T.C.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI

ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ BİLİM DALI

THE MODERATING ROLE OF HUMOR STYLES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT

Master Dissertation

SİBEL YEĞİN

İstanbul, 2019

T.C.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI

ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ BİLİM DALI

THE MODERATING ROLE OF HUMOR STYLES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT

Master Dissertation

SİBEL YEĞİN

ADVISOR: PROF. DR. GÜLER İSLAMOĞLU

İstanbul, 2019

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS öğrencisi SİBEL YEĞİN'nın THE MODERATING ROLE OF HUMOR STYLES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 16.05.2019 tarih ve 2019-14/9 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi ...31.../...5...../...2019.

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı			**İmzası**
1.	Tez Danışmanı	Prof. Dr. GÜLER İSLAMOĞLU	
2.	Jüri Üyesi	Prof. Dr. AYŞE ALEV TORUN	
3.	Jüri Üyesi	Doç. Dr. EMEL ESEN	

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

Name and Surname	: Sibel Yeğin
Field	: Business Administration (English)
Programme	: Organizational Behavior
Supervisor	: Prof. Dr. Güler İslamoğlu
Degree Awarded and Date	: Master – June 2019
Keywords	: Emotional Labor, Burnout, Humor Styles

ABSTRACT

THE MODERATING ROLE OF HUMOR STYLES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL LABOR AND BURNOUT

Emotional labor has recently gained attention since emotions are treated as "commodity" in today's business mindset, and it has been considered as one of the factors related to several negative individual and organizational consequences. Burnout is one of these negative consequences. Burnout has also gained considerable interest both theoretically and practically since it has costly negative effects, too. Both individuals and organizations try to find ways to handle the challenges of regulating emotions and preventing burnout since these phenomena may create not only work-related problems but also have a negative spill-over effect on family lives and social lives of people. Humor can be a tool that can be used to buffer against these harmful influences of both emotional labor and burnout, and it can be encouraged both on individual and organizational levels. However, positive and negative uses of humor should be differentiated as they may have contrasting effects. Building upon this initial framework, the purpose of this study is to analyze if there is a positive relationship between emotional labor and burnout and if humor style has a moderating role on this relationship.

A 79-item questionnaire comprised of the adapted versions of Emotional Labor Scale, Maslach Burnout Inventory, Humor Styles Questionnaire, and a personal information form was distributed using convenience sampling and 460 responses were gathered. Descriptive analyses, exploratory factor analyses, reliability analyses, correlation analyses, multiple linear regression analyses, hierarchical regression analyses, and independent samples t-tests were conducted to analyze the data.

The findings of the study revealed statistically significant contributions of emotional labor strategies on factors of burnout: Deep acting had a negative contribution on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, whereas it had a positive contribution on personal accomplishment. Acting and suppression had a positive contribution on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization but they had no significant contribution on personal accomplishment. In addition to these findings, two significant moderating roles of humor styles were revealed. Self-defeating humor was found to weaken the positive relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion. And, self-enhancing humor was found to weaken the positive relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. It was also tested if the levels of variables changed significantly in terms of demographics like age, gender, education level, managerial responsibility, sector, and tenure in the current profession and some significant results were revealed.

As a result, some managerial implications for practice and theoretical suggestions for further research were proposed.

GENEL BİLGİLER

İsim ve Soyadı	: Sibel Yeğin
Anabilim Dalı	: İşletme (İngilizce)
Programı	: Örgütsel Davranış
Tez Danışmanı	: Prof. Dr. Güler İslamoğlu

Tez Türü ve Tarihi	: Yüksek Lisans – Haziran 2019
Anahtar Kelimeler	: Duygusal Emek, Tükenmişlik, Mizah Tarzları

ÖZET

DUYGUSAL EMEK VE TÜKENMİŞLİK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE MİZAH TARZLARININ ŞARTLI DEĞİŞKEN ROLÜ

Duygusal emek, günümüz iş dünyasında duyguların metalaştırılması ve bu durumun çeşitli olumsuz bireysel ve kurumsal sonuçlara yol açması nedeniyle ilgi çeken konulardan biri haline gelmiştir. Tükenmişlik, bu olumsuz sonuçlardan biri olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Tükenmişlik de, benzer şekilde, bireyler ve kurumlar üzerindeki olumsuz etkileri nedeniyle hem teorik olarak hem de pratik açıdan uzun zamandır ilgi çeken bir kavram olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Hem bireyler, hem de kurumlar duyguları yönetmenin ve tükenmişliği engellemenin zorluklarını aşmak için araç ve yöntemlerin arayışına girmektedirler; çünkü bu olgular sadece iş hayatını değil, kişilerin sosyal ve aile yaşamlarını da olumsuz etkilemektedir. Mizah, hem duygusal emeğin hem de tükenmişliğin olumsuz etkilerini azaltan bir araç olarak kullanılabilme potansiyeline sahip olup, birey ve kurum tarafından kullanımı teşvik edilebilir. Bununla birlikte, etkileri farklı yönde olabileceği için, olumlu ve olumsuz mizah tarzlarının ayrıştırılarak değerlendirilmesi gerekmektedir. Bu temel çerçeveye dayanarak, mevcut çalışma, duygusal emek ve tükenmişlik arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını ve mizah tarzlarının bu olası ilişki üzerinde düzenleyici (şartlı değişken) rolü oynayıp oynamadığını araştırmayı amaçlamıştır.

Veri toplama amacıyla, Duygusal Emek Ölçeği, Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği ve Mizah Tarzları Ölçeği'nin Türkçe'ye adapte edilmiş versiyonları ile kişisel bilgi formundan oluşan toplam 79 soruluk bir anket oluşturulmuştur. Bu anketi kullanarak, kolay ulaşılabilir örneklem yöntemi ile 460 katılımcıdan veri toplanmıştır. Betimsel analizler, keşfedici faktör analizleri, güvenilirlik analizleri, korelasyon analizleri, çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizleri, hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri ve fark testleri gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Analizler sonucunda, duygusal emek stratejilerinin tükenmişliğin alt boyutlarına anlamlı katkıları olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır: Derinlemesine davranışın, duygusal tükenme ve duyarsızlaşma üzerinde olumsuz bir katkıya sahipken, kişisel başarı hissi üzerinde olumlu bir katkıya sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Rol yapma ve bastırma alt boyutlarının ise, duygusal tükenme ve duyarsızlaşma üzerinde olumlu katkıya sahip oldukları, ancak kişisel başarı hissi üzerinde anlamlı bir katkılarının olmadığı görülmüştür. Bu bulgulara ek olarak, mizah tarzlarının şartlı değişken rol oynadığı iki farklı durum tespit edilmiştir: Kendini yıkıcı mizah tarzının rol yapma ve duygusal tükenme arasındaki olumlu ilişkide zayıflatıcı bir etkisi olduğu görülmüştür. Kendini geliştirici mizah tarzının ise, bastırma ve duygusal tükenme arasındaki olumlu ilişkide zayıflatıcı bir etkisinin olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Ayrıca araştırmadaki değişkenlerin seviyesinde; yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim seviyesi, yönetsel rol, sektör ve mevcut görevdeki kıdem gibi kriterlere göre farklar olup olmadığı araştırılmış ve anlamlı sonuçlara rastlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın bulguları ışığında hem uygulamaya, hem de araştırmaya yönelik bir takım önerilere yer verilmiştir.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to;

My esteemed advisor Prof. Dr. Güler İslamoğlu for her precious guidance and rigorous contribution in this study. Without her patience and immediate responses, I would not make such a fast progress and be able to complete in time.

My esteemed lecturers Prof. Dr. Ayşe Alev Torun and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Emel Esen for the their time and contribution in the finalization of this study.

My dear classmates (and friends for life) for their priceless companionship. I especially thank Sinem Bulkan, Ömer Erdem Koçak, Mustafa Tüysüz and Zeynep Merve Ünal for their support and guidance when I needed it most.

I am especially grateful to;

My love Hakan Yeğin for his never-ending patience and support in everything I do. His immense faith in me helps me move on and grow.

My dear son Kayra Yeğin for the joy and energy he brought to our life. He was with me all through my graduate study, and his existence adds meaning to everything I do.

My other son, baby Yeğin, whom we look forward to holding in our arms very soon. He is the closest witness of my effort and excitement during the dissertation process.

My valuable parents Süleyman Çavuş & Hafize Çavuş who trusted and supported me all my life. I was lucky to feel their unconditional love every moment.

Myself for all the sacrifice; effort and energy dedicated to this process. I know that it is impossible to love or appreciate others, unless you love and appreciate yourself…

This study would not be completed without our unity and cohesion. This is what makes it worthwhile…

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

ACT	Acting
AH	Affiliative Humor
DA	Deep Acting
DEP	Depersonalization
EE	Emotional Exhaustion
ELS	Emotional Labor Scale
HSQ	Humor Styles Questionnaire
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
PA	Personal Accomplishment
SDH	Self-Defeating Humor
SEH	Self-Enhancing Humor
SUP	Suppression

1. INTRODUCTION

A hypothetical employee, called Melissa, has been working in the Human Resources Department as an HR Specialist for five years, two of which were in her current company. She is an idealist professional at work, trying to fulfill her responsibilities and add value to what she does. However, she has been going through hard times recently. For example, today she is in a fairly bad mood. She had an argument with her husband about a dirty shirt at home before leaving for work. She arrived at work in anger and disappointment, yet had her usual smile while sitting on her desk *(Surface acting)* because it was not welcome in their organizational culture to display their personal negative emotions. She is an HR Professional, and she knows that she represents the company to current and potential employees; so she has to look and act positively, despite the fact that she is not feeling positive at all. Her workday started with a feedback e-mail from one of the managers in the company, complaining about Melissa's late reply to a critical mail about one of his problematic employees. Melissa knew her reply was a little late but she is doing her best to reply nearly 100-150 e-mails dropping in her e-mail box every day. She sighed and instead of writing back, went to talk to the manager face to face. Although she spent a huge effort to explain her busy schedule and provided several excuses trying to look calm and sympathetic, she received an implicit threat from the manager saying that he will give her low scores in the Internal Customer Satisfaction Survey.

She returned to her desk and looked at her long to-do list, just before a crying employee came in to talk to her. She complained about a teammate's chronic rude behavior against her, and their manager's negligence about this ongoing problem. Although she had a terrible headache, she listened carefully and tried to understand the employee. Listening empathetically and understanding her situation, she kindly advised her about what should be done, also taking notes to talk to the manager and the other colleague as well *(deep acting).* The employee left her office relaxed and hopeful. She did very little about her to-do list before her own manager called her in to talk about a new project which the manager wants Melissa to lead. Melissa tried kindly to explain her workload and offered another one to lead

the project but this was not well received by her manager. He joked about how she became lazy after she got married -like any other women- *(aggressive humor).* Although this seemed like a naive joke, it agitated her since she felt that there was a serious message beneath and felt an urge to defend herself (and of course all the other women) but she decided to stay silent *(suppression).* Instead, she tried to put on a fake smile *(acting)* and reacted by joking about how she could not cook a simple recipe the day before and messed everything up in the kitchen *(self-defeating humor).*

When she arrived at the cafeteria for lunch, she was feeling emotionally drained *(emotional exhaustion).* Her routine workload, together with the people's never-ending complaints, expectations and demands, was exhausting. Everyone expected HR to make them happy and accused this department of everything that the company was/was not offering. She wished she had a job isolated from people. The last one year at work, coupled with the responsibilities of her eight-month marriage, was really overwhelming. She no longer liked her job and slowly started to feel detached from the people around her *(depersonalization),* although she was a kind and helpful person by nature. Although she had many dreams and professional targets at the beginning of her career, recently she thought she was not capable and successful *(-reduced- personal accomplishment), and* had no more energy to go on. She was dreaming about quitting the job when one of her colleagues sat next to her at the cafeteria and without noticing her bad mood, started to talk about a funny film she watched the day before. She was telling about the funny episodes imitating the characters at the same time *(Affiliative humor).* Melissa laughed sincerely. She started to imagine the people she dealt with today in the characters that her friend was imitating, and tried to see the fun part of all *(Self-enhancing humor).* She was a little relaxed while walking back to her office, yet she was not sure how long she would be able to carry on working like this.

This snapshot of an ordinary working day of an ordinary employee depicts some of the daily difficulties and hassles of working life. Similar scenarios are experienced every day by employees holding different professions in different sectors. No matter what the sector or

the profession is, there is a factor that does not change when we talk about employees as human beings: Emotions. As Fineman (2003, p.1) put it:

> *"Being part of an organization is often dominated by everyday routines, such as ritualistic greetings to colleagues, corridor chats, lunchtime habits, periodic checking of e-mail, visiting the washroom, answering predictable phone requests, attending regular meetings and keeping things in their place. Such workday episodes are, nevertheless, always brushed with feelings, however slight. They inject meaning into our working moments – positive, negative, mixed, conflicting or ambivalent. There are the ebb and flow of boredom, demoralization, self-consciousness, daydreaming, frustration, fun time, exhaustion, anxiety, attraction, play, and absorption. Our emotionalities do not simply switch off; they tick over, quietly signaling how things are and how we are doing – and what we want to do next."*

The episode above involves clues about Melissa's internal world, interactions that raise emotions in her and her reactions in the face of these interactions. She tried to manage her own emotions and reactions and sometimes tried to understand others' emotions and acted accordingly as well. She also noticed some accumulated effects of these emotions on herself. She got emotionally drained but also experienced humorous moments and laughed sincerely on the same day. These are all related to important phenomena called emotional labor, burnout and humor styles in the organizational behavior literature. Throughout this study, the focus is on how employees manage their emotions and emotional displays, how (or if) they sometimes walk the way to burnout during this management process and how (or if) different humor styles can have an effect on the proposed relationship between emotional labor and burnout.

In the literature, the effort to regulate emotions and emotional expressions is conceptualized as *"emotional labor"* which was first mentioned by Hochschild (1983). Integrating the previous approaches starting from Hochshild and developing a holistic model,

Grandey (2000, p.97) defined emotional labor as "*the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals"*. Emotional labor is performed to satisfy customers but also to satisfy the expectations of management of the organization. This is because management expects employees to manage their emotions and emotional display not only towards the customers but also towards their colleagues and managers as well (Ağırman, 2012). Therefore, emotional labor is generally experienced by people holding jobs that involve interactive work and require relatively high levels of social interaction (Erickson & Ritter, 2001).

Researchers studied the conditions to perform emotional labor and how it affected psychological well-being (e.g. Bulan, Erickson, & Wharton, 1997; Hochschild, 1983; Leidner, 1993; Pierce, 1995). For instance, Hochschild (1983) claimed that emotional labor might result in several negative consequences such as stress, burnout, dissatisfaction, and distrust. Among these negative consequences, especially burnout causes organizations a greater loss than expected. Burnout was first used by Freudenberger as a concept of academic interest in 1974. Later, Maslach & Jackson (1981, p.2) defined it as *"a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do people work of some kind"*. Again, similar to the emotional labor concept, one has to be involved in relatively high degrees of social interaction in order for burnout to occur. Burnout is generally experienced by employees who are idealistic and success-driven, have high job standards and can take initiative. Organizations lose these successful employees due to burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Hence, it is vital to understand the nature, causes, and outcomes of burnout since it may harm the teams, groups and overall organization in which the individual operates (Hawkins, 2008).

In order to reduce the negative outcomes of burnout which comes as a possible consequence of emotional labor, several methods or tools can be utilized on an individual or organizational basis. Humor has been considered as one of the tools to create resistance to stress, diminish its effect and avoid the resulting burnout (Talbot & Lumden, 2000). Humor is also considered useful in emotion regulation and emotion management which are closely

related to emotional labor. People who use humor tend to have greater awareness about their emotions and use humor to manage these emotions (Wanzer, Booth-Butterfield, & Booth-Butterfield, 1995). Despite the positive side of humor discussed, Martin et al. (2003) differentiated the adaptive and maladaptive uses of humor. According to these researchers, four types of humor are used in daily life; two of them contribute to well-being, whereas two of them harm well-being. Thus, it is important to be aware that adaptive and maladaptive uses of humor may lead to different results both for the employees and the organizations.

In this research, the moderating role of humor styles on the relationship between emotional labor and burnout is examined. These three concepts are all qualities that are specific to human. In this sense, this research is aimed at focusing on one of the most valuable and competitive resources of the organizations: employees. Doing this, it aims to make both theoretical and practical contributions.

The targeted theoretical contributions can be summarized as below:

Emotional labor studies in the literature are generally carried out on samples of employees who do people work in the service sector (healthcare, tourism, etc.) or who work closely with external customers. This research adopts a different approach by taking into consideration the interactions both with customers and colleagues in a wide variety of professions, hence pulling the employees from other professions into emotional labor research. Throughout this research, the term *"customer"* is used to include external customers and clients, internal customers such as colleagues and management members and other third parties that employees interact with in order to do their job.

There is a wide span of research that studies the relationship of emotional labor and burnout on different professions (e.g. Diefendorff et al., 2011 on nurses; Springer and Oleksa, 2017 on teachers and commercial service sector employees). In the literature, burnout (especially its emotional exhaustion dimension) is claimed to be one of the outcomes of emotional labor. Moreover, some organizational and individual factors are studied as moderator variables in this relationship (e.g. perceived autonomy by Gopalan, Culbertson, &

Leiva in 2013; emotional intelligence by Kang in 2015; and LMX by Lee & Ji in 2018). The possible effects of humor are also studied by several researchers (e.g. Hsing, 2012; Huang, 2012; Wan, 2008) but these studies focus on "humor" or "sense of humor". However, it is seen that the possible moderating role of "humor styles" is not considered in the relationship between emotional labor and burnout. Due to the multi-dimensional nature of humor and its non-existence as a moderator in emotional labor and burnout literature, it is proposed that studying its moderating role will contribute to the field.

Targeted practical contributions can be summarized as below:

This research aims to raise organizations' awareness that not only their employees who interact with external customers but also other employees who serve their colleagues and management may also have a risk of burnout and other negative emotional labor outcomes. Thus, it is aimed to guide organizations to take the relevant measures for all their employees in general.

In this research, it is tested if different styles of humor should be encouraged or avoided actively by the organizations to buffer against possible negative consequences of emotional labor, including burnout. Hence, another practical target is to increase employees' and managers' awareness of the negative and positive aspects of humor, their effects and the dominant humor styles of the individuals. It is aimed to encourage them to use the proper humor styles at work to contribute to their performance and well-being.

This research is composed of four sections: The first section is an introduction to the subject of the study. The second section includes a comprehensive literature review about the three concepts which form the variables of the research model. In this section, different definitions and models, relationships between the concepts and related research findings are presented. Theoretical reasoning for the research questions and hypotheses are also delivered in this section. The third section involves information about the methodology of the research. The design and model of the study, hypotheses, research questions, the tools and methods of data collection, sample selection, application procedure, statistics and analysis techniques are

mentioned in this section. The fourth section is composed of details of the statistical analysis and presents the findings. Finally, the fifth section concludes the research with a discussion of the findings. Also, limitations of the study, practical implications and suggestions for future academical research is delivered in this final section.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Emotional Labor

Emotional labor has been first proposed as a concept by the sociologist Arlie Hochschild in 1979 and later in her book 'The Managed Heart' in 1983 where she discussed the commoditization of emotions in the workplace. So, before starting a discussion about emotional labor, it may be helpful to have a look at the concept of emotion itself and make an overview of how emotions gained importance in the workplace.

2.1.1 Emotions in the Workplace

Emotions have been studied in the field of psychology (such as clinical and social psychology) for many years. However, they were neglected in the organizational behavior field for a long time (Arvey, Renz, & Watson, 1998; as cited in Grandey, 2000). It was assumed that emotions were negative and harmful in that they avoided performance. People in the workplace were expected to behave rationally. However, this view has a subtle assumption that individuals can turn their emotions on and off whenever they wish. As this is not the reality, it resulted in an insufficiency while explaining the workplace phenomena. Since the late 1900s, the causes, consequences, and expression of emotions have also been studied in the business and organizational behavior field and it has been shown that emotions were important for both personal and organizational outcomes (Fisher, 2002; Judge & Illies, 2004; Sy, Coté, & Saavedra, 2005; as cited in Yalçın, 2010).

Considering research on emotions from different fields, there are four types of emotion perspectives: emotion as biological (evolutionary approach); emotion as early experiences (psychodynamic approach); emotion as cognitive appraisal and emotion as social (Fineman, 2003). Evolutionary or biological approach claims that our emotional responses are driven by our genetic heritage. This perspective argues that emotions help us to survive and they are instinctive. Darwin (1872) in *"The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals"* built his arguments on this perspective. The next perspective that considers

emotion as early experiences is mentioned in the works of another well-known scientist: Sigmund Freud. Freud (1985) argued that emotion could become deeply embedded so that it could affect a person in later stages of life. When this perspective is applied in organizations, it may be claimed that organizations are managed by the unconscious emotional reactions of employees, rather than rational and objective analysis and actions. Another perspective, the cognitive appraisal perspective, is discussed by Lazarus (1991). This perspective basically argues that emotion emerges when an individual tries to make sense of a specific experience, in other words, when (s)he tries to appraise the situation cognitively-. The meaning assigned to an object (a situation, an experience or an individual) results in the emotion. Lastly, the perspective that takes emotion as a social concept claims that effects like social learning are stronger than the genetic heritage or tendencies, early emotional experiences and cognitive appraisals. This approach emphasizes the effect of cultural and social context. The socio-cultural context may both change the emotions and the reactions based on these emotions (emotional display).

As the different research fields investigating emotions and different perspectives they adopt are considered, it is obvious that emotion researchers have not agreed completely on what exactly emotion is. James (1894) explained that stimulants which were critical from an evolutionary perspective (such as situations triggering the fight-or-flee reactions) caused physiological or behavioral response tendencies and called these tendencies as emotions. Carver & Scheier (1990) defined emotion as *"the signal that indicates the rate at which the discrepancy between a goal and reality is being decreased"*. If the discrepancy is getting smaller, a positive emotion arises whereas if the discrepancy is getting larger, a negative emotion emerges (cited in Gross, 1998). Schuman & Scherer (2014) attempted to make a more comprehensive definition. They viewed emotions as *"multicomponent, synchronized changes in affective, cognitive, motivational, expressive and physiological processes"*. In the organizational behavior field, emotions are seen as internal states which occur as a result of work-related elements like characteristics of the job, stress, and relationships with superiors.

Within the scope of this research, it is not aimed to make a precise definition of emotion. In line with the last definition mentioned, emotions are considered as intrapsychic states caused by interactions with other people. This view implies that emotions are considered from a psychological and social perspective. Hochschild (1983) also emphasized the social aspect of emotional labor, arguing that emotion management process was shaped by social exchange (as cited in Seçer, 2009). Every social context requires a level of emotion management and provides a different set of rules to enforce this. Individuals should abide by these rules to become an integral part of that societal group. Since the workplace is one of these major societal groups, it is also crucial to manage emotions in the workplace.

In the organizations, what is displayed generally tends to be more important than what is felt. An organization controls employees' feelings and what they are able to express. For example, management demands an energetic, cheerful sales force or a serious lawyer and assesses the performance accordingly. So, employees' behavior is generally not based on their genuine emotions but on scripts that the organization forms. These scripts, whether written or not, are called *"emotional display rules"* and these display rules lead to a kind of effort or labor to regulate emotions and their expressions in the workplace, so-called *"emotional labor"*.

2.1.2 Approaches to Emotional Labor

Emotional labor has the following major characteristics: (a) It occurs when a person works with other people (the medium can change like face-to-face or over the phone) (Zapf, 2002); (b) Emotions are expressed in a way to shape others' perceptions, behaviors or feelings, and (c) The are rules to guide expression of emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Beyond these common characteristics, researchers starting from Hochschild (1983) have attempted to define and study emotional labor and they have offered different perspectives. The five main approaches to emotional labor are, Hochschild's (1983) Approach, Ashforth & Humphrey's (1993) Approach, Morris & Feldman's (1996) Approach, Grandey's (2000) Approach and Glomb & Tews' (2004) Approach. Among these,

Grandey's approach will be discussed separately since this research is grounded on her approach.

2.1.2.1 Hochschild's (1983) Approach

Arlie Russell Hochschild in *"The Managed Heart: The Commercialization of Feeling"* used emotional labor concept as *"the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display"* (1983, p. 7). In her previous study (1979) she claimed that *"when deep gestures of exchange enter the market sector and are bought and sold as an aspect of labor power, feelings are commoditized"* (p. 569). Hochschild (1983), as a sociologist, differentiated between the concepts of *"emotion work"* and *"emotional labor"*. According to her, emotional labor refers to the situations where emotions are sold in exchange for payment (salary or wage). Emotion work, on the other hand, refers to the use of emotions in the private sphere. Hochschild thought that emotion management was a broader term that meant the process common to both emotional labor and emotion work. Erickson & Ritter (2001) explained this by saying emotion work and emotional labor were distinguished by the context in which emotion management process occurred. From a sociological perspective, Hochschild considered social and economic aspects of emotional labor but psychology considers the psychological processes like regulation of feelings or behaviors. This research adopts an organizational psychology perspective in that it is interested in the regulatory processes behind emotional labor and its psychological consequences.

In her book, Hochschild (1983) studied employees in flight crews and claimed that their work could not be completely defined by the physical conditions (like the limited area in an airplane), sensorimotor demands (like serving food and beverages successfully in a moving vehicle), and cognitive/mental demands (following the guidelines, acting quickly and properly upon them in case of extraordinary situations). There was more to their job: Communicating with the customers and handling their feelings. Thus, she named a concept called *"emotional labor"* which was *"employees' management of their emotions and their*

labor during this management in order to give good service to their customers" (p. 7). She claimed that the service employees' performance was related to their ability to display the emotions and behaviors required by their job. They perform how the job requires, display the acceptable emotions to the customers and suppress the unacceptable ones. These are essential parts of the service which they are paid for. They determine which emotions to display and which emotions to hide based on the organization's emotional display rules.

Hochschild (1983) built on Goffman's (1959) study which basically argued that people tended to adopt some roles, acted upon these roles and tried to form specific impressions on other people in social interactions (cited in Zapf, 2002). Hochschild used Goffman's dramaturgical perspective in which the customer was the *"audience*", the employee was the *"actor"*, and the workplace was the *"stage"* (Goffman, 1959). In this perspective, the *"performance"* is employees' effort to manage impressions and perceptions and *"actors may employ expressive devices"* during this performance (Grove & Fisk, 1989, p. 430). According to Hochschild (1983), these expressive devices were emotional labor strategies of deep acting and surface acting.

For Hochschild (1983), emotional labor includes the regulation of emotions only and her basic assumption was that this regulation process required effort or labor. The labor part may include creating the desired emotions within oneself, as well as changing or aborting the already existing undesired emotions (Pierce, 1995; Sutton, 1991). For doing this, she named two kinds of strategies: Surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting involves adjustment of displayed behavior without changing the original feeling. Deep acting provides a more authentic approach in which the employee makes an effort to really experience the emotion (s)he is supposed to display. Employees who use surface acting tend to focus on their behavioral display only while employees who use deep acting tend to work on their inner emotional processes as well.

2.1.2.2 Ashforth & Humphrey's (1993) Approach

When compared to Hochschild, Ashforth & Humphrey focused on the management of behavior or display which is observable, not the management of emotions within. They (1993) defined emotional labor as *"the act of displaying appropriate emotion, in other words, conforming with a display rule"* (p.90) and *"display of expected emotions by service agents during service encounters"* (p.88). In other words, they defined emotional labor as the observable behaviors during conforming to the emotional display rules. Instead of focusing on the emotions beneath, they focused on the resulting act because they argued that the most important determinant of the service quality was the observed behaviors of employees. They claimed that the determinants of the emotional display were (a) service quality; (b) quality of the interactions; (c) type of emotions.

Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) argued that emotional labor did not necessitate labor or effort (as cited in Grandey, 2000). They suggested that, instead of being a source of stress, surface and deep acting might be spontaneous and, thus, might not need extra effort. According to this perspective, as the employees behave according to the display rules repeatedly, these behaviors become habits and do not require extra effort. So, they added an extra dimension to Hochschild's surface acting and deep acting: *"Spontaneous and genuine emotion"* (1993, p.94). They discussed that some emotions were naturally felt and easily displayed in the interactions, eliminating the need to perform any kind of acting.

As the consequences of emotional labor are concerned, Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) focused on task effectiveness and performance. They claimed that emotional labor would increase task effectiveness, as long as the correspondent was convinced about its authenticity. However, they did not offer a structure to understand how emotional labor took place within the individual.

Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) considered emotional labor as a tool for impression management since the employee willingly tried to form a specific social perception by displaying certain emotions (Zapf, 2002). Impression management is defined as *"the*

individual's interventions of influencing or changing the thoughts of others about himself" (Luthans, 2005). When employees want others to think positively about themselves and display behaviors that are pleasant for the people around, they are involved in an impression management process. Emotional labor is considered as a way of impression management since emotional laborers might make an effort to manage their feelings or behaviors during interactions in order to influence the customers or colleagues to have a favorable opinion about themselves or their work.

There are two main differences between Hochschild's and Ashforth & Humphrey's approaches: (a) Ashforth & Humphrey focused on display or behavior whereas Hochschild focused on the emotions. (b) Ashforth & Humphrey focused on task effectiveness and performance outcomes, whereas Hochschild focused more on health outcomes such as stress (Grandey, 2000).

Ashforth & Humphrey made contributions to the emotional labor theory. Firstly, they brought a focus on observable behaviors to explain emotional labor. Secondly, they claimed that one had to understand how much employees identified with the emotional display rules in order to observe the expression of genuine or spontaneous emotions that are expected from them. The more one is identified with the display rules, the more genuine emotions (s)he will express. Despite these contributions, Ashforth & Humphrey did not form a comprehensive model. They focused on the observable side of behavior but did not provide an explanation about how genuineness could be observed and understood. Moreover, they did not conduct a study to test the variables such as task effectiveness, self-esteem, and self-expression which they related to emotional labor (Ünler Öz, 2007).

2.1.2.3 Morris & Feldman's (1996) Approach

Morris & Feldman (1996, p. 987) stated that emotional labor is *"the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions"*. Firstly, they claimed that emotions could be changed, and the social context (including interpersonal transactions) determined when and how that change occurred. They

said that their definition was embedded in an *"interactionist model of emotion"* where social factors were very important in determining the experience and display of emotion. Secondly, Morris and Feldman focused on the effort by the employees to abide by the emotional display rules. Contrary to Ashforth and Humphrey, Morris and Feldman claimed that all emotional labor strategies, even spontaneous and genuine emotions, required some effort. Thirdly, they emphasized the expression rather than the feeling (unlike Hochschild and similar to Ashforth & Humphrey). Finally, they agreed with Hochschild that there were standards guiding the emotional expressions, which Ekman (1973) called *"display rules"*.

Morris & Feldman (1996) proposed four dimensions in their model. These dimensions included;

(a) The frequency of emotional display – indicating how often employees have to abide by the emotional display rules.

(b) The attentiveness to display rules – including both intensity and duration as dimensions. Morris & Feldman (1996) proposed that as attentiveness increased, so did the demand for emotional labor. The first dimension of attentiveness is the intensity of emotional display which refers to *"how strongly or with what magnitude emotion is experienced or expressed"* (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p.990). The duration of interaction is the other dimension of attentiveness. Morris & Feldman claimed that short instances of emotional display required less effort than long instances of emotional display, and hence longer duration meant more emotional labor.

(c) The variety of emotions required – The emotions required may either be neutral, positive or negative (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). As the variety of required emotions increase, so does the level of emotional labor; because psychological energy dedicated will be higher.

(d) Emotional dissonance – the mismatch between the employee's existing emotion and emotion demanded by the display rules (Morris & Feldman, 1996). It implies that the

required emotion and the emotion felt do not match, and a discrepancy is experienced as a result. Previous researchers assumed that emotional dissonance was emotional labor's outcome but Morris and Feldman took it as one of emotional labor's dimensions. They proposed that the larger the dissonance, the greater the emotional effort required was, and emotional dissonance resulted in job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

Surface and deep acting were mentioned by Morris and Feldman only as a minor discussion under attentiveness. Morris and Feldman's emotional labor dimensions included the organizational expectations about employees' interactions and the mismatch between emotion and display. However, it was not explained how they came together to define emotional labor. According to Grandey (2000, p.257), Morris & Feldman's (1996) definition is circular: *"Emotional labor can best be described in terms of frequency of emotional labor"*. Also, when there is emotional dissonance, the emotions expressed do not match the emotions felt. As this definition puts; it is a state of being, not a process. But this is not compatible with the definition of Morris and Feldman. Also, emotional dissonance itself cannot explain how the emotions are managed (Grandey, 2000). Finally, the researchers did not define the mechanism or process by which emotional dissonance resulted in consequences like job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

All in all, the emotional labor dimensions in this approach, can be seen as situational cues of emotional labor, rather than dimensions of it (In this study, they will be explained as the "Interaction Expectations" under "Situational Cues" part). Moreover, the researchers' definition includes the effort, planning and control functions but the dimensions they propose do not explain these functions.

2.1.2.4 Glomb & Tews' (2004) Approach

The latest conceptualization and operationalization effort in the emotional labor literature is Glomb & Tews' (2004) work. They attempted to design a measurement instrument called DEELS (Discrete Emotions Emotional Labor Scale) and defined emotional labor as *"expression of emotions and non-expression of emotions, which may or may not be*

felt, in accordance with the display rules". Their conceptualization is summarized below in Figure 1:

		Not Felt	**Felt**
No Expressed Display		Nothing Felt or Displayed (1)	Appropriate Suppressed Display (2)
Expressed Display		Appropriate Faked Display (3)	Appropriate Genuine Display (4)

Figure 1: Glomb & Tews' (2004) Conceptualization of Emotional Labor

In this figure, all categories involve compliance with the display rules, as display rules may be either positive or negative. So, they represent the "appropriate" displays. In category 2, there is a negative emotion felt but it is not displayed (i.e. suppressed). In category 3, positive emotions are displayed although they are not actually felt, they are fake. These two categories are generally mentioned and discussed in other emotional labor approaches too, and they are in line with the concept of emotional dissonance. In categories 1 and 4, demands by the display rules are in harmony with the felt emotions. Category 4, for example, implies that emotion is both felt and expressed. Category 1, on the other hand, implies that emotion is neither felt nor displayed (Glomb & Tews removed this category from their proposed emotional labor measure, although they saw it as a kind of labor according to their definition).

Glomb & Tews' approach was similar to Ashforth & Humphrey's approach since they both emphasized behaviors. However, it also differed in several aspects from the existing perspectives: (a) It took into account the felt emotion that occurred while conforming to the emotional display rules. (b) It considered that abiding by the display rules might include displaying a demanded (appropriate) emotion, as well as not displaying an

inappropriate emotion. (c) It took into account the genuinely felt emotions and argued that genuinely felt emotions also required labor. So they included it in their model to provide a broader perspective. (d) It differentiated between positive and negative emotions. (e) It included not only emotions but also moods. The researchers argued that the term *"affect"* involved a span of states including moods and emotions. So, they suggested the term *"affective management"* instead of the term *"emotional labor"* but still continued to use *"emotional labor"* term in their work since it was the convention.

Although this is the latest attempt to form a comprehensive model for emotional labor, Grandey's (2000) model is taken as the basis for this research. The reason is that Grandey's approach provides an internal process model which can explain how emotional labor can result in consequences such as burnout.

2.1.2.5 Grandey's (2000) Approach

Before Grandey, emotional labor was viewed as the regulation of feeling by Hochschild (1983), as management of the observable behaviors by Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) and as the features of the interactions at work by Morris & Feldman (1996). Also, these three approaches differed in terms of their focus on either the feeling itself or the expression of the feeling. As a result, these approaches contradicted in terms of how they defined and operationalized the concept. Brotheridge & Lee (1998) argued that these differences created confusion for interested researchers. Hence, an integrative definition and a comprehensive theoretical model were needed. So, claiming that the previous models could not explain the emotional labor concept comprehensively, Grandey integrated them in a theoretical model in her doctoral dissertation in 1999 and based her model on emotion regulation theory.

According to Grandey, in order to understand emotional labor, its antecedents and consequences better, it was important to see it as a process and analyze it step by step. Emotion regulation theory enabled such an approach (Gosserand, 2003). According to this theory, individuals do not act impulsively and automatically based on their emotions. They

can decide when to have which emotions and can manage both the experience and the expression of these emotions. This approach helps to explain how employees can abide by emotional display rules and perform emotional labor. Grandey's (2000, p.8) definition of emotional labor; *"employees' effort to regulate emotional expression in response to organizational demands"* is built upon this perspective. Hence, to understand Grandey's approach, one should take a closer look at emotion regulation theory first.

2.1.2.5.1 Emotion Regulation Theory

Gross (1998, p.275) defined emotion regulation as *"the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions. Emotion regulatory processes may be automatic or controlled, conscious or unconscious"*. He added, *"Emotion regulation involves changes in dynamics, latency, rise time, magnitude, duration, and offset of responses in behavioral, experiential, or physiological domains"*. He emphasized five aspects of this definition: First, it is possible to augment, conserve or reduce emotions (either positive or negative). Second, different emotions are regulated differently. Third, his definition emphasizes regulation in self only, rather than influencing other people's feelings. Fourth, emotion regulation cases may be conscious, effortful, and controlled; or unconscious, effortless, and automatic; or lie between these two edges. Finally, there is no presumption about whether emotion regulation is maladaptive or adaptive, it can be either of them based on how it is used.

Gross (1998) offered a process-based model in which individuals received input from the situation and responded with feelings as output. The individual's emotional reaction tendency (output) is based on physiological, behavioral and cognitive conditions (Frijda, 1986). However, the individual may choose to bypass these tendencies and select from a range of behaviors, experiences or physiological states. Within this input-output model, Gross (1998) suggested two strategies: Antecedent-focused emotion regulation and response-focused emotion regulation. These two ways of emotion regulation match the terms of deep acting and surface acting.

2.1.2.5.2 Antecedent-Focused Emotion Regulation

This kind of intervention occurs before the emotion is formed. The person modifies the stimulant itself or the appraisal of the stimulant. Four kinds of antecedent-focused emotion regulation are; (a) situation selection, (b) situation modification, (c) attentional deployment, and (d) cognitive change.

Individuals often try to have a say in the choice of situations which they will experience (Buss, 1987). Situation selection and situation modification involve changes in the situation that triggers emotion. In attentional deployment and cognitive change, individuals do not try to select or modify the situation but rather try to control how they appraise the situation so that they can change their reaction. So, the individual either changes the focus of attention or the appraisal of the conditions.

Situation selection refers to picking or preventing a situation (which may include to choose or avoid specific people or locations) one engages in (Gross, 1998). It is not very common in the business world since employees are rarely able to choose where, when and with whom to work. The situations are generally treated as *"given"* and individuals are expected to act accordingly. Situation selection may include rejecting to serve a specific customer, changing the work-shifts, an application for transfer between branches of an organization or even quitting a job.

Once selected, certain characteristics of a situation may be changed to adjust its emotional content. This kind of intervention is called situation modification. For example, an employee may convert an unpleasant face-to-face meeting to a conference call, or an employee may warn a colleague who behaves in a toxic manner with too many complaints and negative talk in a meeting.

In attentional deployment, one can choose which characteristic of a situation to focus. According to Gross (1998), attentional deployment has different types such as distraction, concentration, and rumination. In distraction, one quits focusing on the existing

situation completely or only quits focusing on the emotional side of the situation. For example, an employee who has a problematic customer request can focus on a more positive customer's request first to feel better. Concentration *"absorbs cognitive resources"* and helps to get in a state of flow just like an individual may feel during gardening, painting or dancing. Instead of focusing on the emotions, the person gets fully engaged in the action. Gross (1998) called these two ways as *"internal versions of situation selection"*. In rumination, the attention is also directed but it is directed on the emotions and their possible outcomes. Ruminating on negative feelings is often related to depression or anxiety (Just & Alloy, 1997).

By cognitive change, a person changes the perception of the situation so that its emotional density and influence decreases (Lazarus, 1991). It includes mechanisms such as denial and isolation (Gross, 1998). Reappraising events more positively than they are, is also a type of cognitive change. The trend of *"good vibes only"* in today's social media is an example of this. Or a manager who defines a work event as *"challenging",* rather than *"stressful"* is trying to make a cognitive change in the employee.

The concept of deep acting corresponds to attentional deployment and cognitive change, as they directly modify thoughts and feelings to elicit authentic expressions. The distinction is; attentional deployment changes the focus whereas cognitive change modifies the appraisal (Grandey, 2000).

2.1.2.5.3 Response-Focused Emotion Regulation

This kind of intervention (also called response modulation) occurs after the emotion is formed. It is defined as *"directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding"* (Gross, 1998, p. 285). In this type of regulation, one is inclined to display a specific emotional response but changes it for a more acceptable response. The individual does not try to alter the situation or the perception about it but changes only the reaction. It is possible to change the emotional expression completely (faking) or to change its intensity only (Grandey, 2000).

This kind of emotion regulation is parallel to the surface acting strategy defined by Hochshild (1983). This regulation technique, like in surface acting, involves faking, suppressing the emotion or changing the intensity of the display. It is all about modifying the expression, not the internal feelings.

Grandey's (2000) approach helps to get an insight into the processes which individuals go through while they display expected emotions. It is based on a comprehensive theory which helps to define emotional labor as a process. It also has an integrative approach in that it takes into account the previous approaches. Due to these advantages, this study will be based on Grandey's (2000) approach and emotional labor concept will be defined, operationalized and discussed accordingly. Figure 2 depicts Grandey's approach as a model:

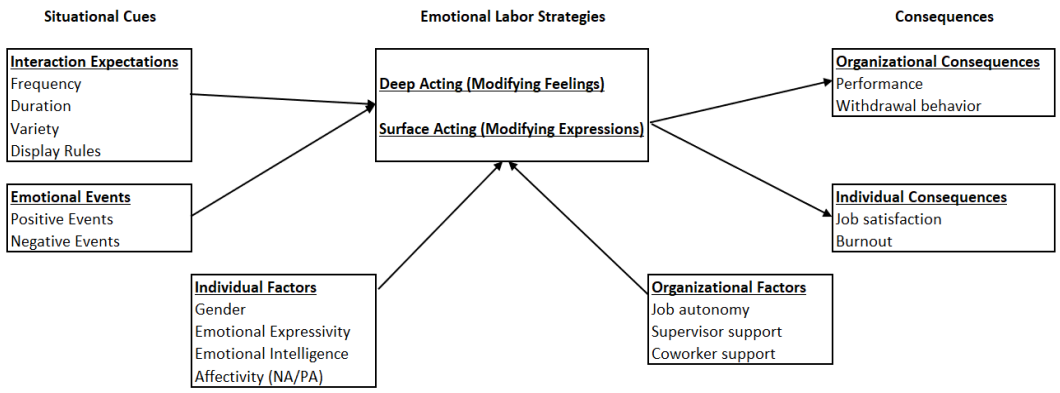

Figure 2: Grandey's (2000) Emotional Labor Model

2.1.3 Situational Cues

In Grandey's model, situational cues are elaborated in two groups; namely interaction expectations and emotional events. These factors which include the characteristics of interactions and emotion-inducing occasions act as antecedents of emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

2.1.3.1 Interaction Expectations

The types of interaction expectations are similar to concepts mentioned under different approaches by different researchers. For example, Morris & Feldman (1996) considered (a) frequency and (b) duration and (c) variety as dimensions of emotional labor (they added *"emotional dissonance"* as the fourth dimension). In Grandey's model, these are considered not as dimensions but as situational factors.

In addition, Hochschild (1983) mentioned display rules through which the organization controls the expression of emotion. These emotional display rules are also considered as a situational cue in Grandey's model.

(a) Frequency: Jobs differ in terms of the frequency of interaction with people. A salesperson may have very frequent customer contact, whereas an accounting clerk may have operational responsibilities which seldom require customer or colleague interaction. The idea is that, as the frequency of emotional display increases, the organization's demand for emotion management increases as well.

(b) Duration: Another interaction dimension that differs among jobs is the duration of interactions. A call center agent may be expected to have calls with customers for five minutes at maximum, whereas a project manager interacts with the clients for hours in several meetings. As the duration of interaction is longer, it is more likely for employees to regulate emotions. The intensity of emotions to be displayed may also change with duration. In short interactions, emotions are generally of lower intensity. However, as the duration gets longer, interactions are likely to include intense emotions (Zapf, 2002). Morris & Feldman (1996) argued that intense emotions required more effort.

(c) Variety: Some jobs require a wide span of emotions to be displayed, whereas others demand less. Some jobs like sales or customer service require only emotional displays such as friendliness and sympathy; whereas others, like debt collection, requires emotions such as anger. A manager, on the other hand, may be required to display a spectrum of

emotions ranging from friendliness to anger while interacting with the team members. Sometimes employees have to display a certain emotion while suppressing another one. For example, teachers may display positive emotions to their students to have close relationships, negative emotions to ensure obedience, and a neutral outlook to be perceived as professional and fair.

(d) Display Rules: Goffman (1959) stated that there were some codes in social transactions. These codes also exist in many occupations, especially service jobs, and include emotional display rules. Emotional display rules are stated as *"standards for the appropriate expression of emotions"* (Ekman, 1972) and as *"norms and standards of behavior defining which emotions are appropriate in a certain situation and how these emotions should be expressed publicly"* (Ekman, 1973). In the literature, the terms *"feeling rules"* and *"display rules"* are both used. Hochschild (1983) preferred feeling rules because she emphasized the internal management of emotions. However, Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) emphasized the external expression and thus they preferred display rules.

These rules may be communicated to the employees explicitly by formal processes; or implicitly by the routines and rituals of the organization. According to Gosserand (2003), emotional display rules are communicated to employees in three ways: (a) During the recruitment process; (b) During the orientation phase and trainings; (c) During the employment process (through reward and punishment mechanisms). The formal communication of display rules will lead to a standard set of emotional expression throughout the company. This is a positive outcome from the organizational perspective. However, employees may feel restricted and stressed because of the possible discrepancy between the genuine emotions and expected emotions and will perform more emotional labor (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; as cited in Ünler Öz, 2007).

The emotional display rules can be grouped under three headings: (a) Integrative Rules; (b) Differentiating Rules and (c) Masking Rules (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). Integrative rules generally require to express friendly and sympathetic emotions and to

prevent negative emotions. Service-sector employees are generally asked to follow integrative rules. They are expected to smile, act friendly and kindly. Differentiating rules include rules that are necessary to exhibit a rigid or threatening look. Debt collectors should stay distant and determined, whereas security staff should display a threatening expression (Sutton, 1991). The third type of rules is masking rules which require looking neutral and not revealing any emotions to others. These rules are generally for professionals such as psychologists, therapists, and judges (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002).

Emotional display rules act as a guide for the employees. The organization evaluates whether employees' behaviors are appropriate or not based on these rules. If there is a discrepancy between the expected and the felt emotion, employees have to adjust their emotions in order to reduce this discrepancy (Ünler Öz, 2007).

2.1.3.2 Emotional Events

The work setting generally sets the scene for the performance of emotional labor. The factors in workplaces are mostly chronic factors which change slowly and may necessitate emotional labor. However, there are sometimes events that happen not chronically but occasionally, and thus can be considered as acute factors which also require employees to regulate their emotions. The more such events happen and result in an effort to regulate emotions, the more accumulated effect on stress and well-being they will bring about. These emotional events may be classified as (a) positive events, and (b) negative events based on their effect on the person:

(a) Positive Events: If an event induces a favorable emotion in the employee (such as good news from relatives or recognition from the manager), that event may help the employee abide by the display rules which require positive emotions more easily. In such a case, emotion regulation effort would be lowered and the event would be considered a positive emotional event.

(b) Negative Events: If an emotional event induces an unfavorable emotion in the employee or makes it harder to express favorable emotions, it will be considered as a negative event (Frijda, 1986). Such negative events may or may not be about the job itself. For example, an unexpected problem on the assembly line may cause a production engineer to get stressed, or sudden bad news about a family member can also have a similar emotional effect. Those kinds of events also require emotion management to sustain the proper attitude. More negative events mean more emotion regulation and higher stress as a result.

2.1.4 Emotional Labor Strategies

Up to this point, the focus was on how one can regulate emotions and emotional display to express the organizationally expected behavior. However, sometimes people cannot or do not express the required emotion. This is called *"emotional deviance"* (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). If employees do not accept or do not believe in the display rules, they do not express the required behavior on purpose. However, sometimes they simply cannot express it although they want to. This may be because they are not aware of the display rules, they have no guidance or they experience emotional exhaustion, and thereby cannot manage their feelings.

On the other hand, the required emotion can be felt and expressed automatically. This is called *"emotional harmony"* (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987); which means consistency between the demanded, experienced and displayed emotions. It was also called *"expression of spontaneous and genuine emotion"* by Ashforth & Humphrey (1993). Here, the employee already feels what is expected by emotional display rules. Emotional labor is automatically performed and experienced as effortless; thereby it may be claimed that no or little conscious attention is necessary to regulate the emotion itself or the expression of this emotion.

In this study, the focus is on the *"labor"* concept, that is when the employee does not spontaneously experience and display the expected emotion, or does not prefer emotional deviance but rather makes a deliberate effort to conform with the emotional display rules. This labor can be realized either through surface or deep acting:

2.1.4.1 Surface Acting

Surface acting means manipulating the expression of a feeling without regulating the feeling itself (Grandey, 2000). It may be automatized in a routine situation (e.g. a call center agent can answer the call smiling, although (s)he does not feel anything). If not in a routine situation, surface acting may deliberately be initiated.

Surface acting does not mean that the employee lacks a feeling (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). (S)he may have a feeling but tries to display another feeling. Employees are generally expected to act positively to customers or colleagues; so they either suppress their negative emotions or try to fake a positive emotion (Gosserand & Dieffendorff, 2005). Surface acting is indeed similar to acting on stage and requires modification of facial expressions, voice, tonations, mimics, and gestures according to the expected emotional display.

Surface acting makes the employee feel emotional dissonance since it creates a gap between the emotion that is felt and emotion that is displayed (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional dissonance implies that the employee has not internalized the emotional display rules but acts in line with them since (s)he knows that (s)he is monitored and assessed based on them. Hochschild (1983) suggested that this ended up in stress since people generally did not like feeling fake. In the long-run, surface acting requires so much effort which may cause stress-related psychosomatic problems.

2.1.4.2 Deep Acting

Deep acting implies that the individual deliberately tries to regulate the feelings to display the emotions expected by the organization (Grandey, 2000). The employee tries to adapt to the expected emotion and actively triggers or shapes the feeling itself. Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) argued that the acts of an employee changed directly in surface acting, whereas these acts changed indirectly in deep acting. In deep acting, one will try to genuinely form the expected feeling first, and then act based on the modified feeling. Deep acting

requires greater effort at the beginning (to create the appropriate emotion) but it takes less energy for the successful expression afterward.

Hochschild (1983) proposed two ways for deep acting: One way of deep acting can be achieved by an inner dialogue that helps to feel the required emotion. This coincides with the cognitive change concept discussed in the emotion regulation theory. The second way is to create the expected emotion by referring to related thoughts, figures or memories via imagination. This is also parallel with the attentional deployment concept in emotion regulation theory.

Surface and deep acting may have both favorable and unfavorable outcomes. Deep acting may require more effort at the beginning when compared to the surface acting because it requires a deeper intervention into the individual's intrapsychic world. However, emotional dissonance and the related stress may be much less at the end when compared to surface acting (Ağırman, 2012). The differences in the nature of these strategies allow researchers to explain both negative and positive outcomes.

2.1.5 Consequences of Emotional Labor

Grandey (2000) summarized the consequences of emotional labor in two categories in Figure 2: Organizational Consequences and Individual Consequences. In her model, organizational consequences are summarized under performance and withdrawal behavior; whereas individual consequences are summarized under job satisfaction and burnout. Below, the consequences of emotional labor will be discussed in a parallel way but more in depth.

2.1.5.1 Organizational Consequences

2.1.5.1.1 Positive Organizational Consequences

Emotional labor may have positive effects on performance. Organizations benefit from the management of emotions and that is why they create display rules and try to control employee's emotions. Research also supports companies' effort scientifically. Managing

emotions is found to be important for customer loyalty and sustaining business relationships (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985; Hochschild, 1983) and customer satisfaction (Pugh, 1998). Emotional labor helps to induce the desired feelings in customers and result in high-quality customer service and this enables creating a favorable perception of the organization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Gross (1998) claimed that although deep acting demanded effort, it was very influential in convincing both employees themselves and the customers that the feeling was genuine. Thus, the effort pays off resulting in good customer service (Grandey, 2000).

2.1.5.1.2 Negative Organizational Consequences

These consequences can be examined in three groups: (a) Emotional labor may hinder the primary work targets; (b) Emotional labor may backfire; (c) Emotional labor may lead to withdrawal behaviors.

(a) Emotional labor may hinder the primary work targets: Emotional labor is an important but secondary objective which accompanies the primary objectives. This means that an employee is generally expected to act friendly and positively (or the opposite) while doing his main job and its related tasks. Showing sincere emotions may often be a requirement for a certain job but these jobs actually exist to create economic return and the work of an employee is exchanged for money. However, emotional display rules in some companies require an employee to act friendly, almost in a family-like relationship as if it is not for economic exchange. For example, emotional display rules may require a salesperson to act in a friendly and sincere manner to a customer who asks the salesperson's opinion about a dress which does not fit her actually. At the same time, the company may force the same salesperson to sell that dress because of the high sales targets. This employee is very likely to make a choice between acting as she feels and telling the truth; or faking as if she liked it and selling that dress. Or a call center employee may be required to be friendly and helpful while also being required to limit a customer interaction to 3 minutes for efficiency

purposes. These ambiguous and often conflicting messages may affect the employee's performance, resulting in an overall company performance problem.

(b) Emotional labor may backfire: Customers look for genuine acts from people who serve them. If they perceive that these people are insincere; their perception of customer service will be harmed (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Ekman & Friesen (1969) claim that people can understand intrinsically if the behavior is genuine or fake. In cases where customers detect faking; emotional labor, especially surface acting, may harm service performance (Grandey, 2000).

(c) Emotional labor may lead to withdrawal behaviors: One of the dark sides of emotional labor (especially surface acting) may be the feeling of emotional dissonance, and emotional dissonance may lead to an increase in turnover intentions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, as cited in Ünler Öz, 2007) and absenteeism (Grandey, 2000). The need to regulate emotions too often may signal that there is no person-job fit (Edwards, 1991). Then the employee may pick situation selection strategy (Gross, 1998) and find another job or workplace. As a result, demand for high levels of emotional labor creates visible and invisible costs to the organization.

2.1.5.2 Individual Consequences

2.1.5.2.1 Positive Individual Consequences

Emotional labor may help employees in three ways: It may (a) reduce the negative impact of emotional demands; (b) create positive emotions, and (c) fulfill organizational expectations (Zapf, 2002).

(a) Emotional labor may reduce the negative impact of emotional demands: Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) claimed that the more the person was identified with the display rules, the more authentic (s)he would be. Subsequently, the more authentic the person is, the less (s)he will be affected by the negative impact of organizational emotional control demands.

(b) Emotional labor may create positive emotions: Facial feedback theory proposed that mimics and gestures influenced feelings through a *"physiological feedback mechanism"* and vice versa (Adelmann, 1995). A person faking a smile may end up in a genuine smile due to this feedback mechanism because the facial expression gives the brain and the body the message that everything is fine and good mood is on. Moreover, a smile (even though not actually felt) may lead a customer to smile back and the feeling itself actually changes. There are concepts like *"emotional contagion", "positive feedback loops"* and *"social exchange theories"* which support this view.

(c) Emotional labor may help to fulfill organizational expectations: Complying with the rules that the job necessitates and performing well is rewarding for employees, especially the involved ones. Emotional labor is closely related to job involvement (Kruml, 1999; Wharton, 1993). Employees who are involved enjoy their jobs and elicit personal pleasure. This pleasure enables them to contribute to their work in a unique way. Wharton (1993) found that having an emotional labor-intensive job also increased job satisfaction.

2.1.5.2.2 Negative Individual Consequences

Some of the personal negative consequences of emotional labor can be categorized as (a) Negative health outcomes; (b) Decrease in job involvement and job satisfaction; (c) Psychological Problems and Burnout.

(a) Negative health outcomes: Most studies have assumed that emotional labor led to poor health (Erickson & Ritter, 2001). But, how this association works and how emotional labor ends up in poor health is not clear until emotion regulation theory has been applied in the study of emotional labor concept. Grandey (2000) tried to clarify through emotion regulation theory how emotional labor led to individual consequences. She used physiological systems as the main argument. Normally, when humans experience arousal of emotions, the mechanism leads them either to fight-or-flee through the nervous system and the endocrine system. This makes the body use its resources to handle the situation but then no or little energy is left for other important functions such as the immune system. If this

arousal state lasts for a long time, the organism cannot use energy for vital systems and this damages health. That is why researchers argue that management of emotions continuously, over a long period of time, is related to health issues such as heart problems, high blood pressure and cancer (cited in Grandey, 2000).

(b) Decrease in job involvement and job satisfaction: It may be surprising that job involvement and job satisfaction are mentioned both under the positive and the negative individual consequences. It is because the relationship between emotional labor and job involvement or job satisfaction is influenced by many variables; such as personality or emotional intelligence. For example, employees who have high emotional intelligence tend to have higher job satisfaction as a result of emotional labor, whereas employees who are low in emotional intelligence have lower job satisfaction as a result of emotional labor (Psilopanagioti et al., 2012). Hence, although it is not correct to say that emotional labor always leads to low job involvement or job satisfaction, there are cases where this applies. It mainly depends on the emotional labor strategy adopted. For example, Rutter & Fielding (1988) stated that suppression correlated negatively with job satisfaction. Researchers also found emotional dissonance and job satisfaction were negatively correlated (Zapf, 2002). Studies on the relationship between surface acting and the service employee's job involvement have also revealed a negative relationship (Kruml, 1999; Wharton, 1993).

(c) Psychological Problems and Burnout: Emotional display rules claim a right to control the emotions of employees. So, employees who perform emotional labor may suffer from a lack of control over their own emotions. Relatively low status and not having the luxury of having control over one's own emotions may threaten well-being (Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Sense of control is also a predictor of psychological health (Mirowsky & Ross, 1989), implying fewer feelings of inauthenticity and burnout (Erickson & Wharton 1997, as cited in Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Psychological problems related to emotional labor may range from mild stress to severe cases of burnout.

Burnout has grabbed considerable attention as one of the consequences of emotional labor because it creates a high cost for the organizations which lose valuable, idealist and dedicated employees. The good side of it is that burnout occurs in phases and if it is diagnosed in early stages, it can be controlled and eliminated. Due to its cost to the organizations and its curability, burnout will be elaborated further as the dependent variable in this study. So, it will be discussed in a separate section.

2.2 Burnout

Burnout is not a new phenomenon. In 1961, Greene wrote a novel called *"A Burnout Case"* which told about a dissatisfied architect who quit his job and ran away into forests of Africa (Karakaya, 2018). Although used in a novel; it took another decade for burnout phenomenon to catch interest in the research field. In mid-1970s burnout studies began by focusing on the service sector and people work and first clinical and psycho-social studies were followed by empirical research in the 1980s (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

Although burnout concept has been studied by many researchers for about fifty years, there is still some confusion about the concept. It is often confused with stress or depression. However, burnout differs from stress. Stress was formulated by Selye (1974) as *"the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it"* (p. 14). This definition implies that all favorable or non-favorable activities and demands which challenge the status quo or homeostasis of an organism may cause stress. There are different types of stress in terms of its sources. For example, work stress can be defined as *"demands that exceed the abilities of the employee at work"* (Mc Grath, 1976). Burnout is chronic whereas stress may or may not be chronic (Cherniss, 1980). Also, stress does not necessarily produce increased emotional exhaustion, increased depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment as burnout produces (Hawkins, 2008). Burnout is also different from depression because burnout is related to the workplace and work itself but depression may be caused by and experienced in all aspects of individuals' lives (Shaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Burnout is a problem resulting from work-related problems, not a psychiatric dysfunction (Maslach &

Leiter, 1997). Moreover, the three dimensions of burnout generally occur together and their coexistence makes burnout different from stress, depression or other similar concepts like anxiety (Awa, Plaumann & Walter, 2010). Hence, a comprehensive definition for burnout might be *"a psychological syndrome involving chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors that individuals experience at work and their subsequent responses to their tasks, organizations, coworkers, clients and themselves"* (cited in Swider & Zimmerman, 2010, p.487).

Very recently, World Health Organization (WHO) included burnout as a medical syndrome in the eleventh edition (Version: 04/2019) of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD) (www.healio.com, 2019). In the ICD-11, burnout was categorized under *"Problems associated with employment or unemployment"*. It was defined as *"a syndrome resulting from chronic workplace stress that has not been successfully managed, and characterized by three dimensions: 1) feelings of energy depletion or exhaustion; 2) increased mental distance from one's job, or feelings of negativism or cynicism related to one's job; and 3) reduced professional efficacy"*. WHO emphasized that burnout was exclusively related to the occupational context and should not be used to define phenomena in non-occupational areas of life. It was also underlined in the ICD-11 that burnout should be distinguished from *"adjustment disorder, disorders specifically associated with stress, anxiety or fear-related disorders and mood disorders"*.

Starting from Freudenberger (1974), several researchers such as Pines (1993), Suran & Sheridan (1985), Perlman & Hartman (1982), Cherniss (1980), Edelwich & Brodsky (1980) and Maslach & Jackson (1981) provided different studies on the concept of burnout. Below, these models will be mentioned briefly. This research will use Maslach & Jackson's (1981) conceptualization and operationalization of burnout as it provides the most accepted approach and measurement tool.

2.2.1 Approaches To Burnout

2.2.1.1 Freudenberger's (1974) Approach

The word burnout was first proposed scientifically by Herbert Freudenberger in his work *"Staff Burnout".* Freudenberger (1974), who was a clinical psychologist, first observed the syndrome on drug-addicted young people, coined the term burnout and defined it as *"to fail, to wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources"* (p.159). This definition evolved in time as he observed more cases. In 1980, he defined a person who suffers from burnout as *"…someone in a state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward"* (1980, p. 13).

2.2.1.2 Cherniss' (1980) Approach

Cherniss (1980, p.5) defined burnout as *"a process in which a professional's attitudes and behavior change in negative ways in response to job strain"*. This model attempted to explain not only the causes of burnout but also the reactions to burnout and ways to cope with it. It argued that burnout was a result of the stress caused by excessive demands and the inability to cope with this stress. The individual may try several methods to avoid this stress, such as eliminating the factors that cause it, using stress management techniques to relax or avoiding the psychological connection to stress-generating condition completely where (s)he cannot handle the situation (Güven, 2013).

2.2.1.3 Edelwich and Brodsky's (1980) Approach

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) in their work called *"Burn-Out: Stages of Disillusionment in the Helping Professions"* explained four stages of disillusionment: (a) enthusiasm; (b) stagnation; (c) frustration and (d) apathy. In their work, they talked about stress and frustration experienced by employees in the helping professions, like counselors, nurses, school teachers.

People begin their job with great **enthusiasm** and idealism when they do not yet know what the job is all about and believe they can almost perform miracles for people who are in need. This phase is generally experienced by newly-started employees. Those who have high expectations, energy and motivation dedicate themselves to work and to the benefits the work provides to others and selves. The implicit expectation of the employee might be materialistic or emotional rewards, recognition, and appreciation. However, they might face long working hours, low pay, inadequate recognition, bureaucracy, customer dissatisfaction, and a sense of limited competence. This leads the employee to the next phase.

The next phase is **stagnation** when the limitations of the job are realized. Enthusiasm starts to disappear in that phase and the person pauses. The decline in motivation and energy leads to a decline in the expectations and job satisfaction. The employee starts to feel uncomfortable with the hassles which previously (s)he was eager and motivated to overcome. Questioning the value and meaning of the job and feeling that the job is not sufficient for a fulfilling life is very common in this phase (Kayabaşı, 2008). The employee starts to see the job not as a way to fulfill his/her potential and need for meaning but as a financial source only. Earning money becomes a priority, and the person looks for the meaning and purpose outside of the work.

Accumulated dissatisfaction on the job and a sense of powerlessness lead to the stage of **frustration**. In that phase, the person becomes sure that (s)he will not be able to change the conditions in the organization and feels a deep disappointment and frustration. The employee questions if the job is suitable in terms of his/her values and if (s)he should continue or quit.

Sürgevil (2006, p.28) stated that the employee might develop some defense mechanisms as a reaction to frustration;

a) (S)he can form a balance between the current situation and his/her expectations (adaptive defense). This may pull the employee out of the burnout cycle.

b) (S)he can ignore or deny the current situation and think that (s)he can solve the problem by working harder and longer (Maladaptive defense).

c) (S)he can continue to work in a rigid, mechanical and insensitive way and fulfill only the technical requirements of the job (Withdrawal).

Withdrawal and maladaptive defense may increase burnout, rather than cure it, and it sets the stage for the last phase. When the person is chronically frustrated on the job but needs the job and cannot quit, **apathy** phase comes in. This phase is characterized by minimum effort and a high degree of cynicism. At this phase, the employee only continues the job for financial and social security but does not have satisfaction. Since emotional isolation takes place, the employee neither likes nor cares about the job. All (s)he does is to fulfill the minimum requirements about the job, without any dreams or expectations, and this leads to unhappiness and meaninglessness at work.

2.2.1.4 Perlman & Hartman's (1982) Approach

This approach claimed that burnout was a reaction to chronic emotional stress and had three components which reflected three types of stress symptoms. These are; the physiological dimension which reflects physical symptoms (physical exhaustion), the emotional/cognitive dimension which reflects attitudinal and emotional symptoms (emotional exhaustion) and the behavioral dimension which reflects behavioral symptoms.

Their model explained burnout in four levels: (a) Stressful situation (b) Individuals' perception of stress (c) Reactions to stress (d) Outcomes of stress. According to this model, burnout is generally experienced as a result of chronic emotional stress at the end of level four.

2.2.1.5 Suran & Sheridan's (1985) Approach

This model was grounded on experiences and observations about developmental phases in early and mid-adulthood. It explained the four stages of burnout; which are (a) Identity/Role Ambiguity (corresponding to late high school, early university years when

professional choices begin to form); (b) Competence/Incompetence (early years in work life when professional identity is beginning to be established); (c) Efficacy/Inactivity (generally ages between 30-40 when apprenticeship is over and mastery takes place) and (d) Reforming/Disappointment (generally between ages of mid/late 30's and mid/late 40's when the individual questions the early career choice, continues it or reforms it). Burnout was described in this model as a result of the inability to solve the problems at one or more of these stages.

2.2.1.6 Pines' (1993) Approach

Pines studied the burnout concept in the workplace settings where people experienced emotional strain. The general characteristics of workplaces where burnout is common are inadequate reward or support and high levels of stress. In his approach, the mental, physical and emotional wear out was emphasized (Pines, 1993). People in the service sector are generally motivated by working closely with other people and contributing to their lives and they have idealistic, high standards to achieve these. When these standards are not met and they fail to reach their idealistic goals, it is highly likely to experience burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988, as cited in Cengiz, 2018).

2.2.1.7 Maslach & Jackson's (1981) Approach

Maslach was a social psychologist and she was the first researcher to provide an empirical approach to burnout studies. In 1981, Maslach and Jackson conducted a study to measure burnout and designed a scale. Following their article, further research was done on their instrument -Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)- and several versions were developed to apply for different professions. MBI measure and the subscales were commonly accepted by the researchers and it became the most popular burnout measure in the research field.

Maslach & Jackson (1981) defined burnout as *"a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do people work of some kind".* Later, Maslach & Leiter published a book called *"The Truth About Burnout"* in 1997 and

redefined burnout as *"the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do. It represents an erosion in values, dignity, spirit, and will—an erosion of the human soul"* (p.17).

Burnout is not a zero-or-one concept but lies on a continuum (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) and is considered to be experienced by individuals who are involved in people work (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). People who have high expectations about their job and a sense of purpose; people who are dynamic, goal-driven and idealist are generally the ones who have a high potential for burnout. Freudenberger (1980) also agreed with this, stating that *"it would be virtually impossible for the underachiever to get into that state"* (p. 20). Professionals in people work may have ideal goals about people and society. Burnout results from becoming too much emotionally involved in work and not being able to refill the depleted emotional resources (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). Also, not receiving reward or recognition in return for the sacrifice may lead to burnout (Helliwell, 1981).

Burnout was first studied for customer-oriented professions (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) but researchers later studied on samples with more autonomous jobs which have less customer touch and they found out that these people also experienced burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996). Further research proved that burnout was not exclusive for service roles or people work, it might be generalized to other occupations as well (e.g. Boles et al., 2000).

According to Maslach & Jackson's (1981) approach, there are three dimensions to describe burnout: (a) emotional exhaustion; (b) depersonalization, and (c) personal accomplishment. These dimensions constitute burnout when they come together but can be examined and interpreted separately as well. Maslach & Leiter (1997) defined a fully-engaged employee versus a burned-out employee. According to their definition, full-engagement has dimensions of energy, involvement, and efficacy whereas burnout has dimensions of exhaustion (emotional exhaustion), cynicism (depersonalization) and ineffectiveness (-reduced- personal accomplishment).

2.2.2 Dimensions of Burnout

2.2.2.1 Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is considered as the main dimension which creates burnout. It refers to feeling overwhelmed emotionally (Maslach, 1993). People lose all their energy and feel as if they have no more emotional resources. This causes tension and frustration arising from the fear of not being able to display previous levels of performance (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Emotional exhaustion results in detachment from work itself and from people related to work. People may run away from the emotional aspect of interactions to relieve some of the emotional burden they have. They may minimize the human interaction necessary for a job to be done (Basım & Şeşen, 2006). This leads to the second dimension of burnout; that is depersonalization.

2.2.2.2 Depersonalization

It is also named as "*cynicism"* in the literature and refers to feeling apathetic or cynical about people. Often, people around are seen in a dehumanized way (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). In order to cope with this situation, employees may apply to detachment, in other words, they isolate themselves or become emotionally neutral. However, sometimes the employee can no longer adequately use this strategy. In some cases, the employee gets stuck in detachment instead of adapting it to the current situation and (s)he becomes unable to feel what (s)he should feel (Zapf, 2002). This leads to a kind of numb or callous state.

Emotional exhaustion is the internal side of burnout, whereas depersonalization is the interpersonal side of burnout (Sağlam Arı, Bal, & Çına Bal, 2010). Depersonalization may be considered as the individual's attempt to keep away from the disappointment and burnout caused by the psychological strain of the job (Sürgevil, 2006). In other words, depersonalization occurs as a reaction to emotional exhaustion and acts as a buffer against its harm.

As a result of depersonalization, the individual who starts to have distant or negative thoughts and behaviors towards others, also starts to blame him/herself for this situation. This leads the person to assess him/herself negatively and a sense of inadequacy or inefficacy emerges.

2.2.2.3 Personal Accomplishment

It is also possible to see this dimension named as *"reduced/diminished personal accomplishment", "reduced/diminished personal efficacy", "efficacy"* or *"inefficacy"* in the literature.

Maslach & Jackson (1981) first called it as personal accomplishment in their article and defined it as "*feelings of competence and successful achievement in one's work with people"* (p.5). However, in much of the following research, the concept was used as reduced/diminished personal accomplishment/efficacy (e.g. Maslach & Leiter, 2008) and it was defined as *"self-evaluative feelings of incompetence and lack of achievement at work"*. When stated this way, it basically includes feelings of insufficiency and reduced self-respect (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Reduced personal accomplishment includes signals of low mood, conflict, efficiency problems and difficulty in problem-solving (Baysal, 1995). Psychological defense mechanisms such as blaming external factors as the cause of failure, withdrawal, and inability to redirect personal energy to positive resolutions, keep the person in a vicious circle and leads to more ineffectiveness (Baltaş & Baltaş, 2002). Freudenberger (1980, p.104) claimed: *"Where burnout exists, the sufferer unwittingly selects a cure which intensifies the burn-out, spreading it faster and further"*.

Unlike the other two dimensions of burnout, lower scores on personal accomplishment imply higher levels of burnout. Maslach & Jackson (1981) warned that this dimension was independent of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and it should not be interpreted as the opposite of these two dimensions.

2.2.3 Consequences of Burnout

The outcomes of burnout may be examined in two categories: Individual consequences and organizational consequences.

2.2.3.1 Individual Consequences

Burnout is not only about the amount of demands, expectations or stress one deals with at work; but his/her ability and strength to cope with them is also important. As burnout develops gradually, a person loses resiliency in time and consequences of burnout which harm psychological health, physical health and relationships come into the scene.

Psychological problems are generally hard to detect and they show a wide variety; yet the common symptoms can be summarized as: frustration, criticism about others, a chronic state of nervousness and getting angry easily, a sense of failure, groundless doubt and sometimes paranoia, apathy, decrease in self-esteem, high sensitivity to criticism, fear, anxiety and sorrow, concentration problems, depression, unrest, feelings of guilt and despair (Balcıoğlu et al., 2008; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005; Sürgevil, 2006; as cited in Ağırman, 2012).

Burnout not only threatens the psychological health but also the physical health of the individual. Physical problems include sleep disorders, fatigue and tiredness, headaches, high blood pressure and cholesterol, stomach and intestinal problems, acute (non-chronic) cold, muscle pain, diabetes, general body pain and soreness, allergy, skin problems, change in eating habits, loss of weight or gaining weight, respiratory problems, low energy, increase in the risk of coronary heart problems and psychosomatic problems (Balcıoğlu et al., 2008; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005; Sürgevil, 2006; as cited in Ağırman, 2012). If an employee is in a loop of working too much and pushes the physiological limits harder, physical exhaustion in addition to emotional exhaustion takes place (Leiter & Maslach, 1999). Physical exhaustion increases vulnerability to accidents and illnesses.

Burnout also affects individuals' work, family and social lives through behavioral problems. These behavioral problems include anger and sudden reactions, unwillingness to

go to work and getting late to work, hyperactivity, feeling unappreciated, decrease in concentration, marriage and family conflicts, tendency to or increase in the consumption of drugs, alcohol and smoking, absent-mindedness, lack of physical energy, role conflict, confusion in the roles and responsibilities, loss of interest in the organization or job, resistance against working, being sarcastic and blaming, sudden anger bursts or crying, resistance to change and rigidity (Balcıoğlu et al., 2008; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005; Sürgevil, 2006, as cited in Ağırman, 2012). Burnout is negatively related to organizational performance, commitment and work satisfaction (Shepherd et al., 2010) and may lead employees to quit the job (Norton, 2004). This may also cause financial and professional problems for the employee, which, in turn, may lead to family and social issues. Thus, although problems stem from work, its effects may spill over the individual's relationship with the family and friends.

2.2.3.2 Organizational Consequences

Although burnout is first visible on the personal level, it exceeds the individual's inner world and spills over all aspects of life, including work. Hence, burnout has negative outcomes for organizations as well.

Organizations suffer from high turnover, absenteeism, interaction problems with customers and colleagues and low performance as a result of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). Work-related consequences may also include job dissatisfaction, reduced customer care quality, high levels of mistakes at work and intention to leave and quitting the job (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

It is also important for organizations to distinguish between dimensions of burnout when analyzing the consequences since they are likely to produce different outcomes. Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) argued that emotional exhaustion was more likely to result in absenteeism, whereas depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment tended to result in turnover and customer dissatisfaction.

Burnout is known to be contagious. People influence each other with their mood, attitude, and discourse and get *"infected"* as a result (Zapf, 2002). So employers should be aware of the fact that individual burnout cases can be toxic and should not be underestimated. Otherwise, a complete team, department or a larger workgroup can get burnout infection.

2.2.4 Antecedents of Burnout

Researchers have long tried to group factors that contribute to burnout. Such attempts came to a conclusion that antecedents of burnout are numerous so they can be classified into two broad categories: Individual factors and organizational & occupational factors (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

2.2.4.1 Individual Factors

Reviews argue that research is mainly focused on the organizational/occupational causes and individual level causes take the backseat (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). However, in the same company with the same conditions, one employee may experience burnout whereas the other does not; or they may both experience it but on different levels. This can be explained via individual differences like demographics, personality or personal perception of the conditions.

Demographics have been widely studied in burnout literature (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Research has claimed that women experienced burnout more than men, single employees experienced it more than the married, the young ones experienced it more than the old ones and as the education level increased, so did the burnout level (cited in Sağlam Arı & Çına Bal, 2008). Age, marital status, number of children, personal expectations, differences in personal perceptions, motivation, personality, performance, problems in private life can be examples of individual factors.

Experience of burnout is also related to what kind of personal characteristics a person possesses and how (s)he can use these personal resources. This is why personality may also determine how the employee copes with burnout. For example, accepting the

changing conditions and trying to adapt to them (openness to change) are important personal qualifications that may help to cope with factors that may lead to burnout (Tümkaya, 2001). Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling (2009) carried out a meta-analysis about the personality-burnout relationship and found that self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive and negative affectivity, optimism, proactive personality and hardiness were related to burnout. Their findings suggested that burnout and personality had a strong relationship. Similarly, McCranie & Brandsma (1988) revealed that higher burnout scores were significantly correlated with MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory) scales of low self-esteem, feelings of inadequacy, dysphoria, obsessive worry, passivity, social anxiety, and withdrawal from others.

2.2.4.2 Organizational and Occupational Factors

Organizational and occupational factors contributing to burnout can be related to working conditions or psychological environment of organizations.

Working conditions leading to burnout may involve insufficient organizational resources together with high or increasing performance expectations, workload, long working hours, management pressure, technological advancement, organizational culture, inadequate organizational communication, lack of organizational standards, poor physical conditions, underpaid labor, emotional or sexual harassment at work, little or no career opportunities, inability to participate in decision making processes, inadequate training and rewards, perceived injustice and occupational safety (Ardıç & Polatçı, 2008; Barutçu & Serinkan, 2008). Tuuli & Karisalmi (1999) added that workplace conflict, job demands, and monotony on the job were also related to burnout, where psychological job demands and conflict have the highest association. Lloyd, King, & Chenoweth (2002) mentioned a lack of challenge, low work autonomy and difficulty of providing services as factors related to burnout. Leiter and Maslach, in their 2001 study, emphasized control, reward, workload, fairness, values, and community as predictors of burnout.

Stress is one of the important aspects of the psychological environment. Limited and reasonable stress can improve performance but when it is continuous, it may lead to burnout and its outcomes such as physical and psychological problems (Maslach, 1982), reduced satisfaction and intention to quit (Firth et al., 2004). There are different types of role stress such as role overload (inability to meet the expectations of the role); role ambiguity (lack of clarity about demands of the role) and role conflict (conflicting demands about the job by all or some of the related parties) (Kahn et al., 1964). In a study on entrepreneurs, role stress was found to be positively related to burnout (and burnout, in turn, was negatively related to organizational commitment, organizational satisfaction, and relative perceived firm performance) (Shepherd et al., 2010). Lee & Ashforth (1996) also claimed that factors like workload, role stress, and role conflict strongly predicted burnout.

The psychological environment may also include a lack of balance between job demands and job skills, no or low levels of job control, a mismatch between resources/demands and job reality as some of the contributing factors for burnout and other job related mental health problems (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Maslach & Leiter (1997) added loss of control and conflicting values as factors related to public school administrators' burnout.

Some jobs are more prone to an experience of burnout by definition. So, occupational factors contributing to burnout primarily focused on the inherent characteristic of the jobs. One of these inherent characteristics is the level of interaction. Frequent interactions with people like colleagues, managers, and customers generally pave the way to burnout since they necessitate emotion management, in other words, emotional labor. There is an abundance of studies that relate emotional labor to burnout and support the view that emotional labor predicts burnout.

2.3 The Relationship between Emotional Labor and Burnout

The relationship of emotional labor and burnout can be grouped under; (a) The imbalance between emotional demands and job skills; (b) The imbalance between emotional demands and job resources; (c) The characteristics of people-interactions at work and (d) Accumulated stress-related effects of emotion management.

Firstly, emotional display rules demand extra effort from employees to fulfill the requirements of a job. In case these people lack the skills to manage their emotions effectively and act in accordance with the emotional display rules, a gap between job demands and job skills occurs. This imbalance causes stress on employees who have to control their emotions and display them according to organizational goals but cannot. Asforth & Humphrey (1993) claimed that when the employees felt their efforts to display expected emotions were not adequate and effective for customers, feelings of reduced personal accomplishment, which is a dimension of burnout, result. The more employees need to regulate emotions and emotional responses, the more they may decide to detach from people (which means depersonalization, another dimension of burnout). This is a kind of strategy to escape from the emotional strain caused by interactions. If the emotional distance is kept while interacting with people, their psychological effects on the individual will become less influential (Hochschild, 1983).

In other occasions, there is a gap between organizational resources available to employees and increasing emotion management expectations of the organization. This gap may be caused by a lack of management support, a lack of clear guidance about priorities of the job (financial/monetary demands vs emotional demands), insufficient training and all these may contribute to high burnout levels. In cases where employees are not fully trained about organization's and customers' emotional expectations, they are more likely to fail at expected work results. They may also lack training, guidance, and knowledge about emotion management tools and techniques, resulting in negative consequences such as burnout. A study on police officers found that when they were asked to suppress their responses to

mournful or pitiful events, this resulted in less empathy and connection with people - which is in line with depersonalization dimension of burnout - (Pogrebin & Poole, 1995). When an individual finds the emotional demands of the job too heavy and starts to depersonalize, then (s)he may also experience reduced personal accomplishment (another dimension of burnout). So, these police officers should have been taught a way to cope with these emotions in a more constructive and healthy way. Unless the organizations can find a way to drain the emotional burden on employees and train them about healthy emotion management and release techniques, they have to bear the explicit and implicit cost of employee burnout.

Thirdly, some professions are more demanding in terms of people interactions and require a considerable level of emotional labor on a regular basis. This creates stress for employees and when stress is continuous, it has been linked to burnout (Maslach, 1982). Hence, researchers emphasized the characteristics of employees' interactions with people as one of the predictors of burnout. Morris & Feldman (1996) proposed a positive relationship of burnout with frequency, duration, intensity, variety of emotional labor and emotional dissonance. One aspect of customer interactions is the duration of the interaction. It may be predicted that longer interactions with customers may lead to higher emotional labor, and hence higher levels of burnout since such kind of long interactions create a prolonged and continuous emotional pressure on employees. Supporting this prediction, Cordes & Dougherty in their study (1993) reported that longer interactions with people were related to higher burnout. This may be because: (1) Longer emotional displays are generally less scripted and less routine so they ask for greater attention and effort. (2) There is a higher exchange of information between employee and the correspondent making it harder to avoid real feelings (Smith, 1992). Another aspect of interactions is the intensity of emotions. Since intense emotions are generally difficult to fake, jobs involving the display of intense emotions may require more effort which, in turn, may lead to work-related stress outcomes. Frequency of customer interactions is another aspect. Grandey (2000) claimed that when an employee was required to regulate emotions repeatedly, (s)he might experience emotional exhaustion, energy depletion, and fatigue. These, in turn, lead to higher levels of burnout.

Finally, emotion management processes result in accumulated stress leading to burnout. That is because continuous emotion management can be emotionally exhausting and alienating for employees, and the possibility of being unable to satisfy customers may turn into reduced levels of personal accomplishment. The contradiction between the felt and displayed emotion or the effort to align these yield stress or stress-related outcomes (Abraham, 1998; Pugliesi, 1999). According to Brotheridge & Grandey (2002), the cause of such negative outcomes is the internal tension and psychological effort of suppressing true feelings.

In the literature, there is proof for a positive relationship between emotional labor and burnout (Bartram et al., 2012; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 1999; Heuven & Bakker, 2003; Uysal, 2007; Yıldırım & Erul, 2013; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Latest meta-analyses found that emotional labor mostly related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (cited in Eroğlu, 2014). However, there is also research which found a relationship between emotional labor and all three dimensions of burnout (e.g. Chang & Chiu, 2009; Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001; Zapf et al., 2001). According to Grandey (2003), there are two reasons for this relationship: Tension created by the emotional dissonance and the depletion of individual's resources as an outcome of chronic emotion management.

A considerable amount of research focuses on the dimensions of emotional labor and burnout; as the relationship can differ based on which emotional labor strategy is adopted. There are two theories which help to explain the relationship between these two concepts: *"Action Theory"* (Zapf, 2002) and *"Conservation of Resources Theory"* (Hobfoll, 1989).

According to the Action Theory; surface acting does not require the use of psychological resources whereas deep acting requires intense use of these resources. Hence, deep acting leads to higher burnout levels where surface acting may not be related to burnout. There is research supporting this perspective. For example, some research found that there is no or negative relationship between surface acting and burnout (Chu, 2002; Köksel, 2009;

Yürür & Ünlü, 2011). Parallelly, deep acting is found to be positively related to burnout in some studies (Chang & Chiu, 2009; Çaldağ, 2010). Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) provided the argument that deep acting required more effort compared to surface acting as the employee tries to think about positive things to trigger positive feelings, and it requires intense use of emotional resources leading to depersonalization and sense of reduced personal accomplishment.

According to the Conservation of Resources Theory, a possible decrease in resources such as objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energies results in stress and burnout in the long run. Based on this perspective, surface acting uses these resources more than deep acting due to emotional dissonance experienced. In other words, the mismatch between emotion felt and emotion displayed creates tension and depletes emotional resources. There is an abundance of research claiming that surface acting leads to burnout (Alper Ay & Türkdoğan, 2018; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Noor & Zainuddin, 2011; Näring, Briët, & Brouwer, 2006; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Surface acting is especially found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions (Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Eroğlu, 2014; Furnell, 2008; Grandey, 1999; Köksel, 2009; Montgomery & Panagopolou, 2006). On the other hand, this perspective says that deep acting may not necessarily result in burnout. The possible reasons are; there is no internal tension created by emotional dissonance; it may result in a sense of personal accomplishment since it is perceived as genuine by others and elicits positive reactions, and it may enable refilling of the emotional resources since it helps to invoke positive emotions and high morale. Some of the emotional labor studies suggested that deep acting is not related to burnout (Grandey, 1999; Noor & Zainuddin, 2011); or it is only related to -reduced- personal accomplishment and not related to emotional exhaustion (Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Eroğlu, 2014; Furnell, 2008; Grandey, 2003; Lapointe et al., 2012; Oral & Köse, 2011).

To sum up, there is not a 100% consensus on the direction of the relationship between emotional labor and burnout since it may differ based on which emotional labor

strategy is adopted. However, many studies have mainly suggested that emotional labor, especially with its surface acting dimension, had a positive relationship with burnout. As deep acting requires much more effort to initiate, it is assumed that people largely adopt the surface acting strategy and are more prone to experiencing burnout. So, it is proposed that the negative effect of emotional labor will outweigh its positive effect. Therefore, in the current research it is hypothesized that;

H1: There is a positive relationship between employees' emotional labor and burnout levels.

As Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) suggested, there are several variables which influence individual and organizational outcomes of employees' emotional labor process. To gain an understanding of the organizational environment in which the employee acts, several factors may be investigated. For example, Grandey (2000) mentioned some organizational factors (autonomy, supervisor support, and coworker support) and individual factors (gender, emotional expressivity, emotional intelligence, and affectivity) which might influence the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences like burnout. In the literature, there is research about several more individual and organizational variables that may have an effect on this relationship. Humor styles, on the other hand, have not been investigated as one of these variables. However, the humor style one prefers can change the way (s)he perceives and appraises circumstances which induce emotions; the way (s)he interacts with people and how (s)he copes with different situations. Hence, in this current research, humor styles will be examined as an individual factor that may affect the relationship between emotional labor and burnout.

2.4 Humor

Humor has a long history both with its practice in daily life and as a subject of interest. Although humor has a long history and it is a very popular term frequently used in everyday life, it is surprisingly challenging to define and clarify it.

2.4.1 History and Definition of Humor

Some authors stated that philosophers and theologists were among the first people discussing humor (Carrell, 2008; Morreall, 2008). Other researchers stated that psychological research on humor had the oldest traces (Raskin, 2008). Psychological research about humor is important since it takes into account not only what humor is but also individual issues such as humor production or humor appreciation. Ruch (2008, p. 19) claimed: *"As psychology is concerned with people, the view onto humor will be made from the individual's perspective; e.g. the phenomena associated with responding to or creating humor and not a description of humor itself"*.

The psychological interest in humor began in the early 1900s. Martin (1998) stated that the 20th century enjoyed a growing interest in humor by psychologists. Fry (2002, p.305) supported this claim saying that *"More research in humor psychology has been conducted during the final quarter of the 20th century than during any previously recorded period in the human adventure"*. Majority of them emphasized aspects of humor which were positive for physical, psychological and social well-being and health (Lefcourt, 2001; Martin, 2001). Current psychodynamic interests accept humor as an adaptive defense mechanism. Interest in humor is expected to continue due to increasing awareness of its function in daily life and workplace, and due to ongoing interest in concepts such as well-being and positive psychology.

Since humor was not studied scientifically till the 1980s, not the concept of humor itself but humor research may be considered as a new field. However, there is no specific research field for humor, as Raskin (2008, p. 3) stated: *"There are no full-time humor researchers in the world"*. Our knowledge of humor flows from several fields and each field brings its own approach to humor. Those who tried to define humor projected their own values, world views, and ideologies onto the subject. For example, philosophers thought that humor was a world view or a philosophical attitude toward life (Ruch, 1998). This may be the reason why the definition of humor has not been agreed upon by the researchers yet.

Besides, it has been a topic of debate if humor is a positive or negative phenomenon. Moralists generally considered humor to be a negative phenomenon, whereas humanists only considered humor in terms of its positive aspects. Carrell (2008, p. 306) stated: *"While the definitions of humor abound and circle, like a wagon train, around the term; there is still no precise agreement on exactly what is meant by humor, and there may well never be"*.

In addition to numerous perspectives and definitions, the ways and approaches to studying it are also numerous. Some studies examine humor in pieces of art, funny materials produced or mainstream media. Some studies emphasize the effect of the humor on the recipient of humor material, claiming that nothing is inherently humorous but it is the recipient's reaction which decides if it is funny or not. Psychological studies have focused on issues like what people find humorous and which factors are more prone to result in humor. Some researchers avoid defining humor entirely.

Obviously, humor is a multi-faceted and complicated concept that includes physical, behavioral, sensual, social and cognitive elements (Martin, 2004). Laughter and smiles can be considered among physical elements of humor. Joking and witting can be considered as behaviors. Humor creates an emotional state on the person (sensual element) and since it is mostly experienced and shared with other people, it has a social dimension. An incongruity or an ironic joke requires a cognitive effort and resolution and this constitutes the cognitive element.

Despite the above-discussed difficulties, there are several humor definitions in the literature. However, individual attempts generally exclude some aspect of it. For example, Holmes & Mara (2002, p. 67) defined it as *"utterances which are … intended by the speaker(s) to be amusing and perceived to be amusing by at least some participants".* This definition mentions utterances and speakers and hence limits humor to verbal cases but this excludes other types (such as situational or physical humor). Martineau (1972) made a humor definition as *"any communicative instance which is perceived as humorous"* but it seems circular. Crawford (1994) defined it as: *"Humor consists of nonverbal and verbal*

communications which produce a positive cognitive or affective response from listeners". These definitions include nonverbal communication of humor as well but their limitation is that they confine it to a positive reaction only. Romero and Cruthirds attempted to combine these two definitions in their 2006 study but they also accepted their assumption that humor is considered funny by all parties in the exchange. Cooper (2005, pp. 766-767) defined humor as *"any event shared by an agent with another individual (i.e. a target) that is intended to be amusing to the target and that the target perceives as an intentional act"*. This definition solves the problem of involving positive outcomes only, saying that although humorous content is intended to be amusing, it may not be found amusing by the audience. However, this definition excludes the unintentional cases of humor like laughing at someone who slips on the floor.

To sum up, most of the attempts to define humor has lacked a critical aspect of it. So, instead of an effort to form a general and comprehensive definition of humor, explaining basic concepts related to humor (such as the sense of humor, humor comprehension, humor appreciation, and humor production) individually and briefly may be more helpful in understanding it.

Sense of humor is defined by Martin & Lefcourt (1983) as *"the frequency in which individuals produce or display humor in a variety of life situations"*. Meyer (1990) defined the sense of humor as an activity (whether it was verbal or non-verbal) that elicited a positive response (whether it was emotional or cognitive) from the listeners. The term sense of humor refers to humor *"as a stable personality trait or individual difference variable"* (Ruch, 1998, as cited in Martin et al., 2003). According to Cann & Colette (2014), sense of humor is like *"…a lens through which the world is viewed"*.

Sense of humor includes (a) humor comprehension and (b) humor production. These aspects also have dimensions. For example, humor comprehension is a prerequisite for humor appreciation and humor production has dimensions of (a) production fluency and (b) production success.

Humor comprehension is basically understanding humor as meant by the initiator, in other words, it means *"getting the joke"*. It is a complicated cognitive activity which requires a series of stages like incongruity detection and incongruity resolution. This process ends up in an insight moment when the person gets it and says *"A-haa!"* (Tian et al., 2017). **Humor appreciation** is the ability to evaluate a joke or wit as good or bad. In other words, it is how funny a joke is perceived after getting it. So, humor comprehension is required in the first place for humor appreciation. **Humor production** is producing humor that is comprehended and appreciated by people (Kohler & Ruch, 1996). It also has various components, such as (a) **Production Fluency** which means how many jokes or wits are created (b) **Production Success** which means how enjoyable the produced jokes or wits are perceived by people.

Humor is an important means of interpersonal communication. Although it is deeply individualistic when an individual who possesses a sense of humor is mentioned, humor occurs within the social context. So, it is inherently social, too. Therefore, some researchers examined humor from an interpersonal perspective. As this research investigates the use of humor in the workplace settings, it is important to consider both the intrapsychic and interpersonal (social) aspects of it. Martin et al. (2003) examined different styles of humor using both of these perspectives. The following part discusses different humor styles based on Martin et al.'s (2003) model and takes this model as the ground for humor styles discussion.

2.4.2 Martin et al.'s (2003) Humor Styles Model and the Dimensions

Humor reflects the human aspects like dominance, pressure, aggression on one hand, and connection, joy, sharing and intimacy on the other (Westwood & Rhodes, 2007). Due to this, a humor model should also embrace all these aspects to give a complete picture of the use of humor in social settings like the workplaces.

Based on observation and experience, one can see that some forms of humor (including affiliative or perspective-taking humor) may contribute to the psychological and

social life of people, whereas other humor styles such as sarcastic, disparaging, or avoidant humor may be deleterious (Martin et al., 2003). So, it is important to consider both the beneficial and detrimental ways in which individuals use humor when they are alone or in groups in their daily lives. Also, in addition to examining the existing humor styles used, the implicit impact of non-existing humor styles should also be taken into consideration. In terms of psychological well-being, the non-existence of harmful uses of humor may be as influential as the existence of healthy uses of humor (Martin et al., 2003). Although it is obvious in terms of observation, the conceptualization of humor did not change radically until 2003. In 2003, Martin, Puhlik-Doris, Larsen, Gray, & Weir questioned the existing definitions of humor and asked if humor was only a positive construct. Their questioning of the concept stemmed from inconsistent relations of humor with different psychological, physical or social well-being concepts in the research field. They argued that since there was no comprehensive model and measure, the humor studies had not provided consistent results.

The first difference of their model was that the model took into account the aim an individual uses humor for. Humor may be utilized (a) to support the self and/or (b) to support others or relationships with others. To support the self includes humor as a coping or defense mechanism. Since humor is used here as a personal defense, the intrapsychic aspect of humor is taken into consideration (Martin et al., 2003; as cited in Yerlikaya, 2007). Humor used by an individual to contribute to his/her relationships with others is about the interpersonal aspect of humor. This includes the use of humor for making others feel good, facilitating interpersonal communication, reducing conflict, strengthening relational bonds and increasing social attractiveness. This is also related to increasing morale of the members of a group, strengthening group identity and cohesiveness, reinforcing group norms and creating a positive atmosphere (Martineau, 1972). The second difference of the model is the distinction between beneficial (or positive) and detrimental (or negative) uses of humor. Humor can be used by an individual either as welcoming, tolerant and connecting; or harming, hostile and detrimental to self and others.

These two distinctions form the quadrant in Figure 3 which has two sides: (a) humor that is relatively beneficial (positive) to the self or to one's relations with other people and (b) humor which is detrimental (negative) to the self or to one's relations with other people.

	Directed at Self (Intrapsychic)	**Directed at Others (Interpersonal)**
Beneficial (Positive)	Self-Enhancing	Affiliative
Detrimental (Negative)	Self-Defeating	Aggressive

Figure 3: Martin et al.'s (2003) Humor Styles Model

Martin et al. (2003) formed The Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ) to measure these dimensions. Affiliative Humor and Self-Enhancing Humor were proposed to be positively related to well-being; whereas Aggressive Humor and Self-Defeating Humor were proposed to be negatively related to well-being. Although Martin et al. (2003) and other researchers used several categorizations for these styles like "beneficial-detrimental", "adaptive-maladaptive", conducive to well-being–deleterious to well-being"; in this current study, "positive-negative" categorization is mostly used.

2.4.2.1 Self-Enhancing Humor

In the face of stressful or threatening events in life, people may feel psychologically intimidated if they believe they lack enough resources to cope with these conditions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). One way to reduce this threat and ease the situation is to reappraise it in a more positive way. A good sense of humor can enable this kind of positive reframing (Lefcourt, 2001). This humor style requires a humorous perception of experiences. A person who uses this style frequently makes fun of absurdities and hassles of life and tries to keep the humorous perspective even when confronted with difficult conditions (Kuiper, Martin, & Olinger, 1993). Self-enhancing humor is similar to other concepts in the literature like coping-humor and perspective-taking humor. It is also in line with the use of humor as a tool for emotion regulation. This humor style is also used to cope with stress (Lefcourt & Martin,

1986) or as a psychological defense tool (Freud, 1928). It is also used as a way to feel control and mastery against adversity or threat (Obrdlik, 1942; Ziv, 1984).

The conceptualization of this style is compatible with Freud's (1928) claim that humor may be a psychological defense tool which helps to avoid negative emotions and promote positive emotions. This humor style has a more personal rather than a social emphasis and involves the management of negative emotions through cognitive change strategy.

2.4.2.2 Affiliative Humor

This style of humor is generally related to extraversion, cheerfulness, self-esteem, intimacy, relationship satisfaction, and positive moods and emotions. People who prefer the affiliative humor style generally tell jokes and engage in funny actions to make others have fun and relieve tensions (Lefcourt, 2001). Martin et al. (2003, p.53) stated that this style was *"an essentially non-hostile, tolerant use of humor that is affirming of self and others and presumably enhances interpersonal cohesiveness and attraction"*. Engaging in affiliative humor, people try to avoid having negative emotions and they are likely to have more positive emotions. These people are generally popular and valued as friends because they entertain others and create a positive atmosphere. They can also solve conflict and use humor to ease the reactions of people they are in conflict with.

People who use affiliative humor generally respect others' and their own boundaries, thereby do not cross the socially acceptable lines. This style of humor generally honors the object of humor and strengthens the social bonds between people who are involved in.

2.4.2.3 Self-Defeating Humor

A person can use humor in a self-deprecating way to protect oneself from being scorned or looked down on by others. This style involves attempts to entertain other people by making oneself the material of humor, in other words, disparaging oneself humorously to

make others have fun. Martin et al., (2003, p.54) stated that it involved *"self-disparaging humor, attempts to amuse others by doing or saying funny things at one's own expense as a means of ingratiating oneself or gaining approval, allowing oneself to be the butt of others' humor, and laughing along with others when being ridiculed or disparaged"*. Self-defeating humor may also serve as a tool for denial, suppression of negative feelings or avoidance to face problems (Kubie, 1971).

Sometimes people may use this humor style to ease the impact of their status or hierarchical rank and give the impression of congeniality (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). For example, some leaders in organizations intentionally and moderately make jokes or wits at their own expense as a communication strategy and try to send the message that they are humble and sincere. People who frequently use this humor style may also try to give the impression that they are self-confident and comfortable in their skin so much that they feel free to laugh at themselves. However, this humor style is generally a disguise for emotional neediness, avoidance, and low self-esteem (Fabrizi & Pollio, 1987).

2.4.2.4 Aggressive Humor

Zillman (1983) stated that this style involved intentions of sarcasm, teasing, ridicule and derision. It may aim to victimize, belittle, disparage (Zillman, 1983) or manipulate (Janes & Olsen, 2000). People who often use this style do not take into consideration the negative effects of it on other individuals (Common examples of it can be sexist or racist humor). These people mostly cannot resist the urge to mock other people and do not consider the result of this mocking (Martin et al., 2003). When a person uses this style of humor, (s)he is likely to feel good at the expense of another person and generally tries to acquire power or status.

Apart from Martin et al.'s four humor styles, Romero & Cruthirds (2006) proposed a level of aggressive humor called *"mild aggressive humor"* which may have positive functions. Mild aggressive humor can enable a person to give a warning or threatening message in a positive and relatively non-threatening package (Martineau, 1972). It also

enables people to reveal disagreement and opposition without creating great tension since the message is hidden under a humorous disguise (Kahn, 1989).

As in the example of mild aggressive humor, people may use these humor styles to changing degrees or in blended ways. It is also possible to use them on a situational basis. Moreover, adaptive and maladaptive uses of humor lie on a continuum, rather than being the two edges of a dichotomy. For example, in order to support group cohesiveness, members of the group can use aggressive humor against members of a rival group and it acts as a glue for members of the group. Affiliative humor may include subtle teasing or joking on other members of one's own group and may involve mild-aggressive elements. Or, self-defeating humor may also include hidden aggressive messages to those who are similar to the person making the self-defeating jokes. These styles may not be covering all possible types but they are comprehensive enough to grasp the daily use of humor.

Martin et al.'s (2003) conceptualization of humor contributed to humor studies. Firstly, it integrated positive and negative styles within the same model. Secondly, it considered both personal and social aspects together. Lastly, it clarified the indicating behaviors and actions of each of humor style.

2.4.3 Humor in the Workplace

In February 2019, news sites such as Daily Mail (www.dailymail.co.uk, 2019) announced that NASA was looking for funny astronauts to send on a mission to Mars which was planned to happen in the 2030s. The reason for this search was that the journey was planned to last for two years and such a long time in a very limited space was very challenging for human psychology. Jeffrey Johnson, the Advisor of NASA's Human Exploration Research Analog (a project which studies how teams can handle extreme cases of isolation), explained the need in the following sentences:

> *"Groups work best when they have somebody who takes on the role of class clown. These are people that have the ability to pull everyone*

together, bridge gaps when tensions appear and really boost morale. We can all think of the person at work who fulfills this role, who makes us laugh and makes the job more enjoyable. People like being around them. When you are living with others in a confined space for a long period of time, such as on a mission to Mars, tensions are likely to fray. It is vital you have somebody who can help everyone get along so they can do their jobs and get there and back safely. It is mission critical."

Jeffrey Johnson is, at the same time, a professor of Anthropology at the University of Florida and in the past, he also studied on the groups which explored Antarctica. He observed how positive humor can play a crucial role under extreme conditions. He said:

"There are people who are loving and laughable and jovial and endearing, and therefore bring people together. But others who are cruel. When I worked at the South Pole station there was lots of cruel behavior. There's a difference between button pushing and being funny. It's better to become a mascot -get taken in by the group and loved."

The above announcement from NASA stunningly displays the importance of humor at work. Even in the most radical workplace setting, such as a space ship, humor is a critical contributor to success. In the year 2019, this is an ordinary idea which is easy to accept. However, this was not always the case. The early organizational approach excluded human aspects like humor from the work settings. Collinson (2002, p. 276) quoted Henry Ford saying: *"When we are at work we ought to be at work. When we are at play we ought to be at play. There is no use trying to mix the two"*. Things have changed much since then. Currently, it is easier to agree on the fact that people, as human beings, bring aspects of their humanity to work. Although it still has a way to go in practice, the function of humor at work has gained importance between the days of Fordism which remained aloof from humor and the days of NASA looking for funny people in space crews.

Studies of humor in organizational settings began with Bradney (1957) who carried out a study with the sales teams in a department store. She suggested that joking relieved tension and avoided disagreements. It also provided positive enjoyment as people carried out their routine tasks. She worked as a sales assistant in a department store and observed that there was a conflict of interest among sales assistants which resulted in a tendency for hostility. However, they also had to sustain their relationships since they were working together. Humor and joking helped them to reduce tension and sustain their relationships.

Lundberg (1969, p.28) stated the social role of humor in the workplace as; *"In the context of stable human organizations, person-focused joking incidents seem to fulfill a social function; namely that joking defines and redefines the differentiated social grouping, reinforces the ranking of group members, both within and among groups, and clarifies the status of one group to another".* Parallelly, research argues that humor has an effect on building group cohesiveness (Duncan, 1982), status and power (Smeltzer & Leap, 1988) and communication between group members (Winick, 1976).

In 1972, Martineau proposed a model which considered intragroup and intergroup settings and included types of (1) within-group humor (2) inter-group humor. He argued that humor could facilitate interactions and relationships but it could also provoke interpersonal and intragroup relations. His model proposed that consensus, conflict, and control might be the social functions of humor.

Malone (1980) emphasized the practical function of humor and said that humor could be used to increase the work satisfaction and productivity of people at work. Malone also made recommendations to managers about how they could use humor to build cohesive work groups. These recommendations included; recognizing the individual, recognizing the group power and influence, ensuring the trust in manager's objectivity and sense of justice, encouraging the exchange of humor between people.

To sum up, human beings are the economy's greatest resource and work is carried out through their interactions. If their interactions can be facilitated by humor, this resource

will be nurtured. Malone (1980, p.360) clearly formulated it, saying *"Humor is a virtually undeveloped resource that could be used to enhance the work satisfaction and productivity of human beings"*.

2.4.4 Consequences of Humor

As can be seen in the previous discussions, most researchers are inclined to assume that humor is favorable on both individual/micro level and organizational/macro level. In line with Martin et al.'s (2003) approach, humor may have both positive and negative influences on self and relations. It can enable or, contrarily, harm reaching organizational goals.

2.4.4.1 Negative Consequences

2.4.4.1.1 Negative Organizational Consequences

If certain limits are disregarded on behalf of humor, negative consequences come into the scene. These limits include social and personal boundaries, such as race, gender, sexuality, and power. Jokes about these issues can easily turn into cases of workplace harassment. Romero & Cruthirds (2006, p.64-65) stated that *"The humor initiator must be aware of the audience's composition because humor that is expressed at the expense of another person or group will tend to alienate that person or group"*. Racist and gender-based jokes, insulting statements, scorning, mocking and teasing exemplify the use of humor which is likely to result in undesired outcomes. In fact, negative humor may cost very much to organizations which have lawsuits as a result of sexist, racist, and ethnic humor (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). This extreme cost is generally the reputation of the organization. To sum up, when humor is perceived as harassment, it can lead to reputation loss, productivity loss, and employee loss -turnover- (Duncan, Smelzer, & Leap, 1990).

A joke can make a person laugh while alienating another (Maples et al., 2001). If humor crosses the line intentionally or unintentionally, relationships may get hurt and social structure of a group will be harmed. Also, repression, humiliation, degradation, and distress will come as a result (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). Humor might act as a tool to underline

superiority vs inferiority. This kind of use aims to maintain the distance between leaders and others (Yarwood, 1995). Humor can also be used to ensure social hierarchy as in the cases of ethnic and political humor.

Malevolent attempts to boost humor in an organization is likely to fail. Managers may try to use humor for aims such as group cohesiveness; but if they are perceived to be fake, their good intentions backfire. Collinson (2002, p. 278) pointed out, *"when managers artificially incorporate joking into their control practices, they reduce humor to a manipulated commodity"*. This is the same case with emotions. If customers perceive that someone is faking, the effort for emotion regulation works against the organization. In parallel, if employees perceive that managers are faking, the effort for humor works against management. Westwood & Rhodes (2007) also warned that the workplace humor could be used as a means of control in a manipulative way. When humor is used malevolently, it becomes a means of *"resistance and subversion"* by working against the authority (Vogler, 2011). So, manipulative or studied acts of humor tend to result in negative consequences.

2.4.4.1.2 Negative Individual Consequences

Personal negative consequences are not much emphasized in the humor literature. However, some kinds of humor may impede employees' performance, cause emotional stress, and sometimes result in physical conflict. As a result, employees get psychologically and even physically hurt. Generally, negative styles of humor are related to the negative consequences. For example, aggressive humor is positively related to hostility and aggression, and negatively related to relationship satisfaction; where self-defeating humor is positively related to psychological distress and dysfunction (depression, anxiety, etc.), and negatively related to psychological well-being (Samson & Gross, 2012). Çetin (2009) found in his study that aggressive humor style was negatively related to job-related positive affective well-being; positively related to job-related negative affective well-being and self-defeating humor style was positively related to job-related negative affective well-being.

Some studies have interesting results showing that positive use of humor can also be related to negative outcomes. For example, in a study by Friedman et al. (1993), high cheerfulness was correlated with high mortality rates (at the age of twelve). Authors assumed that it might be a result of lower concern about health risks. According to Romero & Cruthirds (2006), individuals who use too much humor (including the positive use of humor) have a risk of being perceived as unreliable or untrustworthy. This can be a result of the perception that people who continuously joke around or laugh a lot are unserious or reckless.

2.4.4.2 Positive Consequences

2.4.4.2.1 Positive Organizational Consequences

As a subtle but strong factor of organizational culture, humor helps to create a favorable work environment of sharing and affiliation. Romero & Cruthirds (2006, p.59) stated: *"Organizational humor consisted of amusing communications that produce positive emotions and cognitions in the individual, group, or organization"*. So, humor can support relationships (Cann & Calhoun, 2001) and contribute to sustaining the social harmony in the workplaces. In this sense, Vogler (2011) thought that humor was a kind of *"social lubricant"*. The resulting harmony and unity enable higher productivity in the organizations.

Workplace context has been evolving fastly in recent years. Traditional roles, structures, and technology are changing significantly for the last twenty-five years (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008) and change often comes with its challenges and stress. Humor is often claimed to be a powerful change-management tool (Morreall, 1997). In the horizontal organizations with less power distance, humor may serve to reduce the social distance between leaders and followers (and it is important to note the reverse is also true for hierarchical organizations). As the hierarchy dissolves, people at work need to learn new ways of interaction. Positive humor helps to enhance the interactions in this new work setting.

The use of humor for maintaining hierarchy and control was discussed in the "Organizational Negative Consequences" part. However, this may be considered positive in

specific work settings. Forming and sustaining hierarchical relations can be desired for some occupations such as military roles. In such occupations, high-ranking people tend to use humor to exert power and they usually choose low-ranking people as the object of humor (Coser, 1959). This may serve to elicit compliance and obedience (Dwyer, 1991). This may be, in some cases, a desired result for the organizational power relationships. However, the effects of such humor on individuals should be considered.

Humor can improve creativity as humor requires complex cognitive skills which are also critical for the creation of new ideas. Thinking outside the box generally goes together with humor capabilities. Avolio, Howell, & Sosik (1999) and Caudron (1992) suggested that humor was related to higher performance.

Humor is also useful as a communication tool. Wrapping complex messages, deep feelings, opposing views in a humorous style enables to reduce tension and it is useful when critical or negative messages should be delivered in a smooth way (Holmes & Marra, 2002). For Collinson (2002, p.270) *"jocularity is a medium for communicating sometimes quite serious messages"*.

2.4.4.2.2 Positive Individual Consequences

Humor is seen as a tool which supports psychological and physical health (Ford, McLaughlin, & Newstrom, 2004; Morreall, 2008). It also serves individuals in their social relationships.

As to the emotional and psychological benefits; the relation of humor with subjective well-being, stress level, and burnout has been investigated and a considerable amount of research claims that humor contributes to employees' psychological well-being (Aslan et al., 1996; Durmuş, 2000; Martin et al., 2003). Humor may act as an important coping mechanism for dealing with life problems and hassles (Lefcourt et al., 1997). Humor also reduces the harmful impact of stress (Abel, 1998) since it helps to reframe a situation and interpret it more positively. Hence, an increased sense of humor means a greater ability

to deal with life (Kuiper, McKenzie, & Belanger, 1995). Humor reduces stress and boosts the performance of individuals (Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012).

Humor has been related to happiness (Ruch, Proyer, & Weber, 2010). Being happy, in turn, is related to healthier relationships, better immune functioning and higher creativity (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005). Reframing stress factors positively using humor and engaging in humor behaviors as a coping tool supports happiness. Through this, humor enhances resilience and resilient people can maintain their well-being more easily in the face of challenges or adversity. Research shows that positive humor types are positively related to concepts such as self-respect, positive emotions, and optimism, and negatively related to concepts such as depression and anxiety.

In terms of physical benefits, individuals who use humor more frequently are advantageous. Physical benefits can be seen in short-run or long-run. Short term benefits involve moving many of the muscles in the body and triggering physical relaxation as a result of laughter; increased oxygen flow into the body filling the body with energy and stimulation of internal organs as a result of laughter. Cousins (1979) stated that laughing had the effects of *"internal jogging"*. Twenty seconds of intense laughing is similar to three minutes of rowing for the heart (Rahmani, 1994). Long term benefits include the positive effects on the vital systems. For example, humor is related to a healthier immune system (Fry, 1992).

Socially, Graham (1995) claimed that people who use humor had an advantage over people who do not use humor that much. Positive humor serves as a facilitator in social relationships in which individuals feel positive. Theal (2017) cited that Victor Borge (the famous Danish comedian, pianist, and conductor) emphasized the link between humor and emotional intimacy; claimed that sense of humor connected people, and said: *"Laughter is the shortest distance between two people*". Vaillant (2000) suggested that humor allowed to reveal emotions through reduced negative effects on self and on others. Moreover, people with a higher sense of humor are perceived to have more positive characteristics than those

with a lower sense of humor (Cann & Calhoun, 2001). So, humor is a means of achieving healthy relationships and an advantageous position within these relationship matrices.

2.5 Effects of Humor Styles on the Relationship between Emotional Labor and Burnout

There have been dissertation studies in recent years which included emotional labor, burnout, and humor or sense of humor as variables (e.g. Hsing, 2012; Wan, 2008). Besides, much of humor research has studied the moderating role of humor or sense of humor on stress and other well-being concepts. However, as far as the researcher knows, there is no specific research attempt that studies the effect of Martin et al.'s (2003) humor styles on the relationship between emotional labor and burnout and this is supposed to be the contribution of this research.

The effort to fulfill emotional demands at work is likely to consume individuals' inner resources and result in job burnout. It is possible that positive styles of humor can bring along personal and social resources to buffer the relationship between emotional labor and burnout. Socially, humor helps people to share their emotions and experiences with each other and therefore it is a critical factor in understanding the establishment of relationships. Martin et al. (2003) claimed that humor contributed to forming social connections and sustaining them. Personally, humor helps people to adopt a healthy attitude towards stressful situations. This enables experiencing the situation (instead of suppressing or avoiding it) while preventing emotional discomfort. Lefcourt et al. (1997) found that individuals who used humor were not hurt by stressful conditions. Kuiper, Martin, & Olinger (1993) claimed that humor could reduce the impact of stress via cognitive appraisal, and stress level was negatively related to humorous coping. Thus, humor seems to be helpful since it enables to reappraise stressful conditions in a healthy manner. Sarı & Aslan (2005) conducted a study with university students and found students who used positive coping styles tended to use positive humor styles as well. When employees are in situations which require emotional labor, they get the material necessary to produce humor and then they use humor to avoid or

cope with negative consequences like burnout. Positive use of humor is supposed to reduce stress (Yovetich, Dale, & Hudak, 1990). A person joking on a stress-generating problem forms a feeling of power and overhaul on the problem (Henman, 2001) and this is likely to reduce stress and anxiety (Smith et al., 1971). Humor reshapes the perception and makes things seem less threatening. As people feel they are less threatened or afraid, they feel more in control (Dixon, 1980). So, it is expected that among employees who face similar levels of emotional labor requirements, those who use positive humor more, may be experiencing quite different levels of burnout.

In the research field, the terms *"humor"* or *"sense of humor"* are generally used with a positive connotation similar to the *"positive humor styles"* in Martin et al.'s approach. Martin & Lefcourt (1983) were the first researchers to study the stress-reducing function of humor. Following their study, many studies (e.g. Abel, 1998; Kuiper, Martin, & Olinger, 1993; Lefcourt et al., 1997) focused on humor-stress relationship and considered humor's positive effects on stress alleviation. These studies (e.g. Kuiper, Martin, & Olinger, 1993; Lefcourt et al., 1997) found evidence that humor had a facilitating effect on coping with stress. Hence, there is a considerable amount of humor research supporting the idea that positive uses of humor may increase well-being (Cann & Colette, 2014; Martin et al., 2003).

In recent years, Wan (2008) studied the relationship between sense of humor, emotional labor, self-esteem, burnout, and job satisfaction. He found that higher sense of humor was related to higher self-esteem and lower burnout, and lower burnout would lead to higher job satisfaction consequently. Hsing (2012) studied the sense of humor as a moderator for the effects of the customer service representatives' emotional labor and job stress on burnout. The results indicated that emotional labor might positively influence both burnout, and job stress. The study found that the sense of humor could moderate the relationship between emotional labor and job stress, and job stress could positively influence burnout. Huang (2012) studied the relationship between emotional labor, job burnout, and job satisfaction. Sense of humor was tested in this study as a moderator between emotional labor and burnout. The results showed that emotional labor was positively related to burnout and

burnout reduced job satisfaction. Moreover, sense of humor played a moderating role on emotional labor-burnout dynamic. These studies resemble the research model of the current study. However, the difference is that they used sense of humor or humor as the moderating variable and this mainly coincides with the positive uses of humor only. Researchers like Meyer (1990) defined sense of humor as an activity that elicited a positive response. However, not all types of humor elicit a positive response. The current research is distinguished in that it acknowledges this, considers humor styles as the moderating variable and examines both positive and negative uses and results of humor.

Positive humor may lead to greater resilience and better psychological health. Also, positive humor styles were found to contribute to higher levels of positive affect (Kuiper, Martin, & Dance, 1992). Crawford & Caltabiano (2011) found that providing training for appropriate humor styles increased positive affect. Beermann & Ruch (2009) stated that positive humor styles were considered as a character strength. Similarly, self-enhancing humor style was related to lower past & future stress and to higher levels of happiness, hope and optimism, whereas self-defeating humor style had a reverse effect (Cann & Etzel, 2008). Cann & Colette (2014) found that self-enhancing humor was positively related to stable positive affect and negatively related to stable negative affect. They also added that stable positive affect increased resilience and psychological well-being. Martin et al. (2003) found that self-enhancing humor correlated with optimism. This may imply that using humor to treat oneself positively brings about a hopeful attitude towards life and its challenges. Martin et al. (2003) also found that affiliative humor was related to interpersonal intimacy and self-enhancing humor was related to satisfaction from social support. This implies that affiliative humor can enable to form and sustain the relationships, but it is self-enhancing humor which determines if the person is satisfied with these relationships or not. Finally, Malinowski (2009) found that self-enhancing humor contributed to and predicted personal accomplishment among mental health therapists.

As proposed previously, emotional labor may lead to burnout since emotional labor requires intense use of emotional resources (Grandey, 2003). This use may result in depleting

these internal resources (emotional exhaustion), avoiding interactions with people or eliminating the emotional aspect of these interactions (depersonalization) and feeling a sense of inefficacy and failure (reduced personal accomplishment) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). On these critical points, positive use of humor may change the game and act as a buffer for the effects of emotional labor on burnout.

Self-enhancing humor serves the self by helping to cope with stressful conditions (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). This humor style may change the effect of emotional demands of the organization on the employee. (S)he can reappraise the situation, see the fun part in it or can cheer him/herself up again after a difficult interaction. In other words, self-enhancing humor can refill the draining emotional resources and slow down or even eliminate the risk of emotional exhaustion (Güven, 2013). Also, the reappraisal process makes deep acting easier so that the situation is perceived differently. As discussed, deep acting may increase the sense of personal accomplishment, thereby reducing the overall burnout level (Ağırman, 2012; Malinowski, 2009). This implies that the presence of self-enhancing humor is likely to change the strength of the relationship between emotional labor to burnout.

Affiliative humor serves one's social relationships by helping to form and sustain supporting relationships (Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). An employee who is required to perform intense emotional labor (either through surface or deep acting) may apply for the help of jokes, wits, humorous instants during the interaction with people. Use of the humor element in relationships makes the transfer of difficult messages easier (Holmes & Marra, 2002), creates a perception of authenticity and proximity, and increases the chance of sustaining a long-term interaction (Martin et al., 2003). Thereby, the use of affiliative humor is expected to help people avoid depersonalization and give a sense of personal accomplishment by supporting ongoing relationships. Besides, affiliative humor also serves to form new and supporting relationships (Güven, 2013) which may help to refill the emotional resources of a person.

Many of the emotional display rules ask employees to display positive emotions to people (Grandey, 2000). These positive emotions are also easier to reveal with the help of the positive use of humor. Either alone or among people, a joke, wit or a laugh can quickly ignite positive feelings and make the emotion regulation process easier for the employee.

To sum up, the presence of positive humor styles may weaken the proposed positive relationship between emotional labor and burnout either by making the display of positive emotions easier and lubricating the interactions with others or by reducing the risk of detachment and emotional drain.

The above-mentioned research considered humor as an adaptive tool which is beneficial for the individual. This presumption coincides with Martin et al.'s (2003) definitions of positive humor which includes affiliative and self-enhancing humor styles. People benefit from adaptive styles of humor, but humor is not always adaptive. Some studies found that maladaptive humor styles related to depression and lower self-esteem (Martin et al., 2003). So, it is crucial to take a look at the other side of the coin, which is negative or maladaptive use of humor.

Maladaptive or detrimental uses of humor include jokes or wits which damage social relationships or one's relationship with his/her own. Martin et al. (2003) found that self-defeating humor had a negative relationship with some indicators of psychological functioning. Kuiper et al. (2004) argued that self-defeating humor predicted negative effects like low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, and low self-competence. When these results are considered, it is seen that they set the scene for higher levels of burnout. For example, depression and anxiety can increase emotional exhaustion since the individual has low levels of personal emotional resources; low self-esteem and low self-competence bring along depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Sarı & Aslan (2005) found that students who used the helpless stress coping style more also tended to use self-defeating humor style more often.

The maladaptive forms of humor that focus on others (such as aggressive humor) may be unrelated to personal well-being. However, Martin et al. (2003) suggested that negative types of humor, like teasing and sarcasm, could have a negative effect on social relationships. They found that aggressive humor was related to indicators of hostility and aggression and these are likely to hurt social relationships. When social bonds are weakened, an individual has difficulty in receiving social support from superiors, colleagues or even customers. These individuals are more likely to handle stressful occasions stemming from emotional labor and burnout on their own and they lack interpersonal support. Although people who prefer aggressive humor may seem strong and independent, they may lack the intimate relationships which help a person cope with emotional expectations, and thus apply more aggressive humor and this creates a vicious circle which may ultimately result in burnout. Karagöz (2009) found that there was a relationship between teachers' aggressive humor style use and depersonalization & reduced personal accomplishment levels. Malinowski (2009) carried out a study on mental health therapists. In this study, self-defeating humor was shown to contribute to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

All in all, the negative use of humor can also change the game and act as a catalyst for the contribution of emotional labor on burnout. Self-defeating humor is related to depression, low self-esteem and feelings of low-self competence and anxiety as mentioned before. Thereby, this style may accelerate the depletion of emotional resources and make it harder to display positive emotions as required by display rules. It may also harm the psychological well-being of an employee instead of helping to maintain a healthy psychological condition not to be trapped in symptoms of burnout. Aggressive humor harms one's social relationships and deprives the individual of supporting, lasting relationships. Especially in interactions with customers and colleagues, it can ruin the work results and reduce task accomplishment. It may also reduce customer satisfaction if the employee uses aggressive humor against customers and this may lead to poor performance in abiding by the display rules.

To sum up, the presence of negative humor styles may strengthen the proposed positive relationship between emotional labor and burnout either by negatively affecting the psychological well-being of the employee and making it hard to engage in the proper emotional display or damaging the relationships with customers, colleagues and accelerating the journey from emotional labor to burnout.

In the light of the above discussion, it is hypothesized that;

H2: Humor styles moderate the relationship between emotional labor and burnout; such that positive humor styles weaken this relationship, whereas negative humor styles strengthen it.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Model of the Research

In this research, the moderating role of humor styles on the relationship between emotional labor and burnout is studied. Hence, emotional labor is the independent variable, burnout is the dependent variable and humor style is the moderating variable in the model.

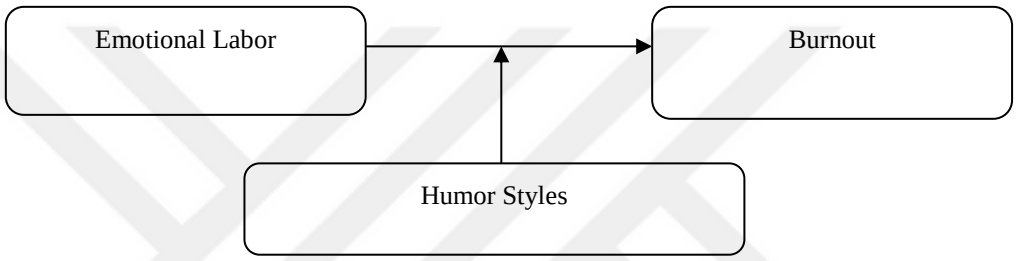

Figure 4: Model of the Research

3.2 Hypotheses and Research Questions

In line with the purpose of the research and the literature review, the following hypotheses were formed:

H1: There is a positive relationship between employees' emotional labor and burnout levels.

H2: Humor styles moderate the relationship between emotional labor and burnout; such that positive humor styles weaken this relationship, whereas negative humor styles strengthen it.

In addition to the hypotheses, research questions below were answered:

Q1: Are there significant differences between the emotional labor strategies of employees based on gender, age, education level, sector, managerial status and tenure?

Q2: Are there significant differences between the burnout levels of employees based on gender, age, education level, sector, managerial status and tenure?

Q3: Are there significant differences between the humor styles used by employees based on gender, age, education level, sector, managerial status and tenure?

3.3 Participants

The sample consists of 460 participants from Istanbul, Turkey. Convenience sampling method was used to reach these participants.

341 of 460 respondents are female (74.1%), whereas the remaining 119 are males (25.9%), indicating that females form the majority of the sample. The mean age of the sample is 33.3 with a standard deviation of 10.107. When the ages of the respondents are categorized, it is revealed that almost half of the respondents (45.7%) are aged between 18 and 30.

61.1% of the respondents are graduated from university or have a master's or Ph.D. degree (in other words, the majority of the participants have at least a bachelor's degree). 149 of 460 respondents have a managerial role and lead a team, (32.4%), whereas the remaining 311 respondents do not lead a team and hence, do not have a managerial responsibility (67.6%).

387 respondents are from the private sector (84.1%), where 73 of them are from the public sector (15.9%). The mean tenure (number of years spent in the current profession) of the sample is 9.7 years with a standard deviation of 8.675. Details of the demographic data are provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Participants' Demographic Information

Category	Sub-Category	Frequency & Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	341 (74.1%)
	Male	119 (25.9%)
Age	M	33.3
	SD	10.107
	Minimum	18
	Maximum	74
Education Level	Bachelor's Degree/Master's Deg/Ph.D.	281 (61.1%)
	College/High School/Primary School	179 (38.9%)
Sector	Public	73 (15.9%)
	Private	387 (84.1%)
Managerial Status	Manager (leads a team)	149 (32.4%)
	Non-manager (does not lead a team)	311 (67.6%)
Total Tenure (years)	M	9.7
	SD	8.675
	Minimum	.25
	Maximum	50

3.4 Data Collection Tools and Techniques

An online questionnaire was prepared on Survey Monkey (https://tr.surveymonkey.com). The link for the online survey was sent to people in Istanbul and it lasted 3 months to collect the data (July, August, and September, 2018). 460 responses were gathered and none of them had missing data.

The survey consisted of 4 parts and 79 items. The first part had 19 items about emotional labor, the second part had 22 items about burnout, the third part had 32 items about humor styles and the last part had 6 items about personal information. The complete survey is presented in Appendix 1.

3.4.1 Emotional Labor Scale (ELS)

Emotional Labor Scale was originally developed by Brotheridge & Lee (1998) and later used in Grandey's (1999) doctoral dissertation. It had 12 items measuring *"Job-Focused Emotional Labor: Interpersonal Work Demands"* and *"Employee-Focused Emotional Labor"*. Job-focused emotional labor involved factors of duration (1 open-ended item), intensity (2 items, alpha: .74) and variety (3 items, alpha: .76); whereas employee-focused emotional labor involved surface acting (3 items, alpha: .74) and deep acting (3 items, alpha: .83).

Ünler Öz (2007) adapted the surface and deep acting items in Grandey's (1999) dissertation for her own Ph.D. thesis called *"Effect of Emotional Labor on Employees' Work Outcomes"*. She translated the items into Turkish and sent them both in Turkish and English to 10-15 people to make sure that they had the same meanings. She arranged and put the items to the survey according to their feedback. She then added a few items which she prepared based on the definition of emotion regulation. The resulting scale included 19 items in total and aimed at measuring two factors; surface and deep acting. Examples of these items were; *"I pretend to feel emotions that I do not really feel"* to measure surface acting and *"I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I have to display towards others"* to measure deep acting. Responses were gathered on a six-point Likert-type scale, ranging from almost never (1) to almost always (6).

Ünler Öz (2007) found three factors in her research which she named acting, suppression and deep acting. The first two factors, acting and suppression together corresponded to Grandey's surface acting; so the factors were parallel to Grandey's emotional labor definition. The reliabilities of factors were .7875; .7777 and .6853 respectively.

For this current research, the adapted Turkish ELS version in Ünler Öz's (2007) thesis was used. Since Ünler Öz (2007) changed the original items' wordings and added new items in Turkish, the resulting scale was totally in Turkish (in other words, there are no

original items in English). These Turkish items were used in the survey distributed to participants. However, since this current study is in English, these Turkish items were translated into English by the researcher of this current study for the purpose of presenting them in the Tables of Section "4. Findings". Furthermore, some rewordings were applied, such that the phrase *"colleagues/customers"* was used instead of *"customers"* to cover all interactions both with internal and external customers in the workplace. Responses were gathered on a six-point Likert-type scale, ranging from never (1) to always (6).

3.4.2 Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)

Burnout inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach & Jackson (1981) to measure burnout had 22 items including nine items related to emotional exhaustion, five items to depersonalization, and eight items to personal accomplishment. The responses were gathered on a six-point Likert scale including; never, a few times a year, once a month or less, a few times a month, once a week, a few times a week, every day. The internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha values) were .90 for emotional exhaustion, .79 for depersonalization and .71 for personal accomplishment. The test-retest reliability coefficients were .82 for emotional exhaustion, .60 for depersonalization and .80 for personal accomplishment.

The scale was translated into Turkish and validity-reliability analyses were first made by Ergin in 1992. Responses were gathered with a 5-point Likert scale including; never, rarely, sometimes, often, always. The factors of burnout were parallel to Maslach and Jackson's original factors which were emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Ergin (1992) made a test-retest reliability analysis and found coefficients of .83, .72 and .67 respectively. Also, the internal reliability analysis was made and Cronbach alpha coefficients of .83, .65 and .72 were found for the three factors, respectively.

Ergin's Turkish version also included 22 items in total. Examples of these items are *"I feel emotionally drained from my work"* to measure emotional exhaustion; *"I feel I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects"* to measure depersonalization and *"I*

have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job" to measure personal accomplishment. Personal accomplishment items are positive statements unlike other statements in the scale.

There are different approaches in terms of interpretation of the MBI results. For example, Meier (1984) stated that a total burnout score could be produced by adding up the scores from the three factors (cited in Torun, 1995). For doing this, the items on the personal accomplishment scale should be reverse-coded. On the other hand, Maslach & Jackson (1981) argued that calculating a total score would result in loss of meaning and the three factors should be considered as separate structures. In this current research, Ergin's translation of MBI was used. Responses were gathered on a six-point Likert-type scale, ranging from never (1) to always (6). Also, Maslach & Jackson's (1981) warning was taken into consideration and the scores were not combined into a single overall burnout score.

3.4.3. Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ)

Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ) is a measure that was initially designed by Martin et al. (2003) to assess different humor styles used in everyday life. It aimed to measure four types of humor (self-enhancing humor, affiliative humor, self-defeating humor, and aggressive humor). The scale was developed as a result of three studies conducted on three different samples. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1: totally disagree to 7: totally agree was used to gather responses. The final form measured four factors with 8 items each, totaling 32 items. The Cronbach alpha values for these factors ranged between .77 and .81. The test-retest reliability coefficients were .85 for affiliative humor; .81 for self-enhancing humor; .80 for aggressive humor and .82 for self-defeating humor.

The scale was translated into Turkish by Yerlikaya (2003). Items included expressions such as; *"I laugh and joke a lot with my closest friends"* to measure affiliative humor; *"Even when I'm by myself, I'm often amused by the absurdities of life"* to measure self-enhancing humor; *"If someone makes a mistake, I will often tease them about it"* to measure aggressive humor and *"I will often get carried away in putting myself down if it*

makes my family or friends laugh" to measure self-defeating humor. Items 1, 7, 9, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 25, 29 and 31 were reverse coded. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1: totally disagree to 7: totally agree was used to gather responses.

Yerlikaya found four factors parallel to Martin et al.'s (2003) humor styles. The thirty-two items measured the four factors as in the original version. The internal reliability analysis revealed Cronbach Alpha coefficients for self-enhancing humor, affiliative humor, aggressive and self-defeating humor factors as .78; .74; .69 and .67, respectively. Test-retest reliability analysis was also carried out and it yielded .82; .88; .85 and .85 respectively.

In this current research, Yerlikaya's Turkish version was used. Responses were gathered on a six-point Likert-type scale, ranging from completely disagree (1) to completely agree (6).

3.4.4 Personal Information Form

There were six items on the personal information form asking for gender, age, education level, tenure (number of years in the current profession, not the total tenure), sector (public or private) and managerial status (leading a team or not).

3.5 Application and Procedure

In order to reach an adequate number of people, the survey was prepared on an online platform (Survey Monkey) and the link was sent via e-mails and social media messages to people within the researcher's network. The respondents also shared it within their own network to increase participation.

Purpose of the study was explained in general and participation was voluntary. It was emphasized that the data participants provided will be treated with due confidentiality and will be used only for academic purposes.

In order to reach as many people as possible, the distribution of the survey lasted three months (July-August-September, 2018). 460 surveys were collected in total. Since responses did not have any missing data, all of them were included in the analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis was applied to identify the frequency distributions of the sample in terms of age, gender, education level, sector, managerial status and tenure, and they were delivered in Section "3.3 Participants".

Factor analyses were carried out for emotional labor, burnout and humor styles to find out the factorial structure of the variables. The sampling adequacy was also tested via Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to figure out if factor analysis was applicable for the variables. Reliability analyses, using Cronbach's Alpha, were made for all the factors revealed to find out the internal consistencies which are related to the degree of interrelatedness between items.

Correlations among all the variables were tested by Pearson's correlation. Following this, multiple regression analyses were conducted to gain further insight into the relationships between dependent and independent variables. Also, hierarchical regression analyses were applied to test the hypothesized moderating role of humor styles on these relationships.

Independent groups t-tests were carried out to answer the research questions regarding the differences in variables in terms of demographics.

4. FINDINGS

In this section, firstly, factors of the variables and their reliability levels will be revealed. Subsequently, the hypotheses will be tested and lastly, research questions will be answered.

4.1 Factor and Reliability Analyses

Principal components factor analysis method was applied to the three variables by using varimax rotation technique. Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were also carried out. The KMO values were above .50 and close to 1, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values were significant at .05 level.

After finding out the factors of the variables, Cronbach's alpha values were computed in order to assess the internal reliability of these factors. The factors with Cronbach's alpha values of .70 and above were regarded to have enough reliability (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, & Çinko, 2011).

4.1.1 Emotional Labor

Factor analysis was carried out for nineteen items in the Emotional Labor Scale. At the first step, Item 8: *"During an interaction with a colleague/customer, I act in order to display the emotions that my organization wants me to display"* (surface acting item) was removed due to close factor loadings of .500 and .438 under two factors. At the second step, Item 3: *"I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I have to display towards others"* (deep acting item) was removed due to a factor loading below .500 (.480).

The remaining seventeen items formed three factors which explained 56.160 % of the total variance. Although two items corresponded to different factors, the three factors were parallel to the ones revealed in Ünler Öz's (2007) study. So they were named in the same way as deep acting, acting and suppression (Item 6: *"I suppress my true reactions in order to respond appropriately to other people"* corresponded to deep acting in the current

study, whereas it corresponded to acting in Ünler Öz (2007). Item 17: *"While talking to a nervous colleague/customer, I try to think that (s)he is angry with something else, not with me"* corresponded to acting, whereas it corresponded to deep acting in Ünler Öz (2007)).

The reliability values of the resulting three factors were .843, .823 and .705; respectively. The factor analysis results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis for Emotional Labor

Items	Factor Loading	Variance Exp. (%)	Rel.
Factor 1: Deep Acting		26.120	.843
7. While talking to a nervous colleague/customer, I think that my primary job is, in fact, helping him/her.	.709		
10. Even with the nervous colleagues/customers, I talk trying to take their perspectives to the situation.	.709		
9. I try to control my emotions.	.701		
11. I sincerely make an effort to be the "person" that my job requires me to be.	.695		
12. I smile and act in a friendly manner, even when I feel very bad.	.654		
5. While talking to a nervous person, I try to think about something else that makes me feel better.	.646		
18. When I try to act cheerfully while helping colleagues/customers, I end up feeling really cheerful.	.554		
6. I suppress my true reactions in order to respond appropriately to other people.	.534		
Factor 2: Acting		17.097	.823
14. During an interaction with a colleague/customer, I try to display the required emotions even though they do not match my mood.	.717		
19. Even though I get angry with a colleague or customer, I continue to act politely; but I swear secretly.	.671		
15. During an interaction with a colleague/customer, I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job; even though they do not match my mood.	.655		
17. While talking to a nervous colleague/customer, I try to think that (s)he is angry with something else, not with me.	.614		
13. While dealing with people, I act in order not to reveal that I am upset or depressed.	.604		
16. During interactions with colleagues/customers, I make an effort not to reveal my true feelings.	.573		
Factor 3: Suppression		12.943	.705
2. I pretend to feel emotions that I do not really feel.	.771		
4. I usually try to hide my true feelings about a situation.	.763		
1. I make an effort not to express my true feelings.	.743		

Total Variance Explained		56.160
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.902
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	**Chi-Sq**	3109.180
	Df.	136
	Sig.	.000

4.1.2 Burnout

Factor analysis was carried out for twenty-two items in Ergin's (1992) burnout scale. Item 22: *"I feel recipients blame me for their problems"* was removed due to factor loading below .50 (.444).

The remaining twenty-one items formed three factors which explained 58.351 % of the total variance. The three factors revealed were parallel to Ergin's burnout factors which are emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and, depersonalization. Cronbach's alpha values were used to assess the internal reliability of the factors. The reliability values of these three factors were .906, .870 and .781, respectively. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis for Burnout

Items	Factor Loading	Variance Exp. (%)	Rel.
Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion		26.113	.906
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	.877		
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.833		
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.830		
8. I feel burned out from my work.	.829		
13. I feel frustrated by my job.	.717		
6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	.692		
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	.637		
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	.614		
20. I feel like I am at the end of my rope.	.575		
Factor 2: Personal Accomplishment		20.453	.870
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients.	.772		
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	.796		
12. I feel very energetic.	.766		
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients.	.718		
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients.	.715		
9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	.696		
4. I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things.	.664		
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	.656		
Factor 3: Depersonalization		11.785	.781
5. I feel like I treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects.	.746		
15. I don't really care what happens to some recipients.	.726		
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	.715		
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	.636		

Total Variance Explained		58.351
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.900
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	**Chi-Sq**	4932.544
	Df.	210
	Sig.	.000

4.1.3 Humor Styles

Factor analysis was carried out for thirty-two items in Yerlikaya's (2003) humor styles scale (Items 1, 7, 9, 15, 16, 17, 22, 23, 25, 29 and 31 were reverse-coded). During the factor analysis, eleven items were removed in the following order:

- At the first, second and third steps, Item 28 (*If I am having problems or feeling unhappy, I often cover it up by joking around so that even my closest friends don t know how I really feel*), Item 31 *(Even if something is really funny to me, I will not laugh or joke about it if someone will be offended*) and Item 22 (*If I am feeling sad or upset, I usually lose my sense of humor*) were removed since they formed a factor individually.
- At the fourth step, Item 21 (*I enjoy making people laugh*) was removed due to low factor loading difference between two factors (.503-.469=.034).
- At the fifth step, Item 27 (*If I do not like someone, I often use humor or teasing to put them down*) was removed due to low factor loading difference between two factors (.523-.441=.082).
- At the sixth step, Item 7 (*People are never offended or hurt by my sense of humor*) was removed due to low factor loading difference between two factors (.507-.448=.059).
- At the seventh step, Item 19 (*Sometimes I think of something that is so funny that I can t stop myself from saying it, even if it is not appropriate for the situation*) was removed due to low factor loading difference between two factors (.521-.468=.053).
- At the eighth step, Item 4 (*I let people laugh at me or make fun at my expense more than I should*) was removed due to low factor loading difference between two factors (.547-.462=.085).
- At the ninth step, Item 13 (*I laugh and joke a lot with my closest friends*) was removed due to a factor loading below .50 (.478).
- At the tenth step, Item 23 (*I never participate in laughing at others even if all my friends are doing it*) was removed due to a factor loading below .50 (.480).

- At the eleventh step, Item 16 (*I do not often say funny things to put myself down*) was removed due to a factor loading below .50 (.463).

11 items in total were removed and the remaining 21 items formed 4 factors which explained 55.270 % of the total variance.

The reliability analysis for the four factors revealed Cronbach alpha values of .783; .754; 0.780 and .551. A Cronbach alpha value of .551 for the two-item factor was below the acceptable limit of .70. So the fourth factor (composed of Item 3: *"If someone makes a mistake, I will often tease them about it"* and Item 11: *"When telling jokes or saying funny things, I am usually not very concerned about how other people are taking it"*) was removed and the factor analysis was reapplied.

Finally, the remaining nineteen items formed three factors which explained 52.538 % of the total variance. These resulting three factors are in line with Yerlikaya's factors of self-enhancing humor, affiliative humor, self-defeating humor, and aggressive humor. However, the fourth factor in the model, aggressive humor style, was removed due to low reliability in this current study. The Cronbach's alpha values of the resulting three factors were .783, .780 and .754, respectively. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Results of Factor and Reliability Analysis for Humor Styles

Items	Factor Loading	Variance Exp. (%)	Rel.
Factor 1: Self- Enhancing Humor		22.751	.783
18. If I am by myself and I am feeling unhappy, I make an effort to think of something funny to cheer myself up.	.718		
26. It is my experience that thinking about some amusing aspect of a situation is often a very effective way of coping with problems.	.715		
6. Even when I am by myself, I am often amused by the absurdities of life.	.702		
10. If I am feeling upset or unhappy, I usually try to think of something funny about the situation to make myself feel better.	.694		
2. If I am feeling depressed, I can usually cheer myself up with humor.	.689		
14. My humorous outlook on life keeps me from getting overly upset or depressed about things.	.688		
30. I do not need to be with other people to feel amused – I can usually find things to laugh about even when I am by myself.	.649		
15. I do not like it when people use humor as a way of criticizing or putting someone down.	-.616		
5. I do not have to work very hard at making other people laugh—I seem to be a naturally humorous person.	.600		
Factor 2: Self-Defeating Humor		15.267	.780
12. I often try to make people like or accept me more by saying something funny about my own weaknesses, blunders, or faults.	.768		
32. Letting others laugh at me is my way of keeping my friends and family in good spirits.	.729		
8. I will often get carried away in putting myself down if it makes my family or friends laugh.	.681		
20. I often go overboard in putting myself down when I am making jokes or trying to be funny.	.643		
24. When I am with friends or family, I often seem to be the one that other people make fun of or joke about.	.635		
Factor 3: Affiliative Humor		14.520	.754
25. I do not often joke around with my friends.	.795		
29. I usually cannot think of witty things to say when I am with other people.	.720		
9. I rarely make other people laugh by telling funny stories about myself.	.707		
17. I usually do not like to tell jokes or amuse people.	.690		
1. I usually do not laugh or joke around much with other people.	.560		

Total Variance Explained		52.538
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.876
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	**Chi-Sq**	3091.159
	Df.	171
	Sig.	.000

The self-defeating and affiliative humor items are properly distributed to the relevant factors. However, there is one affiliative humor item (Item 5: *"I do not have to work very hard at making other people laugh - I seem to be a naturally humorous person"*) and one aggressive humor item (Item 15: *"I do not like it when people use humor as a way of criticizing or putting someone down"*) under self-enhancing humor factor. Also, this aggressive humor item has a negative factor loading (-.616). Despite these, since the meaningfulness of the factor is not ruined and the reliability is high, these two items were not removed but kept under this factor.

As a result of factor and reliability analyses, new variables which would be used in the rest of the analyses were figured out. They were calculated by taking the average scores of the remaining items for the relevant factor. In the rest of the analyses, emotional labor, burnout and humor styles were analyzed in terms of their factors. So, no overall emotional labor, burnout or humor style scores were computed.

Figure 5 displays the research model with the factors revealed after factor analyses:

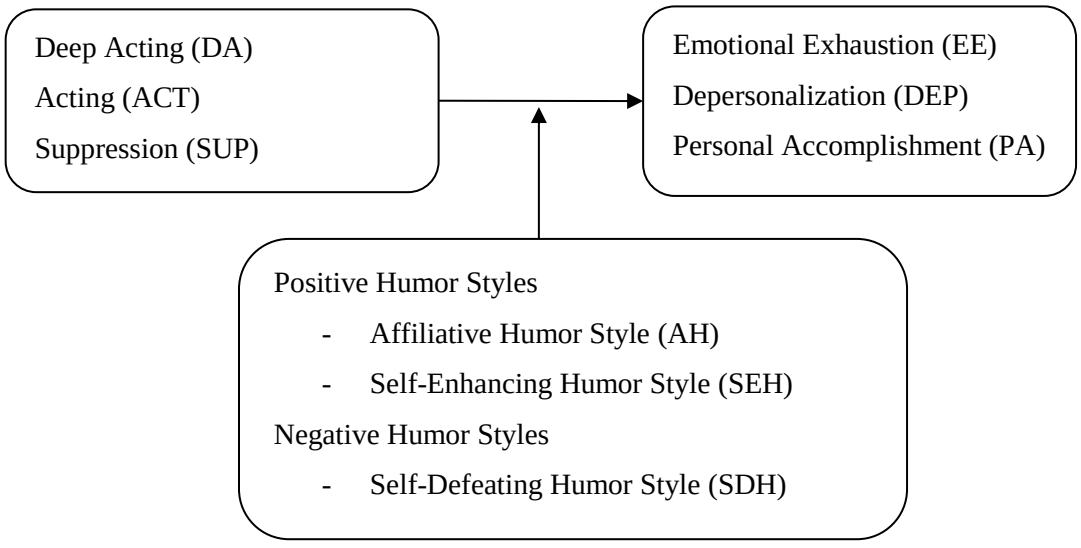

Figure 5: Research Model after Factor Analyses

Based on the hypotheses of the study and the factors found, expected contributions or roles of the variables are presented in Table 5 below:

Table 5
Expected Contributions and Roles of the Variables

#	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Moderating Variable	Expected Contribution/Role
1	DA	EE	-	Positive
2	DA	DEP	-	Positive
3	DA	PA	-	Negative
4	ACT	EE	-	Positive
5	ACT	DEP	-	Positive
6	ACT	PA	-	Negative
7	SUP	EE	-	Positive
8	SUP	DEP	-	Positive
9	SUP	PA	-	Negative
10	DA	EE	SEH	Weakening
11	DA	EE	AH	Weakening
12	DA	EE	SDH	Strengthening
13	DA	DEP	SEH	Weakening
14	DA	DEP	AH	Weakening
15	DA	DEP	SDH	Strengthening
16	DA	PA	SEH	Weakening
17	DA	PA	AH	Weakening
18	DA	PA	SDH	Strengthening
19	ACT	EE	SEH	Weakening
20	ACT	EE	AH	Weakening
21	ACT	EE	SDH	Strengthening
22	ACT	DEP	SEH	Weakening
23	ACT	DEP	AH	Weakening
24	ACT	DEP	SDH	Strengthening
25	ACT	PA	SEH	Weakening
26	ACT	PA	AH	Weakening
27	ACT	PA	SDH	Strengthening
28	SUP	EE	SEH	Weakening
29	SUP	EE	AH	Weakening
30	SUP	EE	SDH	Strengthening
31	SUP	DEP	SEH	Weakening
32	SUP	DEP	AH	Weakening
33	SUP	DEP	SDH	Strengthening
34	SUP	PA	SEH	Weakening
35	SUP	PA	AH	Weakening
36	SUP	PA	SDH	Strengthening

4.2 Correlation Analyses

After determining the factors through factor analyses, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to find out the level of relationships between all the dependent, independent and moderating variables of the study. Correlations under .50 were considered to be weak, correlations between .50 and .70 were considered to be moderate and correlations above .70 were considered to be strong (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, & Çinko, 2011). The means, standard deviations, and correlations are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6
Correlation Results of All Variables

	Mean	St. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 DA	3.8620	.98014	1								
2 ACT	3.4058	1.02838	**.649****	1							
3 SUP	2.5797	.93930	**.160****	**.301****	1						
4 EE	2.6444	1.06816	.016	**.148****	**.248****	1					
5 DEP	1.8554	.92268	-.067	**.099***	**.205****	**.579****	1				
6 PA	4.1592	1.01653	**.442****	**.215****	.005	-.044	**-.124****	1			
7 SEH	3.7928	.89178	**.353****	**.188****	-.001	.006	-.053	**.495****	1		
8 AH	4.5104	.99356	-.025	-.091	**-.176****	**-.200****	**-.228****	**.145****	.090	1	
9 SDH	3.0187	1.07865	**.229****	**.158****	.066	**.155****	**.124****	**.125****	**.512****	**-.146****	1

N= 460; ** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The correlations revealed the following results: Deep acting had no significant relationship with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization but had a positive relationship with personal accomplishment (r= .442; p<.01). Acting had positive relationships with all three factors of burnout (r=.148; p<.01 for emotional exhaustion; r=.099; p<.05 for depersonalization; r=.215; p<.01 for personal accomplishment). Suppression had positive relationships with emotional exhaustion (r=.248, p<.01) and depersonalization (r=.205; p<.01) but had no relationship with personal accomplishment.

Moreover, all correlations were examined in order to find out if there was a multicollinearity problem. None of the variables had correlations above .70 which was important for having no multicollinearity (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, & Çinko, 2011).

4.3 Regression Analyses

Correlation analysis had shown statistically significant relationships between variables. In order to see how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable, multiple regression analyses are conducted. In this research, regression analyses were conducted for the purpose of testing the contribution of emotional labor on burnout.

Assumptions of linearity, multicollinearity, normality, and homoscedasticity were checked before and during the analyses.

4.3.1 Contribution of Emotional Labor on Factors of Burnout

Multiple linear regression analysis was applied to see the contribution of emotional labor factors together on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, respectively. The results are presented in Table 7, 8, 9 and 10.

Table 7
Multiple Linear Regression of Emotional Labor Factors on Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variables	**β**	**t**	**p**
Deep Acting	-.125	-2.105	.036
Acting	.163	2.651	.008
Suppression	.219	4.628	.000
R= .276; **R^2= .**076; **Adj R^2=** .070; **F=** 12.541; **p=** .000			

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

Table 7 shows that the model was statistically significant (F= 12.541, p=.000). It was found that all factors of emotional labor had a statistically significant contribution on and could be used to predict emotional exhaustion (p<.05). The independent variables

together explained 7.0 % of the variance (Adj. R^2=.070) in emotional exhaustion, and suppression had the greatest contribution (β=.219).

Table 8
Multiple Linear Regression of Emotional Labor Factors on Depersonalization

Independent Variables	β	t	p
Deep Acting	-.215	-3.616	.000
Acting	.183	2.976	.003
Suppression	.184	3.889	.000
R= .265; **R^2**= .070; **Adj R^2**= .064; **F**= 11.495; **p**= .000			

Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 8 shows that the model was statistically significant (F=11.495, p=.000). It was found that all factors of emotional labor had a statistically significant contribution in the model and could be used to predict depersonalization (p<.05). The independent variables together explained 6.4 % of the variance in depersonalization (Adj. R^2=.064) and deep acting had the greatest contribution (β=-.215).

Table 9
Multiple Linear Regression of Emotional Labor Factors on Personal Accomplishment

Independent Variables	β	t	p
Deep Acting	.519	9.456	.000
Acting	-.109	-1.909	.057
Suppression	-.045	-1.023	.307
R= .454; **R^2**= .206; **Adj R^2**= .201; **F**= 39.395; **p**= .000			

Dependent Variable: Personal Accomplishment

Table 9 shows that the model was statistically significant (F=39.395, p=.000). It was found that deep acting had a significant contribution on personal accomplishment (p=.000). However, acting and suppression did not have significant contributions on personal accomplishment (p_{acting}=.057 and $p_{suppression}$=.307 >.05). So, acting and suppression were

removed and the regression was reapplied only for deep acting. Table 10 presents the results of this analysis:

Table 10
Simple Linear Regression of Deep Acting on Personal Accomplishment

	R	R^2	Adj R^2	F	p	β	t	p
DA	.442	.195	.193	111.038	.000	.442	10.537	.000

Dependent Variable: Personal Accomplishment

Table 10 shows that the model was statistically significant (F=111.038, p=.000). Deep acting had a statistically significant contribution on personal accomplishment (p=.000) and it explained 19.5 % of the variance in personal accomplishment (R^2=.195).

4.3.2 Moderating Roles of Humor Styles

To test the moderating role of each humor style on each of the relationships between emotional labor and burnout factors, 3-step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Beforehand, independent, dependent and moderating variables were all transformed into standardized values. Then, an interaction variable was created by multiplying the standardized independent and moderating variable. Finally, 3-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. The changes in R^2 in every step were examined to understand if the introduced model had greater explanatory power than the previous model. The third model indicated if there was a moderation effect or not. The prerequisite for this moderation effect was that the interaction term in the regression model had to be significant.

The analyses revealed only two significant moderating roles: The first one was the moderating role of self-defeating humor on the relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion, and the second one was the moderating role of self-enhancing humor on the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion.

The moderating role of self-defeating humor on the relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion is presented in Table 11.

Table 11
Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Testing the Moderation Effect of SDH on ACT-EE Relationship

	Variables	β	Beta	Adj. R^2	F	p	t	p
Step 1								
	ACT	.148	.148	.020	10.197	.002	3.193	.002
Step 2								
	ACT	.126	.126	.035	9.412	.000	2.719	.007
	SDH	.135	.135				2.909	.004
Step 3								
	ACT	.122	.122				2.635	.009
	SDH	.142	.142	.045	8.288	.000	3.073	.002
	ACT*SDH	-.097	-.110				-2.417	.016

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

In the table, the first model showed that acting significantly contributed to emotional exhaustion (F=10.197; p=.002). In the second model at step 2, acting and self-defeating humor were combined in order to understand how they predicted emotional exhaustion together. The contributions of these variables on emotional exhaustion were both significant (p values<.05), and they had a greater explanatory power together (Adj. R^2=.035). In the third model (Step 3) which tested the moderating role, the interaction term was added to the previous model. The model was statistically significant (F= 8.288; p=.000) and it had a greater explanatory power (Adj. R^2=.045). Also, the interaction term was statistically significant (p= .016) and made a weakening effect (Beta= -.110) on the positive relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion.

In order to understand under which conditions this effect was significant, Table 12 was examined. It displayed that for low and medium levels of self-defeating humor, the moderator effects were significant (p values of .0003 and .0078 < .05).

Table 12
Conditional Effects of Acting at Values of Self-Defeating Humor

SDH	Effect	Se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
2.000	.2212	.0608	3.6411	.0003	.1018	.3406
3.000	.1282	.0480	2.6725	.0078	.0339	.2225
4.000	.0353	.0622	.5664	.5714	-.0871	.1576

LLCI: Lower limit of confidence interval ULCI: Upper limit of confidence interval

The weakening effect which is demonstrated in Figure 6 was probed by testing the conditional effects of acting at three levels of self-defeating humor, one standard deviation below the mean (low), at the mean (average), and one standard deviation above the mean (high). The graph implied a partial moderation such that as the level of self-defeating humor style increased, the relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion weakened, and this effect held only for low and medium levels of self-defeating humor. This meant that self-defeating humor had a moderating effect when it was one standard deviation below the mean (p=.0003) and when at the mean (p=.0078), but not when it was one standard deviation above the mean (p = .5714).

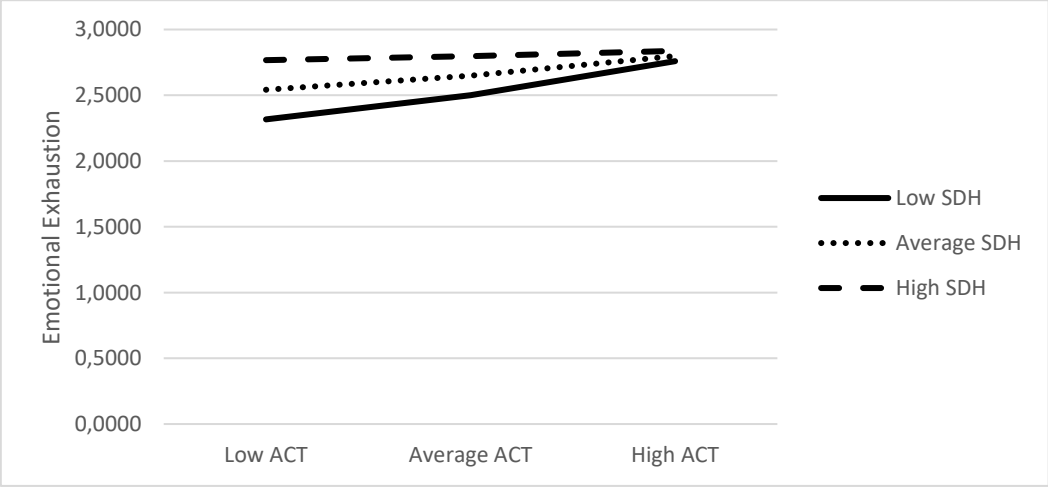

Figure 6: The Impact of Acting on Emotional Exhaustion under the Influence of Self-Defeating Humor

The moderating role of self-enhancing humor on the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion is presented in Table 13.

Table 13
Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Testing the Moderation Effect of SEH on SUP-EE Relationship

	Variables	B	Beta	Adj. R^2	F	p	t	p
Step 1								
	SUP	.248	.248	.059	29.960	.000	5.474	.000
Step 2								
	SUP	.248	.248	.057	14.956	.000	5.468	.000
	SEH	.006	.006				.125	.900
Step 3								
	SUP	.252	.252				5.592	.000
	SEH	-.010	-.010	.069	12.367	.000	-.226	.821
	SUP*SEH	-.110	-.119				-2.609	.009

Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

In the table, the first model showed that suppression significantly contributed to emotional exhaustion (F= 29.960, p=.000). In the second model at step 2, suppression and self-enhancing humor were combined in order to understand how they predicted emotional exhaustion together. Only the contribution of suppression on emotional exhaustion was significant (p= .000), and they had a weaker explanatory power together. In the third model (Step 3) which tested the moderating role, the interaction term was added to the previous model. The model was statistically significant (F= 12.367, p=.000) and this model had a greater explanatory power (Adj. R^2=.069). Also, the interaction term was statistically significant (p= .009) and made a weakening effect (Beta= -.119) on the positive relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion.

In order to understand under which conditions this effect was significant, Table 14 below was examined. It displayed that for low, medium and high levels of self-enhancing humor, the moderator effects were significant (p values of .0000, .0000 and .0170 < .05).

Table 14
Conditional Effects of Suppression at Values of Self-Enhancing Humor

SEH	Effect	Se	T	P	LLCI	ULCI
2.8889	.4136	.0719	5.7498	.0000	.2722	.5550
3.8889	.2730	.0513	5.3203	.0000	.1722	.3739
4.6667	.1637	.0683	2.3959	.0170	.0294	.2980

LLCI: Lower limit of confidence interval ULCI: Upper limit of confidence interval

The weakening effect which is demonstrated in Figure 7 was probed by testing the conditional effects of suppression at three levels of self-enhancing humor, one standard deviation below the mean (low), at the mean (average), and one standard deviation above the mean (high). The graph implied a full-moderation such that as the level of self-enhancing humor style increased, the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion weakened, and this effect held for low, medium and high levels of self-enhancing humor.

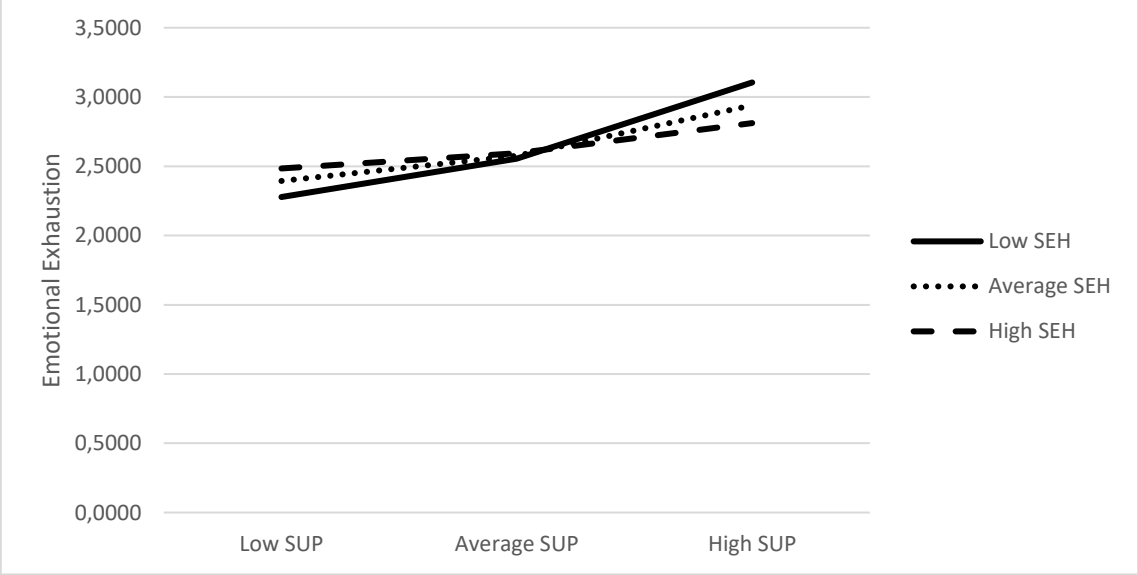

Figure 7: The Impact of Suppression on Emotional Exhaustion under the Influence of Self-Enhancing Humor

The findings from the analyses above are summarized in Table 15 which presents the resulting contributions or roles of the variables:

Table 15
Analysis Results for the Contributions and Roles of the Variables

#	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Moderating Variable	Expected Contribution/Role	Revealed Contr./Role
1	DA	EE	-	Positive	Negative
2	DA	DEP	-	Positive	Negative
3	DA	PA	-	Negative	Positive
4	ACT	EE	-	Positive	Positive
5	ACT	DEP	-	Positive	Positive
6	ACT	PA	-	Negative	Insignificant
7	SUP	EE	-	Positive	Positive
8	SUP	DEP	-	Positive	Positive
9	SUP	PA	-	Negative	Insignificant
10	DA	EE	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
11	DA	EE	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
12	DA	EE	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
13	DA	DEP	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
14	DA	DEP	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
15	DA	DEP	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
16	DA	PA	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
17	DA	PA	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
18	DA	PA	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
19	ACT	EE	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
20	ACT	EE	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
21	ACT	EE	SDH	Strengthening	Weakening
22	ACT	DEP	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
23	ACT	DEP	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
24	ACT	DEP	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
25	ACT	PA	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
26	ACT	PA	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
27	ACT	PA	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
28	SUP	EE	SEH	Weakening	Weakening
29	SUP	EE	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
30	SUP	EE	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
31	SUP	DEP	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
32	SUP	DEP	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
33	SUP	DEP	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant
34	SUP	PA	SEH	Weakening	Insignificant
35	SUP	PA	AH	Weakening	Insignificant
36	SUP	PA	SDH	Strengthening	Insignificant

In the light of these findings;

H1 *(There is a positive relationship between employees' emotional labor and burnout levels)* **is partially supported.**

H2 *(Humor styles moderate the relationship between emotional labor and burnout; such that positive humor styles weaken this relationship, whereas negative humor styles strengthen it)* **is partially supported.**

4.4 Difference Tests in terms of Demographical Variables

In this part, it is aimed to answer the research questions asking whether there are significant differences about emotional labor strategies, burnout levels and humor styles in terms of demographic variables. Independent samples t-test was used to assess these differences and it revealed several significant differences in terms of demographics, except sector.

4.4.1 Gender

The analysis showed that the levels of deep acting and acting were significantly different between male and female participants (t=2.162; p=.031 for deep acting; t=2.688; p=.007 for acting). Women displayed higher levels of deep acting (μ_{female}=3.9201, s.dev.=1.00052; μ_{male}=3.6954, s.dev.=.90266) and acting (μ_{female}= 3.4814, s.dev.=1.03176; μ_{male}=3.1891, s.dev.=.99123).

No significant differences in terms of gender were found for the other variables. The results are displayed in Table 16.

Table 16
Results of Difference Tests in terms of Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	P
DA	Female	341	3.9201	1.00052	2.162	.031
	Male	119	3.6954	.90266		
ACT	Female	341	3.4814	1.03176	2.688	.007
	Male	119	3.1891	.99123		

4.4.2 Education Level

It was tested if having a university degree and above would make a difference for the variables studied. So, "College" and "High School/Primary School" categories were grouped as "below university"; "University" and "Master/Ph.D." categories were grouped as "university and above".

For emotional labor, results showed that deep acting (t=5.300; p=.000), acting (t=4.247; p=.000) and suppression (t=-2.054; p=.041) strategies differed significantly between two educational groups. Participants who do not have a university education displayed significantly higher levels of deep acting ($\mu_{\text{below university}}$=4.1774; $\mu_{\text{university and above}}$=3.6610), and acting strategies ($\mu_{\text{below university}}$=3.6713; $\mu_{\text{university and above}}$=3.2367). However, they displayed significantly lower levels of suppression ($\mu_{\text{below university}}$=2.4674; $\mu_{\text{university and above}}$=2.6512). As to the burnout, only emotional exhaustion levels differed significantly between the two educational groups (t=-2.219; p=.027). Participants who have a university degree and above reported significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion ($\mu_{\text{below university}}$=2.5102; $\mu_{\text{university and above}}$=2.7299). Humor styles did not differ significantly between the two groups. The results are displayed in Table 17.

Table 17
Results of Difference Tests in terms of Education Level

	Education Level	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	P
DA	Below University	179	4.1774	1.13175	5.300	.000
	University and Above	281	3.6610	.81022		
ACT	Below University	179	3.6713	1.17220	4.247	.000
	University and Above	281	3.2367	.88677		
SUP	Below University	179	2.4674	1.00095	-2.054	.041
	University and Above	281	2.6512	.89229		
EE	Below University	179	2.5102	.98326	-2.219	.027
	University and Above	281	2.7299	1.11216		

4.4.3 Managerial Status

Participants who managed a team and had a managerial status were grouped as "Manager" and participants who did not lead a team were grouped as "Non-manager" in the analysis. Deep acting level (t= -2.724; p=.007), acting level (t=-3.559; p=.000) and personal accomplishment level (t=4.257; p=.000) were found to differ in terms of managerial status. According to the results, employees who do not manage a team displayed higher levels of deep acting ($\mu_{manager}$=3.6997; $\mu_{non\text{-}manager}$=3.9397) and acting strategies ($\mu_{manager}$=3.1779; $\mu_{non\text{-}manager}$=3.5150). Managers had a higher sense of personal accomplishment ($\mu_{manager}$=4.4455; $\mu_{non\text{-}manager}$=4.0221). The results are displayed in Table 18.

Table 18
Results of Difference Tests in terms of Managerial Status

	Managerial Status	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	p
DA	Manager	149	3.6997	.79229	-2.724	.007
	Non-manager	311	3.9397	1.05072		
ACT	Manager	149	3.1779	.88524	-3.559	.000
	Non-manager	311	3.5150	1.07461		
PA	Manager	149	4.4455	.85193	4.257	.000
	Non-manager	311	4.0221	1.06079		

4.4.4 Age

As a separating point to make a comparison in terms of age; the age of 40, which splits the age distribution into two almost equal groups, was taken. The groups were named as "18-40" and "above 40". Deep acting (t=4.776; p=.000) and acting (t=4.042; p=.000) were found to differ between the two groups. Participants in the 18-40 age group displayed higher levels of deep acting ($\mu_{18\text{-}40}$=3.9579; $\mu_{above\ 40}$=3.5337) and acting strategies ($\mu_{18\text{-}40}$=3.4953; $\mu_{above\ 40}$=3.0994). There was not a significant difference for burnout and its factors between these groups. As to the humor styles, only self-defeating humor levels differed significantly between these two groups (t=2.552; p=.011). Participants in the 18-40 age group were found to use significantly higher levels of self-defeating humor style ($\mu_{18\text{-}40}$=3.0876; $\mu_{above\ 40}$=2.7827). The results are displayed in Table 19.

Table 19
Results of Difference Tests in terms of Age

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	p
DA	18-40	356	3.9579	1.02589	4.776	.000
	Above 40	104	3.5337	.71632		
ACT	18-40	356	3.4953	1.06714	4.042	.000
	Above 40	104	3.0994	.81568		
SDH	18-40	356	3.0876	1.10199	2.552	.011
	Above 40	104	2.7827	.96265		

4.4.5 Tenure

As mentioned in the "3.3 Participants" part, the average tenure of participants was about 10 years. So, participants were divided into two groups for analysis; which were "10 and below" implying less than or equal to ten years of tenure in the current profession, and "Above 10" implying more than 10 years of tenure in the current profession.

Deep acting (t=3.981; p=.000) and acting (t=3.031; p=.003) were found to differ between two tenure groups. Participants from 10 or below years of tenure displayed significantly higher levels of deep acting ($\mu_{10 \text{ and below}}$=3.9761; $\mu_{\text{above } 10}$=3.6283) and acting ($\mu_{10 \text{ and below}}$=3.5011; $\mu_{\text{above } 10}$=3.2108). Moreover, participants with a tenure above 10 years had a higher sense of personal accomplishment ($\mu_{10 \text{ and below}}$=4.0732; $\mu_{\text{above } 10}$=4.3353). The results are displayed in Table 20.

Table 20
Results of Difference Tests in terms of Tenure

	Tenure	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
DA	10 and below	309	3.9761	1.04388	3.981	.000
	Above 10	151	3.6283	.78766		
ACT	10 and below	309	3.5011	1.07081	3.031	.003
	Above 10	151	3.2108	.90813		
PA	10 and below	309	4.0732	1.05122	-2.613	.009
	Above 10	151	4.3353	0.92007		

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion

Emotional labor has recently gained attention since emotions are treated as "commodity" in today's business mindset and it has been considered as one of the factors related to several negative individual and organizational consequences. Burnout is one of these negative consequences. Burnout has also gained considerable interest both theoretically and practically since it also has costly negative effects. Both individuals and organizations try to find ways to handle the challenges of regulating emotions and preventing burnout since these phenomena may create not only work-related problems but also have a negative spill-over effect on family lives and social lives of people. Humor can be a tool that can be used to buffer against these harmful influences of both emotional labor and burnout and it can be encouraged both on individual and organizational levels. However, positive and negative uses of humor should be differentiated as they may have contrasting effects. Although emotional labor and burnout relationship and several factors that may influence this relationship were studied by various researchers, humor styles were not mentioned among these factors. Humor or sense of humor, assumed as a uni-dimensional positive concept, was studied but the positive and negative uses of humor were not examined together. Building upon this initial framework, the purpose of this study was to analyze if there was a relationship between emotional labor and burnout and if humor styles had a moderating role on this relationship. Through this research, it was aimed to make both theoretical and practical contribution since it claimed to be the first study which examined this specific model. Based on the literature review, it was hypothesized that emotional labor and burnout had a positive relationship, and humor styles moderated this relationship.

A correlational and cross-sectional design was preferred to analyze the relationships of variables in the study. Accordingly, the survey method was used to collect the data. A 79-item questionnaire comprised of the adapted versions of Emotional Labor Scale (19 items), Maslach Burnout Inventory (22 items), Humor Styles Questionnaire (32 items) and a

personal information form (6 items) was distributed using an online platform. 460 responses were gathered using convenience sampling and none of them had missing data since a control rule was embedded in the online survey. To analyze the data, descriptive analyses, factor analyses, reliability analyses, correlation analyses, multiple linear regression & hierarchical regression analyses, and independent samples t-tests were carried out.

In terms of emotional labor-burnout relationship, the literature provided support that there was a positive relationship between emotional labor and burnout (Bartram et al., 2012; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 1999; Heuven & Bakker, 2003; Uysal, 2007; Yıldırım & Erul, 2013; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Based on these studies, it was expected that factors of emotional labor (namely deep acting, acting, and suppression) would have positive relationships with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and negative relationships with personal accomplishment. When these proposed relationships were tested through multiple regression analyses, emotional labor's contribution on burnout factors was revealed as the following:

Deep acting had a negative contribution on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, whereas it had a positive contribution on personal accomplishment. Acting had a positive contribution on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization but it had no significant contribution on personal accomplishment. Similarly, suppression had a positive contribution on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization but it had no significant contribution on personal accomplishment. These findings confirm that emotional labor has an *"ambivalent character"* and leads to both positive and negative consequences (Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Zapf, 2002). Two perspectives, "Action Theory" and "Conservation of Resources Theory" mentioned in the theoretical framework section, discussed these positive and negative consequences according to the emotional labor strategies adopted. The results of the current study turned out to be in line with the "Conservation of Resources Theory". This theory claimed that surface acting used employees' resources more than deep acting due to emotional dissonance. It means that surface acting is related to burnout, and various research supported this view (Alper Ay & Türkdoğan, 2018; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002;

Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Noor & Zainuddin, 2011; Näring, Briët, & Brouwers, 2006; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Surface acting is especially found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Eroğlu, 2014; Furnell, 2008; Grandey, 1999; Köksel, 2009; Montgomery & Panagopolou, 2006) and this current study revealed the same result for acting and suppression (which are actually forms of surface acting). On the other hand, this perspective says that deep acting may not necessarily increase burnout. The possible reasons are; there is no internal tension created by emotional dissonance; it may result in a sense of personal accomplishment since it is perceived as genuine by others and elicits positive reactions, and it may enable refilling of the emotional resources since it helps to invoke positive emotions and high morale. Some of the emotional labor studies suggested that deep acting is not related to burnout (Grandey, 1999; Noor & Zainuddin, 2011); or it is only related to personal accomplishment and not related to emotional exhaustion (Basım & Beğenirbaş, 2012; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Eroğlu, 2014; Furnell, 2008; Grandey, 2003; Lapointe et al., 2012; Oral & Köse, 2011). The current study had similar findings for deep acting-personal accomplishment relationship: deep acting had a positive contribution on personal accomplishment. These results suggest that deep acting is a very useful emotional labor strategy which may decrease the possibility of experiencing burnout, in that it decreases emotional exhaustion and depersonalization while increasing personal accomplishment. Acting and suppression, on the other hand, seem to be maladaptive strategies which accelerate the draining of one's emotional resources and alienation from others as a result.

Looking from the other perspective, the same findings can be discussed in terms of burnout factors (which were the dependent variables in the study):

Emotional exhaustion lies at the heart of the burnout concept. Maslach, Shaufeli, & Leiter (2001) argued that exhaustion was the main and most obvious aspect of burnout. The regression results suggested that emotional exhaustion was significantly predicted by deep acting, acting, and suppression: deep acting had a negative contribution while acting and suppression had positive contributions on it. There are similar findings in the literature which

revealed that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion (Bono & Vey, 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004) and deep acting had a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). According to Grandey (2003), the reasons for this relationship were; the tension created by the emotional dissonance and the depletion of individual's resources as an outcome of faking. Deep acting may require more effort at the beginning when compared to the surface acting because it requires a deeper intervention into the individual's intrapsychic world. However, emotional dissonance and the related stress may be much less at the end when compared to surface acting. So, suppression and acting have detrimental influence resulting in emotional exhaustion while deep acting has a beneficial influence.

Depersonalization was significantly predicted by deep acting, acting, and suppression: Deep acting had a negative contribution on depersonalization while acting and suppression had positive contributions on it. Acting and suppression are forms of surface acting which require either the display of fake emotions or suppressing genuine emotions. This requires an effort to manage the behaviors and creates tension in the employee as a result of emotional dissonance. In order to eliminate or reduce this tension, one can avoid the emotional aspect of the job by avoiding interactions with people or treating them as *"impersonal objects"* during these interactions (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Hence, it was supported that emotional dissonance caused by types of surface acting led to depersonalization. The literature also provides similar results where forms of surface acting are positively related to depersonalization (Grandey, 2002; Näring, Briët, & Brouwers, 2006). Deep acting, on the other hand, changes the emotion itself and reduces the emotional dissonance. This enables to preserve one's psychological and emotional resources and reduces the risk of detachment from people.

Personal accomplishment is the third factor of burnout. It was proposed that factors of emotional labor would be negatively related to personal accomplishment. Thus, negative contributions of all three emotional labor factors on personal accomplishment were expected. However, deep acting was found to contribute positively to personal accomplishment,

whereas acting and suppression were found to have no significant contributions. Deep acting's positive contribution on personal accomplishment is not surprising in the light of the literature. Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) claimed that when the employees felt their efforts to display expected emotions were not adequate and effective for customers, feelings of reduced personal accomplishment would result; but if the efforts were successful, the effect would be the reverse and it would increase personal accomplishment. Deep acting increases the likelihood that employees' efforts to manage their emotional displays will be perceived sincere by their correspondents and hence their sense of personal accomplishment will increase. Complying with the requirements of the job and performing well is rewarding for employees, especially the involved ones. Employees who are involved enjoy their jobs and elicit personal pleasure (Kruml, 1999; Wharton, 1993) which, in turn, enables them to contribute to their work in a unique way and feel successful. Wharton (1993) found that having an emotional labor-intensive job increased job satisfaction and satisfied people tend to have a higher sense of personal accomplishment. Being able to satisfy the demands of people through deep acting may give pride to employees and increase their "personality enhancement" which implies satisfaction, self-esteem, affiliation, social competencies, self-efficacy, and recognition (Hacker, 1998; cited in Zapf, 2002). Suppression and acting, however, may not have such an effect. As employees are actually aware that they only hide, mask or fake their emotions and do not (or cannot) manage their actual emotions, they do not necessarily elicit a sense of personal accomplishment. There are similar findings in the literature. For example, Brotheridge & Grandey (2002) found a positive relationship between deep acting and personal accomplishment.

All in all, the above findings affirmed that emotional labor may have both positive and negative consequences. And, the differences in the nature of emotional labor strategies allow to explain both these negative and positive outcomes.

After examining the relationships of emotional labor and burnout factors, the moderating roles of humor styles on these relationships were tested. Two significant moderating roles were revealed as a result: A moderating role of self-defeating humor on the

relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion, and a moderating role of self-enhancing humor on the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. The first thing that captures attention is that the humor styles which have a moderating role are the ones having a "self-directed" or "internal/intrapsychic" orientation (self-enhancing humor and self-defeating humor are two humor styles which are directed at one's self, whereas the other types are directed at other people). These two styles are found to moderate the relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion, and the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. Again, emotional exhaustion is the internal or intrapsychic component of burnout, when compared to depersonalization or personal accomplishment which are more social aspects of burnout. Acting and suppression, on the other hand, are two strategies of emotional labor which help to modify the "external" displays of emotions, not the internal psychological processes. This may lead to think that if a person cannot manage the emotion itself and experiences emotional exhaustion as a result, (s)he can use self-directed humor as a buffer against the depletion of emotional resources.

Self-defeating humor was found to weaken the positive relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion. Results showed that people who used lower levels of self-defeating humor were more sensitive to the harmful influence of acting. Up to high levels of acting, as the self-defeating humor style was used more, the increase in emotional exhaustion became smaller. But, at high levels of acting, the level of self-defeating humor did not change the level of emotional exhaustion. This meant that self-defeating humor had a partial-moderation effect on the relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion. Based on the conceptualization of self-defeating humor and past research, it was expected to strengthen the positive relationship between acting and emotional exhaustion. In other words, it was proposed that acting would contribute to emotional exhaustion, and as a higher level of self-defeating humor is used, the increase in emotional exhaustion would be greater. This expectation drew upon the assumption that self-defeating humor, as a maladaptive humor style, would make both emotion regulation process and coping with burnout much more difficult. Self-defeating humor is categorized under negative humor styles theoretically (Martin et al., 2003). However, its function and perception depends mainly on the micro and

macro cultural context. In cultures where humility and friendliness are appreciated, self-defeating humor may be a means of cultivating social relationships and act as affiliative humor since it reduces the social distance between people. That is, self-defeating humor may be considered as a type of positive humor since individuals who are able to have fun with their own defects and who do not take themselves too seriously may be perceived by others as more loveable and less intimidating (Ziv, 1984). It may also stem from being comfortable in one's skin and feeling free to make fun of self-defects or failures. Although this is not compatible with Martin et al.'s (2003) theoretical definition of the concept, it may be valid for collectivist cultures such as Turkey. When used in such a positive way, it may refill the depleting emotional resources and slow down the journey from acting to emotional exhaustion and this validates the findings of the current study.

Self-enhancing humor was found to weaken the positive relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. Results showed that people who used lower levels of self-enhancing humor were more sensitive to the harmful influence of suppression. Up to average levels of suppression, as the self-enhancing humor style was used more, the increase in emotional exhaustion became smaller. After passing over average levels of suppression, the higher use of self-enhancing humor style started to decrease the level of emotional exhaustion. This meant that self-enhancing humor had a full-moderation effect on the relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. Self-enhancing humor is a type of positive humor according to Martin et al.'s (2003) model. People who use self-enhancing humor have a humorous perspective and they do not easily get stressed by problems or hassles of life (Lefcourt et al., 1997; Romero & Cruthirds, 2006). Based on the conceptualization of self-enhancing humor and past research, it was expected to weaken the positive relationship between suppression and emotional exhaustion. In other words, it was proposed that suppression would contribute to emotional exhaustion, but as a higher level of self-enhancing humor was used, the increase in emotional exhaustion would be smaller, or even the level of emotional exhaustion might begin to decrease.

The findings of the current research are in line with this expectation. For example, Kuiper, Martin, & Olinger (1993) claimed that self-enhancing humor could reduce the impact of stress via cognitive appraisal and they found that stress level was negatively related to humorous coping. This means that self-enhancing humor may help to reappraise stressful situations in a positive way. It also gives a sense of power over a situation (Henman, 2001). So, it is not surprising that among employees who face similar levels of emotional labor requirements, those who use self-enhancing humor more may be experiencing lower levels of burnout. Suppression requires to hide or push down the existing emotions and this creates an internal pressure for the individual. This pressure is largely experienced in the form of emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and emotional dissonance is related to emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Results of the current study supported the view that self-enhancing humor could act as a relief tool which could release the internal pressure safely, thereby buffering against emotional exhaustion. From another perspective, unlike deep acting, suppression does not involve the cognitive change process and just pushes down the existing emotions. Self-enhancing humor, on the other hand, requires a cognitive change process which may inevitably modify the existing emotions as well, and compensates for the insufficiencies of suppression strategy. This is likely to result in lower levels of emotional exhaustion.

After testing the hypotheses, difference tests were conducted to understand if there were significant differences between demographic groups. Some significant differences were found as a result:

In terms of gender, the levels of deep acting and acting differed. Women were found to demonstrate significantly higher levels of deep acting and acting strategies when compared to men. Johnson (2007) and Özdemir, Yalçın, & Akbıyık (2013) found similar results. Wharton & Erickson (1993) discussed that women were more inclined to regulate emotions both at home and at work. Hochschild (1983) claimed that women had a weaker "status shield" like other disadvantaged groups of the society. They had to deal more with others' aggressive emotions or reactions and lacked societal or structural support to handle these. So,

they feel more obliged to manage their emotions or emotional expressions. The findings of the current study support the gender differences in terms of emotional labor strategies in the literature.

Education levels were examined in two groups: “university and above” degrees versus “below university” degrees. All emotional labor strategies (namely, deep acting, acting and suppression) differed significantly between the two groups. Among burnout factors, only emotional exhaustion had a significant difference. Findings revealed that deep acting and acting strategies were used more by the lower education group. Contrastingly, participants who had higher education used higher levels of suppression. They are also found to experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion. This can be due to the higher utilization of the suppression strategy. As people get more educated, they might be more inclined to obey etiquette rules and have sharper standards as to what is appropriate and what is wrong. This may create an internal pressure to suppress improper emotions. On the other hand, education levels should be discussed with extra caution since education level generally goes parallel to hierarchical positions. Positions which have hierarchically higher status may also require more strategic and political behavior, and suppression may be adopted as a tool to enable this. People who have lower education generally hold non-managerial positions and therefore face customer and colleague interactions more frequently on an operational basis. This may explain the higher levels of deep acting and acting. The literature provides contrasting findings for educational level. Some studies found no significant differences in emotional labor strategies in terms of education level (Ağırman, 2012; Kaya, 2014), whereas some studies found significant differences (Yanar, 2018). As to the emotional exhaustion, Yanar (2018) found a different result from the current study showing that participants who had high school and college education had higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

When participants who had a managerial status were compared to the participants who did not, it was seen that they differed in the level of deep acting, acting and personal accomplishment. Non-manager participants performed higher levels of acting and deep acting. However, managers had a higher sense of personal accomplishment. This may be a

result of the differing requirements of the managerial and non-managerial jobs. Non-managers generally perform the day-to-day tasks, tend to have more interactions with other people and deal more with operational issues. This may increase the need for more emotional labor. Managers, on the other hand, tend to carry out more strategic issues and interactions. They also have the advantage to delegate the undesirable daily issues to team members. This may increase their sense of personal accomplishment and decrease the need to manage emotions. These findings are also compatible with the findings about education level presented above. Deep acting and acting were found to be used more by participants with lower education and these people usually tend to hold non-managerial positions. Erickson & Ritter (2001) discuss that people holding higher status positions (like managerial roles) usually have greater control over demands for emotion regulation. On the other hand, people holding lower status positions have less control over the demands for emotion regulation and are expected to display positive emotions and not to display the negative ones. This sense of control may also increase the sense of personal accomplishment for people holding higher status positions.

The sample was divided into two groups according to age: Participants who were aged 18-40 versus participants who were above 40. The difference tests showed that people aged between 18-40 performed significantly higher levels of deep acting and acting. This may indicate that as people get older (and probably have longer experience in the profession), they tend to regulate their emotions less and begin to act spontaneously. Another reason might be that the display rules become so internalized that employees do not spend extra effort to obey them. Or, the emotional labor strategies become employees' automatic responses as if they are genuine feelings. There are studies which provide different results for age. For example, Ünler Öz (2007) found that emotional labor strategies did not differ in terms of age. The 18-40 age group also displayed higher levels of self-defeating humor. This may imply that people try to gain approval through self-ridicule in early stages of life but then this need decreases as they get older. Or from another perspective, younger people might have more freedom to laugh at themselves but as they grow older and possibly climb up the corporate ladder, they lose this freedom to an extent.

According to tenure, the sample was divided into two groups: Participants who had tenure of 10 years or less versus participants who had tenure for more than 10 years. Participants who had tenure of 10 years or less were found to display higher levels of deep acting and acting but felt lower levels of personal accomplishment. As age mainly goes together with tenure, emotional labor-age relationship discussed above also holds for emotional labor-tenure relationship. Besides, burnout tends to occur especially in the early years of professional life. If employees cannot cope with this syndrome, they may quit their professions entirely. If they can cope with it, they might survive for long years. As employees survive burnout and have greater experience in the profession, they are likely to feel more competent and adept. This also supports the finding that people with higher tenure enjoy higher levels of personal accomplishment. The literature provides diverse findings in terms of tenure. Ünler Öz (2007) and Uysal (2007) found that deep acting increased with tenure. Yanar (2018) found no differences in emotional labor strategies except for genuine emotions and no differences in personal accomplishment in terms of tenure.

5.2 Limitations and Suggestions

The current research has several limitations in terms of design, instruments, and sampling. Firstly, the research has a cross-sectional design. So, causality among variables cannot be inferred. For example, it was found that as the level of acting increases, the level of emotional exhaustion increases, too. However, this does not necessarily mean that acting causes emotional exhaustion. So, it is suggested that future studies may utilize more sophisticated methods such as longitudinal designs or multiple data sources including diaries or observations in order to have further insight into the possible causalities.

Secondly, there are limitations stemming from the survey method. The study relies solely on self-report data obtained through questionnaires. This brings along the assumptions that the questionnaires were adequate to assess the concepts of interest and the responses were honest and consistent. In future studies which utilize questionnaires, data may be obtained not only from employees but also from their managers and their colleagues since

single-source data increase common source bias. Multiple-source data also reduce the social desirability problem related to self-report data. Another option to bypass this problem is to add social desirability scales as well.

Another drawback of the survey utilized in this study was its length, including 79 items in total. This might have reduced the participation rate, and/or the willingness and attention of the people who participated. Future studies which prefer survey method may try to use or develop shorter versions of the questionnaires. More specifically, there were feedbacks from participants about the emotional labor scale that claimed the expressions were vague and they had difficulty in distinguishing between the nuances of expressions. This may have resulted in inconsistent or confused responses. As for the HSQ, the expressions intended to assess the aggressive humor style were considered as "literally aggressive" and people are generally not very objective to label themselves as *"aggressive"*. So, the responses were probably subject to social desirability or subjectivity to some extent.

Moreover, the questionnaires were originated abroad and adapted to Turkish. Hence, they are likely to include subtle cultural assumptions and biases. For example, emotional labor scale intended to measure two factors (surface and deep acting) but there is research in Turkey (e.g. Başkaya Özbingöl, 2013; Ünler Öz, 2007) which have yielded the three factors (deep acting, acting, and suppression) found in this current study. Although Yalçın (2010) found a two-factor structure (surface and deep acting), she suggested that there was no consensus as to the factors of emotional labor and future research should focus on identifying the factors of emotional labor. Similarly, humor styles inventory intends to assess four factors of humor but the current study revealed that aggressive humor may not show up as a factor and self-defeating humor may function as a positive humor style. Therefore, it is suggested that local measures which consider cultural factors valid for Turkey may be developed for local studies. This may add a cultural perspective to the existing models of emotional labor or humor, and new factors may come up enriching the existing literature. From the same perspective, the data used in this current study is collected in 2018 from

participants living in Istanbul, Turkey. Hence, the results have limited generalizability to other countries with differing cultures.

Thirdly, the convenience sampling method was used in the current study and the resulting sample had participants from diverse professions and backgrounds. However, this also brings about the difficulty of making inferences and generalizations about the results of the study. As different organizational environments include different organizational and occupational norms or conditions, the interfering factors cannot be grasped. Specifically, humor studies are not very common in Turkey. So, in the initial studies, examining humor and humor styles in specific occupations or industries may help researchers to control for the factors which influence humor use, such as company culture or organizational climate, and make more precise inferences.

Adding to these, as this is the first study to examine humor styles' moderating roles on the relationship between emotional labor and burnout, and as it has provided interesting results for possible moderating roles, it is strongly suggested that the model should be tested in other settings with different samples and methodological approaches. Further research will provide deeper insight into the underlying dynamics which have not been discovered yet.

Based on the findings of the study, several practical suggestions can also be made:

Emotional labor is still not very well known in the business world. It should be acknowledged in the organizations so that business owners, managers, and employees should become aware that they not only use financial capital, physical and mental power but also their emotions for their work. Hence, becoming aware of the existence of such kind of labor, and its both positive and negative consequences may give them a sense of control. Emotional labor is found to have the power to either increase or decrease burnout depending on the strategy adopted. So, companies should inform employees and increase their awareness about emotional labor, and the relevant strategies. Ways to cope with emotional labor demands in a more constructive and healthy way should be taught. Unless the organizations can find a way to drain the emotional burden on employees and train them about healthy emotion

management and release techniques, they have to bear the explicit and subtle cost of employee burnout. This is important for both the well-being of employees and the work results of the organizations.

When their relationships to burnout are considered, deep acting is found to be a more adaptive strategy compared to acting or suppression. So, the use of deep acting strategy may be integrated into HR policies. Organizations may develop training programs to encourage the use of deep acting strategy. Also, performance management and reward systems may also be arranged to encourage proper use of emotion regulation strategies, namely the deep acting strategy.

Although burnout is a relatively more known concept, it still has a long way to enter into the management or HR agenda of the organizations. Burnout is proved to be costly for organizations. So, investing in the diagnosis and prevention of it may pay off. For diagnosis, organizations may integrate the measurement of burnout levels into practices such as periodic employee satisfaction surveys or organizational climate surveys. They may also provide professional and psychological counseling to employees if needed. Managerial support is also helpful in guiding employees who already experience burnout or the ones who are potential candidates for it.

Finally, since this current study can be considered an initial step to understand the potential effects of different humor styles on the emotional labor-burnout relationship, it is still early to draw any conclusions. However, the adaptive use of humor has gone a long way to prove its benefits individually and organizationally. The organizations may invest in creating an organizational culture which fosters adaptive uses of humor; given that they clearly define beforehand which style is adaptive and which is not, within their organizational culture.

REFERENCES

Abel, M. H. (1998). Interaction between Humor and Gender in Moderating Relationships Stress and Outcomes. Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied. 132. 3, 267-276.

Abraham, R. (1998). Emotional Dissonance in Organizations: Antecedents, Consequences, and Moderators. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs.* 124. 2, 229-246.

Adelman, P. K. (1995). Emotional Labor as A Potential Source of Job Stress. In S.L. Sauter & L.R. Murphy (Eds.). *Organizational Risk Factors for Job Stress.* Washington D.C: American Psychological Association.

Ağırman, Ü. H. (2012). İş ve Çalışan Odaklı Duygusal Emek Gösterimlerinin Çalışanların Tükenmişlik Düzeyine Etkisi. *Master Dissertation.* Erzurum: Atatürk University Social Sciences Institute.

Alarcon, G., Eschleman, K. J., & Bowling, N. A. (2009). Relationships between Personality Variables and Burnout: A Meta-Analysis. *Work & Stress.* 23. 3, 244-263.

Albrecht, K. & Zemke, R. (1985). *Service America! Doing Business in the New Economy.* Homewood, IL: Dow Jones-lrwin.

Alper Ay, F. & Türkdoğan, N. (2018). Duygusal Emek, Tükenmişlik, İşten Ayrılma Niyeti ve İş Performansı Arasındaki İlişkiler. *Örgütsel Davranış Araştırmaları Dergisi.* 3. 1, 87-103.

Ardıç, K. & Polatçı, S. (2008). Tükenmişlik Sendromu: Akademisyenler Üzerinde Bir Uygulama (GOÜ Örneği). *Gazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi.* 10. 2, 69-96.

Arvey, R. D., Renz, G. L., & Watson, T. W. (1998). Emotionality and Job Performance: Implications for Personnel Selection. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management.* 16, 103-147.

Ashforth, B. E. & Humphrey, R. H. (1993). Emotional Labor in Service Roles: The Influence of Identity. *Academy of Management Review.* 18. 1, 88-115.

Aslan, H. S., Evlice, E. E., Alpaslan, N. Z., Aslan, O. R., & Cenkseven, F. (1996). Mizah Duygusunun Depresyon ve Kişilikle İlişkisi. *Depresyon Dergisi.* 1. 3, 99-102.

Avolio, B. J., Howell, J. M., & Sosik, J. J. (1999). A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Bottom Line: Humor as a Moderator of Leadership Style Effects. *Academy of Management Journal*. 42. 2, 219-227.

Awa, W. L., Plaumann, M., & Walter, U. (2010). Burnout Prevention: A Review of Intervention Programs. *Patient Education and Counseling.* 78, 184-190.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using The Job Demands-Resources Model to Predict Burnout and Performance. *Human Resource Management.* 43. 1, 83-104.

Balcıoğlu, İ., Memetali, S., & Rozant, R. (2008). Tükenmişlik Sendromu. *Dirim Tıp Gazetesi.* 83, 99-104.

Baltaş A. & Baltaş, Z. (2002). *Stres ve Başa Çıkma Yolları.* İstanbul: Remzi Kitabevi.

Bartram, T., Casimir, G., Djurkovic, N., Leggat, S. G., & Stanton, P. (2012). Do Perceived High Performance Work Systems Influence the Relationship between Emotional Labour, Burnout, and Intention to Leave? A Study of Australian Nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing.* 68. 7, 1567-1578.

Barutçu, E. & Serinkan, C. (2008). Günümüzün Önemli Sorunlarından Biri Olarak Tükenmişlik Sendromu ve Denizli'de Yapılan Bir Araştırma. *Ege Akademik Bakış.* 8. 2, 541-561.

Basım, N. & Şeşen, H. (2006). Mesleki Tükenmişlikte Bazı Demografik Değişkenlerin Etkisi: Kamuda Bir Araştırma. *Ege Academic Review*. 6. 2, 15-23.

Basım, N. & Beğenirbaş, M. (2012). Çalışma Yaşamında Duygusal Emek: Bir Ölçek Uyarlama Çalışması. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi.* 19. 1, 77-90.

Başkaya Özbingöl, Z. N. (2013). Impact of Emotional Labor on Organizational Outcomes: A Comparative Study in Public and Private Universities. *Doctoral Dissertation.* İstanbul: Marmara University.

Baysal, A. (1995). Lise ve Dengi Okul Öğretmenlerinde Meslekte Tükenmişliğe Etki Eden Faktörler. *Doctoral Dissertation.* İzmir: Dokuz Eylül University Social Sciences Institute.

Beermann, U. & Ruch, W. (2009). How Virtuous is Humor? What We Can Learn from Current Instruments. *The Journal of Positive Psychology.* 4. 6, 528-539.

Boles, J., Dean, D., Ricks, J., Short, J., & Wang, G. (2000). The Dimensionality of the Maslach Burnout Inventory across Small Business Owners and Educators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. 56, 12-34.

Bono J. E. & Vey, M.A. (2005) Toward Understanding Emotional Management at Work: A Quantitative Review of Emotional Labor Research. In C.E. Hartel, W. J. Zerbe & N.M. Ashkanasy (Eds.). *Emotions in Organizational Behavior.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers: Mahwah, NJ. 213–233.

Bradney, P. (1957). The Joking Relationship in Industry. *Human Relations.* 10. 2, 179-187.

Brock, B. & Grady, M. (2002). *Avoiding Burnout: A Principal's Guide to Keeping the Fire Alive.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Brotheridge C. M. & Lee, R. T. (2003). Development and Validation of The Emotional Labour Scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology.* 76, 365-379.

Brotheridge, C. M. & Grandey, A. A. (2002). Emotional Labor and Burnout: Comparing Two Perspectives of People Work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.* 60, 17-39.

Brotheridge, C. M. & Lee, R. (1998). On the Dimensionality of Emotional Labor: Development and Validation of an Emotional Labor Scale. *First Conference on Emotions in Organizational Life.* San Diego: CA.

Bulan, H. F., Erickson, R. J., & Wharton, A. S. (1997). Doing for Others on the Job: The Affective Requirements of Service Work, Gender, and Emotional Well-Being. *Social Problems.* 44, 701-23.

Buss, D. M. (1987). Selection, Evocation, and Manipulation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 53, 1214-1221.

Cann, A. & Calhoun, L. G. (2001). Perceived Personality Associations with Differences in Sense of Humor: Stereotypes of Hypothetical Others with High or Low Senses of Humor. *Humor.* 14, 117-130.

Cann, A. & Collette, C. (2014). Sense of Humor, Stable Affect, and Psychological Well-Being. *Europe's Journal of Psychology.* 10. 3, 464-479.

Cann, A. & Etzel, K. (2008). Remembering and Anticipating Stressors: Positive Personality Mediates the Relationship with Sense of Humor. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research.* 21. 2, 157-178.

Cann, A., Zapata, C.L., & Davis, H. (2009). Positive and Negative Styles of Humor in Communication: Evidence for the Importance of Considering Both Styles. *Communication Quarterly.* 57. 452-468.

Carrell, A. (2008). Historical Views of Humor. In V. Raskin (Ed.). *The Primer of Humor Research.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 303-332.

Carver, C. S. & Scheier, M. F. (1990). Origins and Functions of Positive and Negative Affect: A Control-Process View. *Psychological Review*. 97, 19-35.

Caudron, S. (1992). Humor is Healthy in the Workplace. *Personnel Journal.* 71. 6, 63-67.

Cengiz, Ö. (2018). Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Tükenmişlik ve Yabancılaşma Düzeylerinin Farklı Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi. *Master Dissertation.* İstanbul: Marmara University Educational Sciences Institute.

Chang C. & Chiu, J. (2009). Flight Attendants' Emotional Labor and Exhaustion in The Taiwanese Airline Industry. *Journal of Service Science and Management.* 2, 305-311.

Cherniss, C. (1980). *Professional Burnout in Human Service Organizations.* New York: Praeger Press.

Chu, K. H. L. (2002). The Effects of Emotional Labor on Employee Work Outcomes. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Blacksburg, Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Collinson, D. L. (2002). Managing Humour. *Journal of Management Studies.* 39. 3, 269-288.

Cooper, C. D. (2005). Just Joking Around? Employee Humor Expression as an Ingratiatory Behavior. *Academy of Management Review.* 30. 4, 765-776.

Cordes, C. L. & Dougherty, T. W. (1993). A Review and an Integration of Research on Job Burnout. *The Academy of Management Review.* 18. 4, 621-656.

Coser, R. (1959). Some Social Functions of Laughter: A Study of Humor in a Hospital Setting. *Human Relations.* 12. 171–182.

Cousins, N. (1979). *Anatomy of an Illness as Perceived by the Patient: Reflections on Healing and Regeneration.* New York: Bantam.

Crawford, C. B. (1994). Theory and Implications Regarding the Utilization of Strategic Humor by Leaders. *The Journal of Leadership Studies.* 1. 4, 53-68.

Crawford, S. A. & Caltabiano, N. J. (2011). Promoting Emotional Well-Being through the Use of Humour. *The Journal of Positive Psychology.* 6. 3, 237-252.

Çaldağ, M. A. (2010). Duygusal Emek Davranışlarının Sağlık Çalışanlarında İş Sonuçlarına Etkileri. *Master Dissertation.* Konya: Selçuk University Social Sciences Institute.

Çetin, M. (2009). Çalışanların Mizah Tarzlarının İşe İlişkin Duygusal İyilik Algıları üzerine Etkisi ve Sosyal İklimin Bu İlişki üzerindeki Şartlı Değişken Rolü. *Master Dissertation.* İstanbul: Marmara University Social Sciences Institute.

Darwin, C. (1872). *The Expression of Emotions in Animals and Man.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Diefendorff, J. M. & Gosserand, R. H. (2003). Understanding the Emotional Labor Process: A Control Theory Perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* 24. 8, 945-959.

Diefendorff, J. M., Erickson, R. J., Grandey, A. A., & Dahling, J. J. (2011). Emotional Display Rules as Work Unit Norms: A Multilevel Analysis of Emotional Labor among Nurses. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology.* 16. 2, 170-186.

Dixon, N. F. (1980). A Cognitive Alternative to Stress? In I. G. Sarason & C. D. Spielberger (Eds.). *Stress and Anxiety.* Vol. 5. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Duncan, W. J., Smelzer, L. R., & Leap, T. L. (1990). Humor and Work: Applications of Joking Behavior to Management. *Journal of Management.* 16. 2, 255-278.

Duncan, W. J. (1982). Humor in Management: Prospects for Administrative Practice and Research. *Academy of Management Review.* 7. 1, 136-142.

Durmuş B., Yurtkoru, E. S., & Çinko, M. (2011). *Sosyal Bilimlerde SPSS'le Veri Analizi.* 4. İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım.

Durmuş, Y. (2000). The Relationship between Sense of Humor and Coping Strategies. *Master Dissertation.* Ankara: Middle East Technical University Social Sciences Institute.

Dwyer, T. (1991). Humor, Power, and Change in Organizations. *Human Relations.* 44. 1, 1-19.

Edelwich, J. & Brodsky, A. (1980). *Burn-Out - Stages of Disillusionment in the Helping Professions.* New York: Human Sciences Press.

Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person-Job Fit: A Conceptual Integration, Literature Review, and Methodological Critique. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.). *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology.* Vol. 6. Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons, 283-357.

Ekman, P. (1972). Universals and Cultural Differences in Facial Expression of Emotion. In J. Cole (Ed.). *Nebraska Symposium of Motivation.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 207-283.

Ekman, P. (1973). *Darwin and Facial Expression: A Century of Research in Review.* New York: Academic Press.

Ekman, P. & Friesen, W. V. (1969). Non-Verbal Leakage and Clues to Deception. *Psychiatry.* 32, 88-106.

Ergin, C. (1992). Doktor ve Hemşirelerde Tükenmişlik ve Maslach Tükenmişlik Ölçeği'nin Uyarlanması. *VII. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi Bilimsel Çalışmaları.* Ankara: Türk Psikologlar Derneği Yayınları, 143-154.

Erickson, R. J. & Ritter, C. (2001). Emotional Labor, Burnout, and Inauthenticity: Does Gender Matter? *Social Psychology Quarterly.* 64. 2, 146-163.

Erickson, R. J. & Wharton, A. S. (1997). Inauthenticity and Depression: Assessing the Consequences of Interactive Service Work. *Work and Occupations.* 24. 2, 188-213.

Eroğlu, Ş. (2014). Örgütlerde Duygusal Emek ve Tükenmişlik İlişkisi Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Denizli: Pamukkale University Social Sciences Institute.

Fabrizi, M. S. & Pollio, H. R. (1987). A Naturalistic Study of Humorous Activity in a Third, Seventh, and Eleventh Grade Classroom. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly.* 33, 107-128.

Fincham, R. & Rhodes, P. (2005). *Principles of Organizational Behaviour.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Fineman, S. (2003). *Understanding Emotion at Work.* London: Sage Publications.

Firth, L., Mellor, D., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How Can Managers Reduce Employee Intention to Quit? *Journal of Managerial Psychology.* 19. 2, 170-187.

Fisher, C. D. (2002). Antecedents and Consequences of Real-Time Affective Reactions at Work. *Motivation and Emotion.* 26. 1, 1-30.

Ford, R. C., McLaughlin, F. S. & Newstrom, J. W. (2004). Having Fun at Work. *Engineering Management.* 14. 2, 32-33.

Freud, S. (1928). Humour. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*. 9, 1-6.

Freud, S. (1985). *Civilization, Society and Religion.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Freudenberger, H. (1980). *Burnout: The High Cost of High Achievement.* Garden City, NY: Anchor Press.

Freudenberger, H. J. (1974). Staff Burnout. *Journal of Social Issues.* 30, 159-165.

Friedman, H. S., Tucker, J. S., Tomlinson-Keasey, C., Schwartz, J. E., Wingard, D. L., & Criqui, M. H. (1993). Does Childhood Personality Predict Longevity? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 65, 176-185.

Frijda, N. H. (1986). *The Emotions.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Fry, W. F. (1992). The Physiologic Effects of Humor, Mirth, and Laughter. *Journal of the American Medical Association.* 267. 13, 1857-1858.

Fry, W. F. (2002). Humor and the Brain: A Selective Review. *Humor.* 15, 305-333.

Furnell, A. B. (2008). Exploring the Relationship Between Burnout, Emotional Labour and Emotional Intelligence: A Study on Call Centre Representatives. *Master Dissertation.* South Africa: Industrial Psychology at The University of Stellenbosch.

Glomb T. M & Tews, M. J. (2004). Emotional Labor: A Conceptualization and Scale Development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.* 64, 1-23.

Goffman, E. (1959). *Presentation of Self in Everyday Life.* New York: Overlook Press.

Gopalan, N, Culbertson, S. & Leiva, P. I. (2013). Explaining Emotional Labor's Relationships with Emotional Exhaustion and Life Satisfaction: Moderating Role of Perceived Autonomy. *Universitas Psychologica.* 12. 2, 347-356.

Gosserand, R. H. (2003). An Examination of Individual and Organizational Factors related to Emotional Labor. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Lousiana: Louisiana State University.

Gosserand, R.H. & Diefendorff, J. M. (2005). Emotional Display Rules and Emotional Labor: The Moderating Role of Commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 90. 6, 1256-1264.

Graham, E. E. (1995). The Involvement of Sense of Humor in the Development of Social Relationships. *Communication Reports.* 8. 2, 158-169.

Grandey, A. A. (1999). The Effects of Emotional Labor: Employee Attitudes, Stress, and Performance. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Colorado: Colorado State University.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotion Regulation in the Workplace: A New Way to Conceptualize Emotional Labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology.* 5. 1, 95-110.

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "The Show Must Go On": Surface Acting and Deep Acting as Determinants of Emotional Exhaustion and Peer-Rated Service Delivery. *Academy of Management Journal.* 46. 1, 86-96.

Grandey, A. A. & Brauburger, A. L. (2002). The Emotion Regulation Behind the Customer Service Smile. In R. G. Lord, R. J. Klimoski & R. Kanfer (Eds.). *Emotions in the Workplace.* New York: Jossey-Bass.

Greene, G. (1961). *A Burnt-out Case.* New York: Viking Press.

Gross, J. J. (1998). The Emerging Field of Emotion Regulation: An Integrative Review. *Review of General Psychology.* 2. 3, 271-299.

Grove, S. J. & Fisk, R. P. (1989). Impression Management in Services Marketing: A Dramaturgical Perspective. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.). *Impression Management in the Organizations.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 427-438.

Güven, S. (2013). Cerrahi Kliniklerde Çalışan Hemşirelerin Mizah Tarzları ile Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri arasındaki İlişkinin Saptanması. *Master Dissertation*. Ankara: Başkent University Health Sciences Institute.

Hawkins, D. (2008). Comparing the Use of Humor to Other Coping Mechanisms in Relation to Maslach's Theory of Burnout. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Florida: The University of Florida.

Helliwell, T. (1981). Are You a Potential Burnout? *Training and Development Journal.* 35. 10, 25-29.

Henman, L. D. (2001). Humor as a Coping Mechanism: Lessons from POWs. *Humor*. 14. 1, 55-82.

Heuven, E. & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Emotional Dissonance and Burnout Among Cabin Attendants. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology.* 12. 1, 81-100.

Hobfoll S. E. (1989). Conservation of Resources: A New Attempt at Conceptualizing Stress. *American Psychological Association.* 44. 3, 513-524.

Hochschild, A. R. (1979). Emotion Work, Feeling Rules and Social Structure. *American Journal of Sociology.* 85, 551-575.

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Holmes, J. & Marra, M. (2002). Having a Laugh at Work: How Humor Contributes to Workplace Culture. *Journal of Pragmatics.* 34. 12, 1683-1710.

Hsing, Y. L. (2012). The Influence of Emotional Labor and Job Stress on Burnout for Customer Service Representative in Information Service Industry-The Moderating Effect of Sense of Humor. *Master Dissertation.* Taiwan.

Huang, L. H. (2012). The Relationship among Emotional Labor, Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction: The Moderating Effect of Sense of Humor. *Master Dissertation.* Taiwan.

Jackson, S., Schwab, R. & Schulaer, R. (1986). Toward an Understanding of The Burnout Phenomenon. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 71. 4, 630-640.

James, W. (1894). The Physical Basis of Emotion. *Psychological Review*. 101, 205-210.

Janes, L. M. & Olsen, J. M. (2000). Jeer Pressure: The Behavioral Effects of Observing Ridicule of Others. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin.* 26, 474-485.

Johnson, H. M. (2007). Service with a Smile: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labor Strategies. *Doctoral Dissertation.* Florida: University of South Florida.

Judge, T. A. & Ilies, R. (2004). Affect and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Their Relationship at Work and at Home. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 89. 4, 661-673.

Just, N. & Alloy, L. B. (1997). The Response Styles Theory of Depression: Tests and an Extension of the Theory. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*. 106, 221-229.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity.* Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Kahn, W. (1989). Toward a Sense of Organizational Humor: Implications for Organizational Diagnosis and Change. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science.* 25. 1, 45-63.

Kang, S. (2015). Impact of Nursing Students' Emotional Labor on Burnout during Nursing Practice in a Hospital: Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence. *Journal of Korean Academy of Nursing Administration.* 21. 1, 77-87.

Karagöz, O. (2009). İlköğretim Türkçe Öğretmenlerinin Mizah Tarzları ile Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri arasındaki İlişki. *Master Dissertation*. İstanbul: Maltepe University Social Sciences Institute.

Karakaya, E. (2018). Tükenmişlik, İş Stresi ve Duygusal Zeka arasındaki İlişki: Akademisyenler üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Master Dissertation*. İstanbul: Marmara University Social Sciences Institute.

Kaya, F. (2014). Duygusal Emek İle Tükenmişlik ve İş Doyumu Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi: Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı'na Bağlı Huzurevlerinde Çalışan Yaşlı Bakım Personeline Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Master Dissertation.* Celal Bayar University Social Sciences Institute.

Kayabaşı, Y. (2008). Bazı Değişkenler Açısından Öğretmenlerin Mesleki Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri. *Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi.* 20, 191-212.

Kohler, G. & Ruch, W. (1996). Sources of Variance in Current Sense of Humor Inventories: How Much Substance, How Much Method Variance? *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research.* 9, 363-397.

Köksel, L. (2009). İş Yaşamında Duygusal Emek ve Ampirik Bir Araştırma. *Master Dissertation.* Manisa: Celal Bayar University Social Sciences Institute.

Kruml, S. M. (1999). The Heart Working: An Empirical Investigation of the Dimensions, Antecedents, and Outcomes of Emotional Labor. *Doctoral Dissertation*. U.S.A.: Temple University.

Kruml, S. M. & Geddes, D. (2000). Exploring the Dimensions of Emotional Labor. *Management Communication Quarterly.* 14. 1, 8-49.

Kubie, L. S. (1971). The Destructive Potential of Humor in Psychotherapy. *American Journal of Psychiatry.* 127, 37-42.

Kuiper, N. A., Grimshaw, M., Leite, C., & Kirsh, G. (2004). Humor is not Always the Best Medicine: Specific Components of Sense of Humor and Psychological Well-Being. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research.* 17. 1/2, 135-168.

Kuiper, N. A., Martin, R. A., & Dance, K. A. (1992). Sense of Humor and Enhanced Quality of Life. *Personality and Individual Differences.* 13, 1273-1283.

Kuiper, N. A., Martin, R. A., & Olinger, L. J. (1993). Coping Humour, Stress, and Cognitive Appraisals. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science.* 25, 81-96.

Kuiper, N. A., McKenzie, S. D., & Belanger, K. A. (1995). Cognitive Appraisals and Individual Differences in Sense of Humor: Motivational and Affective Implications. *Personality and Individual Differences.* 19. 3, 359-372.

Lapointe, E., Morin, A. J. S., Courcy, F., Boilard, A., & Payette, D. (2012). Workplace Affective Commitment, Emotional Labor and Burnout: A Multiple Mediator Model. *Intentional Journal of Business and Management.* 7. 1, 3-21.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Emotion. *American Psychologist.* 46, 819-834.

Lazarus, R. S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping.* New York: Springer.

Lee, E. K. & Ji, E. J. (2018). The Moderating Role of Leader-Member Exchange in the Relationships Between Emotional Labor and Burnout in Clinical Nurses. *Asian Nursing Research.* 12, 56-61.

Lee, R. T. & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A Meta-analytic Examination of the Correlates of the Three Dimensions of Burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 81, 123-133.

Lefcourt, H. M. (2001). *Humor: The Psychology of Living Buoyantly.* New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Lefcourt, H. M. & Martin, R. A. (1986). *Humor and Life Stress: Antidote to Adversity.* New York: Springer.

Lefcourt, H. M., Davidson, K., Prkachin, K. M., & Mills, D. E. (1997). Humor as a Stress Moderator in the Prediction of Blood Pressure Obtained during Five Stressful Tasks. *Journal of Research in Personality.* 31, 523-542.

Leidner, R. (1993). *Fast Food, Fast Talk: Service Work and the Routinization of Everyday Life.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Leiter, M. & Maslach, C. (1999). Six Areas of Worklife: A Model of the Organizational Context of Burnout. *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration.* 21, 472-489.

Leiter, M. P. & Maslach, C. (2001). Burnout and Quality in a Sped-Up World. *The Journal for Quality and Participation; Cincinnati.* 24. 2, 48-51.

Lloyd, C., King, R., & Chenoweth, L. (2002). Social Work, Stress and Burnout: A Review. *Journal of Mental Health.* 11. 3, 255-265.

Lundberg, C. C. (1969). Person-Focused Joking: Pattern and Function. *Human Organization.* 28. 1, 22-8.

Luthans, F. (2005). *Organizational Behavior.* Irwin: McGraw-Hill.

Lyubomirsky, S., Sheldon, K. M., & Schkade, D. (2005). Pursuing Happiness: The Architecture of Sustainable Change. *Review of General Psychology.* 9. 2, 111-131.

Malinowski, A. J. (2009). The Moderating Effects of Humor on Job Burnout among Mental Health Therapists: A Multiple Regression Analysis Approach. *Doctoral Dissertation*. Minneapolis: Capella University.

Malone, P. B. (1980). Humor: A Double-Edged Tool for Today's Managers? *Academy of Management Review.* 5. 3, 357- 360.

Maples, M. F., Dupey, P., Torres-Rivera, E., Phan, L. T., Vereen, L., & Garrett, M. T. (2001). Ethnic Diversity and the Use of Humor in Counseling: Appropriate or Inappropriate? *Journal of Counseling & Development.* 79. 1, 53-61.

Martin, R. A. (1998). Approaches to the Sense of Humor: A Historical View. In W. Ruch (Ed.). *Sense of Humor.* New York: Mounten de Gruyter.

Martin, R. A. (2001). Humor, Laughter, and Physical Health: Methodological Issues and Research Findings. *Psychological Bulletin.* 127, 504-519.

Martin, R. A. (2004). Sense of Humor and Physical Health: Theoretical Issue, Recent Finding, and Future Directions. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research.* 17. 1/2, 1-19.

Martin, R. A. & Lefcourt, H. M. (1983). Sense of Humor as a Moderator of the Relation Between Stressors and Moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 45. 6, 1313-1324.

Martin, R. A., Puhlik-Dorris, P., Larsen, G., Gray, J., & Weir, K. (2003). Individual Differences of Uses of Humor and their Relation to Psychological Well-Being: Development of the Humor Styles Questionnaire. *Journal of Research in Personality.* 37, 48-75.

Martineau, W. (1972). A Model of the Social Function of Humor. In J. H. Goldstein & P. E. McGhee (Eds.). *The Psychology of Humor.* New York: Academic Press, 101-125.

Maslach C. & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early Predictors of Job Burnout and Engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 93. 3, 495-512.

Maslach, C. (1982). *Burnout-the Cost of Caring.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Maslach, C. (1993). Burnout: A Multidimensional Perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach & T. Marek (Eds.). *Professional Burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research.* Philadelphia: Taylor & Francis, 19-32.

Maslach, C. & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The Measurement of Experienced Burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour.* 2, 99-113.

Maslach, C. & Jackson, S. E. (1986). *The Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual.* Second Ed. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C. & Leiter, M. P. (1997). *The Truth about Burnout.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual.* Third Ed. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job Burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology.* 52, 397-422.

McCranie, E. W. & Brandsma, J. M. (1988). Personality Antecedents of Burnout among Middle-Aged Physicians. *Behavioral Medicine.* 14, 30-36.

McGrath, J. E. (1976). Stress and Behavior in Organizations. In M.D. Dunette (Ed.). *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology.* Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1351 - 1394.

Meier, S. T. (1984). The Construct Validity of Burnout. *Journal of Occupational Psychology.* 57, 211-219.

Mesmer-Mahnus, J. R., DeChurch, L. A., & Wax, A. (2012). Moving Emotional Labor beyond Surface and Deep Acting: A Discordance-Congruence Perspective. *Organizational Psychology Review.* 2. 1, 6-53.

Meyer, J. C. (1990). Ronald Regan and Humor: A Politician's Velvet Weapon. *Communication Studies.* 41. 76-88.

Mirowsky, J. & Ross, C. E. (1989). *Social Causes of Psychological Distress.* New York: Aldine.

Montgomery, A. J. & Panagopolou, E. (2006). Work-Family Interference, Emotional Labor and Burnout. *Journal of Managerial Psychology.* 21. 1/2, 36-51.

Morreal, J. (1997). *Gülmeyi Ciddiye Almak.* İstanbul: İris Yayınları.

Morreall, J. (2008). Applications of Humor: Health, the Workplace, and Education. In V. Raskin (Ed.). *The Primer of Humor Research.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 449-478.

Morris, A. J. & Feldman, D. C. (1996). The Dimensions, Antecedents, and Consequences of Emotional Labor. *Academy of Management Review.* 21. 4, 986-1010.

Morris, A. J. & Feldman, D. C. (1997). Managing Emotions in the Workplace. *Journal of Managerial Issues.* 9. 3, 257-274.

NASA is looking for 'jokers' to become astronauts in order to keep morale high on long journeys to Mars. (2019). https://www.dailymail.co.uk/sciencetech/article-6716557/NASA-looking-jokers-astronauts.html (Accessed on February 18, 2019).

Noor, N. M. & Zainuddin, M. (2011). Emotional Labor and Burnout among Female Teachers: Work-Family Conflict as Mediator. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology.* 14, 283-293.

Norton, K. (2004). The Applicability of Maslach and Leiter's Theory of Burnout to Intended Turnover among Disability Services Staff in Four-Year Colleges and Universities in North Carolina. *Doctoral Dissertation*. Florida: University of Florida.

Näring, G., Briët, M., & Brouwers, A. (2006). Beyond Demand-Control: Emotional Labour and Symptoms of Burnout in Teachers. *Work and Stress.* 20. 4, 303-315.

Obrdlik, A. (1942). Gallows Humor: A Sociological Phenomenon. *American Journal of Sociology*. 47, 709-716.

Oral, L. & Köse, S. (2011). Hekimlerin Duygusal Emek Kullanımı ile İş Doyumu ve Tükenmişlik Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişkiler Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi.* 16. 2, 463-492.

Özdemir, G., Yalçın, M., & Akbıyık, M. (2013). Hizmet Sektöründe Duygusal Emek Davranışlarının Müşteri İlişkileri üzerindeki Etkisi: Boyner Örneği. *Journal of the New World Sciences Academy.* 8.3, 301-320.

Perlman, B. & Hartman, E. A. (1982). Burnout: Summary and Future Research. *Human Relations.* 35, 283-305.

Pierce, J. L. (1995). *Gender Trials: Emotional Lives in Contemporary Law Firms*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Pines, A. (1993). Burnout: An Existential Perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.). *Professional Burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research.* Philadelphia: Taylor & Francis, 33-51.

Pines, A. & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career Burnout: Causes and Cures.* New York: Free Press.

Pitt-Catsouphes, M. & Matz-Costa, C. (2008). The Multi-Generational Workforce: Workplace Flexibility and Engagement. *Community, Work, and Family.* 11. 2, 215-229.

Pogrebin, M. R. & Poole, E. D. (1995). Emotion Management: A Study of Police Response to Tragic Events. In M. G. Flaherty & C. Ellis (Eds.). *Social Perspectives on Emotion.* Vol. 3. US: Elsevier Science/JAI Press, 149-168.

Psilopanagioti, A., Anagnostopoulos, F., Mourtou, E., & Niakas, D. (2012). Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labor and Job Satisfaction among Physicians in Greece. *BMC Health Services Research.* 12. 1, 463.

Pugh, S. D. (1998). Why do Happy Employees Have Happy Customers? Emotional Contagion as an Explanatory Concept in Research on Customer Service. *First Conference on Emotions and Organizational Life.* San Diego: CA.

Pugliesi, K. (1999). The Consequences of Emotional Labor: Effects on Work Stress, Job Satisfaction, and Well-Being. *Motivation and Emotion.* 23. 2, 125-154.

Rafaeli, A. & Sutton, R. I. (1987). Expression of Emotion as Part of the Work Role. *Academy of Management Review.* 12. 1, 23-37.

Rahmani, L. (1994). Humor Styles and Managerial Effectiveness (Leadership). *Doctoral Dissertation*. California: University of La Verne.

Raskin, V. (2008). Theory of Humor and Practice of Humor Research: Editor's Notes and Thoughts. In V. Raskin (Ed.). *The Primer of Humor Research.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1-16.

Romero, E. J. & Cruthirds, K. W. (2006). The Use of Humor in the Workplace. *Academy of Management Perspectives.* 20, 2, 58-69.

Ruch, W. (1998). Sense of Humor: A New Look at an Old Concept. In W. Ruch (Ed.). *The Sense of Humor.* New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Ruch, W. (2008). Psychology of Humor. In V. Raskin (Ed.). *The Primer of Humor Research.* Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 17-100

Ruch, W., Proyer, R. T., & Weber, M. (2010). Humor as a Character Strength among the Elderly: Theoretical Considerations. *Zeitschrift für Gerontologie und Geriatrie.* 43, 8-12.

Rutter, D. R. & Fielding, P. J. (1988). Sources of Occupational Stress: An Examination of British Prison Officers. *Work and Stress.* 2. 4, 291-299.

Sağlam Arı, G. & Çına Bal, E. (2008). Tükenmişlik Kavramı: Birey ve Örgütler Açısından Önemi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi Dergisi.* 15. 1, 131-148.

Sağlam Arı, G., Bal, H., & Çına Bal, E. (2010). İşe Bağlılığın Tükenmişlik ve İşten Ayrılma Niyeti İlişkisindeki Aracılık Etkisi: Yatırım Uzmanları Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi.* 15. 3, 143-166.

Samson, A. C. & Gross, J. J. (2012). Humour as Emotion Regulation: The Differential Consequences of Negative versus Positive Humour. *Cognition and Emotion.* 26. 2, 375-384.

Sarı, T. & Aslan, H. (2005). Mizah Tarzları ve Başaçıkma Stratejileri Arasındaki İlişki. *VIII. Ulusal Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Kongresi Bilimsel Çalışmaları.* İstanbul: Marmara Üniversitesi, 105-106.

Schaufeli W. B. & Buunk, B. P. (1996). *Professional Burnout: Handbook of Work and Health Psychology*. Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Schaufeli, W. B. & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The Burnout Companion to Study and Practice. A Critical Analysis.* Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Schaufeli, W. B. & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction to Special Issue on Burnout and Health. *Psychology and Health.* 16, 501-510.

Schuman, V. & Scherer, K. R. (2014). Concepts and Structures of Emotions. In R. Pekrun & L. Linnenbrink-Garcia (Eds.). *International Handbook of Emotions in Education.* New York: Routledge, 13–35.

Seçer, H. (2009). Duyguların Örgüt Tarafından Yönetilmesi: Duygusal Emek. In A. Keser, G. Yılmaz & S. Yürür (Eds.). *Çalışma Yaşamında Davranış: Güncel Yaklaşımlar.* Kocaeli: Umuttepe Yayınları.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stress without Distress.* New York: Signet.

Shepherd, C. D., Marchisio, G., Morrish, S. C., Deacon, J. H., & Miles, M. P. (2010). Entrepreneurial Burnout: Exploring Antecedents, Dimensions, and Outcomes. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship.* 12. 1, 71-79.

Singh, J., Goolsby, R. J., & Rhoads, K. G. (1994). Behavioral and Psychological Consequences of Boundary Spanning Burnout for Customer Service Representatives. *Journal of Marketing Research.* 558-569.

Smeltzer, L. R. & Leap, T. L. (1988). An Analysis of Individual Reactions to Potentially Offensive Jokes in Work Settings. *Human Relations.* 41. 4, 295-304.

Smith, P. (1992). *The Emotional Labour of Nursing.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Smith, R. E., Ascough, J. C., Ettinger, R. F., & Nelson, D. A. (1971). Humor, Anxiety, and Task Performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology.* 19. 2, 243-246.

Springer, A. & Oleksa, K. (2017). The Relationship between Emotional Labor and Professional Burnout: A Comparative Analysis between Work of Teachers and Employees of Commercial Service Sector. *Medycyna Pracy.* 68. 5, 605+.

Suran, B. G. & Sheridan, E. P. (1985). Management of Burnout: Training Psychologists in Professional Life Span Perspectives. *Professional Psychology: Res. Practice.* 16. 6, 741-752.

Sutton, R. I. (1991). Maintaining Norms About Expressed Emotions: The Case of Bill Collectors. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* 36, 245-268.

Sürgevil, O. (2006). *Çalışma Hayatında Tükenmişlik Sendromu: Tükenmişlikle Mücadele Teknikleri.* Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.

Swider, B. W. & Zimmerman, R. D. (2010). Born to Burnout: A Meta-Analytic Path Model of Personality, Job Burnout, and Work Outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.* 76, 487-506.

Sy, T., Côté, S., & Saavedra, R. (2005). The Contagious Leader: Impact of the Leader's Mood on the Mood of Group Members, Group Affective Tone, and Group Processes. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* 90, 295-305.

Talbot, L. A. & Lumden, D. B. (2000). On the Association between Humor and Burnout. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research.* 13, 419-428.

Theal, K. (2017). Laugh, Nurse, Laugh! *American Nurse Today.* 12. 4, 43-44.

Tian, F., Hou, Y., Zhu, W., Dietrich, A., Zhang, Q., Yang, W., Chen, Q., Sun, J., Jiang, Q. H., & Cao, G. (2017). Getting the Joke: Insight during Humor Comprehension - Evidence from an fMRI Study. *Frontiers in Psychology.* 8. 1835, 1-10.

Torun, A. (1995). Tükenmişlik, Aile Yapısı ve Sosyal Destek İlişkileri Üzerine Bir İnceleme. *Doctoral Dissertation*. İstanbul: Marmara University Social Sciences Institute.

Tuuli, P. & Karisalmi, S. (1999). Impact of Working Life Quality on Burnout. *Experimental Aging Research.* 25, 441-449.

Tümkaya, S. (2001). Denetim Odakları Farklı İlkokul Öğretmenlerinin Bazı Değişkenlere Göre Tükenmişlikleri. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi.* 2. 15, 29-40.

Uysal, A. A. (2007). Öğretmenlerde Gözlenen Duygusal Yaşantı Örüntülerinin ve Duygusal İşçiliğin Mesleki İş Doyumu ve Tükenmişlik Üzerine Etkisi. *Master Dissertation.* Muğla: Muğla University Social Sciences Institute.

Ünler Öz, E. (2007). Effect of Emotional Labor on Employees' Work Outcomes. *Doctoral Dissertation*. İstanbul: Marmara University Social Sciences Institute.

Vaillant, G. E. (2000). Adaptive Mental Mechanisms: Their Role in a Positive Psychology. *American Psychologist.* 55, 89-98.

Vogler, W. (2011). Humor and Work: Toward a More Contextual Understanding of Humor in The Workplace. *Doctoral Dissertation*. Pennsylvania: Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

Wan, J. Y. (2008). The Relationships among Frontline Workers' Sense of Humor, Self-Esteem, Emotional Labor, Burnout and Job Satisfaction. *Master Dissertation*. Taiwan.

Wanzer, M., Booth-Butterfield, M., & Booth-Butterfield, S. (1995). The Funny People: A Source-Orientation to the Communication of Humor. *Communication Quarterly.* 43, 142-154.

Westwood, R. & Rhodes, C. (2007). *Humour, Work, and Organization.* New York: Routledge.

Wharton, A. S. (1993). The Affective Consequences of Service Work: Managing Emotions on the Job. *Work and Organizations.* 20. 2, 205-232.

Wharton, A. S. & Erickson, R. J. (1993). Managing Emotions on the Job and at Home: Understanding the Consequences of Multiple Emotional Roles. *Academy of Management Review.* 18. 3, 457-486.

WHO. (2019). *ICD-11 for Mortality and Morbidity Statistics. QD85 Burn-out.* https://icd.who.int/browse11/l-m/en#/http://id.who.int/icd/entity/129180281 (Accessed on May 31, 2019).

WHO Adds Burnout to ICD-11. (2019). https://www.healio.com/psychiatry/practice-management/news/online/%7B0308f73d-7977-4efe-88c9-3b9fa2243ac2%7D/who-adds-burnout-to-icd-11 (Accessed on May 31, 2019).

Winick, C. (1976). The Social Contexts of Humor. *Journal of Communication.* 26. 3, 124-128.

Yalçın, A. (2010). Emotional Labor: Dispositional Antecedents and The Role of Affective Events. *Master Dissertation.* Ankara: Middle East Technical University Social Sciences Institute.

Yanar, R. (2018). Duygusal Emek ve Tükenmişlik İlişkisi: Ege Bölgesi'nde Görev Yapan Turist Rehberleri Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Master Dissertation*. Aydın: Adnan Menderes University Social Sciences Institute.

Yarwood, D. (1995). Humor and Administration: A Serious Inquiry into Unofficial Organizational Communication. *Public Administration Review.* 55. 1, 81-90.

Yerlikaya, E. E. (2003). Mizah Tarzları Ölçeği (Humor Styles Questionnaire) Uyarlama Çalışması. *Master Dissertation.* Adana: Çukurova University Social Sciences Institute.

Yerlikaya, Y. (2007). Lise Öğrencilerinin Mizah Tarzları ile Stresle Başa Çıkma Tarzları Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi. *Master Dissertation.* Adana: Çukurova University Social Sciences Institute.

Yıldırım, M. H. & Erul, E. E. (2013). Duygusal Emek Davranışlarının İşgörenlerin Tükenmişlik Düzeylerine Etkisi. *Organizasyon ve Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi.* 5. 1, 89-99.

Yovetich, N. A., Dale, A., & Hudak, M. A. (1990). Benefits of Humor in Reduction of Threat-Induced Anxiety. *Psychological Reports.* 66. 1, 51-58.

Yürür, S. & Ünlü, O. (2011). Duygusal Emek, Duygusal Tükenme ve İşten Ayrılma Niyeti İlişkisi. *"İş, Güç" Endüstri İlişkileri ve İnsan Kaynakları Dergisi.* 13. 2, 81-104.

Zapf, D. (2002). Emotion Work and Psychological Well-Being: A Review of the Literature and Some Conceptual Considerations. *Human Resource Management Review.* 12, 237-268.

Zapf, D. & Holz, M. (2006). On the Positive and Negative Effects of Emotion Work in Organizations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology.* 15. 1, 1-28.

Zapf, D., Seifert, C., Schmutte, B., Mertini, H., & Holz, M. (2001). Emotion Work and Job Stressors and Their Effects on Burnout. *Psychology and Health.* 16, 527-545.

Zhang, Q. & Zhu, W. (2008). Exploring Emotion in Teaching: Emotional Labor, Burnout, and Satisfaction in Chinese Higher Education. *Communication Education.* 57. 1, 105-122.

Zillman, D. (1983). Disparagement Humor. In P. E. McGhee & J. H. Goldstein (Eds.). *Handbook of Humor Research.* Vol 1. New York: Springer. 85-108.

Ziv, A. (1984). *Personality and Sense of Humor.* New York: Springer.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Questionnaire Used in the Research

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı'nda gerçekleştirilecek olan bir araştırmaya veri oluşturmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Ankette yer alan ifadelerle, çalışanların iş yaşamında karşılaştıkları çeşitli durumlar ile ilgili görüşlerinin alınması amaçlanmaktadır.

Ankette kimliğinizi ortaya koyacak herhangi bir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız **tarafımızdan kesinlikle gizli tutulacak** ve çalıştığınız kurumun yetkilileriyle ya da diğer üçüncü kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Veriler sadece bahsi geçen araştırma kapsamında kullanılacaktır.

Bu anket dört bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk üç bölümde belirtilen ifadeleri hangi sıklıkta yaşıyorsanız, o sıklık derecesini gösteren **1** ile **6** arasındaki rakamlardan birini seçmeniz gerekmektedir. Son bölümde ise bazı demografik bilgiler istenmektedir.

Anketi tamamlamak ortalama 5-10 dakika sürecektir. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi **atlamayınız ve boş bırakmayınız**. Bu bilimsel çalışmanın doğru ve anlamlı sonuçlara ulaşabilmesi için, ankette yer alan her bir ifadeyi gerekli özeni göstererek ve içtenlikle değerlendirmeniz büyük önem taşımaktadır.

Desteğiniz için teşekkürler.

Saygılarımla.

BÖLÜM 1: Aşağıda, çalıştığınız iş yerinde **çevrenizdeki iş arkadaşlarınız ve/veya şirket dışı müşteriler** ile girdiğiniz etkileşime ilişkin bazı ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve ortalama bir iş günü içerisinde iş arkadaşlarınız ve/veya şirket dışı müşteriler ile iletişim halindeyken aşağıdaki davranışları ne sıklıkta sergilediğinizi belirtiniz. Değerlendirmenizi yaparken aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanınız. İfadelerin yanındaki alanda sizce en uygun olan değere karşılık gelen rakamı (1-6 arasında) seçiniz.

	Her zaman	**Çok Sık**	**Oldukça Sık**	**Bazen**	**Nadiren**	**Hiçbir zaman**
1. Gerçek duygularımı göstermemek için çaba sarf ederim.						
2. Hissetmediğim duyguları hissediyormuş gibi yaparım.						
3. Karşımdakilere göstermem gereken duygu hangisi ise o duyguyu hissetmek için çaba sarfederim.						
4. Genellikle o sırada hissettiğim gerçek duygularımı gizlemeye çalışırım.						
5. Asabi bir kişi ile konuşurken sinirlenmemek için kendimi rahatlatacak şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.						
6. Çevremdeki kişilere düzgün davranmam gerektiği için tepkilerimi bastırırım.						
7. Sinirli bir iş arkadaşım/müşterimle konuşurken, esasında benim görevimin ona yardım etmek olduğunu düşünürüm.						
8. İş arkadaşımla/müşterimle etkileşim sırasında kurumumun benden göstermemi istediği duyguları yansıtabilmek için rol yaparım.						
9. Kendi duygularımı kontrol etmeye çalışırım.						
10. Sinirli iş arkadaşlarımla/müşterilerimle bile, olaylara onların bakış açısından bakmaya çalışarak konuşurum.						

	Her zaman	Çok Sık	Oldukça Sık	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
11. İşimin benden beklediği "kişi" olabilmek için içtenlikle çaba sarfederim.						
12. Kendimi çok kötü hissettiğim zaman bile arkadaşça davranıp gülümserim.						
13. Karşımdaki kişiyle ilgilenirken sıkıntılı ve sinirli olduğumu belli etmemek için rol yaparım.						
14. İş arkadaşımla/müşterimle etkileşim sırasında yansıtmam gereken duygu, benim ruh halimle uyuşmasa bile o duyguyu yansıtmaya çalışırım.						
15. İş arkadaşımla/müşterimle etkileşim sırasında, benim duygularıma ters gelse bile, o sırada işim icabı göstermem gereken duygu ne ise, onu hissetmeye çalışırım.						
16. İş arkadaşlarımla/müşterilerimle etkileşim sırasında içimden geçenleri hissettirmemek için gayret gösteririm.						
17. Sinirli bir iş arkadaşımla/müşterimle konuşurken, onun aramızda geçenlere değil başka bir şeye hiddetlendiklerini düşünürüm.						
18. İş arkadaşlarıma/müşterilere yardım ederken neşeli olduğumu göstermeye çalışınca bir süre sonra kendimi gerçekten neşeli bulurum.						
19. İş arkadaşıma/müşterime sinirlensem bile ona karşı kibar davranmaya devam ederim, ama içimden küfür ederim.						

BÖLÜM 2: Aşağıda, işinizle ilgili duygularınıza ilişkin bazı ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve işinizle ilgili bu duyguları ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi belirtiniz. Değerlendirmenizi yaparken aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanınız. İfadelerin yanındaki alanda sizce en uygun olan değere karşılık gelen rakamı (1-6 arasında) seçiniz.

	Her zaman	**Çok Sık**	**Oldukça Sık**	**Bazen**	**Nadiren**	**Hiçbir zaman**
1. İşimden soğuduğumu hissediyorum.						
2. İş dönüşü ruhen tükenmiş hissediyorum.						
3. Sabah kalktığımda bir gün daha bu işi kaldıramayacağımı düşünüyorum.						
4. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların ne hissettiğini hemen anlarım.						
5. İşim gereği karşılaştığım bazı kimselere sanki insan değillermiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.						
6. Bütün gün insanlarla uğraşmanın benim için gerçekten çok yıpratıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum.						
7. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların sorunlarına en uygun çözüm yollarını bulurum.						
8. Yaptığım işten tükendiğimi hissediyorum.						
9. Yaptığım iş sayesinde insanların yaşamına olumlu katkıda bulunduğuma inanıyorum.						
10. Bu işte çalışmaya başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı çok sert olduğumu düşünüyorum.						
11. Bu işin beni giderek katılaştırmasından korkuyorum.						
12. Çok şeyler yapabilecek güçteyim.						
13. İşimin beni kısıtladığını hissediyorum.						
14. İşimde çok fazla çalıştığımı hissediyorum.						
15. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlara ne olduğu umurumda olmaz.						

	Her zaman	Çok Sık	Oldukça Sık	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
16. Doğrudan doğruya insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla stres yaratıyor.						
17. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlarla aramda rahat bir hava yaratırım.						
18. İnsanlarla yakın bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi canlanmış hissederim.						
19. Bu işte birçok kayda değer başarı elde ettiğimi düşünüyorum.						
20. Yolun sonuna geldiğimi hissediyorum.						
21. İşimdeki duygusal sorunlara serinkanlılıkla yaklaşırım.						
22. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların bazı problemlerini sanki ben yaratmışım gibi davrandıklarını hissediyorum.						

BÖLÜM 3: Aşağıda mizahın günlük hayatta yaşanabileceği farklı biçimlere ilişkin ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve o ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı ya da katılmadığınızı belirtiniz. Değerlendirmenizi yaparken aşağıda verilen ölçeği kullanınız. İfadelerin yanındaki alanda sizce en uygun olan değere karşılık gelen rakamı (1-6 arasında) seçiniz.

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	**Katılıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Pek Katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum**
1. Genellikle çok fazla gülmem ya da başkalarıyla şakalaşmam.						
2. Moralim bozuk olduğunda genellikle kendimi mizahla neşelendirebilirim.						
3. Birisi hata yaptığında çoğunlukla onunla bu konuda dalga geçerim.						
4. İnsanların benimle dalga geçmelerine ya da bana gülmelerine gereğinden fazla izin veriyorum.						
5. İnsanları güldürmek için çok fazla uğraşmam gerekmez, doğuştan esprili bir insan gibiyimdir.						
6. Tek başıma bile olsam çoğunlukla yaşamın gariplikleriyle eğlenirim.						
7. İnsanlar asla benim mizah anlayışım yüzünden gücenmez ya da incinmezler.						
8. Kendimi yermem ailemi ya da arkadaşlarımı güldürüyorsa eğer, çoğunlukla bu işi kendimden geçerek yaparım.						
9. Başımdan geçen komik şeyleri anlatarak insanları pek güldürmem.						
10. Üzgün ya da mutsuzsam, kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için genellikle o durumla ilgili gülünç bir şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.						
11. Espri yaparken ya da komik bir şey söylerken genellikle karşımdakilerin bunu nasıl kaldıracağını pek önemsemem.						
12. Çoğunlukla kendi güçsüzlüklerim, gaflarım ya da hatalarımla ilgili gülünç şeylerden söz ederek, insanların beni daha çok sevmesini ya da kabul etmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.						

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
13. Yakın arkadaşlarımla çok sık şakalaşır ve gülerim.						
14. Yaşama karşı takındığım mizahi bakış açısı, benim olaylar karşısında aşırı derecede üzülmemi ya da kederlenmemi önler.						
15. İnsanların, mizahı başkalarını eleştirmek ya da aşağılamak için kullanmalarından hoşlanmam.						
16. Çoğunlukla kendi kendimi kötüleyen ya da alaya alan espriler yapmam.						
17. Genellikle fıkra anlatmaktan ve insanları eğlendirmekten hoşlanmam.						
18. Tek başınaysam ve mutsuzsam, kendimi neşelendirecek gülünç şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.						
19. Bazen öyle komik şeyler aklıma gelir ki bunlar insanları incitebilecek, yakışık almaz şeyler olsa bile, kendimi tutamam söylerim.						
20. Espriler yaparken ya da komik olmaya çalışırken çoğunlukla kendimi gereğinden fazla eleştiririm.						
21. İnsanları güldürmekten hoşlanırım.						
22. Kederli ya da üzgünsem genellikle mizahi bakış açımı kaybederim.						
23. Bütün arkadaşlarım bunu yapıyor olsa bile, bir başkasıyla alay edip ona gülerlerken asla onlara eşlik etmem.						
24. Arkadaşlarımla ya da ailemle birlikteyken çoğunlukla hakkında espri yapılan ya da dalga geçilen kişi ben olurum.						
25. Arkadaşlarımla çok sık şakalaşmam.						
26. Tecrübelerime göre bir durumun eğlendirici yanlarını düşünmek, sorunlarla başa çıkmada çoğunlukla etkili bir yoldur.						
27. Birinden hoşlanmazsam çoğunlukla onu küçük düşürmek için hakkında espri yapar ya da alay ederim.						
28. Sorunlarım varsa ya da üzgünsem, çoğunlukla gerçek duygularımı, en yakın arkadaşlarım bile anlamasın diye, espriler yaparak gizlerim.						

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
29. Başkalarıyla birlikteyken genellikle aklıma söyleyecek esprili şeyler gelmez.						
30. Neşelenmek için başkalarıyla birlikte olmam gerekmez, genellikle tek başımayken bile gülecek şeyler bulabilirim.						
31. Bir şey bana gerçekten gülünç gelse bile, birini gücendirecekse eğer, buna gülmem ya da bununla ilgili espri yapmam.						
32. Başkalarının bana gülmesine izin vermek; benim, ailemi ve arkadaşlarımı neşelendirme tarzımdır.						

BÖLÜM 4: Aşağıda, bazı demografik bilgiler istenmektedir. Lütfen uygun kutucuğu işaretleyiniz ya da cevabınızı belirtilen alana yazınız.

Yaşınız	……..
Cinsiyetiniz	□ Kadın □ Erkek
Eğitim Durumunuz	□ Lise/İlköğretim □ Önlisans □ Lisans □ Y. lisans/Doktora
Bulunduğunuz kurumda yönetici rolünde misiniz?	□ Yöneticiyim, ekibim var □ Yönetici değilim, ekibim yok
Sektörünüz	□ Özel Sektör □ Kamu Sektörü
Kaç yıldır mevcut mesleğinizi yapıyorsunuz? (Tüm çalışma hayatınızı göz önünde bulundurunuz).	……....

Ankete ilişkin herhangi bir sorunuz olması durumunda sibelcyegin@gmail.com adresinden iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Araştırmamıza katkıda bulunduğunuz için teşekkürler.

Araştırmacı

Sibel Yeğin

Marmara Üniversitesi

Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı