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Effects of Emotional Labor on Philippine Tourism Staff's Job Burnout

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

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by

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MA, Ateneo de Manila University, 1986

BS, University of the Philippines, 1978

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Organizational Psychology

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Abstract

The tourism industry in the Philippines is a significant contributor to the country's gross domestic product. As members of the service sector, its employees use their labor and skills to yield positive experiences by understanding their target customers so that they can offer them what they need quickly while incurring minimal cost. It is common for service-sector employees to expend emotional labor by hiding their emotions to meet a company's standards. Unfortunately, the pressure experienced by these employees leads to a higher risk of burnout. The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study was to assess the impact of emotional labor on job burnout among the frontline employees of hotels and airlines operating in Manila and Clark City, Philippines. A total of 180 participants were selected through convenience sampling. Data were collected using two assessments, the Emotional Labor Scale and Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey, based on Hochschild's emotional labor theory and Maslach's burnout theory, respectively. The collected data were analyzed using regression analysis with moderation. In the regression analysis, surface acting and deep acting were the independent variables while exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy as subscales of burnout were the dependent variables. Age, gender, and education level were tested as moderators. The analysis showed that only cynicism can be predicted by emotional labor as measured by surface acting and deep acting. Age was found to be a moderator variable between cynicism and surface acting. The results of this study may assist in harnessing the strength of service industry workers so that they can adapt to and overcome emotional labor situations. In return, this should promote organizations' attainment of goals.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my parents, Pedro and Lolita Alberto, who inculcated in me the value of continuing education. They once told me that, as long as they were able, they would continue to support my studies because this would be the legacy that they would leave their children. True enough, during the early years of my studies, they contributed toward my master's degree, even when I was working. They knew that with my small salary, I could not afford to pay for it. Since they wanted me to continue learning, they supported me all the way, both financially and emotionally. Without my parents' love, trust, perseverance, and confidence, I would not have been able to pull through, and I will be forever grateful to them.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The service industry encompasses businesses that produce intangible output, such as those involved in information technology, business process management, tax consultancy, travel and tourism, and engineering services (National Economic and Development Authority, 2015). It includes jobs that use labor and skills that yield products such as advice, experience, and discussion to be shared with custumers (Kenton, 2018). Regarded as the third economic sector, the service industry is responsible for the largest portion of an economy's business activity (Kenton, 2018). Those in the service sector focus on understanding their target customers in order to offer what they need quickly while incurring minimal cost. As a result, the evolution of the service sector is constant, with customers driving change (Fagan & London, 2014).

Global competition in the service industry results in increasing mental workload and demands for employees (Jeung, Kim, & Chang, 2018). As this occurs, employees face a higher risk of burnout (Jeung et al., 2017; Paoli & Merlie, 2000; Schaufeli, 2003) as a result hiding their true emotions while handling clients in order to perform their jobs to meet their companies' standards (Jeung et al., 2018). Today, most organizational leaders seek to manage or regulate employees' emotions in order to accomplish organizational goals (Jeung et al., 2018). For example, some have created training programs to develop their employees' interpersonal skills so that employees can control their emotions effectively in dealing with customers and other employees (Boateng & Agyei, 2013).

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981), *burnout* is a condition in which employees lose the sense of personal accomplishment, experience exhaustion, and gain a sense of detachment toward others. This condition was first recorded in the service industry by Maslach in interviewing human service workers to capture their experiences in coping with emotional exhaustion with their demanding jobs (Schaufeli, 2017). Job expectations in the service industry also tend to make employees experience emotional stress (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). For instance, tourist guides are required to provide continuous and maximum contact with tourists, thus engaging in the emotional labor that is characteristic of service-industry work. Due to job demands, role difficulties, and emotional conflicts in the workplace, an employee's physical and emotional energy can get lower and lower over time, causing job burnout (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010).

Hochschild (1983) described *emotional labor* as a way of organizing emotions to maintain appropriate facial and bodily displays. *Display rules* are explicit or implicit sets of standards for how an employee should respond to a given situation in order to fulfill expectations at work (Hochschild, 1983) In most cases, the sum of environmental stimuli and compliance with company rules that creates the impulse to change the way that a person acts (Fujita, 2011; Lee, 2018).

Hochschild (1983) divided emotional labor further into two types of emotional control—surface acting and deep acting. *Surface acting* happens when a person's expressions are adjusted without a change in felt emotions; *deep acting* requires change in true felt emotions in order to adhere to display rules (Hochschild, 1983). Moreover, surface acting occurs as a response to triggers or stimuli to produce a more appropriate

emotional reaction, whereas deep acting starts even before the stimuli manifest, thus creating a more genuine reaction (Grandey, 2000). Although these are both kinds of emotional labor, they are known to have different impacts on employees. Generally speaking, emotion regulation through surface acting triggers negative consequences, while deep acting often leads to accomplishment (İrigüler, 2016). This is due to the difference between the two types of labor in terms of the discrepancy between actions and emotions (Lee & Ok, 2013).

Emotional labor is widely associated with the social dynamics of the service industry (Schiopu, 2014). In order to ensure that employees can perform daily tasks involving frequent client interaction that occurs over long periods of time, it is deemed necessary to regulate employees' mindsets (Yoo & Jeong, 2017). Being polite is mandatory in the service industry, regardless of customers' attitude toward employees (Kastamu & Ndekirwa, 2015).

When engaging in emotional labor, an employee must expend effort on acting and managing emotions (Guler, 2016). Prolonged manifestation of emotional labor can lead to job burnout (Grandey, 2003). When employees are surface acting, they show inauthentic emotions, causing cognitive dissonance due to detachment from their real feelings. This dissonance between one's true emotions and what is being expressed leads to discomfort, which then eventually causes burnout (Lee & Ok, 2013). Deep acting has a subtler effect on job stress than surface acting, in that the emotions being shown with deep acting are genuinely felt (Lee & Ok, 2013).

Demographic variables affect emotional labor and job burnout. The tourist market of the service industry is highly gender segregated (Soria, Ropero, & Ortega, 2009). Research has shown that men and women exhibit the dimensions of emotional labor differently (Kastamu & Ndekirwa, 2015; Veijola, 2010; Yim, Cheung, & Baum, 2018). Women traditionally fulfill caretaking roles because their caring, empathic, and emotionally expressive characteristics make them effective in people-oriented work (Yang & Guy, 2015; Yim et al., 2018).

Emotional labor strategies also vary based on employee age, as illustrated by the social emotional selectivity theory (SST; Chen et al., 2013; Cheung & Tang, 2010; Dahling & Perez, 2010). SST indicates that older people focus on the present and are motivated by the goal of living a satisfactory life with positive emotions as much as possible (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). Thus, they tend to choose deep acting as an emotional labor strategy to meet their organizations' display rules. In comparison, surface acting is more applicable to younger employees (Cheung & Tang, 2010; Dahling & Perez, 2010).

Furthermore, age affects stress-management strategies, which are essential in preventing burnout. Older employees prefer proactive strategies, whereas younger employees tend to use problem-focused strategies (Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004). Proactive strategies involve confronting negative emotions when faced with emotional situations, while problem-focused strategies involve dealing with such situations more objectively (Blanchard-Fields et al., 2004).

A dynamic working environment such as the service industry is competitive in terms of employees' educational attainment (Kenton, 2018; Jeung et al., 2018). Workers with higher education have more diverse learning behaviors that enable them to gain learning opportunities. This gives them an edge over those with lower levels of education, which in turn gives them a better sense of confidence toward their jobs and helps them cope with job stress (Rashkovits & Livne, 2013).

In this chapter, the gap in literature that the study addressed, the research problem and its relevance to the discipline, the purpose of the study, the research questions and hypotheses, related theories and their connection with the study's approach, and the scope of the study are covered.

Background

As part of the service sector in the Philippines, the tourism industry is the main contributor of the country's gross domestic product (GDP). The World Travel and Tourism Council of the Philippines (2018) stated that the travel service industry contributed 8.7% of the nation's GDP in 2017 and forecasted that its contribution would increase by 5.9% in 2018. Given the significant GDP contribution of the sector, the Philippines' Department of Trade and Industry drafted a 2021 goal of upgrading the sector by investing in infrastructure and promoting innovation (Securing the Future of Philippine Industries, 2014).

The Philippine Department of Tourism's development plan for 2016-2022 also reflects these priorities (Philippine Association for Government Budget Administration, 2017). It focuses on transport infrastructure development, travel facilitation, product

development, and the business environment. The plan includes heavy development of tourism in these areas, but no studies to date have focused on tourism industry workers in the country. This implies that while the Philippine Department of Tourism has been very aggressive in promoting the country's resources, it has done so without giving due consideration to emotional and physical impacts on the people who are providing the services. Given that employees are a major determinant of success in this industry, such considerations are important for the long term. Neglect of employees' experiences in this regard may lead to reduced job performance, lower service quality, and declining tourism (Ottenbacher, Gnoth, & Jones, 2006).

Problem Statement

As the third economic sector, the service industry is usually responsible for the largest portion of any economy's business activity (Kenton, 2018). Those in the service sector focus on understanding their target customers in order to offer what they need while incurring minimal cost. As such, this globally competitive sector is constantly evolving, with customers driving the change, resulting in increased mental workload and demands for employees (Fagan & London, 2014; Jeung et al., 2018;). Given the dynamics of the service industry, in which employees must interact with clients constantly, the need to engage in emotional labor is ongoing (Schiopu, 2014).

Tourism in most countries, including the Philippines, is part of the service sector and significantly contributes to the GDP and employment rate (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2018). While the Philippines' Department of Trade and Industry ensures the development of infrastructure, travel facilitation, products, and the business environment,

its leaders fail to consider emotional and physical impacts on the people who are delivering these services (Philippine Association for Government Budget Administration, 2017). Aside from its existing plans, the agency should also establish programs to improve the welfare and working conditions of employees, given their important role in the service sector.

Bozionelos and Kiamou (2008) pointed out that national cultural characteristics are factors that account for recognition of the relationships between emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, and work attitudes. Literature on the relationship between emotional labor and job burnout has come mostly from more developed Asian countries such as South Korea, Hong Kong, and Malaysia. Consequently, despite the importance of the tourism industry and the effects of emotional labor on job burnout, a gap exists in formal research on such subjects within the context of developing Asian countries such as the Philippines. In this research, I explored occurrences of emotional labor and job burnout among Filipino tourism employees in order to address the research gap in this area. Moreover, effects of demographic characteristics including gender, age, and educational level as moderating factors in the relationship of emotional labor and job burnout were explored.

Purpose of the Study

Focusing on the tourism sector of the service industry, including hotels and airlines, a quantitative study was conducted to assess the impact of emotional labor on the case of job burnout among tourism employees in the Philippines. The study also examined whether age, gender, and education level have moderating effects on the

association of emotional labor and job burnout. The goal of this study was to provide information on the emotional labor and job burnout experienced by tourism employees in the Philippines. It also sought to assess whether the theoretical and empirical link between emotional labor and job burnout holds true for a Filipino population.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and associated hypotheses guided this study:

Research Question 1: Does surface and/or deep acting by Philippine travel service industry employees predict their assessed level of job burnout components?

$H_0$1: Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting does not predict their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

$H_1$1: Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting predicts their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

Research Question 2: Does Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting on their assessed level of job burnout components?

$H_0$2: Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level does not moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting on their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

$H_1$2: Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderates the effect of their surface and/or deep acting on their exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

Theoretical Framework

This research had two theoretical foundations: emotional labor and job burnout. The following sections provide some initial background on both constructs. These concepts are discussed in greater detail in the literature review presented in Chapter 2.

Emotional Labor

The construct of emotional labor, as introduced by Hochschild (1983), can be defined as paid work that involves an effort to evoke the right feeling for the job in order to show proper emotions. This section covers a number of perspectives on emotional labor, including the theories of Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Grandey (2000).

Hochschild's theory. Hochschild (1983) described emotional labor as involving two aspects—deep acting and surface acting. In deep acting, actors adjust their emotions to what is socially acceptable in a given situation. The shift is inherently genuine, as the actor makes an effort to internalize the new emotion. However, in surface acting, individuals only change the public display to cope with the situation, leaving their previously negative emotions unchecked. In terms of results, the actor creates a publicly acceptable facial expression and body display in both cases.

In the case of employees, these changes in the public display of emotions have a value, in that they require effort from the actor in response to the company's display rules

(Lee, 2018). Said rules are either implicit or explicit standards for how an employee should respond to a given situation to fulfill expectations at work (Allen et al., 2010).

Ashforth and Humphrey's theory. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) were among the first management scholars to disagree with the idea that emotional labor involves the management of a person's feelings. They contended that emotional labor is observable behavior of appropriate emotions that is moderated by social and personal identities (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Rather than focusing on the health consequences of emotional labor, they emphasized its strong impact on the quality of service transactions, task effectiveness, and interpersonal relationships, given that customers perceive the emotion that employees are portraying as sincere (Grandey, 2000). Moreover, their theory suggests that for those who exhibit surface acting and deep acting, over time this acting becomes a mere routine. Once this has occurred, subsequent acting no longer causes job stress. They acknowledged that emotional labor is multidimensional, but they added a third dimension called *expression of genuine emotions* (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). They also suggested that surface acting can cause detachment from authentic feelings (Humphrey et al., 2015).

Morris and Feldman's theory. Morris and Feldman (1996) defined emotional labor as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions" (p. 987). This definition puts emphasis on the effects of the social environment in expressing one's emotions. It is similar to Hochschild's theory, in that it suggests that employees can voluntarily modify their emotions. It also resembles Ashforth and Humphrey's theory, in that it suggests that this

modification is brought about by the social setting of the situation (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2014.

In this theory, emotional labor consists of four dimensions: (a) frequency of interactions, (b) attentiveness (intensity of emotions, duration of interaction), (c) variety of emotions required, and (d) emotional dissonance (Grandey, 2000). Frequency of interactions was first introduced as a factor of emotional labor by Morris and Feldman (Shapoval, 2019). They proposed that the longer that employees exhibited emotional labor, the more effort they needed to expend to maintain the required attitude (Shapoval, 2019).

Grandey's theory. Grandey (2000) concentrated on antecedent-focused emotion regulation, including attention deployment and cognitive change. *Attention deployment* is performed by reminiscing about events that can evoke the emotion that one needs to show in a situation, similar to method acting in theater. This is similar to Hochschild's concept of deep acting, where a genuine shift in emotion happens as employees change their emotions (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

On the other hand, *cognitive change* happens when a person chooses to perceive the situation in ways that minimize its emotional impact (Tryon, 2014). Reappraising a stressful event as a challenging one can aid in lessening the negative impact of emotional labor (Grandey, 2000). Grandey (2000) also argued that although separating emotional labor into surface acting and deep acting allowed researchers to explain negative and positive outcomes, these two concepts did not clearly explain why emotional labor was related to proposed outcomes (Yam, Fehr, Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016). She

added that deep acting is a determinant of felt emotion, whereas surface acting is a response to felt emotion (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

Job Burnout

Continuous exposure to chronic stressors on the job results in burnout, which in turn influences an employee's social and personal performance (Maslach, 2015). This phenomenon has three major dimensions—feeling exhausted (emotional exhaustion), detachment from the job (depersonalization), and ineffectiveness or failure (reduced personal accomplishment; Maslach, 1981). These dimensions of burnout, according to Maslach (2015), were formed from the real experiences of people experiencing burnout before it became a subject of systematic study by researchers. Multidimensionality is the main attribute differentiating burnout from stress, in that burnout incorporates social relationships (Maslach, 2015).

Emotional exhaustion is the stress dimension of burnout. It happens when work overload and conflicts experienced at work drain the employee of energy to face his or her job (Mousavi, Ramezani, Salehi, Khanzadeh, & Sheikholeslami, 2017). Emotional exhaustion may progress to the second dimension of burnout, which is depersonalization (Raman, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2016). It is the interpersonal dimension of burnout that causes detachment not only from the job, but also from coworkers. The third dimension of burnout is decline of productivity at work, which is, in turn, linked to an overdemanding job. Incompetence in dealing with customers happens when employees do not have social support and opportunities to develop their skills (Maslach, 2015).

Overall, the subject of job burnout has been gaining attention because of

burnout's detrimental effects on countless individuals, including absenteeism and turnover intention (Jayarahna, 2017). According to the World Health Organization (2019), which is an organization mandated by the United Nations to specialize in public health, burnout is a multifaceted social problem that is currently categorized as an occupational phenomenon based on the International Classification of Diseases (Schaufeli, 2017).

Hochschild's (1983) emotional labor theory and Maslach's (1981) burnout theory are the two principal models related to this research. Hochschild first associated his emotional labor theory and Maslach's burnout theory in 2003. Brotheridge and Lee (2002), upon validating their emotional labor scale, tested a hypothesis regarding the relationship of emotional labor and job burnout using the subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Their research found a significant association between components of the two variables.

Nature of the Study

To address the research questions of the study, a quantitative cross-sectional research design was used. This method focuses on measuring variables that exist in the observed system (Rasinger, 2013). Moreover, it aims to analyze regularities of the social world's empirical components by representing them numerically as frequencies and explore their associations with statistical techniques (Rahman, 2017). Given these uses of quantitative research, it is suitable for use in measuring emotional labor, job burnout, and their association.

In a cross-sectional research design, the researcher collects data at a distinct time from a representative sample of the population of interest. It is preferred to use when the objective is to measure a variable of interest in a population (Visser, Krosnick, & Lavrakas, 2000). Aside from this, a cross-sectional survey can also facilitate the identification of relationships between variables (Blalock, 1972). It is also advantageous to use this design when the data come from a large population of interest because it is not geographically bounded (Kemple, 2001).

A study's research design ensures that the data obtained successfully answer the research problem in a rational and explicit manner (De Vaus, 2001). A cross-sectional survey research design was appropriate to use in this study because the goal was to measure emotional labor and job burnout and study their existing relationship among travel service industry employees in the Philippines. The population of interest included all travel-related businesses' employees in the service industry in the country, so a design that was not geographically bounded and could handle a large population of subjects was needed.

Using this research design, data were collected from seven partner companies, including three airlines and four hotels operating in Clark and Metro Manila. The total number of valid responses collected within a 3-week period was 160. The participants answered a structured questionnaire containing questions about their demographic variables, degree of emotional labor, and job burnout (see Appendices A, B, and C). A link to a survey hosted on Survey Monkey was sent to the target respondents' email. Survey settings were adjusted for maximum privacy to ensure that participants' responses

could not be traced back to them. With privacy concerns in mind, respondents' email or IP addresses were not collected within Survey Monkey. In addition, no question on the survey could have acted as an identifier of a particular employee.

Significance of the Study

In conducting this study, the aim was to help in decreasing burnout caused by emotional labor among travel service industry employees in the Philippines. When applied by business owners, the results of this study may improve business in the Philippines by putting emphasis on the well-being of the service industry's most important asset—employees. The study findings should enable business owners and managers to become aware of emotional labor's consequences so that they can provide support to their workers and help them deal with its negative impact. For employees, this study may also help in understanding the impact of emotional labor on their own performance. The study's results were shared with government agencies such as the Department of Tourism, the government body in charge of the promotion of tourism in the Philippines.

Results of this study may help in harnessing the strength of service-industry workers so that they can adapt to and overcome emotional labor situations. In return, this may promote the attainment of organizational goals. Additionally, this study may inform those seeking to exercise emotionally intelligent leadership by developing their capability to understand their employees' emotions in achieving productive outcomes during stressful situations.

Definition of Terms

This study uses the following operational term definitions:

Emotional labor, as introduced by Hochschild in her book *The Managed Heart*, is the condition in which employees regulate their feelings to embody a socially acceptable facial and body display according to their organization's policy (İrigüler & Güler, 2016). According to Hochschild (1983), emotional labor is manifested in two forms—surface acting and deep acting. *Surface acting* is a shallow adjustment in behavior without changing inner emotions, whereas *deep acting* includes significant effort in changing internal feelings in order to evoke the correct emotional expression.

Job burnout encompasses a variety of occupational inefficiencies displayed in the workplace, such as absenteeism and poor job performance (Zhao, Li, & Shields, 2018). It is also affected by personal emotions and is recognized as a hazard in any kind of occupation (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). In this research, it is quantified as the manifestation of exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment as defined by Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001).

The *tourism industry* involves activities by people traveling to and staying in places that are not their usual environment. Such travel may occur for leisure or business purposes and may be domestic or international (Camilleri, 2018). Tourism contributes to the service industry by providing commodities such as accommodation, transportation, entertainment, and attractions (World Travel and Tourism Council of the Philippines, 2018).

Tourism employees work for companies within the tourism industry, particularly

in the fields of transportation, entertainment, attractions, accommodations, and ancillary services (Camilleri, 2018).

Assumptions

In this study, it was assumed that respondents answered truthfully in order to reflect their perspective on the subjects of emotional labor and job burnout in their current job. Their sincere interest in participating in the study was assumed and that no other motives were in play as they answered the questionnaire and that their responses were not impacted by local leadership and politics in their workplace. Inclusion criteria were used to make sure that the participants had experience in the tourism industry and the phenomenon under study. In order to facilitate the test on the moderating effect of age, gender, and educational level with the association of emotional labor on job burnout, it was assumed that sufficient variability existed with the three moderators. Thus, there were proportional numbers of males and females, as well as a range of ages and education levels to analyze the impact of these demographic characteristics.

Scope, Limitations, and Delimitations

This study was not focused on the entirety of the service industry, in that it was limited to the employees of several hotels and airlines in Manila and Clark in the Philippines. Moreover, given the inclusion criteria, only frontline employees and their managers were selected. This study only assessed the association of emotional labor with job burnout, along with gender, age, and education level as moderators. Other factors that may affect the job burnout levels of employees such as workload, work control, work community, and work social justice (Maslach & Leiter, 2016) were not captured in this

research. In addition, cultural identity, specifically Filipinos' resilient character (Allen, Diefendorff, & Ma, 2014; Docena, 2015), which affects emotional labor, was not tackled in this study. Emotional labor and job burnout are constructs with many potential factors; this research only used Hochschild's (1983) emotional labor theory and Maslach's (1981) burnout theory as the basis for measuring the two constructs.

Summary and Transition

Literature has associated emotional labor, a means of organizing emotions to have appropriate facial and bodily displays, with social dynamics of the service industry since the introduction of this concept (Hochschild, 1983; Shiopu, 2014). Because the tourism industry is customer oriented, employees in this field have frequent client interactions over long periods of time (Yoo & Jeong, 2017). Job burnout is a condition that appears in jobs in which workers face high demands, as is often the case in the service industry (Schaufeli, 2017). In fulfilling their jobs to meet their organizations' requirements, employees may experience emotional stress (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of emotional labor on job burnout among these employees in the Philippines. The Emotional Labor Scale (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998) and Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey were used to quantify emotional labor and job burnout, respectively. Results of this study may benefit both employees and company management. This study may inform efforts to improve business in the Philippines by putting emphasis on the well-being of the service industry's most important asset—employees. As business owners and managers become more aware of emotional labor's

prevalence and consequences, they can better support their workers and help them deal with its negative impact.

Chapter 2 contains an in-depth literature review that addresses theories and research studies in relation to the association of emotional labor and job burnout as manifested in the tourism industry. Chapter 3 then presents a description of the research methodology followed in the study. It covers the research design, sample population, data collection methods, data analysis, and ethical concerns. Chapter 4 shows the analysis of the data collected, including descriptive summaries, assumption checking, and hypothesis testing. In Chapter 5, a summary of the research and a discussion of the results in reference to the existing literature is presented.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Despite the importance of the tourism industry and the effects of emotional labor on job burnout, a gap exists in formal research on these subjects within the context of developing Asian countries such as the Philippines. This research explored occurrences of emotional labor and job burnout among Filipino tourism employees in order to contribute to the research gap in this area. The goal of this study was to provide information on the emotional labor and job burnout experienced by tourism employees in the Philippines. It assessed whether the theoretical and empirical association between the two variables holds true in the Philippine setting.

The tourism sector is an industry that benefits the economy of a country (Gurrieri, Lorizo, & Stramaglia, 2014). This is the case in the Philippine setting, where tourism contributed 12.2% of the GDP in 2017 (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2018). The success of this sector is greatly attributed to the interaction of frontline employees with customers, which forms customers' impression of their service experience (Ninemeier & Miller, 2012). Thus, frontline employees in the tourism industry can be considered as maintaining the most important connection between company and customers in the service process (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009). Given that employees are important assets to the industry, their well-being should be a priority.

As frontline employees have to maintain contact with customers, they often perform emotional labor in the form of maintaining a polite and friendly atmosphere for customers (Chen, Chang, & Wang, 2018). This process of emotional labor may then

become a source of stress to them (Chen et al., 2018). Prolonged stress may lead to emotional exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Repeated exposure to this kind of situation may lead employees to believe that the situation is unchangeable, further leaving them vulnerable to job burnout (Koc & Bozkurt, 2017).

In this section, the literature search strategy used to collate the available literature on the subject is discussed. Next, the theoretical foundation for the study, which involved the concepts of emotional labor and job burnout is presented. Then the empirical studies about the key variables and concepts of the study, including the service industry, tourism, emotional labor, and job burnout, as well as moderators—gender, sex, and educational level are described.

Literature Search Strategy

Google Scholar and the Walden Library were used as primary tools for the literature search in this study. The databases searched included PsycINFO, SAGE Journals, PsycARTICLES, ScienceDirect, and ProQuest Central. In searching for literature, keywords including *emotional labor*, *job burnout*, *tourism*, *frontline employees*, *age*, *gender*, and *educational level*, as well as combinations of these terms were used. Initially, the literature search was limited to a 10-year period from 2009-2019. However, in some cases, such as literature pertaining to theories, older publication dates were accepted.

Tourism in the Service Industry

The World Tourism Organization defined *tourism* as people “traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year

for leisure and not less than 24 hours, for business and other purposes" (World Tourism Organization, 1995). It is a part of the service industry that pertains to any kind of travel for pleasure or business, whether it occurs internationally or within the traveler's country. It involves the practice of touring, accommodating, and entertaining tourists (Lexico, 2005).

The tourism sector is a large and fast-growing industry that is able to generate several potential benefits for an economy, both at a local level and at the national level (Gurrieri, Lorizo, & Stramaglia, 2014). In the Philippines, tourism contributed 12.2% of the GDP in 2017, as measured by the share of tourism direct gross value added (TDGVA). This figure was the highest recorded TDGVA since 2000, amounting to P1.929 trillion (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2018). The World Travel and Tourism Council (2018) recognized the Philippines as ranking 13th among the top 15 tourism powerhouses out of 185 countries. This ranking was based on tourism's contribution to GDP, international visitor spending, domestic spending, and capital investment (Rocamora, 2018). Apart from its contribution to the local economy, travel and tourism boosted the Philippines' employment rate by directly supporting some 2.3 million jobs or about 5.8% of employment in 2017 (Remo, 2018). This was primarily from employment with hotels, travel agencies, and airlines, as well as activities of the restaurant and leisure industries patronized by tourists (Remo, 2018).

The tourism industry is composed of subsectors. These include accommodation, food and beverage services, recreation and entertainment, transportation, and travel services (Westcott, 2015). This division is based on the subsector's labor processes and

inputs. Hotels, which provide overnight accommodation for people traveling away from their homes, are part of the accommodation sector, which makes up hospitality together with the food and beverage subsector. Hotels can be classified into groups depending on various criteria such as number of rooms, location, level of service, and functions (Westcott, 2015). Aviation is an industry that is under the transportation sector. This sector is vital to the service industry because it transports people from one place to another (Westcott, 2015).

Frontline Employees in the Tourism Industry

Due to the importance of tourism to national economies, including that of the Philippines, the companies in this sector are aggressively competitive. Such competition takes place in order to ensure survival. Companies approach customers in innovative ways while promising quality service (Femenias, Perramon, & Villanueva, 2019). Although companies may use different strategies to attract and keep customers, their frontline employees remain the constant determinant of customer satisfaction (Lee & Ok, 2013).

Frontline employees are those who are in direct contact with customers, whether through face-to-face conversation or some other kind of communication (Hochschild, 1983). In the service industry, it is the interaction of frontline employees with customers that forms customers' impression of their service experience, as opposed to the products or amenities offered to customers (Ninemeier & Miller, 2012). For this reason, frontline employees may be considered the most important connection between the company and the customers in the service process (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009).

For example, hotels focus on improving their products and amenities in order to differentiate their services from those of others (Dominici & Rosa, 2010). They may provide extensive menus and pioneering technologies to enhance the customer experience (Sullivan, 2012). Combining functionality with affordable prices is a response to competition and customer demands. However, despite the effectiveness of these efforts, hospitality companies emphasize that the delivery of quality service by customer contact staff is crucial to customer satisfaction and thus should become a much more salient concern of hotel companies (McMurrian & Matulich, 2016).

The same principle applies in airline companies, in which aesthetic labor and soft skills are needed to uphold the company's image and branding (Nickson, Warhurst, & Dutton, 2006). According to human capital theory, employees with soft skills can be appealing to more customers, thus bringing more profits to a company (Handel & Levine, 2006). Thus, in the selection of frontline employees such as flight attendants in airline companies, having a pleasant personality (soft skills) along with attractive physical features (aesthetic labor) are prerequisites (Othman & Raman, 2015). An airline company's brand can be experienced in how flight attendants treat passengers, making these employees valuable to the company (Othman & Raman, 2015).

Emotional Labor

The term *emotional labor* was originally coined by Hochschild (1983) to describe the management of emotions to create impressions and gestures that are considered acceptable by society. In literature, there are four basic emotional labor models. These

were established by Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Grandey (2000).

Hochschild's Model

Hochschild was the pioneer of the concept of emotional labor. He divided the concept into two kinds of emotional control—deep acting and surface acting (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting, in simple terms, is the false display of acceptable emotions (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). It is often the result of the work environment pressuring employees to act insincerely, as well as a form of reflexive self-regulation (Fujita, 2011). In contrast, deep acting directly modulates one's emotions (Hochschild, 1983). This is done by approaching one's emotions from another perspective and reinterpreting them during customer interactions, as opposed to just altering one's expressions (Deng, Walter, Lam, & Zhao, 2017; Hochschild, 1983). If surface acting is reactive, deep acting is preemptive and allows for better alignment with the company's goals (Grandey, 2000).

Emotional labor is a form of compliance with the employing organization's display rules (Lee, 2018). *Display rules* are set standards on how an employee should respond to a given situation to fulfill expectations at work (Allen et al., 2010; Grandey, 2000). For example, when call center agents receive complaints from customers, they have to keep their calm despite the caller's tone or attitude. In this case, the display rule is to remain impassive while assuring the caller that the problem can be solved. In this situation, following display rules requires the skill of controlling one's emotional state to fulfill the job (Mastracci et al., 2012). Almost every occupation has display rules, either

explicitly or implicitly stated. However, display rules are most common and often more explicitly indicated in the service industry (Allen et al., 2010). Those who have face-to-face interactions with customers, also known as *frontline employees,* are tasked with always showing smiles and good humor in order to encourage repeat business with customers (Grandey, 2000).

Surface-Acting and Deep-Acting Effects

Although surface acting and deep acting are both kinds of emotional labor, they have different impacts on employees. In general, emotion regulation through surface acting triggers negative consequences, whereas deep acting leads to accomplishment (İrigüler & Güler, 2016). While performing surface acting, an employee may experience emotional conflict, leading to diminished well-being (İrigüler & Güler, 2016). This can further result in negative social consequences, such as stress in customer interactions and perceived dishonesty (Grandey, 2003; Groth et al., 2009). All in all, surface acting may lead to negative service delivery and poor relationships with customers (Grandey, 2003; Groth et al., 2009).

Deep acting requires less effort than surface acting because the emotions are genuinely and preemptively felt (Gross & John, 2003). Some even suggest that deep acting may have replenishing qualities in terms of individual well-being, providing job satisfaction and a sense of autonomy and accomplishment (Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2015; Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). The benefits of deep acting may be accounted for by the genuinely positive perspectives that this kind of emotional labor brings (Grandey, 2000). In that emotional labor emphasizes positive emotional

experiences, it becomes associated with a change in affect for the better, decreasing negative emotions and increasing positive ones (Deng et al., 2017). Positive emotions, in turn, help employees overcome challenging and stressful events (Fredrickson, 2001). Henceforth, by doing deep acting rather than surface acting, employees can easily develop positive emotions that can alleviate the depletion of self-worth that is common in surface acting. Moreover, customers tend to perceive deep acting as authentic and honest. Because these emotions are genuinely felt, there is no discrepancy between one's emotions and behavior (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). This, in turn, promotes positive results from customers such as satisfactory reactions, friendly responses, and positive evaluations (Deng et al., 2017; Groth et al., 2009). In summary, deep acting is less emotionally demanding and more fulfilling than surface acting.

Ashforth and Humphrey's Model

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) disagreed with Hochschild that emotional labor involves the management of feelings. According to them, it is closer to merely being a display of observable behavior in order to engage with customers for the organization (Grandey, 2000). Moreover, they did not agree that emotional labor can be completely captured by surface acting and deep acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Another argument is that emotional labor, with enough practice, may become routine for an employee. When this occurs, emotional labor becomes effortless and thus does not cause any further stress (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In this aspect of surface acting, one could argue that this model is the opposite of Hochschild's. On the subject of emotional labor in general, however, Hochschild and Ashforth and Humphrey did agree that

sincerity is key to maintaining good relationships with customers. In summation, this conceptual model focuses on the effect of emotional labor's observable behavior on task effectiveness and employee performance (Grandey, 2000).

Morris and Feldman's Model

Morris and Feldman (1996) treated emotional labor as a multidimensional concept. However, they differentiated their model by focusing on the organizational and individual factors that affected emotional labor (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2018). They defined emotional labor with an interactionist's approach: Emotions are determined by social environment. As a result, emotional labor is the planning, control, and effort exerted to display appropriate emotions during customer interaction. According to Morris and Feldman, emotional labor has four interconnected dimensions: (a) frequency of emotional display, (b) variety of emotions, (c) attentiveness to the desired display rules, and (d) surface acting as a result of expressing fake emotions. In later research on antecedents and consequences of emotional labor, it was described as having three dimensions: (a) frequency, (b) duration, and (c) emotional dissonance (Choi et al., 2014).

Although it has very different dimensions, Morris and Feldman's construct is similar to those of Hochschild and Ashforth and Humphrey, in that it acknowledges that emotions can be altered depending on the social setting (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2018). There have been criticisms on Morris and Feldman's definition of emotional labor and the conceptual and methodological concerns regarding its four dimensions and how they were identified (Choi & Kim, 2015). Before forming her own definition of emotional labor, Grandey (1999) criticized Morris and Feldman's approach. According to her, three

of the dimensions—namely, frequency, duration, and variety of emotional labor—can only provide information about job demands on employees' emotional displays, thus capturing the presence of emotional labor but failing to further explain the emotion-management process. Kruml and Geddes (2000) added that none of the four dimensions reflect the given definition of emotional labor, threatening the validity of the four subscales.

Using the definition and dimensions of emotional labor, Morris and Feldman (1997) found that their third dimension, emotional dissonance, which pertained to the alienation of an individual from his or her work role, was positively associated with emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction (Choi et al., 2014). Consequently, emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction harmfully affect vital organizational outcomes, such as turnover and job performance (Konze, Rivkin, & Schmidt, 2017). Thus, understanding the development of emotional dissonance as a component of emotional labor is important in protecting a company and employees' well-being (Häusser, Mojzisch, Niesel, & Schulz-Hardt, 2010).

Grandey's Model

Grandey (2000) suggested that emotional labor was not fully justified by the three models of Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), and Morris and Feldman (1996). To refine the emotional labor construct, Grandey provided her own conceptualization of it (Choi & Kim, 2015). Grandey added emotional regulation theory as a guide in understanding emotional labor, as well as took into account individual

differences and organizational factors in a new emotional labor model that made it more holistic (Cossette, 2009).

Grandey (2000) synthesized the three models of emotional labor and emphasized that although they came from different perspectives and focused on different outcomes, they have the same underlying theme: a person can regulate their feelings and expressions at work in order to achieve organizational goals through emotional labor (Jeung et al., 2018). Although Grandey still recognized that employees used either deep acting or surface acting in emotional labor, she argued that although thinking emotional labor as surface acting and deep acting allowed researchers to explain positive and negative outcomes, these two concepts did not clearly explain why emotional labor are related to the proposed outcomes (Yam, Fehr, Highberger, Klotz, & Reynolds, 2016). Grandey then added that deep acting was a determinant of felt emotion. This is in direct contract to surface acting being a response to felt emotion (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Thus, a new conceptual model of emotional labor was formed using the three previous models and the general emotion regulation theory was (see Figure 1).

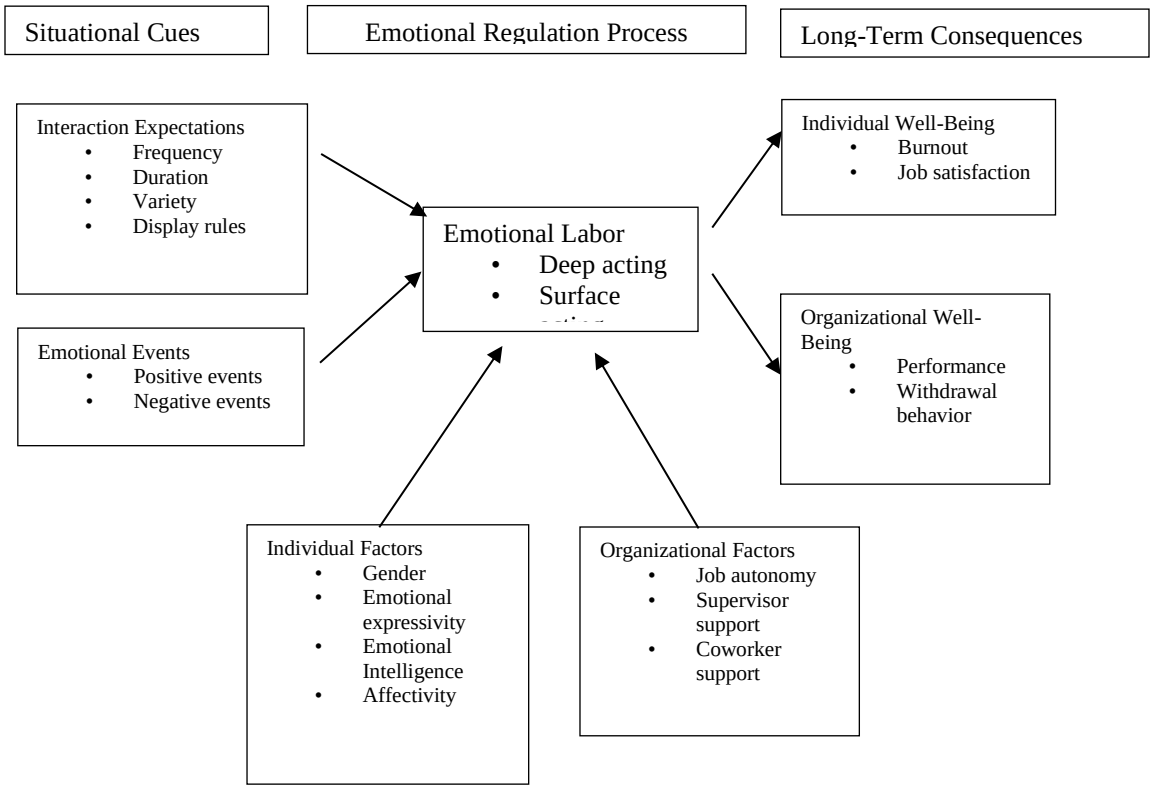

Figure 1. Grandey's conceptual framework of emotion regulation in the work setting. Adapted from "Emotion Regulation in the Workplace: A New Way to Conceptualize Emotional Labor," by A. Grandey, 2000, *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5,* p. 101.

Situational antecedents that acts as trigger that results to emotional change were added in Grandey's model. This included customer expectations, as well as the positive and negative events that tend to happen in the workplace (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Adding this factor emphasized there were certain jobs that demand higher level of emotional labor than others (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). These jobs could be characterized through the situational cues that employees encountered in the workplace. Roles that required frequent and prolonged interaction with customers face higher chances in performing emotional labor (Mastracci et al., 2012). In addition, display rules stated by the organization dictated expectations the company had for the employees

(Hsieh, 2014). Performance appraisals that are commonly done annually or bi-annually by organizations often requires emotional labor in order to satisfy the organization (Grandey, 2000). Emotional events can be either positive or negative as well, explaining employees' attitudes at work. Negative events, such as an angry customer, can be stressful and necessitate emotional labor (Walker, Van Jaarsveld, & Skarlicki, 2013). To contrast, positive events can bolster employees in their jobs (Grandey, 2000). The type of work itself can also amplify these experiences: the more demanding the work is, the more intensely these experiences are felt by the employee (Lovelace, Bundy, Hambrick, & Pollock, 2018).

Aside from situational cues, there are also the individual factors and organizational factors that affect emotional labor (Grandey, 2000). Personality differences, for example, can helpbetter explain why some people can handle their emotions better than others (Grandey & Sayre, 2019). Similarly, factors such as gender, emotional expressivity and emotional intelligence can help explain a person's ability to handle difficult situations (Basim, Begenirbas, & Yalcin, 2013). Organizational factors can help reflect the importance of environment in emotional labor (Hur, Moon, & Jun, 2013). If an employee feels that they have control over work events, the stress of the emotion regulation process can be minimized (Grandey, 2000). Moreover, support from coworkers and the management creates a positive working environment, thus decreasing from the need for emotional labor (Hur, et al, 2013).

Grandey (2000) included individual well-being, in respect with job burnout and job satisfaction, and organizational well-being, in respect with job performance, as

outcomes affected by emotional labor. Job burnout is one stress outcome that happens when an employee becomes overcome by stress (Vladut & Kallay, 2010). This is as opposed to job satisfaction, where the employee has a positive evaluation of their job, and thus leading to less emotional labor (Aziri, 2011). Some researchers propose that incentivizing employees to become friendlier with their customers may make a monotonous job more dynamic, thereby improving job satisfaction. However, as it can also hinder the employee's personal expression, it might also cause emotional stress (Grandey, 2000).

Employee work behaviors including service performance and withdrawal behaviors directly affect an organization's well-being. Emotional labor, especially in the service industry, is an important factor to ensure repeat customers, which in turn can increase business performance (Grandey, 2000). As for the employees, their emotional management may affect withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and turnovers in the long run (Grandey, 2000).

Jobs Requiring Emotional Labor

According to Hochschild (1983), jobs can be divided into those that use emotional labor and those that do not use emotional labor. In order to be classified as the former, they must satisfy three features: first, there should be a form of interaction between the employee and the customer, either through face-to-face or via phone. Second, the employee should prioritize the customer first and foremost. Third, the management should have regulations in regards with the interactions between their employees and the customers - in other words, display rules (Fatma, Yunus, & Esengul,

2014). After differentiating the jobs into these two categories, Hochschild (1983) then further segregated the jobs with emotional labor into levels of emotional labor. Those that had a high level for emotional labor exhibited a pattern: they required extensive interaction with the public, often in the form of displays of friendliness and cordiality (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). According to Mastracci et al., (2012), jobs that rated the highest for emotional labor were predominantly in the service sector. Often in direct contact with the customers, workers in this sector are often tasked to maintain a positive attitude no matter the situation. This is to bring a good perception of the customers to the organization (Allen et al., 2010; Ryan & Ployhart, 2003). Significant effort is needed on the workers' part to fulfill this kind of service that adheres with their company's display rules (Hsieh, 2014).

Tourism and Emotional Labor

Emotions are widely acknowledged to be a crucial aspect of human life. They are pervasive and associated with every aspect of living. In recent years, scholars have researched how emotions effect ones' work life and performance (George & Brief, 1992), the intermediating influence of emotions (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005) and in what way individuals' work and jobs have an impact on other aspects of their life (Judge & Ilies, 2004). One such phenomenon that relates to emotions at workplace is Emotional Labor.

Emotional labor is the process of regulating facial expressions, body language, and emotions in order to uphold organizational goals (Grandey, 2000). Hochschild (1983) pioneered the study of emotional labor among service industry workers and described it

in two aspects—deep acting and surface acting. In deep acting, a person adjusts his/her emotions to what is socially acceptable in a given situation. The shift is genuine, and the person really changes their private feelings. However, in surface acting, the person only changes their outward appearance to cope with the situation (Yoo & Arnold, 2015).

Since frontline employees in the service industry always have to maintain contact with the customers in order to remain competitive with other companies, not only do they perform physical and intellectual tasks in doing so, they also have to perform emotional labor in the form of maintaining a polite and friendly atmosphere towards customers (Chen, Chang, & Wang, 2018). This process of emotional labor then becomes a source of stress to them (Chen et al., 2018). This is then not helped by the increase in competition within the tourism sector. More competition means more customer interaction, and more interaction means more expectations on the shoulders of the employees. This results in an increase of work stress, which in turn leads to an increase in job burnout. Their positive display of emotions increases the intention of customers to return and recommend the service to others and change the perception of overall quality (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). The display rules that employees follow also depends on their company's mission statements and core values which aims to separate the quality of their service from others (Lee & Ok, 2013).

Job Burnout

The average person spends at least eight hours a day, five days a week working. Thus, one can argue that people have a special relationship with their work (Jayarathna, 2017). Due to job demands, role difficulties, and emotional conflicts in the workplace, an

employee's physical and emotional energy can get lower over time, leading to observable symptoms (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). This situation that is primarily characterized as exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment is called job burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Since its first inception, job burnout has been gaining public attention because of its overall detrimental effects to individuals, including absenteeism and turnover rates (Jayarahna, 2017). Over time, practitioners and researchers have identified burnout as not only an individual issue but as social problem and multi-faceted socio-cultural phenomenon (Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2017).

Although it is not recognized as a medical condition, The World Health Organization (WHO) is a United Nations agency that is delegated for international public health identified burnout as an occupational phenomenon based on the International Classification of Diseases (WHO, 2019). An occupational phenomenon is one of the factors that can affect a person's health without being classified as an illness. Burnout results from unsuccessfully managed chronic workplace stress, causing exhaustion, low efficacy, and cynicism (WHO, 2019). This recognition by the WHO began the development of evidence-based guidelines on occupational well-being, making job burn-out subject of attention for systematic identification (WHO, 2019).

Burnout was first used clinically by Freudenberger in the 1970s (Schaufeli, 2017). It was originally regarded as a western phenomenon, borrowed from the scenario of volunteers who experienced emotional depletion, loss of motivation, and reduced commitment in a clinic for drug addicts and homeless people (Schaufeli, 2017).

However, it gradually spread throughout Europe and other parts of the world once further developed by the social sociologist and researcher Christina Maslach who subsequently developed the most widely used questionnaire for assessing burnout (Schaufeli, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). She came across the same concept as a researcher at University of California at Berkeley while interviewing human services workers. Maslach analyzed how these workers coped with emotional challenges while doing their people-oriented work. Her interviews with the workers revealed that they had experienced emotional exhaustion, developed negative feelings towards their patients, and occasionally suffered professional incompetence as a result of their job demands (Maslach, 1976).

Subsequently, Maslach and her colleagues developed a self-report questionnaire that could assess the burnout level of an individual (Schaufeli, 2017). The original Maslach Burnout Inventory had been designed with employees in the human services in mind (MBI-HSS). These employees include nurses, physicians, health aides, social workers, health counselors, therapists, police, correctional officers, clergy, etc. Later on, other versions of this survey were developed in order to adjust its applicability with different occupations (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 2019), among them are the MBI-Human Services Survey for Medical Personnel (MBI-MP), MBI-Educators Survey (MBI-ES), MBI-General Survey (MBI-GS), and MBI-Genral Survey for Students (MBI-GSS).

Models Connected to Job Burnout

Given the widespread use of Maslach Burnout Inventory, theoretical models that explained the concept of job burnout focused on the relationship between its three

dimensions that were mentioned on the MBI. These are exhaustion, depersonalization or cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). These three components happen, one after another. Exhaustion starts to develop when the job becomes too demanding. This in turn leads to detachment with co-workers and the job which is the stage of depersonalization or cynicism. Afterwards, feelings of inadequacy can be developed, leading to incompetence and loss of professional efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Since job stress had an established connection with job burnout, recent models used this concept, focusing on the imbalances that led to it (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). The first model was the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). It focused on the idea that burnout started when the job began to demand too much, with insufficient resources tackle said demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Thus, as the model went, there should be a balance between resources and demands to ensure employee well-being. Demerouti et al. (2001) defined the demands in the JD-R model as "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (p. 501). These demands can be display rules, workloads, and emotional conflicts. On the other hand, job resources are "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development"

(Demerouti et al., 2001 , p. 501). Examples of job resources are training programs, social support, and additional employees (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Added demands Require additional resources in order to prevent a decrease in performance (Lesener, Gusy, & Wolter, 2019). If the additional demands were not met, it comes with physical and psychological trade-offs including fatigue and irritability for the employees (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The JD-R allowed for a wider scope in terms of the definition of demands and resources. It just followed the assumption that any demand may have negative effects on employee well-being while every resource has positive effects. Thus, it can be adjusted to wider varieties of workplace settings, giving it an advantage over other models (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

According to the JD-R model, there are two processes that can lead to the development of burnout (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). First, excessive demands without enough resources provided leads to exhaustion. This in turn leads to withdrawal or disengagement from the employee's part, as an instinctive strategy to prevent further fatigue (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). These circumstances are what then lead to burn-out.

The second model is the Conservation of Resources (COR) model. It is based on the idea that burnout can be the result of a threat to preexisting resources (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). COR theory's primary principle is that individuals strive to protect things that they value (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). Once these valued resources are threatened, it results in stress for employees. Failure in obtaining more resources can lead to stress as well (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This theory has a wide scope of

applications, ranging from job burnout to traumatic stress. It follows these four principles:

1. Resource loss has more impact than resource gain. A resource as described by the COR model can be an object (work tools and facilities), condition (seniority, tenure, and pay level), personal resources (soft skills, traits, and personality), and energy resources (incentives, money, and credits). When a resource is lost, the stress resulted remains even if said resource is later reclaimed. This is because the impact time of loss is longer than that of gain, causing it to be more pronounced (Hobfoll et al., 2018).
2. Investing on resources is necessary to protect against resource loss. Investment can be done either directly or indirectly. For example, hiring a new employee to replace a retiree can be considered as a direct replacement. On the other hand, retooling and improving an existing employee's skills to prepare for potential resource loss can be considered as an indirect replacement (Hobfoll et al., 2018).
3. The importance of resource gain increases as the frequency of resource loss increases. It follows the idea that those who have more resources are less likely to experience resource loss as opposed to resource gain (Hobfoll et al., 2018).
4. There are detrimental effects to employees when the resources are overused. They can become defensive, aggressive, and irrational. This principle of COR theory explains the effects of job burnout (Hobfoll et al., 2018). It shows the

built-in evolutionary strategy that people have to adapt and overcome the difficulties that arise (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

The Areas of Worklife (AW) model identifies six areas in which worklife imbalance happens. These includes workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). When there's a mismatch between the job and these areas, burnout becomes a probable outcome. Control pertains to the employee's capacity to influence their work environment and gain resources (Leiter et al., 2010). Rewards are the reinforcements that facilitate motivation, incentivizing better behavior and output (Boamah & Laschinger, 2016). The community serves as social support, providing an effective social environment in the workplace (Boamah & Laschinger, 2016). Fairness pertains to workplace justice and equality, while values reflect the organization's mission, ethics, and goals (Hunt, 2014; Leiter & Maslach, 2009). Since burnout results from an imbalanced worklife, any mismatch in these six areas directly increases the chances of burnout (Boamah & Laschinger, 2016).

Jobs With High Burnout

Job burnout, as a concept, had been originally conceived as an occupational hazard for professions in the service industry. This included those in human services, education, and health care (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This is because the high frequency and durations of emotional contact between the employees and customers on these jobs can be stressful, if also rewarding. As these occupations have implicit rules of putting other's needs first before one's own well-being, it is very common for burnout to be the result of such stress (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). However, since then burnout has been

recognized to be present in other jobs, including those engaging in operations, production and office work (Jayarathna, 2017). The burnout scale has since then been retooled to fit other employee groups, opening up this phenomenon to a wide range of targets (Jayarathna, 2017). At the present, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) has versions fitted for the Human Services Sector (MBI-HSS), for Medical Personnel (MBI-MP), for Educators (MBI-ES), for General Services (MBI-GS), and for Students (MBI-GS(S)) (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 2019).

Tourism and Job Burnout

As part of the service industry, tourism employees are often tasked to satisfying all of their customers' needs in hopes of encouraging them to become return customers (Li et al., 2017). This makes their work is that much more likely to cause particularly high levels of job burnout (Li et al., 2017). Due to the constant social interaction, the important role of social exchanges between frontline employees in the industry and the customers may become a significant source of stress for the employees (Hsieh & Eggers,2010; Koc, 2009). This is especially so when the demands placed on them are higher than what they are capable of fulfilling (Koc & Bozkurt, 2017). Prolonged stress then may lead to emotional responses such as emotional exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Repeated exposure to this kind of situation may then lead the employee to believe that the situation is unchangeable, further leaving them vulnerable to job burnout (Koc & Bozkurt, 2017). This is important, because job burnout can result to increased absenteeism, job dissatisfaction, and a high employee turnover, which then leads to a decrease in overall job performance and profits. Add to that the difficulty of

training replacement staff with such reduced profits (Tsui, 2013), job burnout left unchecked can lead into a downward spiral for a company.

Relationship of Emotional Labor and Job Burnout

Prolonged engagement with emotional labor results with the symptoms of burnout (Grandey, 2003). This is a result of experiencing tension while managing one's emotions in fulfilling one's duties (Guler, 2016). When an employee participates in surface acting, they exhibit-body language that is different from their true emotions, making it inauthentic. This detachment then leads to further tension, emotional discomfort, and job stress, up until they culminate into a full-blown burnout (Lee & Ok, 2013). Detachment can also occur between co-workers, resulting to cynicism which is another dimension of burnout of its own (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). In the case of deep acting however, since the emotions are being shown are more genuine, it has a subtler effect on job stress (Lee & Ok, 2013). According to Maslach (1982), investing more on genuine emotions can help an employee become far less susceptible to burnout.

Demographics' Relationship With Emotional Labor and Job Burnout Age

It is only recently in the history of mankind that we, on average, can expect to live for more than seventy years as opposed to dying earlier from freak accidents and/or disease. This change in life expectancy does not only affect the overall quality of our lives however, as it also causes a change in the composition of the working population (Johnson, Holdsworth, Hoel, & Zapf, 2013). In some countries, it has been proven that as more generations pass, the average age of the working population increases as there becomes less and less young people working compared to their older peers (Johnson et

al., 2013). For example, since 2005, the number of young adults in the European Union has been decreasing, leading to a forecast of the working population (16–64 years) shrinking by 20.8 million by 2030 (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). Similar patterns occur in the U.S. This situation means that over time institutions have to depend on older workers, creating a need for a greater understanding of age differences in the workplace (Schalk et al., 2010).

Age and Emotion Regulation Strategies

In order to comply with their organization's display rules**,** employees use different strategies to cope with emotional labor at work (Chen, Sliter, Sliter, & Withrow, 2013). Each strategy can have different outcomes with regards to an employee's mental and physical health (Grandey, 2003). Given the scenario of the ageing workforce, studies that analyze the interaction of age with different emotional labor strategies have started to gain attention (Cheung & Tang, 2010; Dahling & Perez, 2010). According to Chen et al. (2013), the Social Emotional Selectivity Theory (SST) can explain the relationship between age and emotional labor strategies. SST explains that the awareness of older people over their limited lifespan helps them focus on the present, keeping them motivated in living the most positive and satisfactory life possible (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). This affects their choice of emotional labor strategy (Chen et al., 2013). Emotional labor, as described by Hoschild (1983) is divided into two kinds of emotional control—deep acting and surface acting. Surface acting, in the simplest terms, is the false display of acceptable emotions (Grandey,2000; Hochschild, 1983). On the other hand, deep acting occurs before the stimuli and allows the employees to

genuinely align their feelings with the organizational goal (Grandey, 2000). Since older adults are motivated to experience positive emotions, they tend to choose deep acting as their form of emotional labor strategy (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Cheung & Tang, 2010). As for the case of surface acting, it's avoided by older adults since it is not aligned with their motivational goals (Gross & John, 2003). Thus, surface acting would become less frequent with age (Chen et al., 2013). In the study by Chen et al. (2013) on 519 participants from the service industry, age was significantly related to deep acting ($b=-.13$, $p<.01$), surface acting ($b=-.09$, $p<.05$), and EI ($b=.19$, $p<.01$).

Age and Job Burnout

On the subject of job burnout, age was also studied to have an impact, particularly on the stress management that was triggered by customers (Johnson, Holdsworth, Hoel, & Zapf, 2013). Research showed that, on average, an older employee has more capability to cope with workplace stress than their younger peers, especially in the case of customer interactions. This is made possible by their advantage in life experiences (Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004). In the service industry where employees constantly interact with their customers, their lack of prior experience can open them to being surprised by unpleasant customer behavior. However, as employees get older and become more experienced in the industry, they experience less surprise over such encounters (Dormann & Zapf, 2004). Older employees in general are also more positive and constructive in their approach with customer interactions. They approach confrontations with more care, leading to lesser conflicts and minimizing negative emotional experiences (Johnson et al., 2013). In the service industry where employees are required

to display positive emotions regardless of the situation, this particular characteristic of older employees becomes advantageous in gaining positive regard and feedback from customers (Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011). All in all, older employees have more potential on building trust and gaining repeat customers (Staudinger & Pasupathi, 2003).

In selecting a stress management strategy, adults aged 40 to 64 years old tend to prefer proactive strategies that focus on emotions (Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004). An example of this type of stress management strategy is the act of confronting negative emotions in order to cope with them, and as well as looking at a different perspective when faced with a negative situation. On the other hand, younger employees tend to use problem-focused strategies. They seek support from their peers and/or the organization while trying to deal with the problem at hand objectively (De Lange et al., 2010). When faced with a highly emotional situation, younger employees can often deal with it objectively without feeling emotional about the situation (Blanchard-Fields et al., 2004). However, they can also have the tendency to act immature and begin blaming others during a conflict. This can help with restoring their self-esteem but may lead to conflict with others especially with customers (Johnson et al., 2013). In low-control situations such as those usually experienced by service employees, the type of stress management strategy that often works best is positive reinterpretation, combined with avoidance (Semmer, 2003).

Although research reveals the advantage of older employees in terms of successfully handling stressful situations, they in turn face challenges in coping with

different work barriers such as physical strength limitations, health concerns, and difficulties in using new technology. All of these can hinder their work productivity and bring stress (Hsu, 2018). In addition, older workers can have their own expectations of their retirement age. The closer they get to their planned retirement age, the more they tend to disengage from work (Dammam, Henkens, & Kalmijn, 2013).

Gender

Gender differences in emotional labor is evident in several ways (Sturdy, 2002). First, occupations are traditionally separated by gender wherein men are assigned to the production of goods while women are assigned to jobs where their caring and nurturing skills are needed (Sturdy, 2002). Thus, men are often regarded as rational while women are perceived as emotional (Simpson, 2007). It is a natural belief that emotions are part of women's domain but not in the domain of men. Women traditionally do care-taking roles, making them fit in people-oriented work (Ying, Cheum, & Baum, 2018). They are caring, empathic, emotionally expressive and willing to listen (Yang & Guy, 2015). Moreover, they are the ones who tend to have the capability for service-oriented occupations, therefore also making them more suitable for emotional labor (Guerrier & Adib, 2004).

Because of the assumption that women are more capable in service-oriented occupations, management in organizations often attempt to prescribe emotional labor among female employees (Taylor & Tyler, 2000). Organization managers, on average, believe that women can accomplish caring jobs better than men since they are better at managing emotions (Fischer & LaFrance, 2015). Consequently, women are encouraged

to further improve their interpersonal skills in order to deliver even more impressive outcomes (Simpson, 2007). When assigned in service roles, women are more likely to experience deep acting than men due to their good emotional expressivity and care about others' feelings (Johnson & Spector, 2007). This gives them more positive experiences, even in emotional-labor-demanding jobs, as deep acting has been shown to be a better emotional labor strategy than surface acting (Van Dijk, Smith, & Cooper, 2011).

Gender affects other dimensions of work life aside from expressing emotional labor (Yim et al., 2018). For example, organizational support may be perceived differently by men and women (Yim et al., 2018). Women are often motivated by the personalized care that they receive from the organization, in contrast with male employees who seek tangible rewards so they can feel appreciation for their hard work (Yim et al., 2018). Gender differences in emotional labor has also been related to cultural performance. Norms in a culture establish the image of males and females for each and every culture (Williams, 2003). These gender norms can then affect the cultural performance of emotional labor (Williams, 2003).

Several studies have also pointed out the gender differences of emotional labor. For example, a study among nurses showed that males performed more surface acting on average than females (Adeniji & Akanni, 2015). Also, it has been found males had less emotional labor overall than their female counterparts (Cottingham, Erickson, & Diefendorff, 2015). Lastly, the surface acting of females can also affect their job satisfaction and turnover rates (Yang & Guy, 2015). Based on these existing researches, it can be inferred that there can be significant difference between the emotional labor

executed by male and female employees. Thus, it is worth analyzing if this is also the case in the current Philippine context.

Education

In a dynamic working environment, it is evident that having a high educational attainment is often desired in terms of competition (Kenton, 2018). Being the third economic sector that is responsible for the largest portion of an economy's business activity, the service sector also follows the patterns of global competition, creating a demanding environment for employees (Jeung et al., 2018). Thus, the need to study educational level differences, in terms of emotional labor and job burnout for the service sector, arises.

Job burnout is the result of exposure to chronic stressors affecting an employee's social, and personal performance (Maslach, 2015). This phenomenon has three major dimensions—feeling exhausted (emotional exhaustion), detachment from the job (depersonalization), and ineffectiveness or failure (reduced personal accomplishment) (Maslach, 1981). According to Rashkovits and Livne (2013), education level has positive effect on burnout but not directly so. Instead, it is moderated by learning behaviors. Their argument was supported by the "active learning hypothesis" of the demand-control model of job stress (Karasek, 1998). According to this model, provided sufficient learning opportunities, a job can give a sense of confidence for an employee. This confidence in turn helps with coping with job stress. Thus, learning behaviors are the bridge between the worker education and reduced burnout. Workers with higher education are more

capable at work and have diverse working behaviors, which in turn affects their psychological state (Rashkovits & Livne, 2013).

In the teaching profession for example, studies show that the higher the teachers' level of educational attainment, the higher their sense of self-efficacy (Cantrell, Young, & Moore, 2003; Akbari & Moradkhan, 2009). Those who only had teaching diplomas had higher rates of burnout as opposed to those with master's degree (Jamaludin & Yoo, 2019). This is because teachers who have a master's degree are more natural in doing emotional labor with their higher levels of teaching efficacy and lower levels of stress (Özan & Şener, 2014; Alavinia & Kurosh, 2012). In addition, teachers with higher educational attainment have more possibilities to achieving promotions to a variety of different positions, thus giving them the opportunity to advance economically which may improve their way of life (Swanson & Huff, 2010).

These studies clearly show the relationship between educational attainment and the ability of a teacher to handle emotional labor and job stress. According to Zaretsky and Katz (2019), emotional labor is a central factor associated with the teaching profession. Thus, as those jobs in the service industry also require emotional labor, studying service employee differences as per affected by their educational attainment is important.

Summary and Transition

This chapter discussed the existing literature that showed key points about emotional labor, job burnout, tourism industry, demographic factors, and their associations with one another. The tourism industry that comprises of subsectors

including accommodations, food and beverage services, recreation and entertainment, transportation, and travel services is a large and fast-growing industry able to generate several potential benefits for the whole economy both at local and national level (Wescott, 2015; Gurrieri, Lorizo, & Stramaglia, 2014). In this kind of industry, frontline employees who have direct contact with the customers do aesthetic labor to uphold the company's image and branding (Nickson, Warhurst & Dutton, 2006). In accomplishing said aesthetic labor, these employees experience emotional labor (Chen, Chang, & Wang, 2018). Hochschild pioneered the concept of emotional labor. She divided the concept into two kinds of emotional control—deep acting and surface acting (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting, in the simplest terms, is the false display of acceptable emotions while deep acting is more genuine and heartfelt (Grandey,2000; Hochschild, 1983). On literature, there are four basic emotional labor models that were repeatedly mentioned. These were established by Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996), and Grandey (2000).

Job burnout is primarily characterized by the symptoms of exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). It was originally coined as an occupational hazard for professions in the service industry, as well as including those in the human services, education, and health care which are primarily people-oriented (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Prolonged engagement with emotional labor results with the symptoms of burnout (Grandey, 2003). This is a result of experiencing tension while managing one's emotions in fulfilling one's duties (Guler, 2016).

Gender, age, and educational attainment are demographic characteristics that are associated with the manifestation of emotional labor and job burnout. According to Chen et al. (2013), the Social Emotional Selectivity Theory (SST) can explain the relationship between age and emotional labor strategies. SST explains that the awareness of older people over their limited lifespan helps them focus on the present, keeping them motivated in living the most positive and satisfactory life possible (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). This affects their choice of emotional labor strategy (Chen et al., 2013). Since older adults are motivated to experience positive emotions, they tend to choose deep acting as a form of emotional labor strategy to meet their organizations' display rules (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Cheung & Tang, 2010). In the case of surface acting, it is avoided by older adults since it is not aligned with their motivational goals (Gross & John, 2003). Thus, surface acting would become less frequent with age (Chen et al., 2013). Moreover, older employees have more capability to cope with workplace stress, especially in the case of customer interactions. This is possible because of their advantage in life experiences (Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004).

For gender, occupations are traditionally separated by gender wherein men are assigned with the production of goods while women are assigned with the jobs where their caring and nurturing capabilities are needed (Sturdy, 2002). Organization managers believe that women can accomplish caring jobs better than men since they are better at managing emotions (Fischer & LaFrance, 2015). When assigned in service roles, women are more likely to experience deep acting than men due to their good emotional expressivity and care about others' feelings. This gives them more positive experiences,

even in emotional-labor-demanding jobs, as deep acting has been shown to be a better emotional labor strategy than surface acting (Johnson & Spector, 2007; Van Dijk, Smith, & Cooper, 2011).

According to Rashkovits and Livne (2013), education level has positive effect on burnout but not directly. Instead, it is moderated by learning behaviors. Their argument was supported by the "active learning hypothesis" of the demand-control model of job stress (Karasek, 1998). According to this model, provided sufficient learning opportunities, a job can give a sense of confidence for the employee. In turn, this confidence on the job helps in coping with job stress. Learning behaviors are the bridge between the worker education and reduced burnout. Workers with higher education are more capable at work and have diverse working behaviors, which in turn affects their psychological state (Rashkovits & Livne, 2013).

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology followed in the study. The review of the research design, sample population, data collection methods, data analysis, and ethical concerns are covered. Chapter 4 shows the analysis of data collected including descriptive summaries, assumption checking, and hypothesis testing. Chapter 5 tackles the summary of the research and discussion of the results in reference to the existing literature.

Chapter 3: Research Methods

Introduction

In this study, the objective was to assess the impact of emotional labor on job burnout among employees in the tourism sector of the service industry in the Philippines, including hotels and airlines. It also sought to examine gender, age, and education level as moderators in the relationship of these two variables. The subsequent sections discuss how the dimensions of emotional labor and job burnout were measured and analyzed on an appropriate sample of the target population. This includes the research design, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Research Approach

The main constructs in this study were employees' emotional labor and job burnout, which were respectively measured using the Emotional Labor Scale (ELS) and Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey (MBI-GS). Emotional labor was split into surface acting and deep acting, as defined by Hochschild (1983), using the subscales of the ELS. Job burnout was broken down into its three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, as identified by Maslach (2015), using the subscales of the MBI-GS. Aside from these two constructs, demographic data including gender, age, and education level were also collected to determine if they acted as moderator variables, which in this study would have affected the strength of a relationship between the independent variable, emotional labor, and the dependent variable, job burnout (Marsh, Hau, Wen, Nagengast, & Morin, 2011).

Because the study was intended to draw inferences on the preexisting characteristics of the population at the current time, with no alteration of the current status of the participants, a cross-sectional design was applied (Hemed, 2015). This research approach was also suitable for gathering data on a large number of subjects with a wide geographical target (Setia, 2016). Following the cross-sectional approach, sample individuals were recruited based on the assigned inclusion and exclusion criteria. Thus, the prevalence of the variables on all of the chosen participants could be measured and analyzed (Setia, 2016).

The population-based survey was done geographically for a large target population, so a survey was the appropriate technique to use, in that it was relatively inexpensive to conduct and took less time that other processes to accomplish (Setia, 2016). Moreover, the fact that it could reach a larger sample meant greater statistical power for the analysis (Jones, Baxter, & Khanduja, 2013). Due to the wide geographical target, the survey was distributed using an online survey platform. This was advantageous not only in distributing and collecting responses quickly, but also in compiling the data obtained afterward (Jones et al., 2013). However, because electronic surveys are prone to a low response rate, steps were taken to improve the response rate. These included endorsement from a tourism organization as well as creation of a comprehensive but short questionnaire. To promote responsible research in the field, proper survey procedures were followed. These measures ensured the respondents' anonymity.

Research Design

This quantitative study used a nonexperimental design,which is the dominant research design in the social sciences when a researcher is not conducting a true experiment (Reio, 2016). To collect the data needed for this study, a survey in the form of an electronic questionnaire was used. Survey instruments are used to describe human behavior in social and psychological research (Singleton & Straits, 2009). With nonexperimental research design, past survey instruments can also be used to make recommendations for future practice (Reio, 2016).

Using survey instruments for data collection is consistent with nonexperimental research design. Survey research collects information from a sample of a population through responses to questions (Ponto, 2015). A quantitative research strategy was used for the survey that involved questions with numerically rated items. Between quantitative and qualitative strategies, a quantitative design was picked for the survey. Thus, both the ELS and the MBI-GS were used to satisfy this particular category. For the ELS, each item was answerable with a 5-point Likert scale that had the following equivalents: *never* (1), *rarely* (2), *sometimes* (3), *often* (4), and *always* (5). For MBI-GS, the items were answered in terms of the frequency in the form of a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 for *never*, to 6 for *every day* (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and associated hypotheses guided this study:

Research Question 1: Does Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting, as measured by the ELS, predict their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?

$H_0$1: Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting does not predict their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

$H_1$1: Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting predicts their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

Research Question 2: Does Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting as measured by the ELS on their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?

$H_0$2: Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level do not moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting on their assessed level of exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

$H_1$2: Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting on their exhaustion, cynicism, and/or professional efficacy.

Methodology

Population

The target population of this study was all of the frontline employees of hotels and airlines operating in Manila and Clark City, Philippines. The Department of Tourism provided a list of hotels. As for the airlines, the Civil Aviation Board provided a list of those flying to and from the Mactan International Airport, the Diosdado Macapagal International Airport, and the Ninoy Aquino International Airport.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Convenience sampling was used in selecting the participants for this study. I made this choice because this kind of nonprobability sampling is the most appropriate for studies handling large populations, as well as for situations in which randomization is difficult to facilitate, if not impossible (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). This is done by choosing study participants through practical criteria such as willingness to participate (Etikan et al., 2016). To facilitate convenience sampling in this study, invitation letters were sent via email to the airline and hotel companies included in the scope of the study. After a week, a follow-up message was delivered via call in order to confirm whether the company would participate in the study. Those that responded positively were given a copy of the questionnaire to be distributed to frontline employees. The G*Power analysis for multiple linear regression with medium effect size of 0.15, 5% error probability, 95% power, and five predictors provided the research with a minimum of 138 in sample size. This effect size pertained to the magnitude of strength of the regression slope coefficient (Helwig, 2017). Even low effect size can be significant based on a specified power, say

.05, alpha given a large sample (Martin, 2019). However, with the limited time given and geographic constraints on data collection, it was not advisable to consider a large sample size. G*Power considered 0.02 as a small effect size, 0.15 as a medium effect size, and 0.35 as a large effect size, so to compromise between observing a good effect size and having a realistically obtainable sample, a medium effect size of 0.15 was considered adequate to get the required sample size.

Instruments

The main data source for this study consisted of the primary data collected via a survey. The questionnaire contained an array of tests to capture participant demographics, emotional labor, and job burnout. The following sections address which surveys tap into which respective area of interest.

Demographics. The first part of the survey involved questions that were intended to divulge the characteristics of the respondents. According to Salkind (2010), demographical data involve information such as gender, age, and income. Such information may assist in identifying whether a sample is representative of the target population and may thus be used for purposes of generalization. Moreover, demographics can also serve as independent variables in the research design. In this case, age, gender, and education level were tested as candidates for moderator variables in the current model.

Emotional labor. In this study, emotional labor was measured based on Hochschild's theory (1983), which divided the construct between surface acting and deep acting. It was then quantified using the ELS developed by Brotheridge and Lee (1998) to

measure emotional labor in individuals. The ELS is a 15-item questionnaire that measures the six factors of emotional labor: frequency, intensity, variety, duration, surface acting, and deep acting. Each item is answerable with a 5-point Likert scale with the following equivalents: *never* (1), *rarely* (2), *sometimes* (3), *often* (4), and *always* (5). The core question for each item is "On an average day at work, how often do you do each of the following when interacting with customers?" The emotional labor scores are then tallied by summing the numeric counterpart of responses for each factor. The higher the score, the higher the level of the dimension being assessed (Johnson, 2004).

The six subscales showed satisfactory internal consistency with Cronbach's α ranging from .74 to .91. Confirmatory factor analysis also verified the existence of six unidimensional subscales. For convergent and divergent validity, the correlations between ELS and other scales including the Emotional Work Requirements Scale, Snyder's (1974) self-monitoring scale, and Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) positive affectivity and negative affectivity inventory were calculated to demonstrate that ELS was correlated with the scales that measure the same constructs and not for the inverse. The low to moderate correlations between the ELS and other scales showed its ability to be adequately distinguished from other scales (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003).

Job burnout. The degree of burnout for the employees was assessed using the MBI-GS that had been developed by Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, and Schaufeli in 1995. The MBI-GS had been designed for use in measuring burnout among occupational groups other than human services and education, thus including those working in customer service. According to Maslach et al. (1996), the MBI-GS consists of 22 items

divided into three subscales: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Emotional exhaustion measures one's perception of overwork, cynicism measures one's distant attitude toward one's work, and professional efficacy measures one's personal satisfaction with one's accomplishments in the job. The items were answered in terms of frequency in the form of a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 0 for *never* to 6 for *every day*. The core question for each item was "If you have never had this feeling, select *never*. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by selecting the phrase that best describes how frequently you feel that way." Respondents were then scored for each subscale, with the subscales considered separately.

All three subscales of the MBI-GS demonstrated a Cronbach's α higher than the recommended criterion of .70, showing adequate internal consistency. Confirmatory factor analysis verified the three-factor model of the MBI-GS. Test–retest reliability was tested using Pearson correlation, correlating the results between a 6-month period, and the results were as follows: Exhaustion between Time 1 and Time 2 was highly stable (r = .72), while in comparison, depersonalization and personal accomplishment had lower stability (r = .61 and .58, respectively; Richardsen & Martinussen, 2005).

Data Collection

For the sampling frame, the Department of Tourism in the Philippines provided a list of registered hotels in Manila and Clark, Philippines. Likewise, the Civil Aviation Board provided a list of airlines flying to and from the Ninoy Aquino International Airport and the Diosdado Macapagal International Airport. Requests were then sent to

the respective companies' human resource departments, introducing the study and its objectives. After 3 days, follow-up calls were made to confirm participation.

Once the endorsement had been received, invitations and consent forms were distributed with the questionnaire through email to frontline employees. The consent form served as an invitation to an online cloud-based survey hosting platform called Survey Monkey. Automatic notifications reminded the participants to answer the survey, while also monitoring the data and responses of the respondents. However, in order to ensure confidentiality, email addresses were not recorded. This method prevented coercion because there was no face-to-face interaction with the respondents.

Only frontline employees, including those at the front desk, at check-in counters, and in management, were counted as participants. Within 3 weeks, Survey Monkey finished collecting the data. An email was sent to target respondents 2 days prior to closing the survey. This was done to make sure that those who had overlooked the invitation still had a chance to answer. The data were downloaded in Excel format and transferred into SPSS for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

Data encoding and all analysis were done in SPSS. To measure the emotional labor and job burnout of the employees, proper scoring for each subsection in the emotional labor and job burnout measures was computed. To test the hypothesis that the emotional labor level (surface acting and deep acting) can predict the degree of job burnout, and that gender moderates the effects of emotional labor on job burnout, regression analysis with moderation was performed. The three MBI scale scores should

be calculated and interpreted separately, resulting in three regression analyses in total. Prior to doing the regression model, linear relationship between the dependent and each independent variable, multivariate normality, collinearity, autocorrelation, and homoscedasticity was assessed to ensure that all assumptions were satisfied. Results of the linear regression analysis were interpreted based on the model fit, coefficient of determination, and the significant variables with their corresponding coefficients. Incorporating a moderator variable in a regression model is known as *moderator analysis*. It identifies whether the relationship between the predictor(s) and criterion variables is affected by the value of the third variable (Aguinis, 2004).

In this study, the moderating effects of gender, age, and education level on the relationship of emotional labor and job burnout were analyzed. The PROCESS method of testing a moderating variable developed by Andrew F. Hayes, which does the centering and interaction terms automatically, was used instead of regular linear regression. In order to confirm that a third variable is having a moderation effect on the relationship between two variables X and Y, the nature of this relationship should change as the values of the moderating variable M change.

Threats to Validity

A possible threat to external validity in this study was selection bias. Selection bias happens when the sample of individuals who participated in the study are not representative of the population where the results are to be applied. This threat can reduce the generalizability of results, especially with quantitative research design, which has a main goal of making generalizations from the sample being studied (Huang & Lee,

2015). In addition, volunteer bias may also apply, in that participants engaged in the study voluntarily. As personal characteristics and values of the volunteers may differ from the norm, there was a risk of reducing generalizability. To address the equal chance of participation among companies and employees, the inclusion criteria were given at the start of participant selection. Moreover, descriptive statistics on the demographic variables were reported to emphasize the characteristics of the sample group included in the study.

Ethical Procedures

The data collection and data analysis procedures were documented to ensure that the IRB requirements were fulfilled. The following precautions were followed to ensure that requirements regarding the protection of the human subjects were satisfied:

Risk/Benefit Analysis

The primary purpose of the IRB review is to ensure that the potential benefits of the research to society would outweigh any risks that it may incur to the participants (HHS Human Subject Protection Regulations, 2009). The study design was structured to minimize risks and possible harm to participants. To ensure that the job of the employees and the companies they work for would not experience negative implications from the study, the individual responses of the employees were also shared to their company management. Lastly, the final results were generalized with no outcome pointing to any specific company.

Informed Consent

This ensures that participants are sufficiently informed about the purpose of the research to give appropriate consent regarding participation. A proper introduction on the problems and objectives that the study aimed to accomplish was included on the cover letter of the survey that was sent to the chosen participants. They were also informed that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw anytime.

Subject Selection

Fair and equitable decision-making in the choice and recruitment of participants was done by getting a complete sampling frame of hotels and airlines from the Department of Tourism and the Civil Aviation Board. Each element in the sampling frame was given equal chance of being selected, thereby ensuring that all relevant organizations could participate in the study. Moreover, inclusion criteria were used so only participants from the target population were involved.

Privacy and Confidentiality

Personal information such as names, addresses, and signatures were not collected from the survey, as these could potentially be used to trace the responses back to their specific respondents. The option to track IP-addresses was turned off as well from the electronic survey. All results were then treated as confidential data, limiting the access to only the researcher and the statistician who analyzed the results. Afterwards, the data would then only be stored for 5 years after collection through the use of an encrypted cloud storage. Only summarized results were published, with no raw data exposed in writing.

Summary and Transition

To assess the impact of emotional labor on job burnout among the employees of the tourism sector, the study used a non-experimental quantitative design. The primary data collection method was administered through a survey questionnaire that was mailed to the chosen respondents. These respondents were selected using a non-probability, convenience sampling technique. The participants were conveniently sampled through companies that agreed to participate in the study. The survey questionnaire included demographic questions, the ELS, and the MBI-GS. Ethical procedures were followed to ensure the confidentiality of the data collected. For the analysis, each subsection in the ELS and MBI-GS were properly scored and computed to quantify their prevalence. Regression analysis with moderation using SPSS was then performed to answer the study's hypotheses. In the regression model, surface acting and deep acting were used as the independent variables, job burnout subscales as the dependent variables, and gender, age, and education level as the moderators.

Chapter 4 shows the description and analysis of the data collected. It includes a summary of the statistics, with assumptions checked prior to modelling, and hypothesis-testing. Chapter 5 tackles the summary of the research and discussion of the results in reference to preexisting literature. It also discusses whether the results agree or deviate from the preexisting published references.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The study focused on the relationship between emotional labor and job burnout among travel service employees in the Philippines. Specifically, it examined whether emotional labor in terms of surface acting and/or deep acting as assessed by the ELS affected the components of job burnout: exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy, as indicated by the MBI-GS. Further, age, gender, and education level acting as potential moderators were also analyzed.

Chapter 4 reviews the study results as they relate to the research questions:

1. Does Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting as measured by the ELS predict their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?
2. Does Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting as measured by the ELS on their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?

This chapter covers the sample demographic information, including age, gender, and education level. Next, descriptive statistics and an overview of measures of association are presented. Finally, tests of the assumptions and results of the hypothesis testing for each research qusiton are showcased.

Sample Demographics

The sample encompassed 180 participants (see Table 1). There were 123 (68.3%) females and 57 (31.7%) males. Ages ranged from 20 to 59 years old, with a mean of 30 years old (*SD* = 7.25). Most of the participants had graduated from college (*n* = 158; 88.3%).

Table 1

Sample Demographic Breakout (N=180)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	57	31.7
Female	123	68.3
Age		
20-29	107	59.4
30-39	57	31.7
40-49	10	5.6
50-59	6	3.3
Education		
High school graduate	3	1.7
College undergraduate	8	4.5
College graduate	158	87.8
Some graduate school	4	2.2
Completed graduate school	6	3.4

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 indicates that for the ELS subscales, deep acting ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .73$) had a higher average than surface acting ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .68$). For the MBI-GS subscales, professional efficacy ($M = 5.09$, $SD = 1.03$) had the highest average score, followed by exhaustion ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.65$), and then cynicism ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 1.33$).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Emotional Labor and Job Burnout Subscales (N=180)

Subscales	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
Emotional Labor				
Surface acting	1.00	5.00	2.75	.676
Deep acting	1.00	5.00	3.29	.728
Job Burnout				
Exhaustion	.00	6.00	3.12	1.65
Cynicism	.00	6.00	2.48	1.33
Professional Efficacy	.00	6.00	5.09	1.03

Table 3 depicts the Cronbach's alpha calculations for the ELS and MBI-GS used to respectively measure emotional labor and job burnout. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency or reliability, and all five subscales scored sufficiently high for internal consistency.

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha for the ELS and MBI-GS Subscales

Instrument	Subscale	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
ELS	Surface acting	3	.644
	Deep acting	3	.657
MBI-GS	Exhaustion	5	.930
	Cynicism	5	.761
	Professional efficacy	6	.866

Table 4 presents the linear correlations between the study variables. Among the demographic variables, age and educational attainment had a significant negative relationship (r = -.194, p < .001), indicating that older workers tended to have a lower level of education. Between the ELS subscales, there is a significant positive association between deep and surface acting (r = .289, p < .01), and between the MBI-GS subscales of cynicism and exhaustion, there is a strong significant correlation (r = .647, p < .01).

Between the subscales of the ELS and MBI-GS, surface acting and exhaustion (r = .168, p < .05) as well as surface acting and cynicism (r = .253, p < .05) were positively correlated. Between the demographic variables and the instrument subscales, only educational attainment and the MBI -GS professional efficacy subscale (r = .178, p < .05) were positively related, whereas age and cynicism (r = -.213, p < .05) had a significant negative association.

Table 4

Correlations Between Demographics, ELS Subscale Scores, and MBI-GS Subscale Scores

Variable	Age	Educational attainment	Surface acting	Deep acting	Exhaustion	Cynicism
Age	-					
Educational attainment	-.194**	-				
Surface acting	-.114	-.044	-			
Deep acting	-.093	.028	.289**	-		
Exhaustion	-.119	.053	.168*	.082	-	
Cynicism	-.213*	.025	.253**	-.037	.647**	-
Professional efficacy	.049	.178*	.062	.068	.057	-.021

*p < .05. **p < 0.01.

Tests of the Assumptions

The primary statistical method used to analyze the sample data in this study was linear regression. Multiple linear regression is a statistical method used to simultaneously investigate the role of multiple influences on a dependent variable (Hayes, 2018). A number of assumptions have to be met for a regression analysis not to yield spurious results (Hayes, 2018). These assumptions concern the variable type, linearity, independence, homoscedasticity, nonmulticollinearity, and normality. All of these

assumptions need to be met; otherwise, if corrective measures are not taken, the meaningfulness of the interpretation of the regression coefficient may be jeopardized (Darlington & Hayes, 2017).

The assumption of linearity requires that the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable be linear. The assumption of multicollinearity relates to multiple linear regression and how it requires that independent variables are not too correlated with each other. Homoscedasticity is an assumption that the regressive model has the same amount of variance (error) in the relationships between independent variance and the dependent variance across the values of independent variables. The independence of errors means that errors are random and without interaction with previous errors. The assumption of normality of errors assumes that residuals (i.e., the differences between the predicted and observed values) are random and the sum is close to zero.

The two research questions in this study employed regression analysis. Thus, the data had to satisfy the five assumptions of linear regression: linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, independence of errors, and normality of errors. This section shows that these assumptions were sufficiently tested for both research questions.

Exhaustion

To determine whether the assumption of linearity was met, the Pearson correlation coefficient and the scatterplots of the predictor values versus the outcome values were visually inspected. Table 4 shows a significant positive correlation between exhaustion and surface acting ($\rho = .168$) while exhaustion and deep acting have a positive

but insignificant correlations (ρ = .082). Figures 1 and 2 further prove these positive associations, given the upward sloping fit line. Multicollinearity may be present due to how surface acting and deep acting have a significant positive correlation (ρ = .289); however, while significant, the association is weak, given the low value of the coefficient. Moreover, collinearity statistics can also be used to assess whether multicollinearity is present. Table 7 shows that both of the VIFs for surface acting and deep acting are 1.094, which is less than 10, making it within tolerance. Further, the average tolerance is 0.914, which is not below the cutoff of 0.200. Based upon these criteria, multicollinearity is not present. For the normality assumption, upon visual inspection of the P-P plot as shown in Figure 3, it can see that the graph does not deviate from the normality line, confirming the assumption. Lastly, the assumption of independence of errors was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. A rule of thumb is that test statistic values within the range of 1.5 to 2.5 are relatively normal, which was the case for the statistic reported in Table 5. This confirms that the data were not autocorrelated.

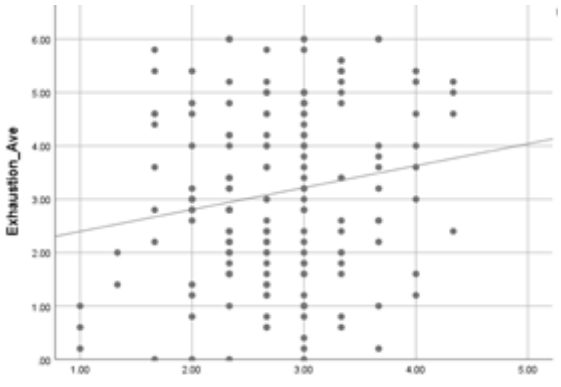

Figure 2. Scatterplot between surface acting and exhaustion.

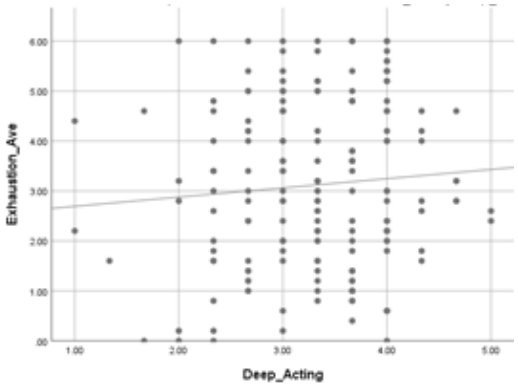

Figure 3. Scatterplot between deep acting and exhaustion.

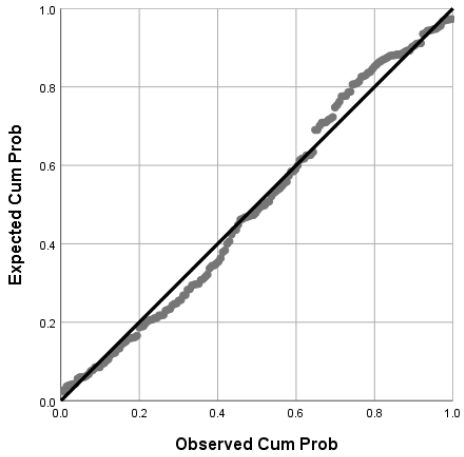

Figure 4. P-P plot of surface acting, deep acting, and exhaustion.

Cynicism

The Pearson correlation coefficient and the scatterplots of the predictor values versus the outcome values were visually inspected for assumption of linearity. Table 4 shows a significant positive correlation between cynicism and surface acting (ρ = .253), while exhaustion and deep acting have a negative but insignificant correlation (ρ = -.037). Figures 4 and 5 further prove this, given the upward and downward slope of the respective fit lines for surface and deep acting. Multicollinearity may be present due to the components of emotional labor having significant positive correlation (ρ = .289); however, while the correlation is significant, the association is weak, given the low value of the coefficient. Moreover, collinearity statistics can also be used to assess whether multicollinearity is present. Table 7 shows that both VIFs for surface acting and deep acting are 1.08, which is less than 10 and thus within tolerance. The average tolerance is 0.926, which is not also below the cutoff of 0.200. Based upon these criteria, multicollinearity is not present For the normality assumption, upon visual inspection of

the P-P plot as shown in Figure 6, we can see that the graph does not deviate from the normality line, confirming the assumption. Finally, the assumption of independence of errors was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. Table 8 shows that the Durbin-Watson test statistic is 1.929, which is within the normal range, thus confirming that the data are not autocorrelated.

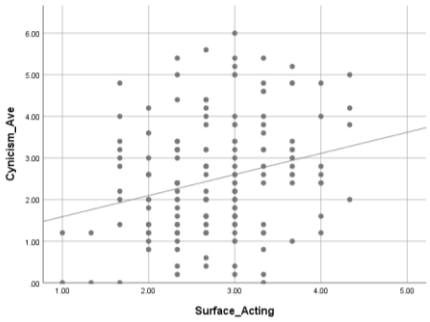

Figure 5. Scatterplot between deep acting and cynicism.

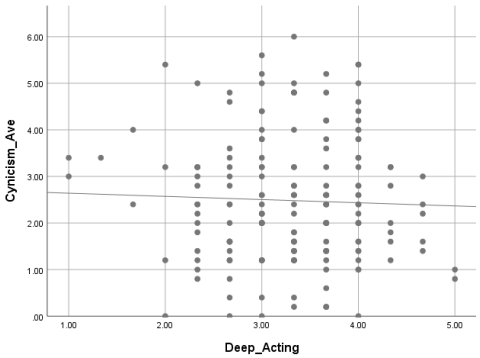

Figure 6. Scatterplot between deep acting and cynicism.

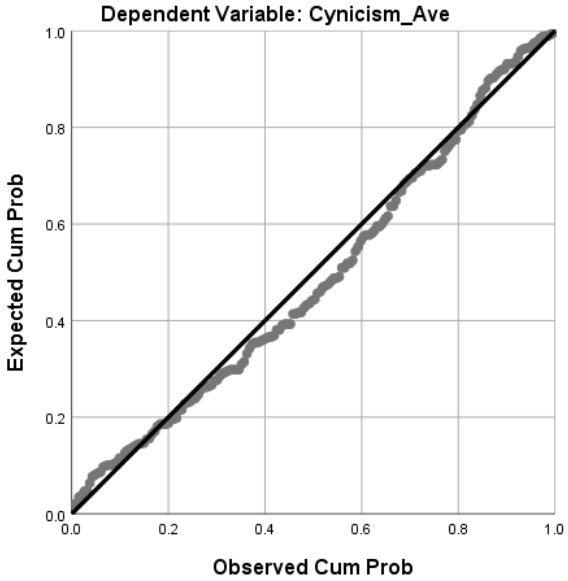

Figure 7. P-P plot of surface acting, deep acting, and cynicism.

Professional Efficacy

The Pearson correlation coefficient and the scatterplots of the predictor values versus the outcome values were visually inspected for the assumption of linearity. Table 4 shows an insignificant positive correlation between professional efficacy and surface acting ($\rho = .062$) as well as for professional efficacy and deep acting ($\rho = .068$). Figures 7 and 8 further prove this through the upward slopes of the fit lines for both graphs.

Multicollinearity may be present because surface acting and deep acting both have significant positive correlation ($\rho = .289$). However, while this may be significant, the association is weak, given the low value of the coefficient. Moreover, the collinearity statistics may also be used to assess multicollinearity. Table 7 shows that both of the variance inflation factors (VIFs) for surface acting and deep acting is 1.095, which is less than 10 and thus within tolerance. The average tolerance is 0.913, which is not below the

cutoff of 0.200 as well. Based upon these criteria, multicollinearity is not present. For the assumption of normality, upon visual inspection of the P-P plot as shown in Figure 9, it can seen that the graph deviates from the normality line, and the assumption was not met. Finally, the assumption of independence of errors was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. Table 11 shows that the Durbin-Watson test statistic is 1.677, which is within the normal range and confirms that the data are not autocorrelated.

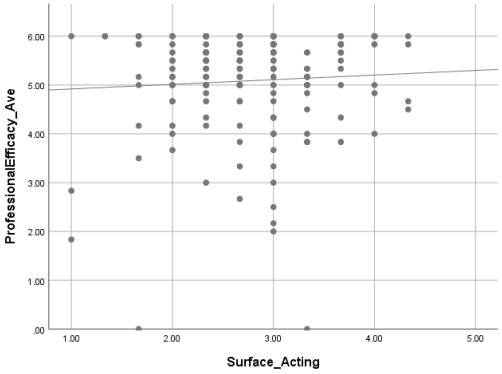

Figure 8. Scatterplot between surface acting and professional efficacy.

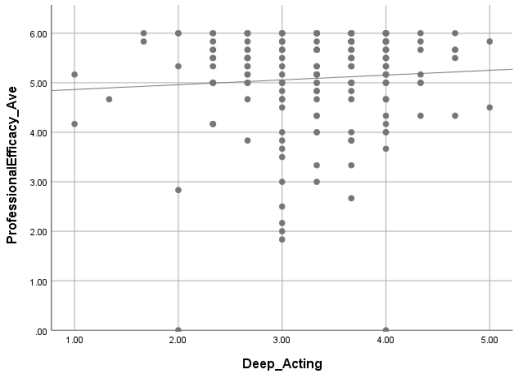

Figure 9. Scatterplot between deep acting and professional efficacy.

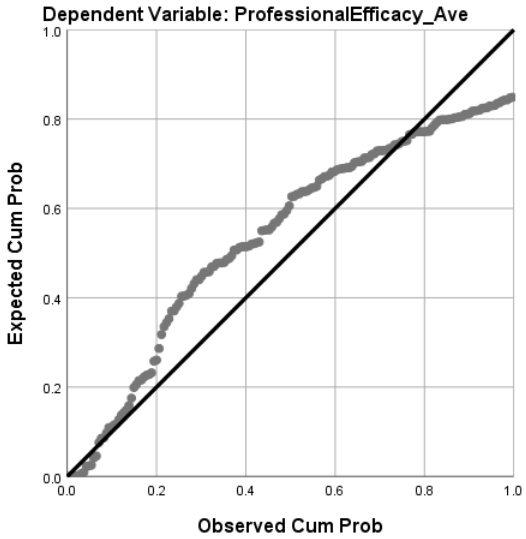

Figure 10. P-P plot of surface acting, deep acting, and professional efficacy.

Statistical Analysis

Research Question 1

The first research questions was: *Does Philippine travel service industry employee surface and/or deep acting as measured by the ELS predict their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?* To answer this research question, three separate multiple linear regression equations were devised for the three subscales of job burnout: exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy.

Exhaustion. Table 5 shows the coefficient of determination, R^2, which quantifies how close the data are to the fitted regression line. This is done through showing the percentage of variation that can be explained by the linear model. A total of 2.9% of the variability of exhaustion can be explained by surface and deep acting.

Table 5

*Model Summary for Exhaustio*n

Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.172	.029	.018	1.63490	1.655

Table 6 shows surface acting and deep acting were not significant predictors of exhaustion $F(2,175) = 2.66$, $p = .073$.

Table 6

ANOVA for Exhaustion

Model		SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	14.218	2	7.109	2.660	.073
	Residual	467.758	175	2.673		
	Total	481.976	177			

Table 7 indicates only surface acting is a significant predictor ($p = .044$) while deep acting is not ($p = .649$). The resulting full model is:

$$Exhaustion = 1.792 + .385\ (surface\ acting) + .080\ (deep\ acting)$$

The model shows that for every single unit increase in surface acting, on average exhaustion increases by .385 units while a unit increase in deep acting increases exhaustion by 0.080 units.

Table 7

Coefficients for Exhaustion Model

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	*t*	*p*	Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.792	.668		2.683	.008		
	Surface acting	.385	.190	.158	2.029	.044	.914	1.094
	Deep acting	.080	.176	.035	.456	.649	.914	1.094

Cynicism. Table 8 shows a total of 7.6% of the variability of cynicism can be explained by surface acting and deep acting.

Table 8

Model Summary for Cynicism

Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.276	.076	.066	1.28510	1.929

Table 9 shows both surface acting and deep acting can significantly predict cynicism, $F(2,175) = 7.242$, $p < .001$.

Table 9

ANOVA for Cynicism

Model		SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	23.921	2	11.961	7.242	.001
	Residual	289.008	175	1.651		
	Total	312.929	177			

From Table 10 indicates only surface acting is a significant predictor ($p < .001$) while deep acting is not ($p = .13$). The resulting full model is:

$$Cynicism = 1.6 + .57\ (surface\ acting) - .21\ (deep\ acting)$$

The model shows on average for each unit increase in surface acting, cynicism increases by .57 units, while one unit increase in deep acting decreases cynicism by 0.21 units.

Table 10

Coefficients for Cynicism

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	*t*	*p*	Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.600	.537		2.983	.003		
	Surface acting	.570	.151	.285	3.771	.000	.926	1.080
	Deep acting	-.210	.138	-.115	-1.520	.130	.926	1.080

Professional efficacy. Table 11 shows only .7% of the variability of professional efficacy can be explained by surface and deep acting.

Table 11

Model Summary for Professional Efficacy

Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.081	.007	-.005	1.03706	1.677

Table 12 shows that surface acting and deep acting cannot significantly predict professional efficacy, $F(2,175) = .579$, $p = .562$.

Table 12

ANOVA for Professional Efficacy

Model		SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	1.245	2	.622	.579	.562
	Residual	188.212	175	1.075		
	Total	189.457	177			

Table 13 shows both surface acting and deep acting are not significant predictors of professional efficacy. The resulting full model is:

$$Professional\ Efficacy = 4.638 + .70\ (surface\ acting) - .78\ (deep\ acting)$$

The model shows that for every unit increase in surface acting professional efficacy increases by .7 units, while one unit increase in deep acting decreases professional efficacy by 0.78 units.

Table 13

Coefficients for Professional Efficacy

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	*t*	*p*	Collinearity statistics	
		B	Std. error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.638	.424		10.934	.000		
	Surface acting	.070	.120	.046	.581	.562	.913	1.095
	Deep acting	.078	.112	.055	.694	.489	.913	1.095

Based on the results the null hypothesis was only partially rejected in that Philippine travel service industry employee surface acting significantly predicts their assessed level of exhaustion and surface acting, whereas deep acting did not predict any job burnout component.

Research Question 2

The second research questions was: *Does Philippine travel service industry employee gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of their surface and/or deep acting as measured by the ELS on their assessed level of job burnout components using the MBI-GS?* To determine if a moderator variable affects the relationship between the predictor and the response, it is necessary to examine changes in the interaction of the relationship with or without the presence of the moderator variable. If the interaction is significant, the resulting model would better serve than the first model in predicting the response variable.

Exhaustion and age. Table 14 shows both models without (F =2.66, p =.073) and with (F =2.399, p =.07) the interaction variable are insignificant with p >.05.

Table 14

ANOVA for Exhaustion with Age as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	14.218	2	7.109	2.660	.073
	Residual	467.758	175	2.673		
	Total	481.976	177			
2	Regression	19.146	3	6.382	2.399	.070
	Residual	462.830	174	2.660		
	Total	481.976	177			

Table 15 shows no significant difference in variance between the models (R^2 change =.10, p =.175), indicating age does not moderate emotional labor and exhaustion.

Table 15

Model Summary for Exhaustion With Age as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	Sig. *F* change
1	.172	.029	.018	1.63490	.029	2.660	2	175	.073
2	.199	.040	.023	1.63093	.010	1.853	1	174	.175

Exhaustion and gender. Table 16 shows the models without (F =2.66, p =.073) and with (F =2.297, p =.079) the interaction variable are insignificant (p >.05).

Table 16

ANOVA for Exhaustion With Gender as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	14.218	2	7.109	2.660	.073
	Residual	467.758	175	2.673		
	Total	481.976	177			
2	Regression	18.358	3	6.119	2.297	.079
	Residual	463.618	174	2.664		
	Total	481.976	177			

Table 17 shows no significant differences in variance between the models (R^2 change =.009, p =.214), indicating gender does not moderate emotional labor and exhaustion.

Table 17

Model Summary for Exhaustion With Gender as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.172	.029	.018	1.63490	.029	2.660	2	175	.073
2	.195	.038	.022	1.63232	.009	1.554	1	174	.214

Exhaustion and educational attainment. Table 18 shows the model without (F =2.66, p =.073) and with (F =1.565, p =.139) the interaction variable was insignificant (p > .05).

Table 18

ANOVA for Exhaustion With Educational Attainment as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	14.218	2	7.109	2.660	.073
	Residual	467.758	175	2.673		
	Total	481.976	177			
2	Regression	33.238	8	4.155	1.565	.139
	Residual	448.738	169	2.655		
	Total	481.976	177			

Table 19 shows no significant difference in variance between the models (R^2 change =.039, p =.312), indicating educational attainment does not moderate emotional labor and exhaustion.

Table 19

Model Summary for Exhaustion With Educational Attainment as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.172	.029	.018	1.63490	.029	2.660	2	175	.073
2	.263	.069	.025	1.62949	.039	1.194	6	169	.312

Cynicism and age. Table 20 shows both models without (F =7.242, p =.001) and with (F =7.438, p <.001) the interaction variable are significant (p < .05).

Table 20

ANOVA for Cynicism With Age as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	23.921	2	11.961	7.242	.001
	Residual	289.008	175	1.651		
	Total	312.929	177			
2	Regression	35.569	3	11.856	7.438	.000
	Residual	277.361	174	1.594		
	Total	312.929	177			

Table 21 shows the amount of variance accounted for in Model 2 is significantly greater than Model 1 due to the interaction (R^2 change =.037, p =.008), indicating age is a moderator for the emotional labor subscales and cynicism.

Table 21

Model Summary for Cynicism With Age as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	Sig. *F* change
1	.276	.076	.066	1.28510	.076	7.242	2	175	.001
2	.337	.114	.098	1.26255	.037	7.307	1	174	.008

Cynicism and gender. Table 22 shows that both models without (F =7.242, p =.001) and with (F =4.927, p <.001) the interaction variable are significant (p <.05).

Table 22

ANOVA for Cynicism With Gender as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	23.921	2	11.961	7.242	.001
	Residual	289.008	175	1.651		
	Total	312.929	177			
2	Regression	24.500	3	8.167	4.927	.003
	Residual	288.429	174	1.658		
	Total	312.929	177			

Table 23 shows both models are significant (p <.05), however the amount of variance accounted for each one is not signficantly different despite the presence of an interaction (R^2 change =.002, p=.555), indicating gender is not a moderator for the emotional labor subscales and cynicism.

Table 23

Model Summary for Cynicism With Gender as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.276	.076	.066	1.28510	.076	7.242	2	175	.001
2	.280	.078	.062	1.28749	.002	.349	1	174	.555

Cynicism and education. Table 24 shows both models without (F =7.242, p =.001) and with (F =1.974, p =.050) the interaction variable are significant (p <.05).

Table 24

ANOVA for Cynicism With Education as Moderator Variable

	Model	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	23.921	2	11.961	7.242	.001
	Residual	289.008	175	1.651		
	Total	312.929	177			
2	Regression	26.738	8	3.342	1.974	.050
	Residual	286.191	169	1.693		
	Total	312.929	177			

Table 25 shows there is no significant difference in the amount of variance accounted for in both models (R^2 change =.009, p =.947), indicating educational attainment is not a potential moderator for the emotional labor subscales and cynicism.

Table 25

Model Summary for Cynicism With Education as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.276	.076	.066	1.28510	.076	7.242	2	175	.001
2	.292	.085	.042	1.30132	.009	.277	6	169	.947

Professional efficacy and age. Table 26 shows both models without (F =.579, p =.562) and with (F =.590, p =.623) the interaction variable are insignificant (p >.05).

Table 26

ANOVA for Professional Efficacy With Age as Moderator Variable

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	1.245	2	.622	.579	.562
	Residual	188.212	175	1.075		
	Total	189.457	177			
2	Regression	1.906	3	.635	.590	.623
	Residual	187.551	174	1.078		
	Total	189.457	177			

Table 27 shows the amount of variance accounted for in both models do not have a significant difference (R^2 change =.003, p =.434). This indicates age is not a potential moderator between the emotional labor subscales and professional efficacy.

Table 27

Model Summary for Professional Efficacy With Age as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.081	.007	-.005	1.03706	.007	.579	2	175	.562
2	.100	.010	-.007	1.03821	.003	.614	1	174	.434

Professional efficacy and gender. Table 28 shows that both models without (F =.579, p =.562) and with (F =.704, p =.551) the interaction variable are insignificant (p >.05).

Table 28

ANOVA for Professional Efficacy With Gender as Moderator Variable

Model		Sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	1.245	2	.622	.579	.562
	Residual	188.212	175	1.075		
	Total	189.457	177			
2	Regression	2.271	3	.757	.704	.551
	Residual	187.186	174	1.076		
	Total	189.457	177			

Table 29 shows the amount of variance accounted for in Model 2 is not significantly more than Model 1 (R^2 change =.003, p =.434), indicating gender is not a potential moderator between the emotional labor subscales and professional efficacy.

Table 29

Model Summary for Professional Efficacy With Gender as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.081	.007	-.005	1.03706	.007	.579	2	175	.562
2	.109	.012	-.005	1.03720	.005	.954	1	174	.330

Professional efficacy and educational level. Table 30 shows that both models without (F =.579, p =.562) and with (F =1.485, p =.166) the interaction variable are insignificant ($p > .05$).

Table 30

ANOVA for Professional Efficacy With Education as Moderator Variable

Model		SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	1.245	2	.622	.579	.562
	Residual	188.212	175	1.075		
	Total	189.457	177			
2	Regression	12.446	8	1.556	1.485	.166
	Residual	177.011	169	1.047		
	Total	189.457	177			

Table 31 shows the amount of variance accounted for in Model 2 is not significantly more than Model 1 despite the presence of the interaction (R^2 change = .003, p=.434), indicating gender is not a moderator between the emotional labor subscales and professional efficacy.

Table 31

Model Summary for Professional Efficacy With Education as Moderator Variable

					Change statistics				
Model	*R*	R^2	Adj R^2	SE of the estimate	R^2 change	*F* change	df1	df2	*p* of *F* change
1	.081	.007	-.005	1.03706	.007	.579	2	175	.562
2	.256	.066	.021	1.02343	.059	1.782	6	169	.105

Based on the results, the null hypothesis was only partially rejected since only age turned out to be a moderator variable between cynicism and surface acting. For exhaustion and professional efficacy, all moderators are insignificant. This is intuitive since their regression model in connection with research question 1 are also insignificant.

Summary and Transition

The descriptive analysis showed that the respondents felt more deep acting ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .73$) than surface acting ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .68$) on their job. For the job burnout subscales, professional efficacy ($M = 5.09$, $SD = 1.03$) has the highest average score, followed by exhaustion ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.65$), and then cynicism ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 1.33$).

According to the quantitative analysis, the answers to the research questions are as follows:

For RQ1, only cynicism turned out to be predicted by emotional labor as measured by surface acting and deep acting. Furthermore only 7.6% of the variability of cynicism can be explained by the predictors and only surface acting is a significant predictor among the two subscales of emotional labor. For every 1 unit increase in the average surface acting score, cynicism score increases by 0.57 units.

For RQ2, since only cynicism had a significant result for the regression models, it was expected that this variable would be the only one possibly moderated by gender, age, or educational attainment. The results confirmed this when it turned out that age is a moderator variable between cynicism and surface acting.

There were 12 regression analysis done in order to answer research questions 1 and 2. Given this, there is around 45% chance of observing at least one significant result, even if all of the tests are actually not significant. Thus, a Bonferroni correction for multiple testing is applicable. This correction for alpha is done to take into account the number of times that a hypothesis test will be done simultaneously on a single data set

(Napierala, 2012). Doing a Bonferroni correction, the new alpha will become .0042. Using this alpha, the conclusion for the tests still remains the same.

Chapter 5 provides the summary of the results of the study and how they can be interpreted. It also discussed its limitations that may affect the results and the generalizability of the outcome to a wider population. The researcher's recommendations for further improving research were also enumerated. Finally, the theoretical and practical implications of the results to social change were explored.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between the facets of emotional labor and job burnout among travel service employees in the Philippines. More specifically, the study identified whether surface acting and deep acting affected the exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy components of job burnout as indicated in the Maslach Burnout Inventory. In addition, the possibility of age, gender, and education level acting as moderating factors to these relationships was analyzed. This study was conducted to enable business owners and managers to become more aware of the consequences of emotional labor, thus enabling them to provide more support to their workers in regard to the study's subject matter. As for employees, this study could also assist them in understanding the impacts of emotional labor on their performance.

To accomplish this task, a non-experimental quantitative design was used. The target population of this study was frontline employees of hotels and airlines operating in Manila and Clark City, Philippines. Convenience sampling was used in selecting the participants for this study. This type of non-probability sampling is appropriate to use when a study has a large population and randomization is difficult to facilitate, if not impossible (Etikan et al., 2016). Then, to collect the data needed for this study, a questionnaire in survey form was used, administered through the online service Survey Monkey. The data were then analyzed using a regression model, with and without moderation, to answer the primary and secondary research questions.

Demographics and Descriptive Analysis

There were 180 participants in the study, 123 (68.3%) female and 57 (31.7%) male. Participants' ages ranged from 20 to 59 years old, with mean of 30 years old (*SD* = 7.255). Among participants, 158 had graduated from college (88.3%), four (2.2%) had attended some graduate school, six (3.4%) had completed graduate school, and the remaining 11 (5.3%) had not graduated from college. The participants experienced more deep acting ($M = 3.29$, *SD* = .73) than surface acting ($M = 2.75$, *SD* = .68) on the job. For the job burnout subscales, professional efficacy ($M = 5.09$, *SD* = 1.03) had the highest average score, followed by exhaustion ($M = 3.12$, *SD* = 1.65) and then cynicism ($M = 2.48$, *SD* = 1.33).

Research Question 1

The first research question was the following: Does Philippine travel service industry employees' surface and/or deep acting predict their assessed level of job burnout components? To answer the first research question, three multiple regression models were tested, each with one of the facets of emotional labor as the criterion variable and surface acting and deep acting as the predictor variables. Out of the three facets of job burnout, only cynicism turned out to be predicted by emotional labor as measured by surface acting and deep acting. Moreover, of the two predictor variables, only surface acting was a significant predictor. This relationship between surface acting and cynicism was weak, if significant, and the independent variables in the model could only explain 7.6% of the variance in cynicism. The null hypothesis for cynicism was rejected, and the

alternative hypothesis was accepted. As for exhaustion and professional efficacy, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Research Question 2

The second research question was the following: Does Philippine travel service industry employees' gender, age, and/or education level moderate the effect of surface and/or deep acting on their assessed level of job burnout components? To answer the second research question, the PROCESS method developed by Hayes (2013) was used instead of regular linear regression. This is done through testing a moderating variable which automatically does the centering and provides interaction terms. In order to confirm that a third variable is having a moderation effect on the relationship between two variables, X and Y, the nature of the relationship should change as the values of the moderating variable M change. Overall, the results showed that only age qualified as a moderator of cynicism and the emotional labor scales.

Interpretation of Findings

Analyzing the association of emotional labor and job burnout among service industry workers is not a wholly new territory in research. Given that Hochschild (1983) pioneered the study of emotional labor among service industry workers and job burnout was originally regarded from the perspective of service workers who experienced it while working as volunteers for a clinic for drug addicts and homeless people (Schaufeli, 2017), plenty of research has already explored this area. However, there exists a research gap in the context of developing countries such as the Philippines, and my aim in this study was to address that gap. The results are surprising, in that they mostly deviate from

the results of published studies that support the relationship of all the variables present. In this study, only the model for cynicism in both the linear regressions with and without moderation turned out to be significant.

As for the general relationship between emotional labor and job burnout, what the literature suggests is that prolonged engagement with emotional labor results in burnout (Grandey, 2003). This is due to individuals simultaneously experiencing both tension and emotional regulation in fulfilling their duties (Guler, 2016). Guler (216) was able to segregate the results based on the facets of job burnout: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Emotional exhaustion measures the feeling of overwork, cynicism measures a person's distant attitude toward work, and professional efficacy measures employees' satisfaction with accomplishments at work.

In average scores for the job burnout scale, exhaustion received 3.12, cynicism received 2.48, and professional efficacy had the highest average, which was 5.09. The average score for cynicism indicated that the respondents only felt detached from their work once a month or even less. The average exhaustion score indicated that on average, the respondents felt emotionally exhausted several times a month, but not as often as every week. Lastly, the average score for professional efficacy indicated that respondents felt satisfied with their accomplishments at work a few times a week, but not every day. For the emotional labor scales, surface acting had an average score of 2.75, while deep acting had an average score of 3.29. This meant that on average, employees only experienced surface acting sometimes, in contrast with deep acting, which was always present.

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual* summarized the data from the Schaufeli and Leiter databases, of which were taken from the multiple samples of MBI-GS respondents (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). Comparing the average scores for exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy under the Schaufeli and Leiter databases revealed that the average scores from this study were higher for all three subscales.

Among these three subscales, only cynicism turned out to be significantly affected in particular by surface acting. This suggests that once employees participate in surface acting, they exhibit body language that is different from their true emotions. This inauthenticity leads to detachment, which leads to further tension, emotional discomfort, and job stress. If left unchecked, this can culminate in full-blown burnout (Lee & Ok, 2013). Detachment can also occur between coworkers, resulting in cynicism, which is another dimension of burnout on its own (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Surface acting is a hard and wearisome process, especially for workers who have to convert themselves in terms of emotion. In addition, this result can be interpreted as workers failing to perceive surface acting as a concern for professionalism (Isci & Ari, 2018). In deep acting, however, because the emotions being shown are more genuine, there is a subtler effect on job stress (Lee & Ok, 2013). According to Maslach (1982), investing more in genuine emotions can make an employee far less susceptible to burnout.

For the moderating variables, age was found to have an impact as found in past research, particularly on the management of customer stress (Johnson, Holdsworth, Hoel, & Zapf, 2013). Research showed that, on average, an older employee would be more

capable than younger peers of coping with workplace stress, especially regarding customer interactions. This would be made possible by the older employee's advantage in life experiences (Blanchard-Fields, Stein, & Watson, 2004). According to the literature, stress is more related to the exhaustion facet of job burnout. However, the study's results show otherwise, indicating that there is more significance on cynicism.

Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of this research is that it used a nonprobability sampling method. Convenience sampling was used in order to access a large population, given that randomization would have been difficult to facilitate, costly, and time consuming, if not impossible (Etikan et al., 2016). The sampling approach, though necessary, limited the generalizability of the results. The companies and individual participants in the study willingly participated, making them part of the inclusion criteria Given these limitations, the results only reflect airline and hotel employees in Manila and Clark and not the entirety of the country.

Another limitation of the study was its design. As a nonexperimental, cross-sectional study, it could not answer possible questions regarding causality. Neither correlation nor prediction imply causation; thus, this study cannot be considered as proof of causality between the variables.

Recommendations

In future research, widening the target population would increase the generalizability of results. However, this might affect the response rate, thereby risking the possibility of not reaching the target number of responses. That outcome might be

prevented by partnering with government agencies such as the Department of Tourism and the Department of Labor and Employment. The endorsement of such agencies would serve to acknowledge the importance of this study to the tourism industry.

In terms of study variables, researchers could explore other potential moderating factors in relation to employee task performance. Such factors might include person–environment fit, which involves interaction between characteristics of individuals and their environment. The theory suggests that not only do individuals influence their environment, but the environment also affects individuals' performance (Holmbeck, Jandaseck, Sparks, Zukerman, & Zurenda, 2008). Another potential variable is person–job fit, which emphasizes the match between an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities and job requirements (Huang, Yuan, & Li, 2019).

Implications

There are both practical and theoretical implications for this study. In terms of theoretical implications, this study presents empirical evidence concerning whether there is a relationship between the facets of emotional labor—surface acting and deep acting—and the facets of job burnout—exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Moreover, the study involved analysis of whether there is a moderating effect on the relationships from age, gender, and/or educational attainment. In terms of practical implications, the study has generated knowledge that may be used by practitioners to guide their decisions in regard to managing emotional labor and job burnout among employees in the travel service industry.

Theoretical Implications

This study brings to light some empirical evidence on the presence of emotional labor and job burnout among frontline employees of airlines and hotels. It also presents proof of the relationship between surface acting and cynicism in employees. Based on the linear model for cynicism, only surface acting is significantly associated with the job burnout subscale; deep acting does not have a significant association with the subscale. This suggests that deep acting, as a concept related to emotional labor, does not have a significantly negative effect on employees and their connection with their job. This study's finding of the insignificance of exhaustion and professional efficacy as analyzed somewhat deviates from past research. That may be further investigated by pursuing the recommendations outlined previously, especially in regard to reaching a wider target population and achieving a larger sample size.

Practical Implications for Social Change

With this study, positive social change can be accomplished in both big and small ways. It was found that one very important skill for service industry workers is their ability to show empathy and compassion. These little acts of kindness may not only benefit the organization in terms of achieving financial goals, but also lessen the emotional labor of the employees. After conducting this study, I realized that the organizations involved in tourism must take into account human interactions and relationships. The cynicism of individual employees can affect the profit goals of organizations in the tourism industry if not addressed, in that customers definitely prefer less cynical employees.

Conclusion

The study contributes to the understanding of the relationship between two concepts that are associated with essential outcomes in the service industry—emotional labor and job burnout. This study affirms that surface acting and deep acting are present among frontline employees in the travel industry of the Philippines. Additionally, the association of these variables to the subscales of job burnout were analyzed. This study did not affirm all hypothesized associations. Only the association of surface acting with cynicism was empirically proven. Given this, the detachment of employees toward their work should be prioritized, as it can result in overall poor job performance and customer dissatisfaction.

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Appendix A: Demographic Questions

Demographics

Instructions: Please put a check mark on the appropriate response or write your answer on the blank provided.

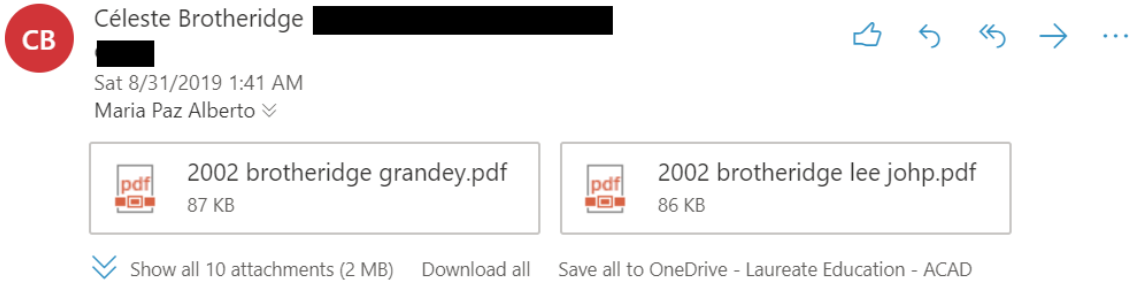
Sex ☐ Male ☐ Female

Age ____

Highest Educational Level

- ☐ High School Graduate
- ☐ College Graduate
- ☐ Master's Degree
- ☐ PhD Degree
- ☐ Vocational/Technical

Appendix B: Permission to Use the Emotional Labor Scale



CB

Céleste Brotheridge [redacted]

[redacted]

Sat 8/31/2019 1:41 AM

Maria Paz Alberto

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87 KB

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86 KB

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Hello Maria,

Thank you for your interest in our research! Attached is a copy of the (revised) Emotional Labour Scale, and attached are some articles on emotional labor. You have my permission to use the ELS in your research. There isn't an official manual, in case you're wondering. The scoring is very easy; it's just a matter of calculating the averages for each of the subscales (for example, add up the three items for deep acting and divide by three). Regarding interpretation, if you look at previous articles that have used the scale (for example, Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), you'll see what the average score has been for various occupational groups. I hope this helps!

All the best,
Celeste

Appendix C: Permission to Use the Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey

Maslach Burnout Inventory™

Instruments and Scoring Keys

Includes MBI Forms:

Human Services - MBI-HSS
Medical Personnel - MBI-HSS (MP)
Educators - MBI-ES
General - MBI-GS
Students - MBI-GS (S)

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