict can occur in two ways: Firstly, the requirements of the other role cannot be met physically due to the time pressure created by the requirements of another role. Secondly, the mind is preoccupied with the other role while fulfilling the needs of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Working hours, work schedules, and work shifts. are the work-related sources of time-based conflict. Children, other dependents, extended families, and work hours of people living at home. are the family-related sources of time-based conflict (Elloy & Smith, 2004).

- b) ***Strain-based conflict:*** This type of conflict is also called psychological conflict, and when psychological stress produced by work or home affect the fulfillment of requirements in another area, strain-based conflict occurs. The results of the psychological stress at work or in the family can be anxiety, tension, fatigue, irritability, and insensitivity (Çarıkçı, 2001). Work-related sources of strain-based conflict include person-job fit, leader or social support and interaction, task challenge, task autonomy, and the other work-related sources in the time-based conflict. Because, when the individuals feel time-based conflict, they can feel the strain too. Family-related sources of strain-based conflict include spouse support, wife's or husband's opinion about career orientations, family roles, attitudes, or beliefs (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
- c) ***Behavior-based conflict:*** Behavior-based conflict is also basically defined in the literature in two different ways. This conflict occurs either when there is a conflict between the desired patterns of behavior in the work and family, or when the behavior required for one role is inappropriate for another role (Adiller, 2011). It can be a reason for conflict that each role of person requires a different pattern of behavior (Çarıkçı, 2001) because behavior patterns may match correctly for one role but may not match in the same way for the other role. It can be said that if individuals cannot make the appropriate change in their behavior while moving from one role to another, they probably face with behavior-based conflict (Turgut, 2011).

1.3.1. Directions of Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict is the bidirectional conflict. The direction of conflict may be from work-to-family or family-to-work (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). As mentioned above, work-to-family is an inter-role conflict resulting from the requirements of the work interfering with the fulfillment of family responsibilities

(Netemeyer et al., 1996). On the other hand, according to Netemeyer et al. (1996), family-to-work conflict is an inter-role conflict resulting from the requirements of the family interfering with the fulfillment of work responsibilities. Although it was found that both aspects are related to each other, studies have proved that each dimension has different antecedents (Schultz, 2009). For instance, higher levels of work stressors cause work-to-family conflict and poor family-life success, higher levels of family stressors cause family-to-work conflict and poor work performance (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997).

The work-to-family conflict arises because of work or work-related factors while, the family-to-work conflict arises because of family or family-related factors (Atabay, 2012). Work-related factors such as the length of work hours, irregularity, overtimes and weekend works, timeless meetings, frequent business trips, low wages, job insecurity, insufficient working conditions, low social support, and rigid organizational structure lead to work-to-family conflict. Besides of these, family-related factors such as having children, the number and age of their children, the presence of other people responsible for their care, the size of the family, and the other problems in the family lead to family-to-work conflict (Çarıkçı, 2001). As an example of work-to-family conflict, when the person's job requires long working hours, the person cannot perform the duties at home. Also, when the person's child has an illness, the person cannot attend her/his job, and this is an example of the family-to-work conflict (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998).

Finally, according to Frone et al. (1992), these bidirectionalities between work and family conflict make the process cyclical. As the requirements of the people's work prevent them from fulfilling the needs related to their family, problems arise in their family life, and these problems prevent them from fulfilling their work requirements. This reciprocal relationship continues in this way.

1.3.2. Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict

The individual, work, and family characteristics affect the work-family conflict (Voydanoff, & Kelly, 1984).

1.3.2.1. Individual Factors

Atabay (2012) addressed individual factors under four headings: gender, age, personality, and marital status. According to him, these factors can affect the direction and severity of the conflict.

- a) **Gender:** As both work and social roles and responsibilities are different, women and men may experience different levels of WFC. Although the research does not reach a common opinion in this sense, most studies have stated that men suffer from more work-to-family conflict, and women suffer from more family-to-work conflict (Poelmans, 2005).
- b) **Age:** Atabay (2012) stated that as people get old, WFC decreases, and three reasons cause this. The first reason is that resources, such as knowledge, experience, money, increase as the person gets old; thus, work stress decreases, and job responsibilities less affect family responsibilities. The second reason is that as people get old, they become more professional in separating work and family life. The third reason is that older people often have better working conditions or arrange their work schedules more regularly.
- c) **Personality:** The personality of the individual is effective in shaping the perception of events around her/him. Two different personality groups can be mentioned: People with Type A personality, who are ambitious, competitive, impatient, and always demanding to do more, have a high level of WFC. People with Type B personality, who are

calm, patient, balanced, and insistent have a low level of WFC (Çarıkçı, 2001).

- d) **Marital status:** There is no consensus about the effect of marital status on WFC, and researchers explained this by saying that the dynamics of the relationship with the spouse are more important, not whether there is a spouse or not (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002). Nevertheless, still, some studies showed that there is a relationship between these two variables. For instance, according to Karatepe and Kılıç (2007), married employees are experiencing more work-to-family and family-to-work conflict.

1.3.2.2. Work-Related Factors

Studies often mentioned working hours, work schedules, job involvement, work support, and work stress as work-related factors, as the antecedents of WFC (Byron, 2005). Çarıkçı (2001) stated that the person-job fit is an antecedent of WFC also.

- a) **Working hours:** Byron (2005) stated that as the time spent by one person increases in one role, the probability of the failure to meet the requirements of the other role increases, thus the hours spent on the work create a work-to-family conflict rather than family-to-work conflict.
- b) **Work schedule:** Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) identified the working schedule as a predictor of WFC and mentioned that the rigid work schedule could cause WFC. It means that individuals with inflexible work schedules experience more WFC than individuals with flexible work schedules (as cited in Greenhaus, & Beutell, 1985).
- c) **Job involvement:** Frone et al. (1992) said that when there is a high level of involvement in one role, the time and effort spent on that role

will increase, making it challenging to meet the requirements of the other role. They found a relationship between job involvement and WFC.

- d) **Work support:** Byron (2005) identified this factor as a supervisor, organizational, co-worker, and mentor support. Social support from supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates in the workplace has a significant effect on WFC (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly (2002) suggest that if managers provide support to balancing work and family responsibilities, people experience fewer WFCs.
- e) **Work stress:** Exposure to work stressors, such as conflict, stress, pressure, work overload, work-role ambiguity, and job dissatisfaction, results with WFC (Schultz, 2009). The work pressure, lack of autonomy and role ambiguity may lead to psychological problems, and this makes it difficult for the person to fulfill the requirements of other domains of life (Frone et al., 1992).
- f) **Person-job fit:** According to Çarıkçı (2001) person-job non-fit arises when the people feel inadequate in their work, when the people do not like their job or when there is any inconsistency between the people's job and their ethical values. The strain created by these situations causes WFC.

1.3.2.3. Family-Related Factors

Based on the proposition of Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), family-related sources of conflict are that having young children, a working spouse, living with a large family, family conflict, low spouse support, and expectations.

- a) **Having young children:** Having preschool or school-age children is significantly related to WFC. School hours or activities that children

should be in often conflict with parents' work programs. Children in this age group require both close supervision and a high level of energy from their parents. These situations lead to time-based WFC (Voydanoff & Kelly, 1984).

- b) **Working spouse:** Çarıkçı (2001) stated that the WFC which man is lived is related to woman's working in a paid job, and lack of spousal support. Similarly, Adams, King, and King (1996) explained this situation as follows. An employee whose spouse stays at home and has to take care of her/his children experiences less WFC because of receiving more social support rather than an employee whose spouse works full-time and has to take care of her/his children. However, according to Voydanoff and Kelly (1984), the unemployed spouse is one of the family-related conflict generating factors too.
- c) **Living with a large family:** Since large families demand more time to carry out family activities, they create more WFC than small families. Also, they create more conflicts, especially for women (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
- d) **Family conflict:** Byron (2005) measured this factor with marital conflict, marital tension, marital anger, parental conflict, and relationship agreement. Hence, a tense environment in the family such as role conflict resulting from the incompatibility between a person and her/his family, disputes arising from the dissimilarity of spouses, indifference to each other's careers causes WFC (Çarıkçı, 2001).
- e) **Low spouse support:** Tangible help and emotional support for family responsibilities between spouses are important for WFC (Atabay, 2012). Carlson (1999) said that social support that the person receives could affect all stressful situations. For example, the stress created by the requirements of the family can be alleviated with the support of the spouse. Therefore, low spouse support causes WFC.
- f) **Expectations:** Another factor of Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) is that causes the emergence of behavior-based WFC is the insufficiency of

the person to arrange her/his behavior according to requirements of family members, which are warmth, emotionality, and close contact. In this case, the person either can choose to display acting or may experience a role conflict.

1.3.3. Consequences of Work-Family Conflict

Poelmans (2005) gathered the effects of WFC under four headings: health, satisfaction, performance, commitment both in the work domain and family-general life domain.

- a) **Health outcomes:** These results are associated with mental and physical health (Poelmans, 2005) and general well-being (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). In their study, Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) found that anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion, and psychosomatic symptoms are associated with WFC. Differently from their results, Frone et al. (1992) stated that only family-to-work conflict is associated with depression. Additionally, Yavas, Babakus, and Karatepe (2008) found that work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict both have significant effects on emotional exhaustion.
- b) **Satisfaction outcomes:** Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) referred to job satisfaction and career satisfaction as work-related outcomes and life, marital, and family satisfaction as nonwork-related outcomes. In their review study, they stated that many previous studies find the relationship between WFC and job, life, marital, and family satisfaction. They reported that as WFC increases, job, life, marital, and family satisfaction decreases. Moreover, there was a study conducted in 2002, and researchers realized that the higher WFC, the lower the satisfaction with the career (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002).

- c) **Performance outcomes:** Conflict from work-to-family means a reduction in the fulfilment of family requirements and leads to a decrease in family performance. However, family-to-work conflict means a reduction in the fulfilment of the job requirements and lead to a decrease in job performance (Frone et al., 1997).
- d) **Commitment outcomes:** This factor is associated with withdrawal behavior, which is the reverse of commitment. Work-to-family conflict is associated with withdrawing from family, family-to-work conflict is associated with withdrawing from work (Poelmans, 2005). The withdrawing from work behaviors such as absenteeism, being late for work, and intention to quit work such as turnover was found as an outcome of family-to-work conflict (Efeoğlu, 2006).

1.4. Burnout

Schaufeli and Buunk (1996) stated that the first possible example of the word "burnout" was mentioned in a poem by Shakespeare in "The Passionate Pilgrim" in 1599. Shakespeare said like that: "She burnt with love, as straw with fire flameth. She burnt out love, as soon as straw out burneth" (Enzmann & Kleiber, 1989; as cited in Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996, p. 311). Another example of the literary use of the word was seen in Graham Greene's novel "A Burn-Out Case" in 1960, which about an architect's escape to the African jungle (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

The professional use of the concept of burnout dates back to the 1970s. Although Bradley (1969) was the first person to mention the term staff burnout in his article, Freudenberger (1974), who used the word burnout to mention to the causes of drug abuse, is considered as the explorer of the concept of professional burnout. Almost at the same time, Maslach (1976) realized that the concept of burnout was frequently used by her interviewers and used it in her article for easy

understanding during the interview. Since then, the concept has become popular with using it by journalists and practitioners for a long time. This situation prevented the idea from being understood as a serious scientific study (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996). During these periods, burnout was expressed as a "social problem" as it has not become an important academic study subject yet (Maslach et al., 2001). However, in the 1980s, the number of empirical studies on the concept increased rapidly. For example, Kilpatrick collected 195 research articles on this topic up to 1987 (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996).

As it is seen, burnout is not a new concept. In the professional literature, it generally means the exhaustion of spiritual and physical energy as a result of the interaction of the individual and the working environment (Budak & Sürgevil, 2005). In the process until today, the concept has been defined or handled in various ways.

1.4.1. Theoretical Background of Burnout

When burnout began to become an important academic research topic, various models have been proposed on this subject.

1.4.1.1. Freudenberger's Model

Freudenberger (1974, 1975) is the first person who provided one of the first clinical definitions of burnout as an occupational/professional threat (Suran & Sheridan, 1985). According to him, the signs of burnout of the staff member are two: First, physical signs, and second, behavioral signs. Physical signs are related to the somatization of bodily functions. Exhaustion, fatigue, colds, frequent headaches, gastrointestinal disorders, sleeplessness, and shortness of breath are among these signs. Behavioral indicators are related to quick anger, instant frustration, inability to suppress emotions, very easy crying, paranoid and inflexible thought, excessive self-confidence, intense risk-taking behavior, and extreme

hardship. Change means adaptation, but that person is too tired to realize it, and she/he prevents progress and change. Thus, the person behaves and goes into depression (Freudenberger, 1974).

1.4.1.2. Maslach's Model

Maslach's (1981) model is referred to as the three-dimensional burnout model, and it is a multi-dimensional burnout model.

According to Maslach, burnout is defined as a psychological syndrome whose three dimensions are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal success (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Emotional exhaustion refers to the individual stress dimension of burnout. The depersonalization component refers to the interpersonal context dimension of burnout. The lack of personal accomplishment is the self-assessment dimension of burnout. It refers to feelings of failure and a lack of success and productivity at work (Maslach et al., 2001).

In this model, the process progressed towards emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal success (Lee & Ashforth, 1993). Therefore, emotional exhaustion develops first, and when people try to cope with emotional exhaustion, they depersonalize their relationships with customers. And then, people's feeling of personal accomplishment on the job decreases (Maslach, 2003).

Burnout began to be investigated quantitatively thanks to the "*Maslach Burnout Inventory*", introduced by Maslach and Jackson in 1981. Although Maslach said that burnout occurs among individuals who work with people, with increasing research in the late 1980s, researchers realized that burnout also arose outside of human services. Thus, burnout definition of Maslach was extended from customer service to other work environments (Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009).

1.4.1.3. Cherniss's Model

Cherniss (1980) defined burnout as a process and said that burnout occurs over time. Burnout is a consequence of not being able to adapt to and deal with stress sources. His model is the first process model of burnout. Specific stress sources are experienced due to the workload that occurs when several work characteristics interact with individuals. Furthermore, individuals' techniques to cope with these stress sources result in burnout (Richardson & Burke, 1995).

Therefore, burnout is a process that starts as an answer to the stress sources and ends with emotional disconnection from work. The person who understands that she/he is experiencing burnout tries to eliminate the source of stress. If people are not successful in this step, they apply to the methods of coping with stress. Again, if people are not successful at this step, they try to cut the emotional connection with the work to ease their emotional load (Günay, 2016).

1.4.1.4. Edelwich and Brodsky's Model

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) stated that burnout occurs at the end of a process, passing through successive and identifiable stages. Employees who start their work with great enthusiasm and hope, begin to lose their desire, dynamism, and efficiency when they cannot find the working environment and conditions they expect. Furthermore, these employees enter into a process that goes to burnout and consists of certain stages. Their model includes four successive stages (Günay, 2016):

- a) ***Enthusiasm***: It is the romantic stage in which the expectations and wishes of individuals who have just started working life are at the highest level.

- b) **Stagnation**: The energy and motivation of the people decrease, they begin to cool down from work, but the symptoms of burnout have not yet appeared.
- c) **Frustration**: As time goes on, the people who think that their efforts to succeed are insufficient starts to think that they are prevented in order to achieve work goals. At this stage, the people begin to question whether they can continue their work.
- d) **Apathy**: At this stage, which is shown as an emotional and behavioral result of the defence mechanism, the people show an indifferent attitude to protect themselves and isolates themselves from people (Tuna, 2019).

1.4.1.5. Perlman and Hartman's Model

The burnout in Perlman and Hartman's (1982) model is a synthesis of previous studies. In this model, burnout is a defence mechanism and defined as a response to chronic emotional stress. It consists of three components, which are affective-cognitive dimension centering on attitudes and emotions (emotional exhaustion, over-depersonalization), physiological dimension centering on physical symptoms (physical exhaustion), and behavioral dimension centering on characteristic behavior (over-depersonalization, lowered job productivity).

This model includes four stages, which are the level to which a situation is prone to stress, level of perceived stress, response to stress, and outcomes of response, that is, burnout. As a result, effective coping or ineffective coping occurs. Here, the person's characteristics, work environment, and social environment are beneficial in coping with burnout. According to them, this model has a cognitive and perceptual focus that interprets the personal variables and the environment of the individual (Perlman & Hartman, 1982).

1.4.1.6. Meier's Model

Meier's (1983) burnout model is based on Bandura's "self-efficacy" model (Demir, 2010). In this model, burnout is explained by the degree of self-efficacy and the degree of threats of self-efficacy (Tuna, 2019). Individuals whose self-efficacy is threatened may engage in self-accusatory behavior and experience four different psychological stages (Demir, 2010): Reinforcement expectations, outcome expectations, efficacy expectations, and contextual processing. Reinforcement expectations are an assessment of whether the outcomes of the work meet the objectives of the employees. The behaviors which should be done to achieve these goals and the level of self-efficacy which will activate these behaviors are processed at the cognitive level, and the behaviors are made meaningful. Burnout arises when if the failure of any expectation that interacts with each other and occurs over time (Meier, 1983).

1.4.1.7. Suran and Sheridan's Model

Suran and Sheridan (1985) explained burnout based on Ericson's theory of personality development. Their model examines the psychological stages appropriate for professional development in the process of early and mid-adulthood. According to them, burnout is a result of the inability to resolve conflicts at all of these stages. Therefore, it can be said that each stage includes a lifestyle that is efficient in the emergence of burnout. These stages are as follows (Suran & Sheridan, 1985):

- a) **Stage 1: Identity versus Role Confusion:** It is the period when personal and professional identity is formed. Failure to complete professional development in a meaningful way causes the individual to face with role confusion in the future. Thus, seeds of burnout of individuals are planted.

- b) **Stage 2: Competence versus Inadequacy:** The individual questions how good she/he is in her/his work and, at this point, compares herself/himself to others. If the result of such a comparison is negative, the individual feels a sense of personal insufficiency and professional inferiority.
- c) **Stage 3: Productivity versus Stagnation:** The individual's sense of realizing her/his interests, aptitudes, and talents can allow the individual to use her/his energy to be productive at work. However, the professional's inability to develop style and interest results in aimlessness and stagnation. As a result, their previous achievements will not seem meaningful either.
- d) **Stage 4: Rededication versus Disillusionment:** The feeling of frustration about the profession can play a positive, stimulating role by the rededication of the goals of the profession. Or it can cause disillusionment and possibly burnout.

1.4.1.8. Golembiewski and His Colleagues' Model

The three-phase model of Golembiewski, Munzenrider, and Stevenson (1986) is the second model that treats burnout as a process. They produced eight burnout phases using the three subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Furthermore, this provided a theoretical richness that was not offered in previous uses of MBI (Richardson & Burke, 1995). As opposed to the individuals in the first stage, the individuals in the eighth stage are people who keep themselves far away from other people. Thus, they deprive of social support, and they cannot cope with stressful situations because of their burnout (Golembiewski, 1989).

Although in the Maslach's model of burnout, the process progressed towards emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal success, in the Golembiewski and his colleagues' model, the process progressed towards

depersonalization, lack of personal success and emotional exhaustion (Lee & Ashforth, 1993).

Lee and Ashforth (1993) said that Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) divided the burnout into "acute" and "chronic". According to this distinction, while chronic burnout is related to the working environment, acute burnout is related to personal trauma such as death.

1.4.1.9. Leiter's Model

Leiter used three dimensions of the MBI, and according to him, people do not experience burnouts suddenly. These three dimensions affect each other over time, and they have different relationships with different environmental and individual characteristics. Unlike the original model of Leiter and Maslach (1988), there is no consecutive development model among these three variables. According to him, this relationship is a mixed consecutive and parallel development model (Leiter, 1993).

According to Leiter's (1993) current model, lack of personal success dimension occurs in response to work environments that create challenges and develop in parallel with the emotional exhaustion dimension. In this model, depersonalization is a function of emotional exhaustion, and emotional exhaustion mediates the effect of environmental conditions on depersonalization. The challenge of the environment influences emotional exhaustion, and this situation increases depersonalization. However, personal accomplishment is a function of the work environment. People try to cope with emotional exhaustion by depersonalizing their relationships with customers. Parallely, people's feelings of personal accomplishment on the job decreases. Finally, this situation causes burnout (Richardson & Burke, 1995).

1.4.1.10. Pines and Aronson's Model

According to Pines and Aronson (1988), the burnout consists of three dimensions, which are physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, which result from long-term exposure to emotionally challenging situations. This challenge arises from chronic stress and the inability to realize very high expectations. People who start their work with a high level of motivation and high expectations as their work will add meaning to their lives probably will experience burnout. Especially if there are low rewards, high chances of mistakes, and high levels of stress in their work environment, this is inevitable (Günay, 2016).

Thereby, they defined burnout as an individual's response to "emotional challenge". This answer varies according to individual differences. This burnout model is related to the perception of employees as supporting or preventing attitudes in the workplace (Tuna, 2019).

The Burnout Measure developed by Pines and Aronson (1988) is considered the second most common scale used in the literature after the Maslach Burnout Scale. Unlike the Maslach Burnout Inventory, where burnout is expressed in multiple dimensions, this scale is one-dimensional (Pines, 2005). The scale, which can be applied not only for the service sector but also in all workplaces, is criticized for not reflecting the physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion dimensions expressed by Pines and Aronson in the definition of burnout (Innstrand, Espnes, & Mykletun, 2002).

1.4.2. Dimensions of Burnout

Maslach (2003) defined burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do "people-work" of some kind" (p. 2). Emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment are multiple dimensions of burnout.

- a) ***Emotional Exhaustion:*** Emotional exhaustion is a basic individual stress dimension of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). It is at the center of the burnout model of Maslach as a result of emotional overload. The person's response to the irresistible emotional demands imposed by other people will be EE. These emotional pressures extinguish the emotional and physical resources of the person. When EE begins, people withdraw from other people (Maslach, 2003). Their energy required to face another day or person is exhausted (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).
- b) ***Depersonalization:*** The interpersonal dimension of burnout is depersonalization or cynicism (Maslach et al., 2001). It means that the person develops poor ideas about other people, expects the worst from them, and even dislikes them. The person may block other people, may not treat them respectfully, may refuse to meet their satisfaction and demands, and may not help, care, and service them. The person may want other people to leave her/his life and be completely alone (Maslach, 2003). However, detachment turns into dehumanization: A person treats other people as if they are objects. At this stage, the person develops self-protection by minimizing their involvement at work and giving up her/his ideals (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).
- c) ***Lack of Personal Accomplishment:*** When people stay alone, they begin to feel distressed or guilty about their thoughts or behaviors to others. They think that they have become a person they never want to be. As a result, a feeling of reduction in personal accomplishment begins. The person feels inadequate about their ability to interact with other people. Moreover, this results in the sense of "failure" that a self-imposed (Maslach, 2003). Therefore, this component expresses one's self-evaluations. LPA is the self-evaluation dimension of burnout.

This sense of "failure" also includes success and efficiency at work (Maslach et al., 2001).

1.4.3. Antecedents of Burnout

Maslach (2003) stated that there are three sources of burnout: Involvement with people, the job setting and personal characteristics.

a) ***Involvement with people:*** If the view of people to other people changes from positive and loving to cynical and careless, this will be a source of burnout (Maslach, 2003). Maslach (1982) revealed that most of the burnout work addressed "professional helpers" because they are the clearest example of the "people-work" situation. For example, if professional helpers (therapists, teachers, etc.) do not have a positive perspective towards other people they are supposed to help, they may not like these people and help them less than average. This relationship promotes and continues a negative opinion towards other people. The critical sides of this relationship are these: The level of emotional stress, the focus on problems, the lack of positive feedback, and the perceived possibility of change or improvement (Maslach, 2003):

By definition, professional helpers always focus on people's problems only and naturally develop a cynical and negative view of people. Secondly, the person who feels that she/he is working with ungrateful people in the lack of positive feedback begins to think negatively about them and cannot tolerate this situation. Thirdly, the person who is continuously in contact with people with a high level of emotional stress, upsetting, depressing, or difficult develops a more negative or dehumanized perception towards people after a while. Finally, people can also react to the lack of change or improvement in the current state, such as chronic problems. Although professional helpers are well trained

in crisis intervention, they feel emotionally overwhelmed by chronic problems that do not show signs of change or improvement, and this is closely related to burnout.

Maslach (2003) stated other involvements that cause burnout as follows: Firstly, the characteristics of people which we have no chance to choose and we have to contact in the workplace. Secondly, the mismatching of different explicit or implicit rules regulating the relationship between people. Thirdly, experiencing the feeling of "it could be me" by empathizing with various people over and over. Fourthly, getting too close more than it should be.

- b) ***The job setting***: Maslach and Leiter (1997) determined six mismatched between people and their jobs. These are work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, breakdown in community, absence of fairness, and conflicting values.

A mismatch in workload is often considered an excessive overload and is associated with EE (Maslach et al., 2001). The workload is affected in the workplace in three ways: When the job is very intense, when it requires much time, and when it is very complicated (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Employees are less likely to experience burnout when they can influence the decisions that affect their work, use professional autonomy, and provide access to the resources needed to do an effective job (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

The third type of person-job conflict is the lack of suitable rewards for the work people did. Although external rewards, such as salaries and social benefits, come to the forefront of these awards, the loss of internal rewards, such as pride in doing something meaningful and doing well, can also cause burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

Lack of community occurs when people lose their connection with other people in the workplace. Although people work better when they exchange emotionally, some work separates people, or the person experiences conflict with others chronically and unresolved. Such situations reduce the possibility of social support (Maslach et al., 2001).

Fairness is a measure of fair and equitable perception of decisions in the workplace. When people feel that they are not treated respectfully, due to the absence of fairness at work, cynicism, anger, and hostility will arise (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Values are principles and motivations that initially attract people to their jobs. However, there may be a conflict between the values of the people and the work. In some cases, people may be forced to do things that are unethical or mismatch with their values. For example, they may have to lie or be tricking (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Therefore, the employees may try to establish a balance between the work they want to do and the work they have to do. Furthermore, this can lead to burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

- c) ***Personal characteristics***: Maslach (2003) divided personal resources of burnout into two: First, demographic characteristics, which are sex, ethnic background, age, marital and family status, education. Second, personality characteristics, which are personality profile, self-concept, personal needs, personal motivations, emotional control.

Nevertheless, the effect of sex and ethnic background on burnout is unclear in the studies. However, age is the most consistent variable with burnout; people at a young age experience burnout more. Also, those who are not married experience burnout more than those who are married, and single people experience burnout more than divorced people. Finally, those who receive higher education experience burnout more than those who receive less education because they have more responsibility, stress, and expectation (Maslach et al., 2001).

Many personality characteristics also have a relationship with the burnout. These include lack of hardiness, external locus of control, type A personality, poor personal control, neuroticism, trait-anxiety, poor self-esteem (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996).

The power and satisfaction of personal needs, which are approval, affection, achievement, autonomy, and control, etc., are associated with burnout. Also, expressions and control of hostility, fear, impatience, and empathy, etc. is the other personality factors related to burnout (Maslach, 2003).

1.4.4. Consequences of Burnout

The consequences of burnout were examined by (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996) under six headings. These are mental, physical, behavioral, social, attitudinal, and organizational outcomes.

One of the consequences of burnout is that it causes mental dysfunctions such as anxiety, depression, and decreased self-esteem. However, people who are mentally healthy experience burnout less because they can cope better with chronic stress factors (Maslach et al., 2001).

There is a complicated relationship between burnout and health problems: Burnout affects poor health, and poor health causes burnout. For example, it was found that there is a relationship between burnout and cardiovascular problems (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Chronic tiredness, insomnia, increased susceptibility to diseases, and decreased well-being are the other physical outcomes of burnout (Maslach, 2003).

Burnout may result in behavioral consequences such as hyperactivity and violent tendency, excessive appetite, acquiring harmful habits such as excessive coffee and alcohol consumption, smoking, substance abuse (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996). There are also work-related behaviors associated with burnout. They are

turnover, poor performance, absenteeism, looking at other jobs, tardiness, misuse of work breaks, theft at work, and injury at work (Kahill, 1988).

Social consequences are associated with other people, such as recipients, colleagues, supervisors, subordinates, or family (Maslach, 2003). People who experience burnout are conflict with other people around them, causing them to have negative experiences as well. Thus, burnout continues as "contagious" through social interactions. Also, one of the most prominent features of burnout is the reduced interaction with other people (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This situation is called "*John Wayne syndrome*" and it is used for people who cannot be distracted from the effects of their work role, and then they reflect it to their family life. Therefore, there is a negative spillover effect and reduced interaction with spouses and children (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996).

After the burnout, the person can develop negative attitudes towards customers, work, herself/himself, and life in general. Various attitude changes after burnout were found in studies. They are cynicism, disgusting, pessimism, vulnerability, intolerance towards customers, depersonalizing customers, lack of pleasure in the workplace, resistance to work, lack of personal effectiveness, decreased sense of success at work, desire to escape from people, decreased in satisfaction with life, self, and job (Kahill, 1988). Besides, becoming an employee who continually criticizes organizational situations and does not have confidence in management, supervisors, and even peers are the other attitude consequences of burnout (Shaufeli & Buunk, 1996).

Burnout has a wide variety of consequences that affect the job. For example, burnout reduces the likelihood of positive experiences in the workplace, so job satisfaction and commitment to work or organization decrease. Also, DP (cynicism) dimension of burnout is associated with turnover. People who continue to stay at work despite burnout decrease productivity, and work quality deteriorates. Therefore, burnout is associated with various dissatisfaction and dismissal patterns such as job dissatisfaction, low organizational commitment, absenteeism, intention to quit, turnover (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Kahill (1988) also stated that there is a

relationship between burnout and tardiness, personal injuries and accidents, employee theft, neglect, and on-the-job mistakes.

1.5. The Relational Framework of Hypothesis Development

1.5.1. The Relation of Emotional Labor and Person-Job Fit

Yürür and Mengenci (2014) stated that employees with higher person-job fit would have less acting. Because, according to them, the feelings of people who are compatible with their job are parallel to the feelings that the organization expects from them. However, as people who are not compatible with their job would feel more stressed, they assumed that stressed people would exhibit more SA. They found that the person-job fit is negatively related to both SA and DA. Therefore, employees who do their job better show neither SA nor DA while interacting with their customers. The results showed that GE came into play at this point.

Like Yürür and Mengenci (2014), also, Lam, Huo, and Chen (2017) thought that employees who think they are more compatible with their jobs would have more positive attitudes towards their job. For this reason, employees make efforts to change their feelings and internalize the feelings that the organization demands: That means DA. In contrast, people who are incompatible with their work tend to experience less positive (or negative) emotions. These employees suppress their emotions or imitate positive emotions: That means SA. However, unlike the work of Yürür and Mengenci (2014), Lam et al. (2017) concluded that person-job fit predicted SA negatively and DA positively.

Chu et al. (2012) also stated that when there is a fit between individual and job, emotional harmony will be experienced more than emotional dissonance. According to their results, when there is a non-fit between individual and job, people who experience negative feelings need to make more effort to display EL.

Similar to these comments, Humphrey et al. (2015) thought that people who approach their job with negative emotions are more tend to exhibit SA. On the contrary, people who approach their job with positive emotions display less SA and more DA.

They also stated that the absence of person-job fit explains some of the negative consequences of EL. According to them, a person-job fit is an excellent moderator that determines the consequences of EL affecting the employee's well-being. The negative consequences of EL do not stem directly from EL but person-job misfit. Performing EL when people do the job that fits them can result in positive, not negative (Humphrey et al., 2015). In situations where the person and her/his job are not fit, one of the negative consequences of EL is WFC.

1.5.2. The Relation of Emotional Labor and Work-Family Life Conflict

It has been revealed in researches that one of the negative consequences of EL is work-family life conflict. Spillover means that pressures in one area overflow into another area. The strain created by the work role of the person may put pressure on private life or family life through spillover (Perera & Kailasapathy, 2011). Montgomery et al. (2005) stated that due to emotional spillover, the obligation to display the emotional rules at work causes to WFC. They found that SA predicted work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. According to the results of their study, doctors display SA at work, and it is associated with work-to-family positively, and nurses display SA at home. It is associated with family-to-work conflict positively.

According to Hoshchild (1983), employees who display DA have difficulty acting per their other roles. Similarly, Karim and Weisz (2011) said that these employees have a role conflict because they have difficulty in separating themselves from their job, Therefore, according to Karim and Weisz (2011), there is a positive relationship between DA and WFC. They proved that the fulfillment

of family duties and responsibilities becomes difficult due to the strain created by emotional demands at work.

Kinman (2009) examined the strain outcomes of EL in her study with cabin crew and telesales agents. It was determined that employees who exhibit EL by faking emotions or suppressing their emotions experience more WFC (Kinman, 2009). Similar results were obtained in the study of Cheung and Tang (2009) in the same year: SA has a significant effect on work-to-family. Family-to-work is also associated with SA. However, DA and GE does not affect work-to-family.

Yanchus, Eby, Lance, and Drollinger (2010) created a model to clarify the relationship between EL and WFC. In this model, they stated that EL exhibited at work or home is affected by frequency, intensity, and variety at work or home. According to their model, EL exhibited leads to work-to-family or family-to-work conflict or enrichment. It is due to negative or positive responses to EL. In the study conducted by Yanchus et al. (2010), EL was found to be related to WFC.

According to the findings of one study conducted in Turkey, EL dimensions that are automatic emotional regulation (genuine emotion) and emotional deviation (emotional dissonance), were not related to WFC (Çelik & Turunç, 2012). However, in another study, it was found that all dimensions of EL are related to WFC (Pala Morkoç, 2014). There is another study that found that DA, work-to-family, and also, family-to-work conflict are associated with each other negatively (Keleş, 2018).

1.5.3. The Relation of Work-Family Life Conflict and Burnout

In their study with police officers, Maslach and Jackson (1981) stated that people with burnout had poor relationships with their families. People with high EE scores did not want to spend time with their families. People who experience DP or LPA have reported that they have emotionally moved away from their families. And then, Maslach and Leither (1997) said that burnout might be a symptom that

occurs due to problems at home. Problems related to marriage or children may be reflected in the work of the person. Moreover, Netemeyer et al. (1996) reported that there was a positive relationship between work-to-family, family-to-work conflict, and burnout.

Studies have shown that the role conflict causes the burnout due to the spillover effect, and the burnout is both work and family-related phenomenon. The work-home conflict has a substantial impact on burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991). Similarly, Lee and Asforth (1996) also found that the role conflict, which is a general topic of the WFC, associated with all dimensions of burnout, which are EE, DP, and LPA.

In the model established by Allen et al. (2000), one of the results of WFC is stress-related results, and one of these stress-related results is burnout. They referred to other studies that found a positive relationship between WFC and burnout (e.g., Burke, 1988; Izraeli, 1988; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1988). Similarly, Kossek and Ozeki (1999) stated that all but one of the nine studies they found had a strong relationship between WFC and burnout.

Yavas et al. (2008) mentioned that there are three theories about the effect of WFC on burnout. These are inter-role conflict theory, identity theory, and COR theory. All three theories explain this relationship with the spillover effect. According to the results of their study, there are positive effects of both work-to-family and family-to-work conflict on EE.

For instance, Adam, Gyorffy, and Susanszky (2008) mentioned the scarcity theory of roles and found that WFC is the best predictor of EE and DP. Wang, Liu, Wang, and Wang (2012) achieved similar results in their study with Chinese doctors. They found that work-to-family and family-to-work conflict of doctors were positively related to EE and DP, respectively, between both male and female doctors. Later, Wang, Chang, Fu, and Wang (2012) conducted a study with the same variables and nurses and found that both work-to-family and family-to-work conflict were positively related to EE and DP.

1.5.4. The Relation of Emotional Labor and Burnout

It was said that burnout is more likely to occur when the nature of the job and person is incompatible (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). As mentioned above, it is understandable that EL influences burnout, considering that one of the factors causing the negative consequences of EL is person-job incompatibility. Köse et al. (2011) also said that burnout is the most important of the negative consequences of EL for the employees.

Hochschild (1983) thought that burnout was the negative consequences of EL. According to her, the probability of experiencing burnout is more in people who show DA because they have become very identified with their job. Moreover, it is possible to experience DP in people who exhibit SA by separating themselves from the job.

Morris and Feldman (1997) found the relationship between the dimensions of EL and EE. Unlike Hochschild (1983), according to their results, EE increases as the mismatch between the emotion felt, and emotion exhibited increases.

Kruml and Geddes (2000) achieved the same results with Morris and Feldman, different from Hochschild. According to their results, those who imitate the emotions they should exhibit experience more EE, DP, and LPA. Conversely, those who make an effort to display the emotions they should exhibit experience fewer burnouts and feel more successful in their job.

Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that there was a positive relationship among SA, EE, DP, and LPA. According to their results, DA was negatively associated with LPA, but there was no relationship among DA, EE and DP.

Grandey (2003) only handled EE dimension of burnout and reached the following results. According to her, there are two reasons why EL results in EE: Firstly, the mismatch of emotions that the person actually feels, and exhibits creates strain (surface acting). Secondly, the emotional resources of the individual are finished because of the effort spent (deep acting). However, as a result of her work,

it was revealed that the relationship between DA and burnout is not significant compared to SA. Grandey interpreted this result in the way that DA displaying restore the drained emotional resources of a person.

Just as Humphrey et al. (2015) said that people who are matched with their job would display more DA and thus experience less of the negative consequences of EL, studies concluded that burnout was caused by SA more.

Of course, there are also studies which were found different results. For instance, Chang and Chiu (2009) stated that long-term EL results in EE. Moreover, they found that both dimensions of EL, which are SA and DA, were positively related to EE.

Köse et al. (2011) found that there is a positive relationship between SA, EE, and DP. However, there is no relationship between SA and LPA. Furthermore, DA is negatively associated with DP but not associated with EE and LPA.

Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012) found that SA is associated with EE and DP, but not associated with LPA. In this study, DA is negatively related to LPA, but its relationship with EE and DP is not significant. GE is negatively related to all three dimensions of burnout.

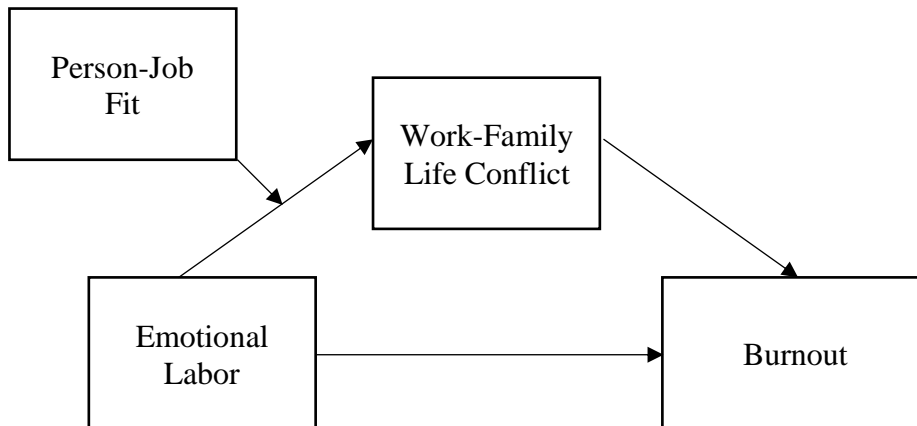
In another study, it was found that there was no difference between the burnout levels of employees who displayed EL and others (Wharton, 1993).

1.6. The Model and the Hypotheses of Research

In light of the previous studies mentioned above, the current research aims to understand the relationship between emotional labor and work-family life conflict, and the role of person-job fit on that relationship. Moreover, another relationship of the current research is that the effect of emotional labor on burnout while mediated by the work-family life conflict.

The model to be tested will be that the person-job fit is whether moderate the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between emotional labor and burnout (Figure 1.1.).

Figure 1.1. The Research Model



Accordingly, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H₁ = The total and dimensions scores of the person-job fit will moderate the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the total and dimensions scores of emotional labor and burnout.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

2.1. Participants

The samples of this study are cabin attendants and pursers who work for an aviation company in Turkey. Non-probability (convenience) sampling is applied (organization is purposefully pre-selected for the study) in this study.

In total, 217 participants were reached from cabin crews who are meeting the inclusion criteria, which are working as cabin attendants for three years and being between 25-50 age range. The number of participants included in the analysis was 209, forms fully filled were selected (Table 2.1).

The gender distribution is representing the cabin attendants at the company where the sample is taken; 76.1% (n=159) of the participants are female, and 23.9% (n=50) are male. The ages of the participants ranged between minimum 27 and maximum of 50. The age group with the highest number of participants is 33-38 (n=94, 45%). Then comes 27-32 (n=91, 43.5%), 39-44 (n=19, 9.1%) and 45-50 (n=5, 2.4%).

Educational status of participants is master's degree (n=25, 12%), bachelor's degree (n= 155, 74.1%) and associate or high school degree (n=29, 13.9%). Most of the participants are married (n=118, 56.5%), and 38.7% (n=81) of the participants are single, and 4.8% (n=10) of the participants are divorced. While most of the participants do not have children (n=126, 60.3%), 39.7% (n=83) of them have children.

Table 2.1. Demographic Characteristics

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Gender</i>	209	
Female	159	76.1
Male	50	23.9
<i>Age</i>		
27-32	91	43.5
33-38	94	45
39-44	19	9.1
45-50	5	2.4
<i>Educational Status</i>		
High School / Associate	29	13.9
Bachelor	155	74.1
Master	25	12
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Single	81	38.7
Married	118	56.5
Divorced	10	4.8
<i>Having Children</i>		
No	126	60.3
Yes	83	39.7
<i>Role</i>		
Attendant	129	61.7
Purser	80	38.3
<i>Living With</i>		
Alone	53	25.4
Nuclear Family	87	41.6
Extended Family	69	33

The majority of the participants stated that they lived with their nuclear family consisting of their mother or father or their spouse or children (n=87, 41.6%). Other participants stated that they lived with their extended family consisting of parents

and spouses and children (n=69, 33%). The remaining 25.4% (n=53) of the participants stated that they lived individually, either on their own or with their friends.

The role in the cabin crew of 61.7% (n=129) of the participants is attendant. The remaining 38.3% (n=80) of the participants are purser in the cabin crew. Purser is the title given to senior cabin attendants with at least 5 years of experience and success in the relevant interviews.

2.2. Measures

Emotional Labor: The scale is developed by Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005), and they adapted from emotional labor scale developed by Grandey (2003), and Kruml and Geddes (2000). In the study of Diefendorff and et al. (2005), the reliability coefficients of the scale were found as Surface Acting .92, Deep Acting .85, Genuine Emotions .83. It was adapted to Turkish, and the reliability coefficients of this scale were found by Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012) as follows: Surface Acting .84, Deep Acting .86, Genuine Emotions .86 and the general reliability coefficient of the scale is .80. Moreover, the scale has thirteen items.

The original scale developed by Diefendorff and et al. (2005) was prepared for a sample of people who work in “people works” (e.g., sales, service, healthcare, childcare, and clerical). Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012) also adapted this scale to Turkish for the teacher sample. In our study, all questions were arranged for a sample of people who work in the aviation sector and participants indicate their evaluations using a 6-point Likert type scale (6= Strongly Agree; 1= Strongly Disagree). Both the English and Turkish versions of the scale are included in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Person-Job Fit: Scale is developed by Brkich, Jeffs, and Carless (2002), and it has nine items. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .92. It was translated to

Turkish, and the reliability coefficients of this scale were found as .87 for Person-Job Fit and .84 for Person-Job Misfit by Uçanok (2008).

In the current study, when I and my thesis supervisor Assoc. Prof. İdil Işık examined the items of this scale, and we realized that one item (“*I feel that my goals and needs are met in this job*”) could be divided into two items (“*I feel that my goals are reached in this job*” and “*I feel that my needs are met in this job*”). We arranged this scale to be a total of ten items. Moreover, we used a 6-point Likert type response scale (6= Strongly Agree; 1= Strongly Disagree). Both the English and Turkish versions of the scale are included in Appendix C and Appendix D.

Work-Family Conflict: Scale is developed by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996), and it is a measurement tool that consists of two sub-dimensions that the levels of work-family conflict arising from the work-life and family-work conflict arising from the family life. There are ten expressions, which are the sum of five expressions that measure the Family-Work Conflict sub-dimension (the conflict transferred from family to work) and five expressions that measure the Work-Family Conflict sub-dimension (the conflict transferred from work to family). Netemeyer and et al. (1996) found the reliability coefficients of this scale as .88 and .89. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Efeoğlu (2006), and the general reliability coefficients of this scale were found .83, and also for work-family conflict .88, and family-work conflict .85.

The scale used in the current study is the 6-point Likert type response scale (6= Strongly Agree; 1= Strongly Disagree). Both the English and Turkish versions of the scale are included in Appendix E and Appendix F.

Burnout: The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981), and it contains 22 items that measure three dimensions of burnout. Nine items related to emotional exhaustion, five items related to the dimension of depersonalization, and there are eight items related to the lack of personal accomplishment. They found the reliability coefficients of this scale as Emotional Exhaustion .90, Depersonalization .79, and Personal Accomplishment .71. It was adapted to Turkish, and the reliability coefficients of this scale were

found by Ergin (1992) as follows: Emotional Exhaustion .83, Depersonalization .65, and Personal Accomplishment .72.

The original scale developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) was prepared for a sample of people who work in variety of health and service occupations (e.g., agency administrators, counselors, mental health workers, nurses, policies, probation officers, social workers, and teachers). In our study, all questions were arranged for a sample of people who work in the aviation sector. Moreover, my thesis supervisor Assoc. Prof. İdil Işık and I examined the language of all the scales used. After the pilot study, some items were translated into Turkish again to be more understandable. Participants indicate their evaluations using a 6-point Likert type scale (6= Every time; 1= Never) in this study. Both the English and Turkish versions of the scale are included in Appendix G and Appendix H.

Demographic Form: This form includes questions related to age, gender, educational status, marital status, having children, role in the cabin crew, and people living with. Both the English and Turkish versions of the scale are included in Appendix I and Appendix J.

2.3. Procedure

After Istanbul Bilgi University Ethics Committee approved the ethics form (Appendix L), the researcher collaborated with an aviation company in Turkey to collect and analyze data from the cabin crew. She connected with the relevant department at the company to get permission for this study. After obtained permission to conduct research with cabin crews from the relevant department, the researcher came together with cabin crews on days appropriate for her workload.

Since the flight schedules of cabin attendants are different from each other and to reach them face to face, the researcher came together with the cabin crews in their training classes. Before the training classes or at the break time, the researcher went to the classrooms and presented an informed consent form and

scales as a hard copy. While forms were shared as face to face, it was stated that this was a scientific study, and participation was voluntary. I also The conditions of participation (working as a member of the cabin crew for three years and being between the 25-50 age range) were mentioned. In this study, no identity information was requested so that the study was completely anonymous. The research proceeded with volunteering flight attendants who wish to participate in the study.

While obtaining informed permission from the participants, written consent was taken first. The informed consent form is included in Appendix K. The scales were placed on the other pages of the form as Person-Job Fit Scale, Work-Family Conflict Scale, Emotional Labor Scale, Burnout Scale, and demographic form, respectively. Filling out the forms lasted, on average, 15 minutes, but this period varied according to the focusing level and reading speed of the participants.

2.4. Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis was conducted on anonym data via SPSS 21 software program. The researcher made the entry and analysis of the data of 217 participants in the study into the SPSS program. Acutely few missing data were observed in the data set because the researcher guided the participants in all data collection processes. It was observed that only eight people did not meet the conditions for participation in the research. Therefore, these data were removed from the data set.

In the completion of the lost data in the forms of 209 people who are included in the analysis, series mean for continuous variables, and Hot Deck imputation for categorical and ordinal data was used (Joenssen & Bankhofer, 2012). The scores given to the scale items were summed up, and the sub-dimension scores were calculated, and the total scores were calculated by summing the sub-dimension scores.

The Central Limit Theorem states that the normality assumption is acceptable when the analysis has a large sample size. Since the number of participants is 100 and above, the data set was considered normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Descriptive, factor, and reliability analysis were done, respectively. Then, Pearson correlation analysis and regression analysis were applied to see the relationships between variables before the model testing.

The model testing of the study was carried out using the model 7 of the PROCESS macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2017). With the moderated analysis in Model 7 of the PROCESS macro, it was examined whether person-job fit scores moderate the relationship between emotional labor scores and work-family life conflict scores. Again, the mediator analysis in the model examined whether the work-family life conflict scores mediate the relationship between emotional labor scores and burnout scores. It has been examined with the moderated mediation analysis (the index of moderated mediation) that whether the emotional labor scores predict burnout scores through work-family life conflict according to the person-job fit scores.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1.1. Factor Analyses of the Person-Job Fit Scale

According to Principal Axis Factoring with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 10 items of the Person-Job Fit Scale, all items loaded adequately and sufficiently. Table 3.1. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

While the original version of the scale has a single factor, it was found in our analysis that similar to the work of Başak Uçanok (2008), items fell into two different factors: fit and non-fit. The results showed that all factors were consistent with Uçanok's (2008) study, and all items fall into the same categories in her study.

The first factor, "Fit", explains 50.5% of the variance with six items, and the second factor, "Non-Fit", explains 9.4% of the variance with four items. The Cronbach's Alpha for the "Person-Job Fit Scale" is .903. Also, the Cronbach's Alpha of "Fit" is .890 and the Cronbach's Alpha of "Non- Fit" is .842.

Table 3.1. Factor Analysis of Person-Job Fit Scale

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Person-Job Fit Scale Total			59.956	.903
Factor1: Person-Job Fit (6 Items)		5.430	50.533	.890
All things considered; this job suits me	.539			
I feel that my goals are reached in this job	.793			
I feel that my needs are met in this job	.763			
I find my current job motivating	.622			
My abilities, skills, and talents are the right type for this job	.785			
I am able to use my talents, skills, and competencies in my current job	.645			
Factor2: Person-Job Non-Fit (4 Items)		1.350	9.423	.842
My current job is not really me	.755			
This job is not really what I would like to be doing	.937			
I'm sure there must be another job for which I am better suited	.737			
I feel like this is not the right type of work for me	.608			

3.1.2. Factor Analyses of the Work-Family Conflict Scale

According to Principal Axis Factoring with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 10 items of the Work-Family Conflict Scale, all items were loaded adequately and sufficiently. Table 3.2. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

While the original version of the scale has two factors, it was found in our analysis that items fall into one factor: work-family life conflict. This result showed that there is a conflict, but no direction of this conflict comes to the fore, in particular for cabin attendants. Nevertheless, since both directions could affect each other, analyzes were performed with the total scores.

There is just one factor, or and it explains 46.4% of the variance with ten items. The Cronbach's Alpha for the "Work-Family Life Conflict" is .893.

Table 3.2. Factor Analysis of Work-Family Conflict Scale

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-Family Life Conflict (10 Items)		5.157	46.416	.893
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties	.798			
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of demands my job puts on me	.764			
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner	.720			
Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties	.701			
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities	.700			
I have to put off doing things at work because of the demands of my time at home	.686			
Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities	.647			
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime	.646			
The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life	.578			
The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities	.529			

3.1.3. Factor Analyses of the Emotional Labor Scale

According to Principal Axis Factoring with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 13 items of the Emotional Labor Scale, all items were loaded adequately and sufficiently. Table 3.3. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

In accordance with the original version of the scale, it was found in our analysis that items fell into three different factors. In the current study, factors are named as "Surface Acting", "Deep Acting", and "Genuine Emotion", as on the original scale.

The first factor, "Surface Acting", explains 28.1% of the variance with five items, the second factor, "Deep Acting", explains 21.2% of the variance with five items and the third factor, "Genuine Emotion", explains 5.1% of the variance with three items. The Cronbach's Alpha for the "Emotional Labor Scale" is .779. Also, the Cronbach's Alpha of "Surface Acting" is .835, the Cronbach's Alpha of "Deep Acting" is .764, and the Cronbach's Alpha of "Genuine Emotion" is .827.

The results showed that factors were consistent with the original scale, as the items fall into the same categories, except the fifth item of the second factor. While this item was below the "Surface Acting" factor in the original scale, it was below the "Deep Acting" factor in our analysis results. This situation is thought to be related to translation. Because "*I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job*" may be understood as "internalizing" when translated into Turkish.

Table 3.3. Factor Analysis of Emotional Labor Scale

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotional Labor Scale Total			54.497	.779
Factor1: Surface Acting (5 Items)		4.081	28.145	.835
I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job	.814			
I fake a good mood when interacting with customers	.759			
I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	.744			
I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with customers	.635			
I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside	.470			
Factor2: Deep Acting (5 Items)		3.199	21.239	.764
I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others	.815			
I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers	.743			
I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.	.669			
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers	.431			
I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job	.418			
Factor3: Genuine Emotion (3 Items)		1.067	5.112	.827
The emotions I express to customers are genuine	.893			
The emotions I show customers come naturally	.819			
The emotions I show customers match what I spontaneously feel	.594			

3.1.4. Factor Analyses of the Maslach Burnout Inventory

According to Principal Axis Factoring with Direct Oblimin rotation for the 22 items of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, six items have been excluded from the analysis because they did not load adequately and sufficiently. Table 3.4. shows the pattern matrix of the scale.

While the original version of the scale has three factors, it was found in our analysis that items fell into two factors: emotional exhaustion and lack of personal accomplishment. The results showed that factors were consistent with the original scale, as the items fall into the same categories. The "Emotional Exhaustion" factor in our analysis consists of items below the "Emotional Exhaustion" and the "Depersonalization" factors in the original scale.

The first factor, "Emotional Exhaustion", explains 39.7% of the variance with twelve items, and the second factor, "Lack of Personal Accomplishment", explains 9.7% of the variance with four items. The Cronbach's Alpha for the "Maslach Burnout Inventory" is .907. Also, the Cronbach's Alpha of "Emotional Exhaustion" is .916, and the Cronbach's Alpha of "Lack of Personal Accomplishment" is .768.

Table 3.4. Factor Analysis of Maslach Burnout Inventory

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Burnout Scale Total			49.474	.907
Factor1: Emotional Exhaustion (12 Items)		6.824	39.739	.916
I've become more callous toward people since I took this job	.876			
I feel burned out from my work	.875			
I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally	.827			
Working with people all day is really a strain for me	.726			
I feel frustrated by my job	.711			
I feel emotionally drained from my work	.688			
I feel used up at the end of the workday	.632			
I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal "objects"	.614			
Working with people directly puts too much stress on me	.581			
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.570			
I don't really care what happens to some recipients	.548			
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope	.485			
Factor2: Lack of Personal Accomplishment (4 Items)		2.043	9.735	.768
I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients	.821			
I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients	.677			
I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things	.649			
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work	.498			

3.2. The Inter-Correlations of Variables

Pearson Correlation analysis was applied to show relationships between variables. Table 3.5. shows the results of correlation analysis. Also, there are mean and standard deviation scores of variables.

There are a negative and positive relationships between most of the variables. The strongest negative relationship is between Person-Job Fit total score and Burnout total score ($r = -.700, p = .00$). The strongest positive relationship is between Non-Fit score and EE score ($r = .680, p = .00$).

However, there is no significant relationship between Non-Fit score and DA score ($r = -.123, p = .08$), and between WFLC score and DA score ($r = -.071, p = .31$), and between SA score and LPA score ($r = .106, p = .13$).

Table 3.5. Correlation Analyses

	Mean	Std. Deviation	CORRELATIONS										
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Person-Job Fit	4.88	1.01		.921**	-.881**	-.474**	-.262**	-.283**	.147*	.503**	-.700**	-.682**	-.409**
Fit	4.88	1.03	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.033	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Non-Fit	2.13	1.27			-.627**	-.418**	-.214**	-.214**	.141*	.476**	-.601**	-.563**	-.429**
				0.000	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.041	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
					.440**	.263**	.306**	-.123	-.427**	.670**	.680**	.296**	
				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.077	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Work-Family Life Conflict	2.28	1.00				.268**	.322**	-.071	-.333**	.569**	.567**	.290**	
						0.000	0.000	0.306	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Emotional Labor	3.26	0.81					.876**	.604**	-.456**	.360**	.393**	.062	
							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.372	
Surface Acting	3.19	1.25						.260**	-.412**	.440**	.472**	.106	
								0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.127	
Deep Acting	3.88	1.12							.245**	-.213**	-.145*	-.339**	
									0.000	0.002	0.036	0.000	
Genuine Emotion	4.63	1.19								-.618**	-.554**	-.527**	
										0.000	0.000	0.000	
Burnout	2.29	0.87									.972**	.590**	
											0.000	0.000	
Emotional Exhaustion	2.36	1.02										.386**	
												0.000	
Lack of Personal Accomplishment	2.07	0.88											

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

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

3.3. The Main Effects of Variables

In the study, simple linear regression analyzes were conducted to test the main effect of EL on burnout, EL on WFLC, and WFLC on burnout.

In Table 3.6., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of emotional labor total scores on burnout is given.

Table 3.6. Results of Regression Analyses Between Emotional Labor and Burnout

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	4.309	.000	1.016	30.764	.000	.129
Emotional Labor	5.547	.000	.389			

Dependent Variable: Burnout

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict burnout based on EL. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 30.764, p < .001$). Accordingly, 12.9% ($R_2 = .129$) of the changes in participants' burnout levels depend on the level of EL. Burnout increased .389 for each score of EL.

In Table 3.7., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of SA on EE.

Table 3.7. Results of Regression Analyses Between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	6.661	.000	1.135	59.377	.000	.223
Surface Acting	7.706	.000	.384			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict EE based on SA. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 59.377, p < .001$).

Accordingly, 22.3% ($R^2 = .223$) of the changes in participants' EE levels depend on the level of SA. EE increased .384 for each score of SA.

In Table 3.8., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of SA on LPA.

Table 3.8. Results of Regression Analyses Between Surface Acting and Lack of Personal Accomplishment

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	R^2
Constant	10.965	.000	1.828	2.352	.127	.011
Surface Acting	1.534	.127	.075			

Dependent Variable: Lack of Personal Accomplishment

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict LPA based on SA. Regression equation was found non-significant ($F(1, 207) = 2.352, p = .127$). Accordingly, 1.1% ($R^2 = .011$) of the changes in participants' LPA levels depend on the level of SA. LPA increased .075 for each score of SA.

In Table 3.9., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of DA on EE.

Table 3.9. Results of Regression Analyses Between Deep Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	R^2
Constant	11.365	.000	2.871	4.469	.036	.021
Deep Acting	-2.114	.036	-.132			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict EE based on DA. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 4.469, p < .05$). Accordingly, 2.1% ($R^2 = .021$) of the changes in participants' EE levels depend on the level of DA. EE decreased .132 for each score of DA.

In Table 3.10., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of DA on LPA.

Table 3.10. Results of Regression Analyses Between Deep Acting and Lack of Personal Accomplishment

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	14.898	.000	3.103	26.867	.000	.115
Deep Acting	-5.183	.000	-.267			

Dependent Variable: Lack of Personal Accomplishment

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict LPA based on DA. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 26.867, p < .001$). Accordingly, 11.5% ($R_2 = .115$) of the changes in participants' LPA levels depend on the level of DA. LPA decreased .267 for each score of DA.

In Table 3.11., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of GE on EE.

Table 3.11. Results of Regression Analyses Between Genuine Emotion and Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	19.260	.000	4.550	91.759	.000	.307
Genuine Emotion	-9.579	.000	-.473			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict EE based on GE. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 91.759, p < .001$). Accordingly, 30.7% ($R_2 = .307$) of the changes in participants' EE levels depend on the level of GE. EE decreased .473 for each score of GE.

In Table 3.12., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of GE on LPA.

Table 3.12. Results of Regression Analyses Between Genuine Emotion and Lack of Personal Accomplishment

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	18.514	.000	3.872	79.511	.000	.278
Genuine Emotion	-8.917	.000	-.390			

Dependent Variable: Lack of Personal Accomplishment

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict LPA based on GE. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 79.511, p < .001$). Accordingly, 27.8% ($R_2 = .278$) of the changes in participants' LPA levels depend on the level of GE. LPA decreased .390 for each score of GE.

In Table 3.13., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of EL total scores on WFLC.

Table 3.13. Results of Regression Analyses Between Emotional Labor and Work-Family Life Conflict

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	4.326	.000	1.202	15.964	.000	.072
Emotional Labor	3.995	.000	.330			

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Life Conflict

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict WFLC based on EL. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 15.964, p < .001$). Accordingly, 7.2% ($R_2 = .072$) of the changes in participants' WFLC levels depend on the level of EL. WFLC increased .330 for each score of EL.

In Table 3.14., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of SA on WFLC.

Table 3.14. Results of Regression Analyses Between Surface Acting and Work-Family Life Conflict

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	8.177	.000	1.464	23.866	.000	.103
Surface Acting	4.885	.000	.255			

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Life Conflict

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict WFLC based on SA. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 23.866, p < .001$). Accordingly, 10.3% ($R_2 = .103$) of the changes in participants' WFLC levels depend on the level of SA. WFLC increased .255 for each score of SA.

In Table 3.15., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of DA on WFLC.

Table 3.15. Results of Regression Analyses Between Deep Acting and Work-Family Life Conflict

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	10.131	.000	2.524	1.051	.306	.005
Deep Acting	-1.025	.306	-.063			

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Life Conflict

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict WFLC based on DA. Regression equation was found non-significant ($F(1, 207) = 1.051, p = .306$). Accordingly, 0.5% ($R_2 = .005$) of the changes in participants' WFLC levels depend on the level of DA. WFLC decreased by .063 for each score of DA.

In Table 3.16., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of GE on WFLC.

Table 3.16. Results of Regression Analyses Between Genuine Emotion and Work-Family Life Conflict

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	13.626	.000	3.567	25.804	.000	.111
Genuine Emotion	-5.080	.000	-.278			

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Life Conflict

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict WFLC based on GE. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 25.804, p < .001$). Accordingly, 11.1% ($R_2 = .111$) of the changes in participants' WFLC levels depend on the level of GE. WFLC decreased by .278 for each score of GE.

In Table 3.17., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of WFLC on burnout.

Table 3.17. Results of Regression Analyses Between Work-Family Life Conflict and Burnout

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ₂
Constant	9.221	.000	1.148	99.279	.000	.324
Work-Family Life Conflict	9.964	.000	.499			

Dependent Variable: Burnout

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict burnout based on WFLC. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 99.279, p < .001$). Accordingly, 32.4% ($R_2 = .324$) of the changes in participants' burnout levels depend on the level of WFLC. Burnout increased .499 for each score of WFLC.

In Table 3.18., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of WFLC on EE.

Table 3.18. Results of Regression Analyses Between Work-Family Life Conflict and Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Constant	7.127	.000	1.037	98.124	.000	.322
Work-Family Life Conflict	9.906	.000	.580			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict EE based on WFLC. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 98.124, p < .001$). Accordingly, 32.2% ($R^2 = .322$) of the changes in participants' EE levels depend on the level of WFLC. EE increased .580 for each score of WFLC.

In Table 3.19., a simple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the effect of WFLC on LPA.

Table 3.19. Results of Regression Analyses Between Work-Family Life Conflict and Lack of Personal Accomplishment

Independent Variable	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	B	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Constant	10.102	.000	1.481	18.948	.000	.084
Work-Family Life Conflict	4.353	.000	.257			

Dependent Variable: Lack of Personal Accomplishment

A simple linear regression was conducted to predict LPA based on WFLC. Significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 207) = 18.948, p < .001$). Accordingly, 8.4% ($R^2 = .084$) of the changes in participants' LPA levels depend on the level of WFLC. LPA increased .257 for each score of WFLC.

In summary, most of the predictive main effects of the variables are significant. There is only no relationship between SA and LPA, and, DA and WFLC.

3.4. The Moderating Effect of Person-Job Fit on the Mediating Effect of Work-Family Life Conflict on the Relationship Between Emotional Labor and Burnout

Model 7 in the PROCESS macro was used to examine the moderated mediation relationship in the hypothesized of the study (Hayes, 2017). In this model, the emotional labor is the predictor variable, and WFLC is the mediator variable, the person-job fit is the moderator variable and, the burnout is the outcome variable.

In the first analysis, total scores were used. The model in which WFLC total score as the outcome variable, EL total score, and person-job fit total score as the predictor variables was found to be significant ($R^2 = .25$, $F(3, 205) = 22.38$, $p < .001$). When the outcome variable is the total burnout score, and the predictor variables are EL total score and WFLC total score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .37$, $F(2, 206) = 60.61$, $p < .001$).

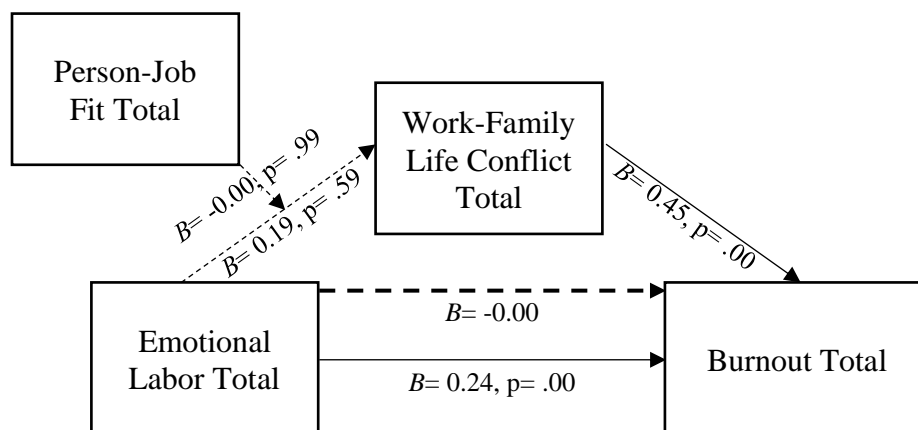
By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit total score between EL total score and WFLC total score has a moderator role. EL total score did not predict WFLC total score ($B = 0.19$, $S.E. = 0.36$, $t = 0.54$, $p = .59$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit total score, did not predicted WFLC total score ($B = -0.42$, $S.E. = 0.26$, $t = -1.61$, $p = .11$). Also, the relationship between EL total score and WFLC total score did not moderated by the person-job fit total score ($B = -0.00$, $S.E. = 0.07$, $t = -0.01$, $p = .99$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 3.72$, $S.E. = 1.35$, $t = 2.76$, $p = .01$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is EL total score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC total score ($B = 0.19$, $S.E. = 0.36$, $t = 0.54$, $p = .59$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC total score, predicted the outcome variable, which is the burnout total score ($B = 0.45$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 8.88$, $p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is EL total score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is the burnout total score ($B = 0.24$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $t = 3.89$, $p < .001$).

When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between EL and the burnout was not significant for low scores ($B = 0.9, S.E. = 0.06$) of the person-job fit. It was significant for average scores ($B = 0.8, S.E. = 0.04$) and high scores ($B = 0.8, S.E. = 0.4$) of the person-job fit. Also, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 0.48, S.E. = 0.21, t = 2.28, p < .05$).

According to the researchers, in order to examine whether there is a mediation relationship in a model, firstly, there must be a significant relationship between the predictor variable and the mediator variable, secondly, between the mediator variable and the outcome variable, and thirdly, between the predictor variable and the outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Although it is the central assumption of the mediation relationship, when the findings in this model are evaluated together, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly. Therefore, the mediation relationship was not observed. When all the above findings were evaluated together, there is not a statistically significant moderated mediation relationship ($B = -0.00, S.E. = 0.04$) between emotional labor and burnout.

Figure 3.1. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Emotional Labor, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Burnout.



This relationship between total scores was also examined by differently moderated mediation analyzes in different dimensions of variables.

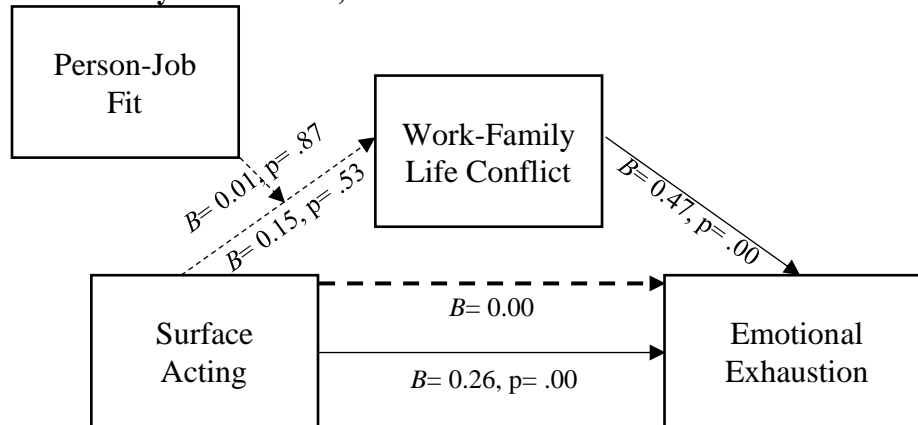
In the second analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the surface acting and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, SA, and the person-job fit scores as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 205) = 20.55$, $p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are SA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .42$, $F(2, 206) = 73.14$, $p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between SA score and WFLC score have a moderator role. SA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = 0.15$, $S.E. = 0.25$, $t = 0.63$, $p = .53$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = -0.38$, $S.E. = 0.18$, $t = -2.09$, $p < .05$). However, the relationship between SA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.01$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 0.16$, $p = .87$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 3.53$, $S.E. = 0.95$, $t = 3.73$, $p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is SA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = 0.15$, $S.E. = 0.25$, $t = 0.63$, $p = .53$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.47$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $t = 8.23$, $p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is SA score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.26$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 5.74$, $p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between SA and EE was not significant for low scores ($B = 0.9$, $S.E. = 0.05$) of the person-job fit. It was significant for average scores ($B = 0.9$, $S.E. = 0.03$) and high scores ($B = 0.9$, $S.E. = 0.3$) of the person-job fit. Also, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 0.44$, $S.E. = 0.17$, $t = 2.59$, $p = .01$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor

variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship was not observed.

Figure 3.2. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Surface Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.

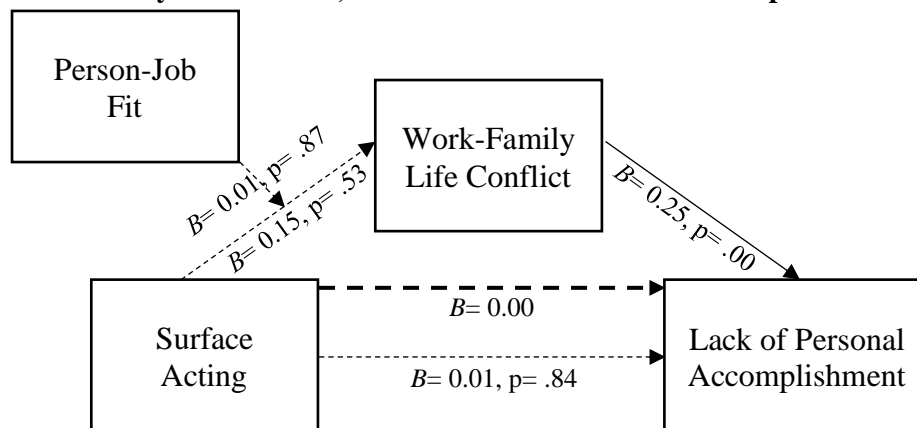


In the third analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the surface acting and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, SA, and the person-job fit score as the predictor variables was found to be significant ($R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 205) = 20.55$, $p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are SA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .08$, $F(2, 206) = 9.45$, $p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between SA score and WFLC score have a moderator role. SA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = 0.15$, $S.E. = 0.25$, $t = 0.63$, $p = .53$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = -0.38$, $S.E. = 0.18$, $t = -2.09$, $p < .05$). However, the relationship between SA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.01$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 0.16$, $p = .87$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 3.53$, $S.E. = 0.95$, $t = 3.73$, $p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is SA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = 0.15, S.E. = 0.25, t = 0.63, p = .53$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.25, S.E. = 0.06, t = 4.05, p < .001$). However, the predictor variable, which is SA score, did not directly predict the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.01, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.20, p = .84$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between SA and LPA was not significant for low scores ($B = 0.5, S.E. = 0.03$) of the person-job fit. It was significant for average scores ($B = 0.5, S.E. = 0.02$) and high scores ($B = 0.5, S.E. = 0.2$) of the person-job fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.46, S.E. = 0.19, t = 7.88, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable and the outcome variable in a significantly, and the mediation relationship was not observed.

Figure 3.3. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Surface Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.



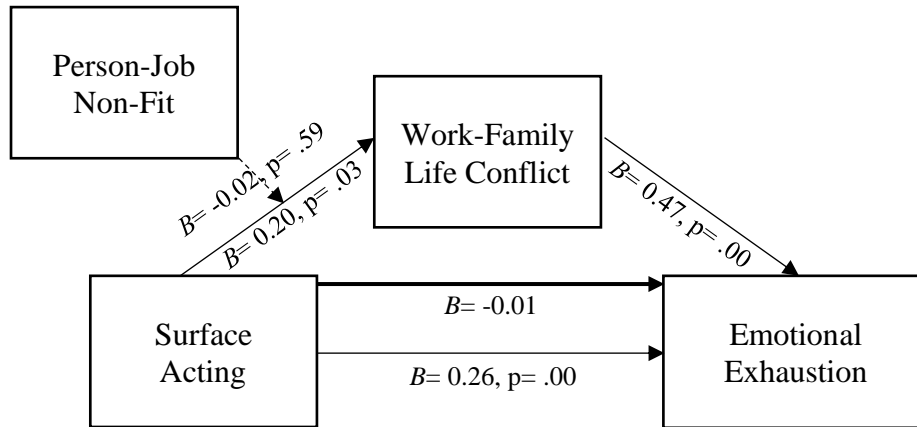
In the fourth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the surface acting and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, SA, and the person-job non-fit scores as the predictor variables were found to be significant ($R^2 = .23, F(3, 205) = 20.77, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are SA score and

WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .42$, $F(2, 206) = 73.14$, $p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between SA score and WFLC score have a moderator role. SA score predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.20$, $S.E. = 0.09$, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.36$, $S.E. = 0.14$, $t = 2.66$, $p = .01$). However, the relationship between SA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.03$, $t = -0.54$, $p = .59$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 0.98$, $S.E. = 0.32$, $t = 3.04$, $p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is SA score, predicted the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = 0.20$, $S.E. = 0.09$, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.47$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $t = 8.23$, $p < .001$). Moreover, the predictor variable, which is SA score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.26$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 5.74$, $p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between SA and EE was not significant for high scores ($B = 0.7$, $S.E. = 0.04$) of person-job non-fit. It was significant for low scores ($B = 0.9$, $S.E. = 0.03$) and average scores ($B = 0.8$, $S.E. = 0.3$) of person-job non-fit. Also, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 0.44$, $S.E. = 0.17$, $t = 2.59$, $p = .01$). Therefore, it was seen that there was a partial mediation relationship. SOBEL test (1982) was also used to determine whether the relationship was significant. SOBEL test score was 2.16 and $p < .05$.

Figure 3.4. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Surface Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.



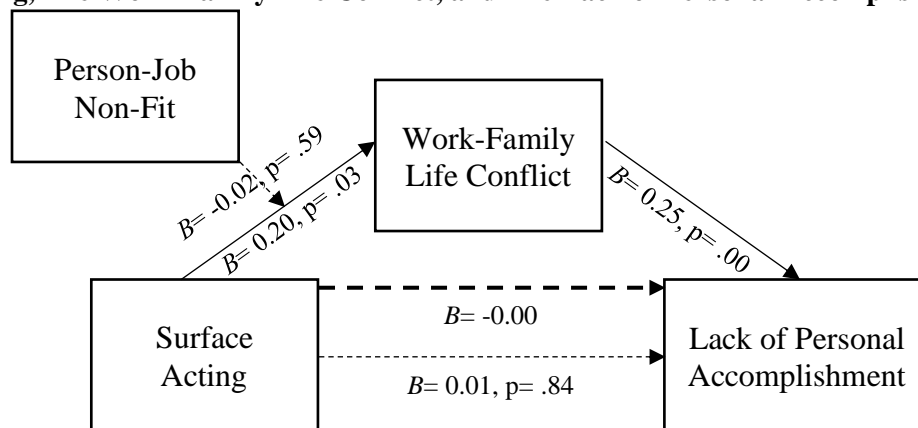
In the fifth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the surface acting and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, SA, and the person-job non-fit score as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 205) = 20.77$, $p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are SA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .08$, $F(2, 206) = 9.45$, $p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between SA score and WFLC score have a moderator role. SA score predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.20$, $S.E. = 0.09$, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.36$, $S.E. = 0.14$, $t = 2.66$, $p = .01$). However, the relationship between SA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.03$, $t = -0.54$, $p = .59$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 0.98$, $S.E. = 0.32$, $t = 3.04$, $p < .01$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that predictor variable, which is SA score, predicted the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = 0.20$, $S.E. = 0.09$, $t = 2.24$, $p < .05$). It was observed that the

mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.25, S.E. = 0.06, t = 4.05, p < .001$). However, the predictor variable, which is SA score, did not directly predict the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.01, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.20, p = .84$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between SA and LPA was not significant for high scores ($B = 0.4, S.E. = 0.02$) of person-job non-fit. It was significant for low scores ($B = 0.5, S.E. = 0.02$) and average scores ($B = 0.4, S.E. = 0.2$) of person-job non-fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.46, S.E. = 0.19, t = 7.88, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the outcome variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.5. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Surface Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.

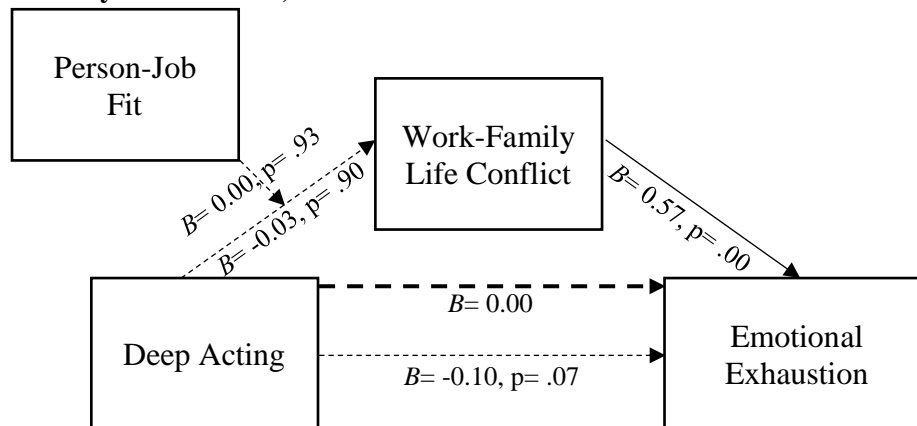


In the sixth analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the deep acting and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, DA, and the person-job fit scores as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R_2 = .17, F(3, 205) = 14.48, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are DA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R_2 = .33, F(2, 206) = 51.35, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between DA score and WFLC score has a moderator role. DA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.03, S.E. = 0.28, t = -0.13, p = .90$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.42, S.E. = 0.23, t = -1.87, p = .06$). Moreover, the relationship between DA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.00, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.9, p = .93$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 4.38, S.E. = 1.12, t = 3.90, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.03, S.E. = 0.28, t = -0.13, p = .90$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.57, S.E. = 0.06, t = 9.81, p < .001$). However, the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not directly predict the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = -0.10, S.E. = 0.05, t = -1.85, p = .07$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between DA and EE was not significant for low scores ($B = -0.01, S.E. = 0.07$), and average scores ($B = -0.01, S.E. = 0.04$) and high scores ($B = -0.0, S.E. = 0.04$) of the person-job fit. Nevertheless, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.43, S.E. = 0.26, t = 5.58, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable and the outcome variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.6. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Deep Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.



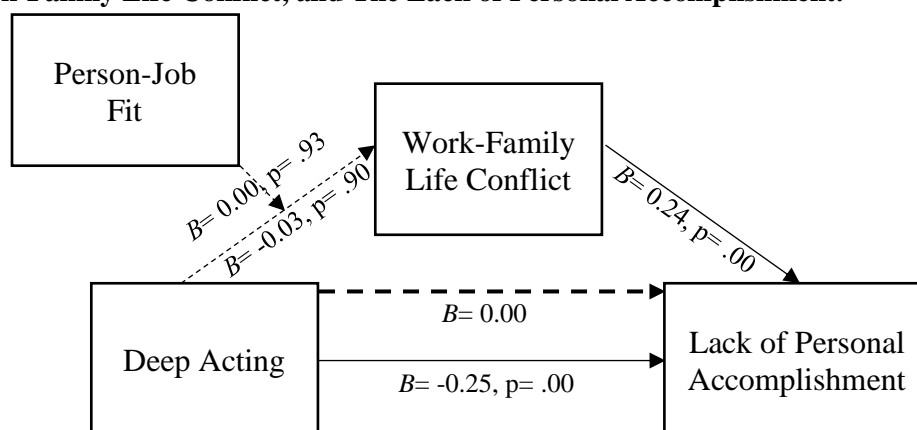
In the seventh analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the deep acting and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, DA and the person-job fit score as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .17, F(3, 205) = 14.48, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are DA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .19, F(2, 206) = 23.49, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between DA score and WFLC score has a moderator role. DA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.03, S.E. = 0.28, t = -0.13, p = .90$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.42, S.E. = 0.23, t = -1.87, p = .06$). Moreover, the relationship between DA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.00, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.09, p = .93$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 4.38, S.E. = 1.12, t = 3.90, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -.03, S.E. = 0.28, t = -0.13, p = .90$). It was observed

that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.24, S.E. = 0.06, t = 4.23, p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is DA score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = -0.25, S.E. = 0.05, t = -5.08, p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between DA and LPA was not significant for low ($B = -0.00, S.E. = 0.03$), and average ($B = -0.00, S.E. = 0.02$), and high ($B = -0.00, S.E. = 0.02$) scores of person-job fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.51, S.E. = 0.25, t = 10.23, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.7. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Deep Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.



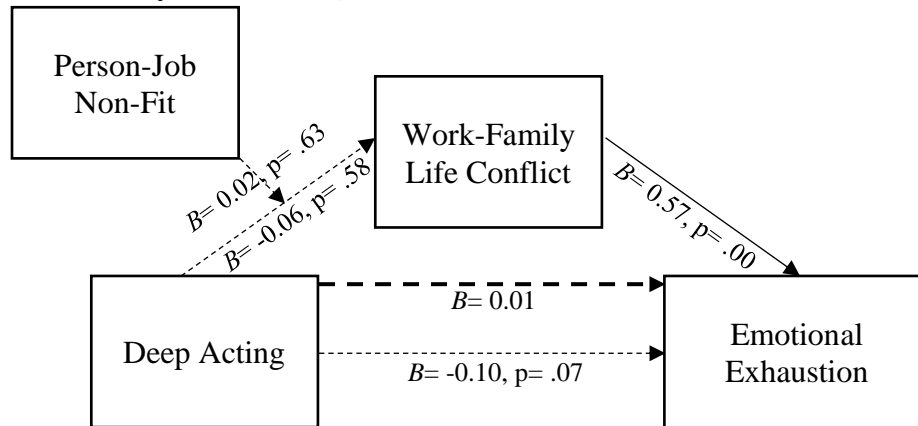
In the eighth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the deep acting and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, DA, and the person-job non-fit scores as the predictor variables were found to be significant ($R^2 = .19, F(3, 205) = 16.52, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are DA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .33, F(2, 206) = 51.35, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between DA score and WFLC score has a moderator

role. DA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.11, t = -0.56, p = .58$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, also did not predict WFLC score ($B = 0.25, S.E. = 0.19, t = 1.30, p = .19$). Also, the relationship between DA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = 0.02, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.49, p = .63$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.79, S.E. = 0.46, t = 3.90, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.11, t = -0.56, p = .58$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.57, S.E. = 0.06, t = 9.81, p < .001$). However, the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not directly predict the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = -0.10, S.E. = 0.05, t = -1.85, p = .07$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between DA and EE was not significant for low scores ($B = -0.02, S.E. = 0.04$), and average scores ($B = -0.01, S.E. = 0.04$) and high scores ($B = 0.01, S.E. = 0.07$) of the person-job non-fit. Nevertheless, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.43, S.E. = 0.26, t = 5.58, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable and the outcome variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.8. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Deep Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.



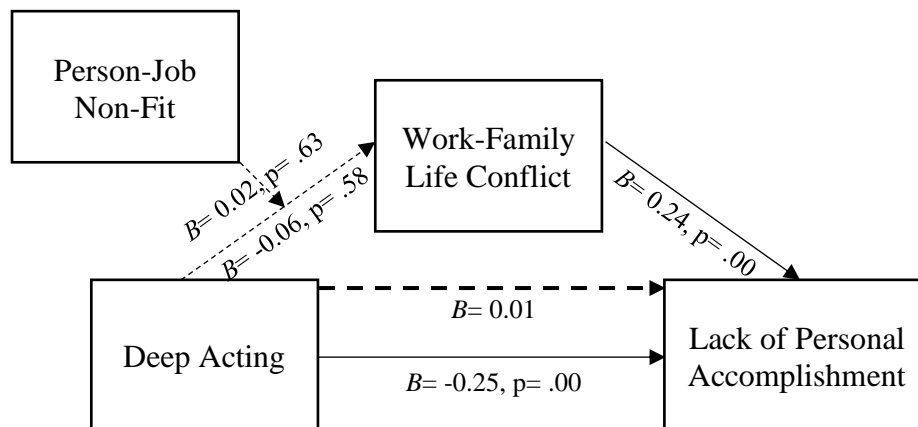
In the ninth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the deep acting and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, DA, and the person-job non-fit score as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .19, F(3, 205) = 16.52, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are DA score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .19, F(2, 206) = 23.49, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between DA score and WFLC score has a moderator role. DA score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.11, t = -0.56, p = .58$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, did not predict WFLC score ($B = 0.25, S.E. = 0.19, t = 1.30, p = .19$). Also, the relationship between DA score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = 0.02, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.49, p = .63$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 1.79, S.E. = 0.46, t = 3.90, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is DA score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.11, t = -0.56, p = .58$). It was observed

that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.24, S.E. = 0.06, t = 4.23, p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is DA score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = -0.25, S.E. = 0.05, t = -5.08, p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between DA and LPA was not significant for low ($B = -0.01, S.E. = 0.02$), average ($B = -0.00, S.E. = 0.02$) and high ($B = 0.00, S.E. = 0.03$) scores of the person-job non-fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.51, S.E. = 0.25, t = 10.23, p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.9. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Deep Acting, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.

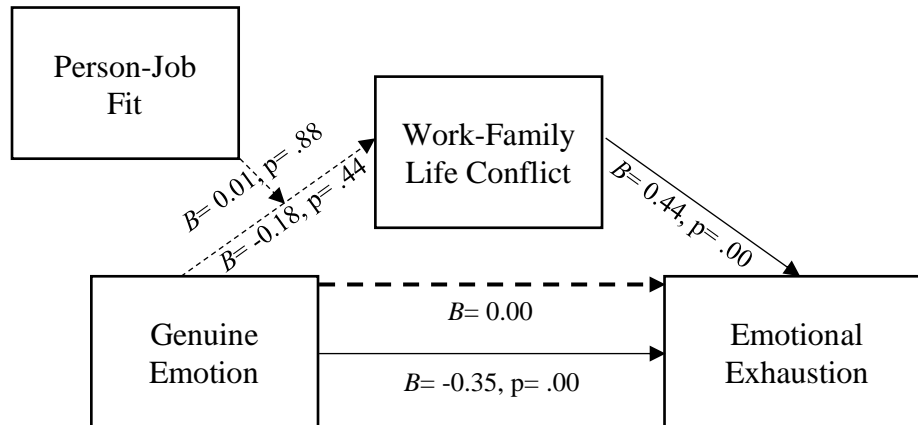


In the tenth analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the genuine emotion and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, GE and the person-job fit scores as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R_2 = .20, F(3, 205) = 16.87, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are GE score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R_2 = .47, F(2, 206) = 91.98, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between GE score and WFLC score has a moderator role. GE score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.18, S.E. = 0.23, t = -0.77, p = .44$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.36, S.E. = 0.22, t = -1.61, p = .11$). Moreover, the relationship between GE score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.01, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.16, p = .88$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 4.68, S.E. = 1.01, t = 4.64, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is GE score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.18, S.E. = 0.23, t = -0.77, p = .44$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.44, S.E. = 0.05, t = 8.01, p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is GE score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = -0.35, S.E. = 0.05, t = -7.65, p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between GE and EE was not significant for low scores ($B = -0.07, S.E. = 0.04$), and high scores ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.04$) of the person-job fit. It was significant for average scores of the person-job fit ($B = -0.06, S.E. = 0.03$). Moreover, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.98, S.E. = 0.28, t = 10.47, p < .001$). It was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.10. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Genuine Emotion, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.



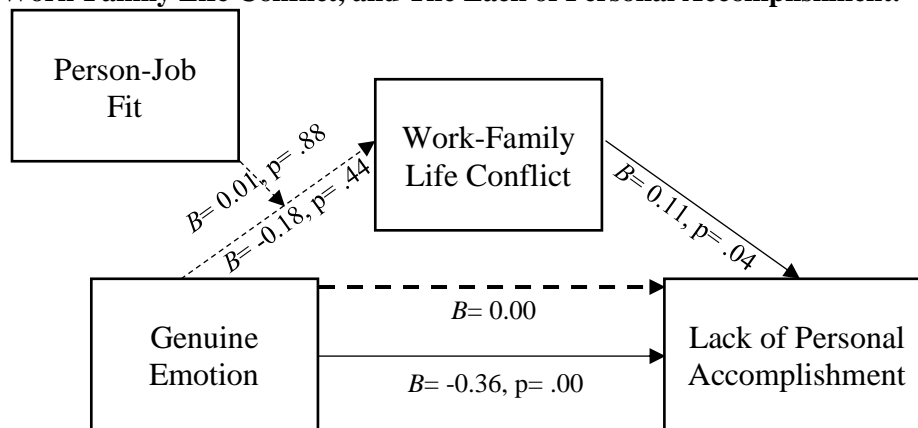
In the eleventh analysis, it was examined whether person-job fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the genuine emotion and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, GE, and the person-job fit score as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .20, F(3, 205) = 16.87, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are GE score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .29, F(2, 206) = 42.52, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job fit score between GE score and WFLC score has a moderator role. GE score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.18, S.E. = 0.23, t = -0.77, p = .44$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job fit score, did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.36, S.E. = 0.22, t = -1.61, p = .11$). Also, the relationship between GE score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job fit score ($B = 0.01, S.E. = 0.05, t = 0.16, p = .88$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 4.68, S.E. = 1.01, t = 4.64, p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is GE score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.18, S.E. = 0.23, t = -0.77, p = .44$). It was observed

that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.11$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $t = 2.07$, $p < .05$). Also, the predictor variable, which is GE score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = -0.36$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = -7.79$, $p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between GE and LPA was not significant for low ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.02$), and average ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.01$) and high ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.01$) scores of the person-job fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 3.47$, $S.E. = 0.29$, $t = 12.13$, $p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.11. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Fit, The Genuine Emotion, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.



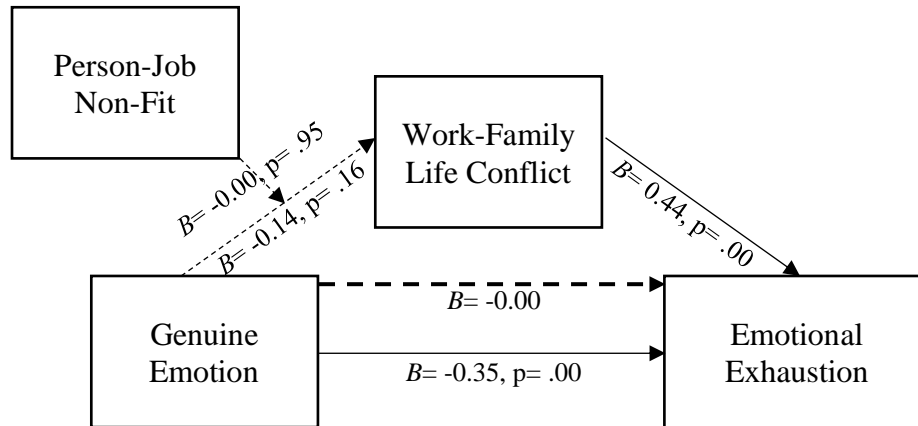
In the twelfth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the genuine emotion and the emotional exhaustion. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, GE, and the person-job non-fit scores as the predictor variables were found to be significant ($R^2 = .22$, $F(3, 205) = 19.18$, $p < .001$). When the outcome variable is EE score, and the predictor variables are GE score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .47$, $F(2, 206) = 91.98$, $p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between GE score and WFLC score has a moderator

role. GE score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.14$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $t = -1.41$, $p = .16$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.29$, $S.E. = 0.15$, $t = 2.02$, $p = .05$). However, the relationship between GE score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = -0.00$, $S.E. = 0.03$, $t = -0.06$, $p = .95$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.33$, $S.E. = 0.50$, $t = 4.67$, $p < .001$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is GE score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.14$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $t = -1.41$, $p = .16$). It was observed that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = 0.44$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = 8.01$, $p < .001$). Also, the predictor variable, which is GE score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is EE score ($B = -0.35$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = -7.65$, $p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between GE and EE was not significant for low scores ($B = -0.06$, $S.E. = 0.04$), and high scores ($B = -0.07$, $S.E. = 0.04$) of the person-job non-fit. It was significant for average scores of the person-job non-fit ($B = -0.06$, $S.E. = 0.03$). Moreover, the constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.98$, $S.E. = 0.28$, $t = 10.47$, $p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.12. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Genuine Emotion, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Emotional Exhaustion.



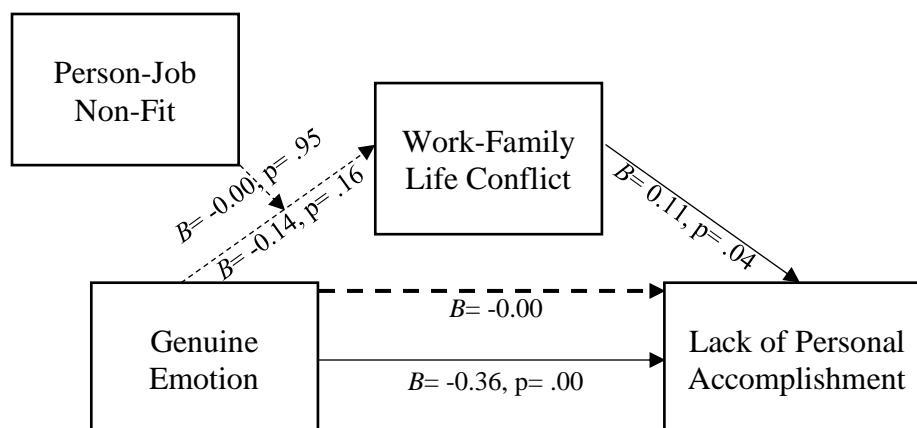
In the thirteenth analysis, it was examined whether person-job non-fit moderates the mediational effect of the work-family life conflict on the relationship between the genuine emotion and the lack of personal accomplishment. The model in which the WFLC score as the outcome variable, GE, and the person-job non-fit score as the predictor variables, was found to be significant ($R^2 = .22, F(3, 205) = 19.18, p < .001$). When the outcome variable is LPA score, and the predictor variables are GE score and WFLC score, the relationship was similarly significant ($R^2 = .29, F(2, 206) = 42.52, p < .001$).

By conducting a moderated relationship analysis, it was investigated whether the person-job non-fit score between GE score and WFLC score has a moderator role. GE score did not predict WFLC score ($B = -0.14, S.E. = 0.10, t = -1.41, p = .16$). The moderator variable, which is the person-job non-fit score, predicted WFLC score ($B = 0.29, S.E. = 0.15, t = 2.02, p = .05$). However, the relationship between GE score and WFLC score did not moderated by the person-job non-fit score ($B = 0.00, S.E. = 0.03, t = -0.06, p = .95$). For this reason, no moderated relationship emerged. It was observed that the constant of the model was significant ($B = 2.33, S.E. = 0.50, t = 4.67, p < .01$).

When analyzed together with other variables in the model, it was seen that the predictor variable, which is GE score, did not predict the mediator variable, which is WFLC score ($B = -0.14, S.E. = 0.10, t = -1.41, p = .16$). It was observed

that the mediator variable, which is WFLC score, predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = 0.11$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $t = 2.07$, $p < .05$). Also, the predictor variable, which is GE score, directly predicted the outcome variable, which is LPA score ($B = -0.36$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $t = -7.79$, $p < .001$). When all the variables in the model were evaluated together and examined indirectly, this relationship between GE and LPA was not significant for low ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.01$), average ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.01$) and high ($B = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.02$) scores of the person-job non-fit. The constant of the model was significant ($B = 3.47$, $S.E. = 0.29$, $t = 12.13$, $p < .001$). Therefore, it was seen that the predictor variable did not predict the mediator variable significantly, and the mediation relationship did not reveal.

Figure 3.13. The Relationships Between The Person-Job Non-Fit, The Genuine Emotion, The Work-Family Life Conflict, and The Lack of Personal Accomplishment.



CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Civil air transportation, which started in the early 20th century across the globe, and also in 1933 in Turkey, has made a significant breakthrough in these 100 years. The targets set by the companies in this sector show that this growth will continue without slowing down. The primary expectation of these airline companies from cabin crews, who constitute the most crowded employee group of this sector, is that displaying intensive EL. The present study aimed to examine how this EL expected from cabin crews reflected on their family life and burnout levels and also how the person-job fit shapes these adverse effects. The results showed that the type of EL might affect WFLC and burnout in different directions. Moreover, the level of the person's fit with the job affects the occurrence of these effects.

Firstly, the relationship between the main variables of the study, which are EL and burnout, it was concluded that there was a positive relationship between them. The increase in the degree of EL also increases the degree of burnout. According to the results concerning the sub-dimensions, it was observed that SA, being one of the EL strategies, increased EE. This relationship is widely shown in the literature (e.g., Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009; Li, Wong, & Kim, 2017; Morris & Feldman, 1997). It was also found that DA and GE, being the other dimensions of EL, reduced EE (e.g., Basım, Beğenirbaş, & Yalçın, 2013; Cheung, Tang, & Tang, 2011). Besides, it was observed that exhibiting DA and GE reduced the feeling of LPA (e.g., Kim, 2008; Yılmaz, Altınkurt, Güner, & Şen, 2015). According to these results, the incompatibility of the emotions expected and displayed is an essential source of strain in people's life.

Moreover, the person is not satisfied with herself/himself in time and starts to see the customers as an object. For these reasons, individuals are negatively affected by exhibiting SA in working life, and after that, their levels of EE increase. Also,

when compared with other types of EL, it can be stated that SA increases burnout the most, and it can damage the well-being of individuals (e.g., Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). The current results do not match Hochschild's (1983) statements that DA is the most damaging EL behavior in terms of burnout due to more identification with the work. However, DA is not harmful; it is even shown to be beneficial for individuals against burnout. In the literature, studies are stating that as the person exhibits DA, he/she will show positive feelings to his/her work and own success (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003). It has been seen that GE is EL strategy that best protects individuals against burnout. In other words, as Zapf and Holz (2006) stated, when the effort of the person to feel and display positive emotions is successful, it has positive consequences. When considering the nature of the work, EL should be exhibited in any case. Therefore, it should be paid attention to the recruitment of individuals who can display DA or GE to maintain employee well-being.

Moreover, training should be provided to raise awareness on this issue and ensure that employees fulfil the necessity of the job in this way. As DA is an empathic approach (Köse et al., 2011), it suggests that GE that people naturally feel the feelings they should exhibit is related to empathy ability. Therefore, strengthening the empathy skills of individuals will enable them to display appropriate EL strategies. Thanks to empathetic strategies such as deep or genuine, interaction with customers will improve. This quality of interaction can help the person feel successful at work and reduce the level of EE. As a result, in this study, it has been seen that the way people exhibit EL should determine how they will experience the effects of this labor. While displaying EL as SA is to the detriment of the person, exhibiting DA and GE is in favor of the person. Another result of this study was that there was no relationship between SA and LPA. When the previous studies in the literature were analyzed, it was seen that there was a positive correlation between SA and LPA in studies conducted in other countries (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Kruml & Geddes, 2000). However, studies conducted in Turkey also found that there was no relationship between SA and LPA (e.g., Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Celiker, Ustunel, & Guzeller, 2019; Köse, Oral,

& TÜresin, 2011; Tepeci & Pala, 2016). A possible rationale for this difference may be the cultural features and behavioral styles. The understanding of hospitality in Turkish culture is a phenomenon that has various aspects, such as the effort to satisfy the guest, smiling face, and not to defect the service while doing all this (Çubukcu, 2016). The behavior of individuals to display appropriate emotions by suppressing real feelings towards the people is seen as a necessity. Therefore, people may see acting as a necessity of work and not perceive it as a criterion of their failure.

Another consequence of EL is WFLC, and it was found that EL increased WFLC. When examined in terms of dimensions, the display of SA increases WFLC, while the display of GE decreases. There was no relationship between DA and WFLC. In the research of Cheung, Lun, and Cheung (2018), the effect of EL dimensions on WFLC is the same with our findings. In particular, it was intensely demonstrated that SA increased WFLC (e.g., Cheung & Tang, 2009; Kinman, 2009). The effect of SA on WFLC may be due to the strain overflowing to home life, which is the result of the person exhibiting inappropriate feelings in the work. However, the results obtained for the relationship between DA and WFLC are different from some research results in the literature (e.g., Karim & Weisz, 2011; Keleş, 2018; Pala Morkoç, 2014). In DA strategy, individuals do not experience an emotional dissonance as in SA, and they just make an emotional effort according to their job. Therefore, it may not be necessary to make an effort to display any emotion when the work is finished. DA is not about managing explicit processes; it is related to the management of internal processes. While SA requires that the people arrange their acting when they arrive home, DA does not create a burden as the person does not need to show the same effort at home. As a result, it is understandable that there is no positive or negative effect of DA on WFLC. In this study, it has been concluded that there is a negative and meaningful relationship between GE and WFLC. When the limited number of researches about the effect of genuine acting on WFLC is examined in the literature, it is seen that there are no consistent results. While some studies (e.g., Cheung & Tang, 2009; Çelik & Turunç, 2012) show that genuine acting does not affect WFLC, the study of Cheung et al.

(2018) supports our current findings and it is seen that GE has a negative effect on WFLC. It can be said that people have more emotional resources for their family needs, as the people will use their resources less when they display GE. In GE, the people may not have difficulty in showing emotions as expected in their family. Hence, the people naturally behave as expected. As a result, displaying GE reduces WFLC and even provides facilitation between work and family.

When the relationship between the two variables affected by EL was examined, it was seen that WFLC increased the burnout level of individuals. This result was frequently revealed in the literature (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The support that the people provide from family life can enable them to cope with the problems. However, the negativities in the family life spread to other areas of their life and creating an emotional burden. All these results show that the strain created by the people's work (family) necessities moves to the family (work) life and negatively affects the well-being of the people.

4.1. Discussion of Moderated Mediation Model Testing

Based on the results obtained, the model testing was not supported. In this model, WFLC is the mediator variable in the relationship between EL and burnout, and person-job fit is the moderator variable in the relationship between EL and WFLC. In repeated model testing for each sub-dimension, the moderated mediation relationship was not found. These relationships show that when all the variables are included in the model, the effect of EL on WFLC becomes meaningless. Considering the person-job fit, being associated with WFLC at a medium-high level, reduced the variance explained by EL and made the mediating effect of the model ineffective. In other words, considering person-job fit prevents the demands in work (family) from overflowing to the home (work). Accordingly, the degree of WFLC depends on whether the person's fit with the job rather than EL. When the person-job fit was taken into account, the probability of the effect of EL on exhaustion was disappeared. Moreover, the person-job fit was highly evaluated by

participants with an average of “4.88” on the 6-point scale. It may have had an impact on these results that the researcher was the staff of the same company as the participants, and the fit was evaluated based on self-report. It may be beneficial to conduct the study with different researchers and to evaluate job fit by teammates or supervisors of the people to prevent people’s tendency to show themselves compatible with their job. Similar results were obtained when the model was repeated with the sub-dimensions of the variables. When the person-job fit was included in the model, it was seen that, like DA, the effect of GE became ineffective on WFLC. Therefore, it was thought that person-job fit could be a fundamental factor interacting with individuals’ work and family life.

The only meaningful relationships were observed in the model, in which WFLC was the mediator variable in the relationship between SA and EE, and person-job non-fit was the moderator variable in the relationship between SA and WFLC. Findings showed that WFLC partially mediated the relationship between SA and EE, but the person-job non-fit did not play a moderator role. Only in this model, the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator variable was significant. The exception in this model may be that the emotional load created by SA had a strong and independent influence on the level of incompatibility of the people. If the people are fit with their job, this emotional burden loses its effect; if the people are incompatible with their job, the effect of SA on WFLC also maintains its importance. As a result, SA leads to WFLC and causes EE.

According to results, it can be said that the person-job fit became the main variable in our research model. The relationship of the person-job fit with WFLC was studied little in the literature. In this study, a medium-high and negative relationship was found between person-job fit and WFLC. Similarly, it was previously said that negative situations could arise if people did not feel compatible with their job (Humphrey et al., 2015). However, people who are consistent with their job can meet the demands of their jobs with their knowledge, skills, abilities (KSA’s), and resources (e.g., time, energy). Moreover, they can fulfill the demands of non-job areas such as the family with their resources and reduce the strain in

their lives (Edwards, 1996). As Karatepe and Karadas (2016) stated, individuals can reduce the conflict between family and work roles by using their skills gained at work to manage family responsibilities. It brings to mind the concept of work-family life enrichment. Resources gained at work can also enrich family life when faced with similar demands (Zheng & Hahm, 2019). Also, the positive effect of person-job fit can trigger helpful behaviors against others and psychologically prepare the person for her/his role in the family (Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009). Thus, it becomes an important mechanism for the person to find her/his job meaningful (e.g., Ünal, 2017). The person who thinks she/he is doing meaningful work can become aware of her/his own needs while touching the lives of others and meeting the needs of others. The person who can achieve the balance between the needs of others and her/his own needs will probably experience less WFLC.

4.2. Implications of the Study

The results of the study show that the style of EL exhibited by cabin crews can negatively affect their work and family lives and psychological well-being. Moreover, the compliance of people in the cabin crew with their job is a factor that eliminates this negative effect. Therefore, airline companies should be aware of these factors to affect the family life and psychological health of employees positively and to provide higher customer satisfaction. Airline companies expect from cabin crews to follow specific emotional display rules. Furthermore, the nature of employees must fit with these display rules. The results of our study show that the compatibility of individuals with their work and GE they displayed positively affects both their family life and psychological health; in other words, their general well-being. For this reason, airline companies should pay attention to recruit suitable people to the cabin crews who can display more GE. Accordingly, the person-job fit should be at the top of the recruitment criteria of the companies, and the job analysis should be performed in detail to determine the job requirements. Because of the importance of EL, it is also important to introduce the

nature of this concept in school or on the job training and gain to cabin crews the ability to regulate their emotions. Thus, cabin crews can display DA or GE instead of SA. During the analysis carried out in specific periods, the consequences of SA should be paid attention, and the emotion regulation issues should be included in the development center applications. For developing DA and especially GE behavior, empathy skills should also be strengthened in the development center applications.

Finally, as WFLC increases the burnout of individuals, airline companies should strengthen the personal resources of cabin crews and enable them to cope better with problems such as conflict or exhaustion. Training about strategies that individuals can follow should be organized for preventing negative transfers from work to family or from family to work and providing positive transfers. Companies should have more knowledge about the needs of their employees regarding their quality of life and implement practices aimed at reducing WFLC and, therefore, burnout experienced by cabin crews.

4.3. Limitations and Further Studies

The first limitation of the research is that the sample consists of a group of employees with the same organizational culture. Therefore, to increase the generalizability of the results, the research sample should be expanded with cabin crews working at different airline companies. In this way, the answer may arise whether the consequences of EL style stem from the nature of the work or the organizational culture. The second limitation of the research is that the researcher works at the same company with the participants, and the study was carried out in the company environment and these issues may have directed the answers of the participants. When future research is carried out outside the cabin crew's work environment by different researchers, this situation can be prevented, and participants can give answers that reflect themselves better. In this research where

the data of dependent and independent variables are collected from the same person, in the same measurement environment and using similar expression features, the third limitation of the research is the possibility that a common method variance has occurred. In future studies, the emergence of common method variance can be prevented by considering these criteria.

Because of the lack of studies that examine the relationship between the existing variables among the cabin crews, it is thought that the current research will make an important contribution to the Organizational Psychology literature. Notably, the determinative effect of person-job fit revealed in this study can be re-examined with variables such as work-family life enrichment, meaningful work. Besides, considering the difficulty of data collection time for the participants, demographic data was limited in the current research. In similar studies to be carried out in the future, it can be examined how these factors affect the relationships between the variables by asking the participants more detailed questions about home life, spouse support, and childcare. Finally, a qualitative study with cabin crews on these variables can provide clarification of unspecified parts on the subject.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Emotional Labor Scale (Turkish)

1. Yolcularla ilgilenirken iyi hissediyormuşum rolü yaparım.
2. İşimin gerektirdiği duyguları sergileyebilmek için sanki bir maske takarım.
3. Yolcularla ilgilenirken bir şov veya performans sergilerim.
4. Yolcularla uygun şekilde ilgilenebilmek için rol yaparım.
5. İşimi yaparken sergilemem gereken duyguları sanki hissediyormuşum gibi davranırım.
6. Yolculara sergilediğim duygularla, içimde hissettiklerim birbirinden farklıdır.
7. Yolculara göstermem gereken duyguları gerçekte de yaşamayı denerim.
8. Yolculara göstermem gereken duyguları gerçekte de hissedebilmek için çaba sarf ederim.
9. Yolculara göstermem gereken duyguları içimde de hissedebilmeye çalışırım.
10. Yolculara göstermek zorunda olduğum duyguları gerçekten yaşamaya çalışırım.
11. Yolculara gösterdiğim pozitif duygular doğal olarak ve kendiğinden ortaya çıkar.
12. Yolculara gösterdiğim pozitif duygularımda samimiyimdir.
13. Yolculara gösterdiğim pozitif duygular o an hissettiklerimle aynıdır.

Appendix B: Emotional Labor Scale (English)

1. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.
2. I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job.
3. I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with customers.
4. I put on act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.
5. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.
6. I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.
7. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers.
8. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.
9. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.
10. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.
11. The emotions I show customers come naturally.
12. The emotions I express to customers are genuine.
13. The emotions I show customers match what I spontaneously feel.

Appendix C: Person-Job Fit Scale (Turkish)

1. Mevcut işimde yetenek, beceri ve yetkinliklerimi kullanabiliyorum.
2. Mevcut işimi motive edici buluyorum.
3. Kabiliyet, beceri ve yeteneklerimin mevcut işime uygun olduğunu düşünüyorum.
4. Bu işte amaçlarıma ulaşabildiğimi düşünüyorum.
5. Bu işte ihtiyaçlarımin karşılandığını düşünüyorum.
6. Bu iş her anlamda bana uygun.
7. Şu anda yaptığım iş aslında beni hiç yansıtmıyor.
8. Bu iş gerçekte yapmak istediğim iş değil.
9. Başka bir işin bana çok daha uygun olduğuna eminim.
10. Yaptığım işin benim için uygun olmadığını düşünüyorum.

Appendix D: Person-Job Fit Scale (English)

1. I am able to use my talents, skills and competencies in my current job.
2. I find my current job motivating.
3. My abilities, skills, and talents are the right type for this job.
4. I feel that my goals and needs are met in this job.
5. All things considered, this job suits me.
6. My current job is not really me.
7. This job is not really what I would like to be doing.
8. I'm sure there must be another job for which I am better suited.
9. I feel like this is not the right type of work for me.

Appendix E: Work-Family Conflict Scale (Turkish)

1. İşteki sorumluluklarım, aile ve ev yaşantımı olumsuz etkiliyor.
2. İşimin aldığı zaman, ailevi sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmemi zorlaştırıyor.
3. İşimin gereklilikleri nedeniyle evde yapmak istediğim şeyleri yapamıyorum.
4. İşimin yarattığı gerginlik ve yük nedeniyle ailevi sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmekte zorlanıyorum.
5. İşle ilgili sorumluluklarım nedeniyle ailevi faaliyetlerle ilgili planlarımı değiştirmek zorunda kalıyorum.
6. Ailemin gereksinimleri, iş yaşamımı olumsuz olarak etkiliyor.
7. Ev yaşantımın gereksinimleri nedeniyle işimle ilgili çalışmalarımı sonraya bırakmam gerekiyor.
8. Aileme karşı sorumluluklarım nedeniyle işimle ilgili yapmak istediğim şeyleri yapamıyorum.
9. Aile yaşantım; işe zamanında gitmek, günlük iş gerekliliklerini yerine getirmek ve fazla mesaiye kalmak gibi işimle ilgili sorumluluklarımı olumsuz olarak etkiliyor.
10. Aile yaşantımın yarattığı gerginlik ve yük, işimle ilgili görevlerimi yapma becerimi olumsuz olarak etkiliyor.

Appendix F: Work-Family Conflict Scale (English)

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.
6. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
7. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands of my time at home.
8. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
10. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Appendix G: Maslach Burnout Inventory (Turkish)

1. Kendini işimden duygusal olarak uzaklaşmış hissediyorum.
2. İşgününün sonunda kendimi bitkin hissediyorum.
3. Sabah kalkıp yeni bir işgünü ile karşılaşmak zorunda kaldığımda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum.
4. Bütün gün insanlarla çalışmak benim için gerçekten bir gerginlik yaratır.
5. İşimin beni tükettiğini hissediyorum.
6. İşimin beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını düşünüyorum.
7. İşimde gücümün üstünde çalıştığımı hissediyorum.
8. Doğrudan insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla strese neden oluyor.
9. Kendimi çok çaresiz hissediyorum.
10. Yolcuların pek çok şey hakkında neler hissettiklerini anlayabilirim.
11. Yolcuların sorunlarını etkili bir şekilde hallederim.
12. Yaptığım iş sayesinde diğer insanların yaşamlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğimi hissediyorum.
13. Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum.
14. Yolculara rahat bir atmosferi kolayca sağlayabiliyorum.
15. Yolcularla yakın ilişki içinde çalıştıktan sonra kendimi ferahlamış hissediyorum.
16. Bu işte kayda değer birçok başarı elde ettim.
17. İşimdeki duygusal sorunlara serinkanlılıkla yaklaşıyorum.
18. Bazı yolculara onlar sanki insan değil de bir objeymiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.
19. Bu işe başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı katılaştığımı hissediyorum.
20. Bu iş beni duygusal olarak katılaştırdığı için sıkıntı duyuyorum.
21. Bazı yolcuların başına gelenler gerçekten umurumda değil.
22. Yolcuların bazı problemleri için beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum.

Appendix H: Maslach Burnout Inventory (English)

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

Appendix I: Demographic Form (Turkish)

1. Doğum Yılıınız:
2. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın () Erkek ()
3. Eğitim Durumunuz:
4. Medeni Durumunuz: Bekar () Evli () Boşanmış/Dul ()
5. Çocuk Sahibi Olma Durumunuz: Hayır () Evet ()
6. Kaç Çocuk Sahibisiniz ve Çocuklarınızın Yaşları:
7. Aktif Olarak Uçuyor Musunuz: Hayır () Evet ()
8. Kabin Ekibindeki Pozisyonunuz: Memur () Amir ()
9. Birlikte Yaşadığınız Kişiler:

Tek Yaşıyorum ()

Arkadaşım/Arkadaşlarımla Yaşıyorum ()

Annemle ve/veya Babamla Yaşıyorum ()

Eşimle Yaşıyorum ()

Çocuğumla/Çocuklarımla Yaşıyorum ()

Eşimle ve Annemle ve/veya Babamla Yaşıyorum ()

Eşimle ve Çocuğumla/Çocuklarımla Yaşıyorum ()

Eşimle ve Çocuğumla/Çocuklarımla ve Annemle ve/veya Babamla Yaşıyorum ()

Diğer ()

Appendix J: Demographic Form (English)

1. Year of Birth:
2. Gender: Female () Male ()
3. Educational Status:
4. Marital Status: Single () Married () Divorced ()
5. Do You Have Children? No () Yes ()
6. How Many Children Do You Have and The Ages Of Your Children?
7. Do You Work Actively? No () Yes ()
8. Your Role in the Cabin Crew: Attendant () Purser ()
9. People You Live With:

Alone ()

My friend/s ()

My mother or/and father ()

My spouse ()

My child or children ()

My spouse and my mother or/and father ()

My spouse and my child/children ()

My spouse and my child/children and my mother or/and father ()

Other ()

Appendix K: Informed Consent Form

Sayın Gönüllü,

Tez çalışması kapsamında planlanmış olan çalışmaya katılmak üzere davet edilmiş bulunuyorsunuz. Bu çalışmada yer almayı kabul etmeden önce, çalışmanın ne amaçla yapılmak istendiğini anlamanız ve kararınızı bu bilgilendirme çerçevesinde özgür iradenizle vermeniz gerekmektedir. Aşağıdaki bilgileri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sorularınız olursa sormaktan çekinmeyiniz.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, uçuş ekibinin bir üyesi olarak iş ortamında sergilediğiniz duyguların, iş ve özel yaşamınız üzerinde etkisi olup olmadığını incelemektir. Çalışmaya katılma koşulu, en az 3 senedir aktif bir şekilde uçuş ekibi personeli olarak görev almak ve 25-50 yaş aralığında olmaktadır. Sizden beklenen, formları eksiksiz ve tamamen sizi yansıtacak şekilde doldurmanızdır. Çalışmaya katılmanız halinde, anketi doldurmanın veya yarıda bırakmanın yarattığı, öngörülen herhangi bir risk bulunmamaktadır.

Çalışmada kimliğinizi ortaya koyacak herhangi bir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tarafımızdan kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve diğer üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Veriler sadece bahsi geçen çalışma kapsamında kullanılacaktır. Bu çalışmada yer almak tümüyle sizin isteğinize, gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmada yer almayı reddedebilirsiniz ya da başladıktan sonra yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları yalnızca bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır. Çalışmadan çekilmeniz halinde, sizin cevaplarınız kullanılmayacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda ise, sizden elde edilen tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacak, çalışma yayınlandığında da tüm bilgilerinizin gizliliği korunacaktır.

<p>Yukarıdaki çalışmanın amacını ve içeriğini belirten bildiriye okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.</p> <p>Lütfen aşağıdaki boşluğa kendi el yazınızla “Bu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle katılıyorum” yazınız.</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>İletişim Bilgileri:</p> <p>Gamze İpek</p> <p>gamzeipek@gmail.com</p>
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Appendix L: Result of Evaluation by Ethics Committee

ETİK KURUL DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU / RESULT OF EVALUATION BY THE ETHICS COMMITTEE

Covid-19 salgını nedeniyle İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu, 2019-2020 Bahar döneminde teslim edilecek lisansüstü tezlerin onay yetkisini ilgili etik kurul alt komitelerine devretmiştir. / Due to the Covid-19 outbreak, İstanbul Bilgi University Human Research Ethics Committee has transferred its approval authority to the Ethics Board Sub-Committees organized within each graduate program. Thus, the graduate theses to be submitted in the spring semester of 2019-2020 should/must get the approval of the Ethics Board Sub-Committee within their own graduate program.

ETİK KURUL ALT KOMİTESİ DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU / ETHICS BOARD SUB-COMMITTEE EVALUATION RESULT

Bu bölüm lisansüstü tez araştırmaları için ilgili Etik Kurul alt komitesince doldurulacaktır. / This part to be completed by the Ethics Board sub-committee responsible for graduate dissertation studies.

Başvuru Sahibi / Applicant: **Gamze İpek**

Proje Başlığı / Project Title: **The Relationship between Emotional Labor and Burnout among Cabin Crew: The Roles of Person-Job Fit and Work-Family Conflict**

Değerlendirme Sonucu/ Result of Evaluation

1. Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur. Veri toplama/uygulama başlatılabilir./ There is no need for revision. Data collection/application may commence : **X**

2. Ret / Application Rejected : _____

Reddin gerekçesi / Reason of Rejection : _____

Değerlendirme Tarihi / Date of Evaluation: **11.12.2019**

Unvanı, Adı, Soyadı / Title, Name, Surname:

İmza / Signature:

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi. Ümit Akırmak



Dr. Öğr. Üyesi. Gergely Czukor

