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MASTER’S THESIS

**HOW DO LEADERS PROTECT EMPLOYEES FROM
DETRIMENTAL EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL
DEMANDS? THE ROLE OF LEADER’S EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE AND POSITIVE HUMOR**

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APPROVAL PAGE



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis titled as "How Do Leaders Protect Employees from Detrimental Effects of Emotional Demands? The Role of Leader's Emotional Intelligence and Positive Humor" has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

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ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

How Do Leaders Protect Employees from Detrimental Effects of Emotional Demands? The Role of Leader's Emotional Intelligence and Positive Humor

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Job burnout, which has been conceptualized as a psychological response to the stressors of work and an imbalance between job demands and resources, is seen as a major problem by organizations because of its impact on the bottom line. Burnout has become one of the most important problems hindering business success because it is associated with high human costs. The effect of job demands on burnout and the effects of burnout on employee depression, as well as the factors that might moderate this relationship, are of interest to researchers. In the present work, it was hypothesized that emotional job demands would be a predictor of job burnout, which in turn predicts depression in employees. In addition, it was hypothesized that leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor, particularly affiliative and self-enhancing humor, would have a buffering effect on the relationship between emotional demands and burnout, such that they would attenuate the positive effect of emotional demands on burnout. Finally, it was hypothesized that the above interaction effects on burnout would carry over to depression.

To test this cross-level moderated- mediation model, data were collected via online surveys from 229 employees and 29 supervisors to whom these employees reported. Due to the multilevel nature of the data, hypotheses were tested using two-level hierarchical linear modeling in Mplus. Results suggest that emotional demands predict job burnout and consequently depression. As

predicted, this mediated effect appears to be moderated by supervisor emotional intelligence, such that as supervisor emotional intelligence increases, the association between employee emotional demands and job burnout weakens, leading to less depression. On the contrary, the buffering role of leader's positive humor for the above mediated effect was not significant. Thus, the present thesis suggests that the supervisor's emotional intelligence is an important resource that serves to protect employees' psychological well-being in the face of high emotional demands. The study concludes by discussing these findings and offering potential directions for future research.

Keywords: Emotional Demand, Burnout, Depression, Emotional Intelligence, Positive Humor.

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Liderler Çalışanlarını Duygusal Talebin

Zararlı Etkilerinden Nasıl Korur?

Liderin Duygusal Zekası ve Mizahının Rolü

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İşin stres faktörlerine psikolojik bir tepki ve iş talepleri ile iş kaynakları arasındaki dengesizlik olarak kavramsallaştırılan iş tükenmişliği, organizasyonun en alt tabakasından başlayan etkisi sebebiyle organizasyonlar tarafından büyük bir sorun olarak kabul edilmektedir. Tükenmişlik, yüksek insan maliyetleriyle ilişkilendirildiği için iş başarısını engelleyen en önemli sorunlardan biri haline gelmiştir. Bu sebeple, iş taleplerinin tükenmişlik üzerindeki etkisi ve tükenmişliğin çalışan depresyonu üzerindeki etkileri ve bu ilişkiyi azaltabilecek faktörler araştırmacıların ilgisini çekmektedir. Bu tez çalışmasında, duygusal iş taleplerinin, iş tükenmişliğinin bir öncülü olduğu ve iş tükenmişliğinin de depresyonu yordayacağına yönelik hipotezler sınanmaktadır. Buna ek olarak, liderin duygusal zekası ve pozitif mizahının, özellikle de katılımcı ve kendini geliştirici mizahın, duygusal talepler ve tükenmişlik arasındaki istenmeyen ilişkiyi zayıflatacağına yönelik çapraz-seviyeli hipotezler test edilmektedir. Son olarak, tükenmişlik üzerindeki yukarıdaki bahsedilen çapraz seviyeli etkileşimli etkilerin (duygusal talep x liderin duygusal zekası, duygusal talep x liderin katılımcı mizahı, ve duygusal talep x liderin kendini geliştirici mizahı) çalışanların depresyonu için sonuçları olacağına dair çapraz seviyeli düzenlenen aracılık etkilerini gösteren hipotezler sınanmaktadır.

Bu çapraz seviyeli biçimlendirilen aracılık modelini test etmek için, 229 çalışandan ve bu çalışanların liderleri olan 29 ilk yöneticiden çevrimiçi anketler

yoluyla veriler toplanmıştır. Verilerin çok seviyeli yapısı nedeniyle, hipotezler Mplus'ta iki-seviyeli hiyerarşik doğrusal modelleme kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Bulgular, duygusal taleplerin iş tükenmişliğini ve dolaylı olarak iş tükenmişliği aracılığıyla depresyonu yordadığını göstermektedir. Ayrıca, beklendiği gibi bu aracılı etki, liderin duygusal zekası tarafından düzenlenmektedir. Buna göre, liderin duygusal zekası arttıkça, çalışanların duygusal taleplerinin, iş tükenmişliği ile ilişkisi zayıflamakta ve bu da depresyon seviyesinin azalmasına yol açmaktadır. Öte yandan, liderin olumlu mizahının yukarıdaki aracılık etkisini zayıflatığına dair hipotezler desteklenmemiştir. Sonuç olarak, bu tez, liderin duygusal zekasının, yüksek duygusal talepler karşısında, çalışanların psikolojik-iyi-oluşlarını korumaya hizmet eden önemli bir kaynak olduğunu ileri sürmektedir. Çalışmada bu bulgular tartışılmakta ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için potansiyel öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Duygusal Talep, Tükenmişlik, Depresyon, Duygusal Zeka, Pozitif Mizah.

**HOW DO LEADERS PROTECT EMPLOYEES FROM DETRIMENTAL
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BAT	Burnout Assessment Tool
HSQ	Humor Styles Questionnaire
JD-R	Job Demand-Resources Theory
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
REIS	Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale



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INTRODUCTION

Have you ever come across a person who suffers from exhaustion because of their job? Have you ever noticed that your colleague has become the saddest person in the company because their basic needs are not being met? Maybe that person is not your colleague, but you. Have you ever felt like you cannot take another day of work because your job is so stressful? Existing research defines the relationship between people and difficulties at work that can arise when this relationship goes wrong as a notable phenomenon of the modern age. This unhealthy relationship shows up under the name of job burnout as a syndrome in response to the chronic stressors that appeared in the workplace, mainly among people working in human services (Maslach et al., 2001: 398). Therefore, this study aims to contribute to a greater understanding of antecedents and consequences of burnout.

Up to now, several studies have attempted to examine the relationship between demanding aspect of work and burnout. Consistent with findings in the research literature that focus on the work environment with the employee in it, burnout has three main components: exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment that employees must deal with. Exhaustion manifests as a depletion of one's emotional and energetic resources without replenishing them, while cynicism manifests as an overly detached response to work which results in low performance. Reduced personal performance is manifested in negative self-assessment of performance and productivity at work (Maslach and Leiter, 2016: 352). For this reason, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model has been proposed to understand the antecedents of burnout, which is why this study was designed in the context of JD-R model. The model assumes that burnout occurs in a situation where job demands (especially work overload, emotional demands, physical demands, and work-life balance) are high and job resources (social support, autonomy, quality of relationship with supervisor, and performance feedback) are limited because negative work conditions lead to energy depletion and weaken employee motivation. Another significance of this model is that the model assumes that the well-being of the employee results from a balance between the resources and the demands of the job characteristic (Demerouti et al., 2001: 499; Schaufeli and Taris, 2014: 44; Bakker et al., 2005: 171). Thus, the demands of the job

can lead to adverse health effects such as chronic exhaustion (burnout) if workers' basic needs are not met (Bakker and Demerouti, 2018: 3). The question posed to the researchers was the consequences of burnout. Consistent with this logic, burnout has been found to lead to absenteeism, low work engagement, low self-esteem, low organizational commitment, withdrawal from work, declining productivity, declining motivation, declining performance, low job satisfaction, and low empathy (Gil-Monte, 2008: 466; Kalliath et al., 1998: 180; Gemlik, 2010: 138; Garden, 1991: 971; and Dolan, 1987: 5). Additionally, there is an outcome called depression, and its relationship with burnout has been investigated in numerous studies. Hobfoll et al. (2000: 57) found that prolonged work stress predicted burnout and prolonged burnout predicted depression. This hypothesis is also consistent with Bianci et al. (2021: 580), who examined that depression shows up at the high end of burnout. Toker and Biron (2012: 701) hypothesized and found that an increase in job burnout over time predicts an increase in depression. Consistent with these hypotheses, Maslach and Leiter (1997: 28) noted that burnout implies both the presence of negative and the absence of positive emotions, which is related to the core symptoms of depression.

Let me ask you a few more questions: Have you ever had to suppress or been unable to control your emotions while working? Have you ever found yourself wanting to say, 'Hello, can anyone see my emotions? I have feelings, I am not a robot that perform perfectly!'. Sound familiar? As you can understand, the importance of emotions in people's lives is undeniable. If there are people somewhere, it means there are emotions. All the emotions that people can feel play a prominent role in addressing the problem associated with mental health in any area of human life, such as work (Maslach et al., 2001: 398). Thus, an extensive literature on burnout has developed because the term burnout is a persistent response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors in the workplace. This interpersonal context draws attention to individuals' emotions and the motives and values that underlie their work with others (Maslach and Leiter, 2016: 351). In addition, burnout is thought to be more likely when there is a large gap between the nature of the work and the nature of the person, which implies a high human cost. Similarly, the emotional demand process involves the effort, planning, and control required to display organizationally desired emotions for the duration of an interpersonal transaction, which manifests as a discrepancy between

felt and displayed emotions (Maslach et al., 1997: 9; and Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990). For these reasons, this thesis determined that it is worthwhile to analyze emotional demand as a significant antecedent to burnout. Due to the fact that burnout is caused by emotional demands and influences depression, burnout is proposed as a mediator in the conceptual model of this thesis, with emotional demands as the independent variable and depression as the dependent variable.

The explanation for choosing this topic is that the factories of the 19th century saw workers as cogs in the machines that could be easily replaced, but thanks to economic development, technology and management philosophies, burnout has become a situation worth analyzing. Moreover, burnout is considered a major problem by companies because of its impact on the bottom line (Maslach et al., 1997: 65). Thus, this study is about working people. The primary motivation for the present study is to understand how emotional demands at work predict diminished psychological well-being in workers, operationalized by job burnout and depression. The second motivation is to understand the factors that reduce (or buffer) the detrimental impact of emotional demands at work on burnout and depression. Finding buffering effects will provide insight and help in solving the burnout problem. As management has changed over the years, emotions have received more and more attention and have been recognized as an important factor in organizational success. Therefore, researchers have analyzed job resources as a buffering effect of job demands on the path to burnout. Kahn and Byosiene (1992: 622) identified that buffering variables can help reduce the consequences of stressors on health. Bakker et al. (2005: 171) hypothesized and found that resources such as social support, a good relationship with supervisor, autonomy, and performance feedback can buffer the positive relationship between job demands and burnout. These hypotheses are also consistent with Maslach et al. (2001: 407) who argued that lack of social support, lack of feedback, and lack of autonomy moderate the relationship between job stressors and burnout. Demerouti et al. (2001: 501) noted that limited job resources can lead to energy depletion, undermining of employee motivation, and disengagement. After a brief literature review, it is found that the literature supports a direct and indirect relationship between the variables of emotional demands, burnout, and depression. On the other hand, two important leadership traits, namely the leader's emotional intelligence and positive

humor (affiliative and self-enhancing), may act as important buffers to mitigate the harmful effects of emotional demands on burnout and consequently depression. This paper examines the moderating role of leader-measured emotional intelligence and positive humor on the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout. It also examines how these moderating effects affect employee depression. Previous research has not addressed how these potential moderators affect the impact of emotional work demands on employee psychological well-being. The contribution of the present thesis is twofold. First, it attempts to replicate previous research linking emotional demands to burnout and depression using a diverse sample of service workers from Turkey. Second, previous research has paid little attention to the characteristics of leaders that can help employees cope with emotional demands and thus mitigate their negative effects on psychological well-being. Thus, examining leader emotional intelligence and positive humor as potential moderators contributes to our understanding of the importance of leadership traits in the context of the JD-R model, in addition to organizational- and employee-level resources.

There is little prior evidence as to the buffering effect of the leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor in reducing the harmful effects of job demand. However, these positive traits of leaders could help employees deal with job demands (e.g., emotional demands, workload) more easily and perceive them more positively. Thus, the significance of this thesis lies in the fact that such characteristics of managers have not yet been studied in this context. Thus, the negative effect of job demands on employee well-being could be reduced by leaders' emotional intelligence and positive humor. The leader's impact on emotional demands may be more noticeable among other types of job demands because emotionally intelligent leaders know how employees fit into the right position in the organization and have the ability to use emotions to motivate, plan, and achieve by perceiving, understanding, regulating, and expressing emotions and needs in themselves and others. Emotionally intelligent leaders are the supportive leaders who help affirm employees' competence and self-worth through supportive communication and feedback so that employees put more energy and effort into their work and feel engaged, satisfied, or enthusiastic (Mayer et al., 2000: 396; and Salovey and Mayer, 1990: 185).

Following the same logic, the leader's humorous communication can help cultivate positive emotions in employees, and these positive emotions can help overcome detrimental effects of emotional demands by strengthening employees' psychological resources. A leader who uses positive humor can create a pleasant work environment. Thus, work can still be emotionally demanding, but employees feel less pressured and exhausted (Cooper et al., 2018: 769; Pundt, 2015: 878; Tugade et al., 2004: 1161; and Jian and Song, 2019: 348). Therefore, emotional demands of workers may be appraised more positively in these leaders. Demerouti et al. (2001: 501) found that job resources maintain people's health even under high workloads. In order for factors to be designated as resources, they must (a) be functional for achieving work goals, (b) reduce work demands' physical and physiological costs, and (c) promote personal growth and development.

Leadership characteristics, particularly leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor, can fulfill these roles and thus, can be considered important job resources the leader contributes to work environment. Thus, a leader with high emotional intelligence and / or positive humor can ensure that employees find emotional demands constructive and challenging. In this way, the leader can ensure that employees do not respond to these job demands with increased burnout. In summary, this thesis is worth exploring as it asserts that leaders' emotional intelligence and positive humor traits are important job resources provided by the leader.

The present thesis consists of five chapters. In chapter one, a review of the literature is presented; in chapter two, the hypothesis development is outlined and the hypotheses of the study are clearly stated; in chapter three, the sampling procedure, data set, and methods of analysis are presented; in chapter four, the hypotheses are tested and the results of the analyzes are presented; and in chapter five, the results are discussed, the implications of the findings are detailed, the limitations are identified, and suggestions for future research are made.

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. BURNOUT SYNDROME

This section presents a literature review with a general focus on burnout research using job demand-resources (JDR) theory and the concept of emotional demands, depression, and emotional intelligence.

1.1.1. Emergence of Burnout

Angerer (2003: 98) states that the concept of burnout emerged with the Industrial Revolution and the rise of capitalism. Through the revolution and capitalism, there were many technological improvements and benefits. It should be known that not everyone accepted them because they brought a new division of labor. The rise of capitalism forced workers to work long hours in order to afford to live. Workers were paid low wages because they had to work long hours in dangerous working conditions. The world became globalized and competition increased. Workers took the work home without being paid for it (Maslach et al., 1997: 5).

1.1.2. Definition of Burnout at Work

Maslach et al. (2001: 398) found that the term burnout was more common among workers employed in the human services field in the 1970s. The human services field includes health care, teachers, social work, psychotherapy, some legal services, and police work (Schaufeli et al., 2008: 206). In the following years, Maslach and Jackson developed the most widely used measure, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) in 1981 (Angerer et al., 2003: 100). Job burnout has been conceptualized as a psychological response to the stressors of work and work life (Maslach et al., 2001: 398). Simha et al. (2014: 482) defined burnout as emotional and interpersonal physiological chronic reactions to situations and experiences in the work environment. These reactions may relate to the work itself, the organization, colleagues, customers,

and even oneself. Freudenberger (1974: 160) pointed out what exactly burnout is. Burnout has some physical signs such as insomnia, breathing problems, constant headaches, and some gastrointestinal health problems. Behavioral signs include crying easily and the inability to control one's emotions. As a result, the employee may yell at co-workers and unintentionally overreact. The employee believes that others think he or she is stupid. Employees suffering from burnout become stubborn and resist change because they find adjustment tiring. The employee appears tired and depressed. His/her behavior appears robotic. The employee does his/her job as if he/she has nothing else to do and that is all. The only thing the employee is doing is completing his/her task. Loyal and dedicated workers are more likely to suffer from burnout than others because they use and display their skills, talents, and abilities over a long period of time. As a result, they receive low wages. Dedicated people work more and feel the pressure more. Therefore, they will burn out if the job does not support them adequately. A routine job kills excitement. When the excitement is gone, workers can not muster enthusiasm for their work. They become sad robots and that too leads to burnout.

Therefore, this concept has found its way into the literature through Freudenberger. Pines (1993: 387) explained why highly motivated workers are more likely to experience burnout. When people who are extremely motivated by their work and identified by their job, their feelings, expectations, and beliefs deteriorate when they fail. They are so disappointed that they no longer believe they have anything to contribute to work and life itself. Cherniss (1980: 7) explains that burnout refers to an imbalance between job demands and resources. The human body responds emotionally to this imbalance with anxiety, exhaustion, fatigue, and feelings of tension. Over time, burnout leads to negative changes in the human personality. It happens when workers help professionals or clients in a very demanding work environment due to stress and experienced strain. Freudenberger et al (1981: 13) emphasized that burnout is like a gap between the ideal expectation and the reality in the work environment. When expectations and reality do not match, it leads to lower commitment and effectiveness. Farber (1983: 15) analyzed the problem of burnout from the perspective of trends, concerns, social skills and psychoanalytically. Thus, Farber explained that incompatibility between the demands (especially job, career, and organization) and

what the employee can contribute to the organization can lead to burnout. In Farber's research, employees typically complain about long hours, lack of autonomy, extreme performance and productivity demands, lack of professional development, and inadequate resources. Lazarus et al (1984: 19) stated that stress arises from differences between the person and the environment because the person uses his own resources at the expense of his well-being. The person gives value to the environment that exceeds their own resources. Ultimately, this leads to stress/burnout. Etzion (1984: 615) supports Lazarus and points out that burnout is not easy to recognize. This is because burnout is a combination of individual characteristics and negative work environment characteristics (specifically, work overload, role conflict) or a positive work environment (specifically, autonomy, and feedback). Maslach and Jackson (1981: 100) explained the concept of burnout as significant because it has significant effects on work such as job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, poor performance and high turnover rates and personal effects such as alcohol or drug abuse, physical and psychological disorders, and family conflict.

1.1.3. Dimensions of Burnout

Maslach et al (2001: 399) state that there are three components of burnout: Emotional exhaustion, cynicism/depersonalization, and reduced performance.

(1) Emotional exhaustion. First component of burnout refers to the feeling of depletion of one's emotional and physical resources. It involves loss of energy, confidence, and interest in work (Maslach, 1982: 32). Douglas (1977: 23) stated that emotional exhaustion is significant to feelings because feelings are the dominant forces in our lives. The term and its meaning are unique because exhaustion can predict the total or cumulative effects of job stress. Therefore, exhaustion is accepted as the core dimension of burnout. Indeed, burnout is defined by Bakker et al. (2016: 1) as chronic exhaustion. The concept of exhaustion is also described by Bakker et al. (2003: 14) as the result of a long duration of intense occupational demands and physical/psychological workloads. Cordes and Dougherty (1993: 623) confirms that their indicators are a lack of energy and emotional resources. These symptoms are so severe that workers cannot muster their energy to continue their work and feel a strong

aversion to their responsibilities to their clients. In response to clients' psychological, social, and physical crises, workers may feel anger, embarrassment, anxiety, and hopelessness. Some client crises are not easily diagnosed. This may increase the chronic stress of workers and burnout is inevitable (Maslach et al., 1997: 192).

(2) Cynicism/depersonalization. The second component of burnout is defined by Maslach et al. (2001: 399) as disengagement in interpersonal situations. It refers to a change in attitudes and reactions to others. Examples include inappropriate and rude behavior towards customers, colleagues, or managers to the point of withdrawing from them, loss of creativity and resourcefulness, and irritability. The attitudes, responses, reactions, or behaviors of these employees evolve in a negative direction over time. These people build a wall between themselves and others. This makes them appear emotionless. It is as if they lose their human emotions. The wall or detachment grows over time and the person's behavior becomes cold. They begin to not listen to the requests, needs, and demands of others. They no longer want to be polite and kind to others. Moreover, they make mistakes in helping and caring for others (Maslach, 1982: 32; Maslach, 1986: 61). Maslach et al. (2001: 403) stated that the reason for retreating to themselves towards others is because they have been discouraged. Dale et al (1990: 70) stated that depersonalization is a situation without feelings and is a reaction to a service, treatment or to an organization itself. Lee and Ashforth (1996: 123) explained that it is a self-defense mechanism.

(3) Reduced personal performance. The third dimension of burnout is an attempt at negative self-assessment in relation to the work of the worker and his customers. These workers are not satisfied with themselves. This leads them to be dissatisfied with their job performance (Maslach et al., 1981: 107). Maslach et al. (2001: 399) defined the term as lack of achievement and explained it as the feeling of inadequacy to achieve goals and have enough productivity. It leads to a lack of self-confidence (Manzano and Calvo, 2013: 801). Lee and Ashforth (1990: 744) emphasized that decreased personal coping occurs as a result of stress and coping skills that are not successfully managed. The term personal coping refers to a person's self-efficacy, i.e., self-assessment of performance and motivation under challenging conditions. An employee who has personal coping will not accept help from other people. It is believed that the employee who has coping control mechanisms will

perform at the highest level. If the employee believes in himself to achieve the goals he values, this represents the motivation at a high level. Thus, the authors found that the relationship between personal coping and control of coping mechanisms and self-evaluation of performance is positive. However, the relationship between personal coping and feelings of incapacity is negative. Therefore, if an employee reduces his personal coping, it means that he will lose motivation and performance. It follows that self-confidence decreases and stress coping decreases due to lower productivity.

1.1.4. Role of Job Demands and Resources in Burnout

As mentioned earlier, several studies have shown that burnout is an important outcome in the JD-R framework. In these studies, job resources are generally viewed to have a buffering role in reducing burnout in response to increased job demands. For instance, in a sample of employees of a large institute with professional training, Bakker et al. (2005: 171) examined the relationship between outrageous demands and low resources. They analyzed the effect of the highest level of burnout on demanding characteristics (work overload, emotional demands, physical demands, and work-home balance) and resource characteristics (social support, autonomy, quality of relationship with supervisor, and performance feedback). The authors hypothesized that these four job resources would have a buffering influence on the four job demands and burnout. They claimed that social support is such a strong resource that helps employees to achieve organizational goals, because it helps to protect employees from stressful experiences, and to manage job demands (specifically work overload, emotional demands, physical demands, and work-life balance). The authors emphasize the importance of autonomy because having sovereignty over other employees in completing the task buffers stress. Performance feedback helps improve the quality of the relationship with the supervisor. When communication is fluid, it helps improve performance and motivate employees in the right direction. It also helps to prevent exhaustion because it reduces worries about work related problems. The results show that the hypotheses for exhaustion and depersonalization are supported but rejected for work efficiency.

Another job outcome related to burnout is absenteeism. In a sample of nurses, Gil-Monte (2008: 466) examined the effects of guilt caused by negative behavior toward patients on burnout and absenteeism. Guilt can cause clinical disorders when workers feel that they are becoming colder and more depersonalized day by day. This negatively affects their engagement at work and their behavior toward others. Finally, the worker's responsibility for patient care decreases. It causes low self-esteem and depression because the employee feels that they are making more mistakes because of the disruptive experiences. According to the data results, the authors found that employees who rated themselves as highly depersonalized had more absenteeism. It is worth noting that the effect is not significant enough since the worker only has absenteeism and guilt at work.

The notion of organizational commitment predicted to result from burnout is addressed in many studies. In a study conducted by Kalliath et al. (1998: 180) on a sample of nurses and laboratory technicians in the same organization, the authors examined the relationship between burnout (specifically emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) and organizational commitment. The concept of organizational commitment is one of the most important concepts in employee well-being. The reason for choosing to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout is that the authors consider organizational commitment to be beneficial to the organization. It leads to positive work behaviors and increases employees' willingness to continue working hard despite work stress and adverse work conditions. The authors found that there is a direct relationship between higher levels of organizational commitment and lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Overall, this study supports the view that job engagement is a significant predictor of burnout when environmental work stress is high. Poorly engaged workers showed cognitive withdrawal from their organization/absenteeism. In this study, the authors did not find a relationship between low commitment to work and depersonalization in technicians, but they did find a relationship in nurses. Thus, the effects of work engagement on burnout are different for different occupational groups. Similarly, Hakanen et al. (2008: 225) also examined organizational commitment in a Finnish dentist sample. The authors found that work resources had an impact on widening work engagement, which had a positive effect on organizational commitment. In this study, they

hypothesized that burnout has a negative impact on organizational commitment. The authors found that the motivation that is increased by job resources (namely work engagement) promotes organizational commitment. The correlation between work engagement and burnout is negative, while organizational commitment and work engagement are positive. When they examined the strength of the correlations, they found that organizational commitment was more strongly associated with work engagement than with burnout.

Moreover, in a representative sample of healthcare workers, Gemlik et al. (2010: 137) examined whether organizational commitment is a predictor of burnout. They examined this relationship because highly engaged staff with low burnout are associated with organizational behavior. The authors examined direct (accurate, addressing direct economic expectations) and indirect (accurate, progressive working conditions, ensuring job satisfaction, satisfying personal needs, and meeting expectations) factors to confirm employee commitment to the organization. Indirect factors help to increase organizational commitment and productivity of an individual. The authors noted that organizational commitment has three dimensions: affective (the person's emotional dependence and commitment to the organization), normative (the compulsion to maintain the employment relationship), and enduring commitment (awareness of the costs of unemployment). When workers are emotionally exhausted because of their work, they become depersonalized. When the worker feels inadequate, he or she has difficulty accepting the company's goals, has less desire to achieve them, and tries to withdraw (Gemlik, 2010: 138). As a result, the authors found that the relationship between emotional exhaustion and affective and normative commitment is linear. They also found that although organizational commitment and burnout are related to all dimensions, they do not have a unique relationship.

Since burnout is a negative term, some authors have also correlated it with positive terms such as emotional intelligence. In this direction, Vlachou et al. (2016: 2) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout syndrome in a sample of health care professionals working in rehabilitation, and the authors found that the relationship was negative. The reason for this finding is that emotional intelligence has a protective role against burnout syndrome (specifically emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduction in personal performance). This means that

emotional intelligence reduces burnout syndromes. They defined emotional intelligence as a combination of defining, understanding, expressing, controlling, and managing emotions. When emotional intelligence is consistent with the dimensions of burnout, it helps reduce job stress.

Emotional intelligence factors (especially well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability) can help prevent and manage the consequences of burnout by using some educational and experimental seminars or psychologists in the office. The authors also found an interesting result when they analyzed the factor of gender. The result showed that the value of well-being (especially optimism, self-confidence, and self-esteem) is higher in women than in men. So, women are more satisfied with their lives. However, the value of depersonalization dimension is higher in men than women. Men put a greater distance between themselves and their customers or superiors than women. This leads to lower performance because men do not communicate enough. Therefore, they cannot accept feedback. This affects their performance. Likewise, in a representative sample of residents in the Department of Medicine and Surgery, Swami et al. (2013: 211) examined the relationship between burnout, emotional intelligence, and perceived stress to find a solution to reduce burnout. The results showed that burnout and perceived stress are positively correlated, with a positive correlation between burnout and emotional intelligence. It was found that uncertain work schedules, improper work planning, and incessant tasks can lead to perceived stress as a result of burnout. Emotional intelligence can buffer burnout through workshops such as communication skills and emotional management.

1.1.5. Consequences of Burnout

A number of studies have linked burnout and job outcomes. One of these outcomes is performance. Using a sample of MBA students, Garden (1991: 971) examined the relationship between burnout and performance (concrete, perceived, and actual). The author hypothesized that there would be a relationship between perceived performance (specifically, feelings of low self-esteem) and burnout. It was found that a high sense of burnout in an employee will cause them to think negatively about their own performance. The employee sees faults or failures in themselves in most

situations. These employees think of themselves as incompetent. Thus, the correlation between burnout and perceived self-performance is negative. The author, on the other hand, found no correlation between burnout and objective performance. Similarly, Bakker et al. (2004: 85) examined the relationship between burnout and supervisor rated performance (excluding in-role and extra-role) in a sample of workers from various sectors (specifically, industry, construction, retail, hospitality, transportation, financial institutions, business services, communications, government, education, health care, culture and response services, and others) and positions. In this study, in-role performance referred to the extent to which the requirements of one's job description is fulfilled. Extra-role performance referred to employees' discretionary behaviors above and beyond those in their job description that help the organization achieve its goals. Job demands were measured by workload, emotional demands, and work-life conflict. Job resources included autonomy, professional development opportunities, and social support from colleagues. The authors employed two dimensions of burnout: exhaustion and disengagement. The authors found that exhaustion plays a mediating role in the relationship between job demands and in-role performance, whereas disengagement mediated the relationship between job resources and extra-role performance.

Another study has also focused on the relationship between burnout (particularly the exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment dimensions) and performance (particularly in-role). Using a representative sample of workers from different sectors (nursing, healthcare, and teachers), Taris (2006: 325) found that there was a negative relationship between exhaustion and in-role performance. The author also examined the relationship between exhaustion and organizational citizenship behavior and found that the relationship was negative. These findings support the argument that exhaustion decreases job performance. The author also found that high levels of depersonalization are related to low performance (specifically, role performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and customer satisfaction). The authors also hypothesized that there was a positive relationship between personal accomplishment and performance, but this hypothesis was not supported. Finally, burnout as a combined construct of all three dimensions was negatively correlated with cognitive performance.

In another related study, Dyrbye et al. (2019: 2) examined the relationship between burnout, absenteeism, and job performance in a sample of nurses using a cross-sectional survey. Demographic data (age, gender, relationship status, parental status), job characteristics (hours worked, years worked as a nurse, etc.), and satisfaction with work-life balance were included to measure self-reported absenteeism, work performance, burnout, and depression. The authors found that nurses with high rates of absenteeism rated themselves as low performers. Another finding is that burnout, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization decrease when job performance increases. The result shows that there is no significant relationship between burnout and absenteeism.

In another study, Dolan (1987: 5) showed in a surrogate experiment with nurses that the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout is negative. On the other hand, the author found that when the job demands make it difficult for the worker to be committed, such as high workload, unprofessional standards, and high number of patients in a short time, the worker feels inadequate and guilty. These are the feelings that lead to burnout through emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and low personal performance. For this reason, job satisfaction is a significant and consistent predictor of burnout. Another study (Schooley et al., 2016: 3) among emergency services personnel also found that the relationship between burnout (emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization) and job satisfaction (namely internal satisfaction, external satisfaction, and overall satisfaction) was negative. The authors found that job satisfaction increased as a function of personal performance, while increasing exhaustion and depersonalization led to lower job satisfaction.

In a representative sample of health professionals (nurses and doctors), Wilkinson et al. (2017: 6) examined the relationship between burnout (mainly emotional exhaustion) and empathy. They established the link between burnout and empathy since these terms were seen as fundamental to the quality relationships of healthcare professionals. They stated that emotional exhaustion is emotional depletion and negative attitudes to self and others, whereas the dimensions of empathy help workers to enrich their trust, interaction, and relationships by experiencing and sharing other's feelings. Therefore, the authors found a strong negative relationship between

burnout and empathy.

Burnout has also been linked with decision making styles. Specifically, Michailidis and Banks (2016: 279) found that employees who exhibit higher levels of exhaustion, cynicism, and occupational inefficiency have an avoidant decision-making style, presumably due to their lower executive-functioning resulting from burnout.

Simha et al. (2014: 487) pointed out that trust (mainly fairness) in employees plays a moderating role in the relationship between burnout (especially emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) and organizational cynicism (high turnover rate, low performance, job dissatisfaction, low organizational commitment, and disengagement at work). Burnout and organizational cynicism are found to have commonalities. Nevertheless, if a worker feels that the work climate is fair, even if he or she is burned out, then the worker feels less cynicism. Therefore, they found that high levels of trust negatively affect the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organizational cynicism.

An important framework employed to understand antecedents of burnout is Job-Demands and Resources Model (JD-R Model). Next, this model is reviewed.

1.1.6. Job-Demands and Resources Model (JD-R Model)

Every profession has its own efforts and costs. The costs include physical and mental demands. Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model provides an understanding of how these job demands affect employee well-being. Job demands are defined as "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of work that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (Demerouti et al., 2001: 501). Some examples of job demands are high work pressure, poor physical environment, chaotic working hours, noise, emotional demands, change of tasks, work overload and time pressure. (Demerouti et al., 2001: 279; Demerouti et al., 2001: 501; Bakker et al., 2014: 389; Bakker and Heuven, 2003: 81). When job demands are high, physiological, and psychological stress occurs for the employee, leading to burnout and negative psychological well-being.

In contrast to job demands, job resources refer to all physical, social, and psychosocial aspects of work that help workers (a) achieve job goals, (b) reduce job

demands and their physiological and psychological costs, and (c) promote workers' personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001: 501). Resources can be internal and external. Internal resources refer to those that people possess that help them function effectively, such as self-efficacy and optimism. In the JD-R model, external resources are emphasized more. External resources include organizational and social resources at different levels. For example, salary, career opportunities and job security refer to resources at the higher level of the organization. However, job clarity, participation in decision making, and variety of tasks refer to work level resources of the organization. Family, peer and colleague support and organizational climate refer to interpersonal level social resources. Feedback for performance, diversity of talents, autonomy, meaning, and task identity, on the other hand, refer to organizational resources at the task level.

Based on the JD-R model when job demands are high, such as emotional demands, work overload, and irregular work hours, the worker may not be able to cope with these demands in a healthy way, leading to burnout and physical and mental health problems. Second, a lack of job resources, on the other hand, can reduce motivation to achieve goals, loyalty, and increase withdrawal from work (Bakker et al., 2003: 345). Job resources bind the worker to the organization because resources include feedback, support, and goal achievement. Thus, while job demands predict employee burnout, job resources independently predict employee motivation, both processes resulting in detrimental work outcomes.

For example, Bakker et al. (2003: 342) argue that increased job demands would predict absenteeism via increased emotional exhaustion, while reduced job resources would predict absenteeism through reduced motivation. Absenteeism can be a reaction to job strain and exhaustion caused by work stressors such as work overload, monotony, and role problems. This process is referred to as health impairment. Further, a lack of adequate work resources leads to lower employee motivation, which in turn leads to higher absenteeism. This process is referred to as motivational deficiency. Thus, the authors conclude that the duration and frequency of absenteeism are the result of job demands and job resources. Similarly, Vignoli et al (2016: 2) also investigated the relationship between job demands and absenteeism. They hypothesized and found that job demands are a predictor of burnout. Subsequently,

this leads to absenteeism, with emotional exhaustion playing a mediating role. In the JD-R model, the authors assumed that health impairments and motivational processes are distinct processes stemming from inadequate levels of job demands and resources.

Moreover, the JD-R model also proposes an interactive effect for job resources and job demands, such that job resources protect employees from the detrimental effects of job demands on psychological well-being and job performance (Demerouti et al., 2014: 2). Consistent with this, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007: 769) examined the moderating role of job resources (specifically autonomy, social support, performance feedback, and opportunities for professional growth) in the relationship between emotional and physical job demands and burnout in a sample of home care workers. Specifically, the authors hypothesized and found that the buffering role of job resources was stronger in the relationship between emotional demands/patient harassment and burnout than in the relationship between physical demands/workload and burnout. This finding suggests that employees draw on job resources to a greater extent to cope with demands that pose a greater threat to their well-being, which in this employee sample were emotional demands and patient harassment.

Further supporting the buffering effect of job resources, Bakker et al. (2007: 315) argued that high levels of job resources, as operationalized good quality of relationships between employees and their supervisors, have a positive effect on occupational commitment and can act as a buffer against high job demands. That is, if the quality of the relationship between supervisors and employees is high, then the harmful effect of job demands (on health and performance) will diminish. The authors argued that job resources (especially autonomy, supervisor support, and communication) can help workers achieve their goals. The results show that these resources influence each other. For example, supervisor support leads to communication, and communication leads to feedback, which workers need to improve their performance. When performance increases, there are positive signals; and motivation is maintained to achieve desired goals. As a result, employee commitment and job performance increase. In the JD-R model, this relationship shows the importance of job resources. Specifically, motivation and work engagement are important when job demands are high.

Xanthopoulou et al. (2013: 76) also investigated the relationship between undesirable job demands (particularly emotional demands and dissonance related to work engagement) and motivation, with personal resources playing a buffering role. The authors defined personal resources in two ways. First, self-efficacy, which refers to a person's ability to achieve goals. Second, optimism, which refers to a person's belief that good things will happen. Employees who possess self-efficacy will resist the difficulties that stand in their way of achieving their goals, leading to work engagement. Employees who have optimism believe that they will succeed even if they have failures. Therefore, this also leads to commitment and motivation at work. The authors hypothesized and found that individuals who have personal resources decrease the unfavorable effects of job demands and increase the challenging side of job demands in terms of motivation. The authors found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and work engagement.

1.2. THE CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL DEMAND

Frijda (1986: 2) defined the term emotion as a spiritual or an inward behavior determination. Emotions can arise and be formed according to the specific events and conditions, depending on what occupies people. There are many emotions such as happiness, anger and so on. The point is that they are accepted all over the world. For example, a happy or sad baby from Europe will express his or her emotions just like the rest of the world. Emotions can also be called interactive expression. In Job Demand-Resources Theory, job demand is briefly defined as the energy cost of work that cannot be recovered (especially workload, complex tasks, conflict, and emotional demands) (Bakker and Demerouti, 2018: 2; Bakker and Demerouti, 2016: 273). The importance of job demand depends on the process of health impairment of workers. When workers' basic needs are not met, these job demands lead to chronic exhaustion and physical health problems (Bakker and Demerouti, 2018: 3).

How and why do emotional demands lead to burnout, and particularly emotional exhaustion? Heuven et al. (2006: 224) define emotional demands as adaptation to the emotional rules of the organization. Emotional demands are considered as one of the factors of job demands because showing and expressing

appropriate emotions in employee-customer interaction (e.g., face-to-face or voice-to-voice) causes employees to control or suppress their genuine emotions (Zapf and Holz, 2007: 3). The explanation for the link between emotional demands and burnout (especially emotional exhaustion) is the emotional dissonance of these employees. Emotional dissonance occurs when the company expects its employees to show the desired emotions in every situation. For example, employees have to smile all the time, even if they do not feel this emotion (Zapf and Holz, 2006: 3). Mann (1999: 354) explains three dimensions of emotional labor: a) expectations or rules for showing emotions, b) suppression of emotions, and c) faking emotions.

All of these dimensions create an imbalance and pose a threat to employees' well-being as they may feel like a bad person for faking or hiding their emotions. Thus, emotional demand reduces performance and lead to absenteeism and turnover.

Kinman (2009: 129) found that faking and suppressing emotions (especially anger, boredom, and impatience) are difficult to maintain during interaction time. Therefore, greater emotional effort is required to maintain emotional balance. When employees experience a strong dissonance between true and displayed feelings during interactions with customers, this leads to higher levels of psychological distress. The authors found a negative relationship between emotional dissonance and employee well-being. Lewig and Dollard (2003: 368) emphasize the importance of emotional dissonance. When emotional dissonance is high, employees may have lower self-esteem and depression. The reason for this is that emotional dissonance leads to role conflict and therefore high job demands. It was therefore accepted as a predictor of burnout. Thus, emotional dissonance was considered as a dimension of emotional demands.

Diefendorff and Richard (2003: 284) emphasize that managers believe that an organization becomes successful when its employees speak and act positively with customers or patients. This ultimately affects customer satisfaction, sales, and the quality of the decisions they make. This is referred to as display rules. Companies do not want their interpersonal interactions to be perceived as negative emotions. Therefore, employees should hide or suppress their true emotions. The authors found that there is a link between employees and supervisors in terms of perceptions of rules. When supervisors control the demands placed on employees and their characteristics,

they can predict and influence employees' beliefs about suppressing negative emotions at work.

Job demands manifest themselves in two ways: the demand to display positive emotions and the demand to suppress negative emotions while interacting with customers (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003: 284). These demands include not only fake smiles, but also planning, control and the ability to regulate in order to express positive emotions. This results in emotional energy being expended. When emotional demands are made over a long period of time, employees have to work harder and this consumes energy. (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 989). For this reason, Cordes and Dougherty (1993: 640) found that the relationship between prolonged interaction with the customer and the level of burnout is positive.

1.2.1. Consequences of Emotional Demand

Several studies suggest that emotional demands lead to burnout because such demands are associated with emotional dissonance. For example, Heuven and Bakker (2003: 81) studied the relationship between emotional dissonance and burnout. Emotional dissonance is a discrepancy between shown and felt emotions that leads to psychological strain, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion. They believed that confronting emotional dissonance has greater predictive power for burnout than stressors like job demands, because emotionally healthy workers who have consciously shaped displayed emotions in interpersonal interactions have developed coping strategies for the demands of their job. Therefore, emotional dissonance and burnout have been found to be positively related. Similarly, in a representative sample of call center workers, Lewig and Dollard (2003: 385) found that emotional demands lead to emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction through experience of emotional dissonance. The authors also report co-existence of psychosocial demands exacerbates the association of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion.

Several studies have also examined moderators of the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout. In a sample of healthcare workers, Jonge et al. (2008: 1460) tested the moderating effect of emotional and cognitive resources on the relationship between emotional demands and well-being outcomes (specifically

emotional exhaustion, employee creativity, and work motivation). Emotional resources mean job demands equal work demands, and cognitive resources represent job satisfaction and personal performance. Thus, they hypothesized and found that the moderating effect would be more effective with emotional resources on the relationship between emotional demands and well-being outcomes. This means that emotional job resources can moderate the relationship between emotional job demands and emotional exhaustion and that both emotional and cognitive job resources have a positive effect on well-being. Further, Tuxford and Bradley (2015: 1006) studied the relationship between emotional job demands and emotional exhaustion in a representative sample of teachers. The authors defined the components of emotional exhaustion as exposure to situations that are emotionally demanding, emotional labor (deep and surface acting), and emotional well-being. Deep acting is a situation in which employees align their work role and their emotions, leading to emotions being truly felt, whereas surface acting is a distinction between emotions felt and shown and the change in facial expressions, behavior and the way employees communicate (Tuxford and Bradley, 2015: 1006; Steinberg and Figart, 1999: 177). Therefore, Tuxford and Bradley (2015: 1006) found that, in contrast to deep acting, surface acting (i.e., emotion suppression) exacerbates the impact of emotional demands on exhaustion.

Further findings, Vegchel et al. (2004: 35) analyzed the moderating effect of job control and social support on the relationship between various job demands, including emotional demands, and burnout in a sample of Swedish human services workers. They found that only job control had a moderating effect such that it reduced the detrimental effect of job demands including emotional demands. The authors also note that the effect of emotional demands was stronger than the effect of quantitative demands on burnout.

Lastly, Riedl and Thomas (2019: 414) examined the moderating role of work pressure on the relationship between emotional demands and burnout in a sample of nurses and surgical units in hospitals. The authors found that work pressure exacerbate the detrimental effect of emotional demands on burnout.

1.3. DEPRESSION

Fakhoury (2018: 53) explains the term depression as a mood disorder. People who suffer from depression have constant feelings of sadness, hopelessness, and loss of interest. In addition to emotional problems, depression can also show its symptoms as a physical symptom. The author explained that the DSM-5 has established 8 criteria for the diagnosis of depression, and that a person must experience five or more symptoms within a 2-week period to be diagnosed as depressed. These symptoms are (a) depressed mood almost every day, (b) noticeable loss of interest or pleasure in activities they once enjoyed, (c) slow thinking and physical activity, (d) loss of energy, (e) guilt and feelings of worthlessness, (f) decrease in ability to concentrate, (g) thoughts of death or a suicide attempt.

According to Malhi and Mann (2018: 2299), these symptoms are divided into basic (depressed mood and anhedonia), emotional (depressed mood, anhedonia, and feelings of worthlessness or guilt), neurovegetative (fatigue or loss of energy, decrease or increase in sleep and weight), and neurocognitive (decreased ability to think or concentrate, and agitation). It is noted that there is no hierarchy between these symptoms, so the priority or greater impact of the symptom is uncertain. The authors defined that major depressive disorder or dysthymic disorder is a severe form of depression that occurs over a period of 2 weeks. If it lasts longer than 2 weeks, it is called chronic depression. If it lasts longer than 2 months and at least 2 years, it is called persistent depressive disorder. The authors emphasize that Major Depressive Disorder is different than simply being sad and unhappy. Being sad requires a trigger, but depressive disorder does not require a trigger because the person loses the ability to feel joy. Awareness of depression increases with the help of effective diagnosis, but sometimes detection is complicated and countries have different health care systems, so errors in detecting the proportion of depression are inevitable.

Petersen et al. (1993: 155) explained depression using three classifications as (1) depressed mood, (2) depressive syndromes, and (3) clinical depression. Depressed mood was defined as a sad mood with feelings of other unwanted emotions such as anxiety, guilt, and anger; depressive syndromes were explained in terms of feelings of loneliness, unloved, worthless, and anxious with aggressive and self-destructive

behaviors; and clinical depression was explained in terms of symptoms of Major Depressive Disorder. Holtzheimer and Mayberg (2011: 1) clarified that depression and normal sadness share similarities in terms of hopelessness and lack of energy, but differ particularly in the magnitude, duration, and absence of a triggering event.

1.3.1. Antecedents and Consequences of Depression

Hammen (2005: 307-313) examined the relationship between stress and depression. To understand why some people are stressed and others are not, the author examined many aspects, including biological, developmental, psychological, and sociodemographic. Biological moderators and mediators are examined as stressful life events and their risk for depression are integrated with biological paradigms. The author considers genetic factors important because they contribute to understanding the relationship between stressors and depression. Genes are shown to contribute much to predicting depressive responses to stressors through life stress. Since the promoter region of the serotonin transporter predicts depression, it is reasonable to assume that serotonergic neurotransmission exists. Emotional instability and negative affectivity arise in response to stress through an underlying biological process.

Developmental moderators and mediators (particularly parental death in childhood, divorce, parental mental illness, family violence, abuse) are examined because adversity in childhood or throughout life plays a role in stressful life events in adulthood. For example, the author found that negative life events in childhood are the best predictors of current depressive episodes. For example, a person who was abused in childhood will have higher levels of chronic stressors in their close relationships. When the stressor becomes reactive, it triggers depression.

Psychological moderators and mediators (especially dysfunctional interpretations of self and events, values, goals, and perfectionism and neuroticism) are examined because when a person experiences high stress and high dysfunctional attitudes, these values are associated with the risk of a depressive episode. Low self-acceptance and neuroticism identified in childhood increase sensitivity to stressful life events. Sociodemographic moderators and mediators (especially gender, poverty, and social support) are examined because depression rates are higher in women than in

men. In fact, they share the death of a child, divorce, or marital problems. Gender differences are consistently shown, e.g., women react more strongly to deaths in relationships such as friends and relatives.

Wang et al. (2011: 185) believed that mental health has a great impact on production rate, job turnover and absenteeism. They examined depression in a sample of workers and its associations with workload, performance-reward imbalance, and work-family conflict. The authors included gender as a factor in the study. As a result, it was found that workload, performance-reward imbalance, and work-family conflict were strongly associated with depression. When looking at the correlations, they found that there was a strong relationship between performance-reward imbalance and depression in women, but not in men. In addition, the relationship between effort-reward imbalance and depression scores was stronger in participants with job strain. The significant relationship between work-family conflict and depression scores was stronger for participants with job strain.

Kleinman (2015: 951) conducted a study to find the relationship between culture and depression. The author found that people from all over the world are familiar with the concept of depression. Some cultures define depression as boredom or discomfort, while other cultures define it as feeling sad. The author believed that ethnicity, society, and norms can influence cultural differences in symptoms of depression. It is believed that culture can influence the intensity of symptoms through social supportive and protective psychological factors. These would influence people's expression and physiological responses because culture teaches people to develop interpersonal relationships, religion, and both collective and individual identity. In some cultures, there may be an increase in depressive disorders due to the difference between the patriarchal behavior of parents and the modern behavior of children. Poverty, unemployment, and poor economic conditions are also associated with culture. These factors also trigger the symptoms of depression. Another aspect is social anxiety due to collective and individualistic cultures. The power of distance also plays a role as some people expect hierarchy and others do not. Therefore, people's background with their needs, values, and preferences should be considered.

In a sample of 250 healthcare nurses, Poursadeghiyan et al. (2016: 2354) studied the relationship between job stress and depression, anxiety, and job

satisfaction. The reason is that nurses have busy schedules, a lot of responsibilities, and some interpersonal conflicts. These reasons trigger work-related stress that leads to poor job performance, low employee retention, social withdrawal, high absenteeism, and emotional states such as anxiety and depression. The authors cited high workload, job demands, physical environment, and low support as work-related stressors. Nurses need to convey a sense of humanity, empathy, and sensitivity to cultural differences. In addition, there are personal factors that may contribute to stress, anxiety, and job satisfaction, such as the actual work environment and job expectations, lack of resources that create a sense of insecurity, and personal factors such as difficult relationships in workers' personal life. Therefore, the authors found that anxiety, job satisfaction, and depression are associated with stress.

Another study was conducted by Maria et al. (2017: 109) among police officers. The authors tried to find out whether job demands (especially high workload and assaults by citizens) and job resources (especially social support from colleagues, shared values, and a positive leadership climate) predict depression as mediated by emotional exhaustion. The results of the study show that job demands increase depression and anxiety scores through emotional exhaustion, but job resources, which are negatively correlated with anxiety and depression, buffered the effects of job demands on emotional exhaustion, which is recognized as a key dimension of burnout.

Previous research also suggests that depression may be an outcome of job burnout. For instance, Shani and Pizam (2009: 446) studied work-related depression among hotel employees in Florida. The hospitality industry employs a large number of hospitality workers (primarily cooks, waiters, bartenders, hosts and hostesses, and dishwashers) as well as clerical and administrative workers (primarily hotel, motel, and resort employees). These employees have experience with 'emotional labor' as they control their current emotions to present a successful quality of service. Arguing that emotional labor causes employees to experience exhaustion, loss of identity, and depression because they have direct contact and intense interaction with guests, the authors hypothesized that depression would be positively predicted by burnout and work-related stress among these employees. As predicted, they found that one of the main causes of depression is work-related stress, which is defined as a negative work climate or negative work culture with high workload, excessive working hours, work-

family imbalance, and performance-reward imbalance. They also found that burnout predicted depression.

Previous research also show that depression has some consequences. For example, Downey et al. (2008: 93) investigated to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and clinically diagnosed depression by collecting data from clinical samples. Emotional intelligence was defined as managing and controlling one's emotions while making a decision. The authors made this correlation because emotional intelligence predicts emotional well-being, decreased stress, high self-esteem and optimism, and life satisfaction. They found that as the level of depression increases, deficits in the skills of managing, controlling, and expressing emotions occur. Therefore, depression was found to be negatively correlated with deficit emotional intelligence skills.

In a representative sample of nursing homes, Menon et al. (2001: 140) highlighted the relationship between aggressive behavior (verbal and physical) and depression in nursing home residents with dementia. The authors hypothesized that the association between verbal or physical behavior of residents and a higher incidence of depression would be positive. The results showed that depression was significantly correlated with physical and verbal aggression in residents with dementia. It is believed that residents who cannot communicate about their feelings or are cognitively impaired are more likely to experience the syndrome of depression. The authors noted that there is a possibility that residents with dementia, if they receive help from caregivers even with activities of daily living, may exhibit aggressive behaviors.

Mirowsky and Ross (1992: 188) pointed out that the relationship between age and depression. The effects of maturity, age, life cycle stage, survival, and historical trend were analyzed. The effect of maturity was chosen because the authors believe that people have a lifetime of experience. Since maturity is associated with self-integration, people have greater satisfaction, more secure habits, and a better self-image. These people have more routines, take fewer risks, and watch their eating and drinking habits than non-mature people. Therefore, the authors hypothesized that depression would decrease with age. The age effect was chosen because the incidence of illness showing poor health and both mental and physical dysfunction, problems with memory and other cognitive functions (especially memory, attention, simple

calculations, perceptual speed) increases while activity and performance decrease. Thus, the symptoms of poor health resemble the symptoms of depression. Accordingly, they hypothesized that depression and age would be positively correlated. The stage effect was chosen because marital status, occupation, economic status, and social life cycle change throughout life. Adjusting status leads to lower depression. Survival and historical trends were found that the average level of depression is high in older groups and that adjustment for gender leads to a U-shaped relationship between depression and age.

Battle (1978: 745) had studied the relationship between self-esteem and depression in male and female college students. Characteristics of depression were pessimism, sense of failure, self-loathing, social withdrawal, and feelings of helplessness and worthlessness. Self-esteem was defined as the individual's belief that he/she is capable, significant, successful, and worthy. The authors found that students who reported higher self-esteem tended to be less depressed. Thus, depression is associated with lower self-esteem.

Further, Ehrenberg et al. (1991: 70) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and depression in adolescents. The analysis was conducted as a three-way interaction between gender, age, and level of depression for males and females separately. The result: self-efficacy is negatively related to depression in adolescents. Similarly, Albal and Kutlu (2010: 116) studied levels of self-efficacy in coping with depression and perceived social support resources. Coping refers to efforts (primarily cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) to reduce distress (primarily psychosocial, emotional, and physical) related to difficulties in daily life. One of the coping mechanisms is self-efficacy, which is defined as a person's higher expectations of success, setting higher goals, and responding positively to difficulties. Social support is defined as a crucial factor for high or low self-efficacy as it reduces the risk of mental disorders. The results show that self-efficacy has a positive effect on social support in the prevention of depression.

Greene (1989: 652) studied the implications for current theories of depression (Beck's cognitive theory of depression and Brown and Harris's sociopsychology model). Thus, the author examined the relationship between depression and hopelessness, which is widely recognized as a feature of depression. Brown and Harris'

theoretical model states that low self-esteem leads to hopelessness; hopelessness leads to clinical depression. Result of the relationship between depression and hopelessness was found to be significant, but they also noted that hopelessness is neither an inevitable correlate nor an inevitable component of depression.

The term depression has been also studied with internet addiction. Young and Rogers (1998: 25) utilized the relationship between depression and Internet addiction using 259 valid profiles of addicted users. Addicted users associated with social, psychological, and occupational impairment showed lower work performance. The results showed that higher levels of depression are associated with internet addiction among people who are addicted. Thus, this addiction entails low self-esteem, poor motivation, fear of non-acceptance, and the need for approval. On the other hand, computer-mediated communication weakens emotions, stares, gestures, and facial expressions. When the addicted person gives a presentation, it can trigger depression because the person feels more comfortable sharing ideas anonymously.

It is to be expected that the self-esteem and work performance of socially isolated people are low. Another related term is body dissatisfaction. Clark et al. (2009: 29) examined the relationship between depression and body dissatisfaction during pregnancy and postpartum. The authors sought to gain insight into the relationship between changes in depression levels and body dissatisfaction (primarily fatness, attractiveness, importance of weight and shape, and strength and fitness) during pregnancy and the first 12 months postpartum. They hypothesized that body dissatisfaction would be higher in the postpartum period than during pregnancy, and this is partially confirmed.

1.4. LEADER'S HUMOR

Romeo and Cruthirds (2006: 63) defined humor as a common element of humor interaction, i.e., how humor affects work groups and organizations so that it can be used to achieve organizational goals, as humor is a multifunctional management tool. Cann and Matson (2014: 176) explained the concept of humor as showing a good sense and being socially desirable. Abel (2002: 365) described humor as muscle relaxation, control of pain or discomfort, positive mood, a healthy psychological self-

concept combined with a good sense of humor.

Humor also represents buffering the negative effects of stress. Gkorezis et al. (2011: 83) emphasized that humor is a tool that helps to improve relationships in professional and personal life. Therefore, the use of humor says a lot about a person's level of enjoyment of life and self-confidence when interacting with others. Stieger et al. (2011: 747) stated that humor plays an essential and significant role in coping with stressful events in daily life, as humor and psychological well-being are believed to be positively related. Chen and Martin (2007: 4) pointed out that humor is a 'social' phenomenon that people provide and others experience or perceive in almost every type of interpersonal relationship. This experience makes the perceiver laugh because he or she perceives an amusing stimulus and triggers an emotional response.

The goal of this social phenomenon is to stimulate positive emotional responses, but sometimes humor can be perceived as serious, critical, defeating, and aggressive. The author divides humor into psychological elements and these elements have functions such as (a) emotional and interpersonal benefits of mirth, (b) tension and coping, and (c) social functions in a group context. The author stated that negative emotions such as anxiety, depression, or anger can be replaced with positive emotions with the help of humor. Humor makes individuals think more openly and broadly and makes them flexible in creative problem-solving situations. Doosje (2010: 9) explained the basic idea of humor is that it promotes appropriate coping mechanisms for stress and thus can cushion the effects of stress on health. Martin et al. (2003: 49) explained that the sense of humor stems from a cognitive ability (to invent, understand, and remember jokes), an esthetic response (enjoyment of humorous material), a habitual behavior (tendency to laugh often, to amuse others, laughing at others' jokes), an emotional temperamental trait (mirth), an attitude (positive attitude toward humor), and a coping strategy or defense mechanism (maintaining a humorous outlook in the face of adversity). Given the conceptual framework of humor research, the authors distinguished whether humor was used to enhance self or relationship with others. The other distinction was whether humor was benign and benevolent or harmful to the self or relationship with others. In this way, they explained individual differences in the use of the four dimensions of humor:

(1) Affiliative humor. People who use affiliative humor tend to say funny things, amuse others, and tell jokes to facilitate relationships and relieve interpersonal tensions. These people promote social cohesion and attraction. Affiliative humor is believed to be related to cheerfulness, self-esteem, extraversion, positive mood, and emotions (Martin et al., 2003: 53). This type of humor aims to enhance social interaction while reducing negative emotions in others (Doosje, 2010: 20). Affiliative humor is considered positive humor and can reduce the social distance between superiors and subordinates (Gkorezis et al., 2016: 87). Affiliative humor tends to have a positive effect on others to enhance and unite social interaction. The goal of people who use affiliative humor is to make others laugh by telling funny stories. These people are perceived as non-threatening and are liked by others as they show social intimacy (Lee, 2015: 21). This humor dimension is positively related to positive relationship variables and negatively related to loneliness and social anxiety (Vernon et al., 2009: 131). People who have an affiliative humor style value enhancing the quality of the relationship and affirming themselves and others (Ford et al., 2014: 453).

(2) Self-enhancing humor. A similar definition can be made to self-enhancing humor but compared to affiliative humor, it focuses on intrapsychic rather than interpersonal. People who have a self-enhancing humor style tend to view an aversive or stressful situation with humor while maintaining a realistic perspective. This type of humor is considered a coping mechanism for avoiding negative emotions through emotion regulation (Martin et al., 2003: 53). This humor dimension is positively related with emotional well-being variables (optimism, self-esteem, positive mood) and negatively related with depression, and anxiety (Vernon et al., 2009: 131). The goal of self-enhancing humor is to cheer oneself up (Doosje, 2010: 12). People who have a self-enhancing humor style tend to think funny things about situations to make themselves feel better. This type of humor has a positive relationship with self-esteem. Since it has a positive effect on individual outcomes, it increases creativity (Lee, 2015: 62). Self-enhancing humor correlates positively with empathic concerns and perspective-taking empathy (Hampes, 2010: 36).

(3) Aggressive humor. People with aggressive humor tend to express their humor without considering its effect or consequences on others. They usually use sarcasm (Martin et al., 2003: 54). It is also referred to as manipulative humor. This

type of humor is used to distance oneself from others as it is one of the coping mechanisms. In aggressive coping mechanisms, people reduce negative emotions in themselves but increase or cause negative emotions in others. Thus, the balance between the cost to others and the benefit to oneself is disturbed (Doosje, 2010: 20). The goal of people who use aggressive humor is not to interact with people or to understand the emotions of the people around them. They behave thoughtlessly while trying to be funny without realizing that they are being emotionally hurt (Vernon et al., 2009: 131). Aggressive humor can lead to humiliation or denigration (Lee, 2015: 62). Therefore, the use of aggressive humor is harmful to interpersonal relationships (Ford et al., 2014: 453).

(4) Self-defeating humor. This style of humor focuses on the self and is harmful to the self. People with self-defeating humor allow others to laugh at themselves and say funny things to humiliate themselves. These people tend to be so modest, humble, and self-deprecating in order to gain the approval of others. They improve social relationships at their own expense (Lee, 2015: 63). People with self-defeating humor laugh along with others while being ridiculed and denigrated. They are seen as amusing, but in reality, it is a need for avoidance, an emotional need, and a sign of low self-esteem. (Martin et al., 2003: 54).

Positive humor may be an extension of emotional intelligence. Vernon et al. (2009: 131) examined the genetic and environmental components of correlations between five traits of emotional intelligence (well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability, and global trait of EI) and humor styles (affiliative, self-enhancing, aggressive, and self-defeating). The authors pointed out that the positive outcomes of positive humor style (relationship satisfaction, stress management, optimism, and high self-esteem) were positively related to the emotional intelligence aspect (emotional awareness and emotion regulation). In their study, the results showed that positive humor types (affiliative and self-enhancing) had a positive relationship with five emotional intelligence variables, while negative humor types (aggressive and self-defeating) had a negative relationship.

Positive humor may also be an extension of empathy. In a sample of psychology students, Hampes (2010: 38) examined the relationship between humor styles and perspective-taking empathy, which is a more cognitive type of empathy.

The author hypothesized and found that affiliative humor and empathic concern, i.e. a more emotional measure of empathy, are positively correlated; self-enhancing humor and perspective-taking empathy have a significant positive correlation; there is a negative correlation between self-enhancing humor and personal stress; the relationship between aggressive humor and perspective-taking empathy, empathic concern, and personal stress is negatively correlated; whereas the relationship between self-defeating humor and empathy was not supported.

1.4.1. Antecedents and Consequences of Humor at Work

Previous research suggests that humor can be a precedent for leadership. For example, Holmes and Marra (2006: 125) examined the relationship between humor and leadership styles (mainly transformational and transactional). The authors found that the ability to use humor is an aspect of good leadership. Leaders are thought to use humor for team building by increasing solidarity between leaders and their team members, softening the sting of a necessary criticism or negative comment from the leader, and achieving workplace goals. Therefore, both leadership styles use humor to be effective leaders.

As humor is essential as a coping mechanism for people's daily lives, Stieger et al. (2011: 747) examined humor styles (particularly self-defeating humor) and their relationship with self-esteem in their study. In this article, the authors found that (as cited in Martin et al., 2003: 48) self-defeating humor is used by people with damaged self-esteem, who are prone to depression and nervousness, to help themselves hide their social and personal anxieties. Thus, they claimed that people who use self-defeating humor cause themselves to develop their damaged self-esteem. Therefore, the authors stated that the relationship between damaged self-esteem and self-defeating humor is positive.

Several studies focused on the effects of leader's humor on employee outcomes. Leader's humor has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, job performance, supervisor satisfaction, and group cohesion (Decker, 1987: 225; Gkorezis et al. 2011: 83; Avolio et al. 1999: 219; Decker and Rotondo, 2001: 450; Cann et al. 2009: 452).

Since humor is thought to reduce interpersonal conflict and improve communication, it can be an effective management tool for managers. Due to fact that humor tends to convey joy, it can in turn enhance creativity. Humor is used by many organizations as a business strategy to increase organizational effectiveness. Lee (2015: 60) investigated the effects of leader's humor style on employee creativity considering the moderating effect of trust. The significance of this study is that employee creativity ensures organizational survival and performance in an ever-changing and competitive environment. Therefore, the author hypothesized that (1) leader's self-enhancing humor, (2) affiliative humor is positively related to employee creativity, while (3) leader's aggressive humor is negatively correlated with employee creativity. The result shows that hypothesis 1 is supported while hypotheses 2 and 3 are not supported. It is found that both affiliative and aggressive humor focus on interpersonal outcomes, so it cannot support the production of creative ideas.

Ford et al. (2014: 458) examined the relationship between the four humor styles and happiness. Since happiness is defined as an individual assessment of life satisfaction, the authors found that people who have a self-enhancing and affiliative humor style are described as happier, while people with a self-defeating and aggressive humor style are described as less happy. They also analyzed the motivational factor that affects happiness levels by assessing people on whether they are approach-oriented (adaptive strategies of using humor) or avoidance-oriented (self-defeating strategies of using humor). They found that people who have a self-enhancing humor style are happier because they maintain the humorous outlook in the face of adverse situations. Similarly, Martin et al. (2003: 70) examined humor styles and their relationship to psychological well-being. Since the nature of affiliative humor is to cheer others up, affiliative humor style was found to be related to happiness, self-esteem, psychological well-being, social intimacy, and companionship and negatively correlated with depression, anxiety, and low mood. Self-enhancing humor is relatively related to cheerfulness, self-esteem, optimism, contentment, social support, psychological well-being positively and negatively related to depression, anxiety, and low mood. Aggressive humor consists of sarcasm, criticism, and teasing and is therefore positively correlated with aggression and negatively correlated with some aspects of health and well-being. Self-defeating humor is positively related to

depression, anxiety, low mood, and aggression and negatively related to self-esteem, well-being, intimacy, and satisfaction with social support.

Romero and Pescosolido (2008: 401) studied the relationship between successful organizational humor and group effectiveness. They emphasized that leadership (especially charismatic leadership) highlights emotions, values, and the importance of leadership behavior. Thus, they found that leaders use humor to manage group emotions to achieve higher performance. The authors believed and found that humor, when used successfully, can positively affect group outcomes such as group productivity, group viability, and also group member development. Successfully managed humor affects effective communication, development of group goals, and management of emotions, and increases group effectiveness and performance.

Further, Gkorezis et al. (2016: 86) investigated the effects of managerial humor on employees' psychological empowerment in a representative sample of service employees from different restaurants, taking into account the moderating role of job tenure. They believed that humor could remove the barriers of hierarchy in the workplace. The use of positive humor by leaders can improve group interaction such as friendship. In a humorous work environment, creativity is unleashed, a sense of freedom and belief in one's own abilities are strengthened. Thus, they hypothesized and found that the leader's positive humor exerts a positive effect on employees' psychological empowerment and the leader's negative humor exerts a negative effect on employees' psychological empowerment; the correlation between leader's positive humor and employees' psychological empowerment is more effective for employees with short tenure than for employees with long tenure, and the correlation between leader's negative humor and employees' psychological empowerment is more effective for employees with long tenure than for employees with short tenure.

Yang et al. (2015: 2367) examined the relationship between humor and leadership in different cultural contexts (particularly comparing China, a high-power distance culture, and North America, a low power distance culture). The authors argued that employees from high power distance cultures are less likely to appreciate humor. This is because humor affects the sense of distance/barrier between two people (leader and follower) in a formal hierarchy. Since humor enhances communication and strengthens friendships, certain employees perceive their leader as having a relational

approach. This research shows that in a high-power distance culture the leader is expected to be a serious role model in managing daily work and leader humor is not expected. Thus, leader humor may not be as functional in a high-power distance culture as it is in a low power distance culture.

1.5. LEADER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Mayer et al. (2001: 396) define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive, understand, regulate, and express emotions in oneself and others. It is also an ability to reason with emotions and to process emotions in thought. Kerr et al. (2006: 265) pointed out that emotional intelligence is an implementation of two mental processes: thinking and feeling. Mayer et al. (2001: 128) stated that emotional intelligence expresses many things such as empathy, sociability, warmth, and optimism. Salovey and Mayer (1990: 185) describe emotional intelligence as the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in a person's life. The authors also noted that the ability to express and evaluate emotions helps a person perceive his or her feelings, respond to them quickly, and communicate those feelings to others. People with the ability to regulate emotions help improve their own mood and that of others and manage emotions to motivate others. The behavior of people who use emotional intelligence (especially flexible planning, creative thinking, mood-based attention, motivating emotions) is considerate and respectful of internal and external experiences. Mayer et al. (2002: 5) explained that emotional intelligence is also an ability to think about emotions, to understand how emotions improve and are controlled over time, and to understand how to fit the management of emotions into social situations.

1.5.1. Consequences of Leaders' Emotional Intelligence

The first consequences came from Barbutto and Burbach (2006: 52), who tested emotional intelligence in transformational leaders (self-reported). They hypothesized that dimensions of emotional intelligence (specifically empathic response, mood regulation, interpersonal skills, self-awareness, and internal motivation) would show a positive relationship with aspects of transformational leadership (specifically

inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration). The authors found that leaders' empathic response was positively related to all aspects of transformational leadership; leaders' mood regulation was negatively related to inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation; leaders' interpersonal skills were positively related to inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration; leaders' internal motivation was positively related to inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation; and the relationship between leaders' self-awareness and transformational leadership was low.

Another aspect to the emotional intelligence has been shown by Kerr et al. (2006: 268), who examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (ratings by subordinates). The authors claimed that people with emotional intelligence have the ability to be responsive and flexible in the social environment and that building supportive leaders can improve the effectiveness and quality of social interactions at all levels of the organization. The authors found that leadership effectiveness is strongly related to the emotional intelligence of the supervisor. They believe that this finding helps to consider the leader's level of emotional intelligence when recruiting, selecting, training, and developing leaders.

In another study, Alam et al. (2020: 5128) investigated the effects of leaders' emotional intelligence on employees' organizational behavior (especially employee motivation and retention, personal development, and organizational commitment). Since leadership is about being a strong role model for employees by gaining employees' trust and confidence to motivate and encourage them, as well as creating an optimistic environment for employees, leaders with emotional intelligence influence their followers to achieve the desired performance by stimulating, inspiring, and supporting their vision. Thus, they hypothesized that leaders' emotional intelligence is positively related to employee motivation, retention, personal development, and organizational commitment. Therefore, the authors pointed out that employees need a leader who is emotionally capable and talented to create the desired working conditions that motivate employees to stay long in the organization and improve their abilities to achieve organizational goals.

Moreover, Miao et al. (2016: 13) hypothesized and found that the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and subordinates' job satisfaction is positive. Since job satisfaction affects job performance, organizational behavior, and physical and mental health, it can be inferred how leaders' emotional intelligence affects organizational outcomes. The authors believe that the relationship between emotionally intelligent leaders and their subordinates is meaningful in a strong organizational culture.

Likewise, Prati et al. (2003: 27) examined team outcomes in relation to emotionally intelligent leaders. The authors found that leaders are able to motivate team members through cheerfulness or enthusiasm, as positive emotions of the leader can influence the emotional state of the team and make them more enthusiastic. For example, leaders who use stories, inspirational speeches or rituals can make employees feel invested in the team. Since leaders with emotional intelligence can encourage interaction between members and a supportive environment, this is perceived as emotional safety and trust between members, leading to collective motivation of the team. Thus, the authors hypothesized and found that emotionally intelligent leaders move the team toward collective motivation. They also hypothesized and found that leaders with emotional intelligence use charismatic and transformational influence to improve team performance because these leaders are aware of the social demands of each situation by recruiting, guiding, and encouraging individual and team performance.

Finally, Castro et al. (2012: 171) investigated the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence (especially empathy, understanding of others' emotions, self-control in the face of criticism, self-empowerment, emotion regulation, and understanding of one's own emotions) and followership creativity. They believe that creativity plays an important role in the success of an organization and that creativity comes from being valued and appreciated. The authors believe that emotional intelligence enhances leadership effectiveness by developing collective goals and objectives; communicating the importance of work activities; generating and sustaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, collaboration, and trust; promoting flexibility in decision making and change; and creating meaningful identification for an organization. To this end, the authors hypothesized that the relationship between

leader emotional intelligence and follower creativity is positive, and this hypothesis is fully supported.



CHAPTER TWO

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL DEMAND AND BURNOUT

The relationship between emotional demands and burnout is well documented in the literature. As highlighted earlier, there are two psychological processes (health impairment and motivational) in the development of job strain and motivation in the JD-R model. In this direction, the health impairment process is triggered by chronic job demands such as emotional demands. These demands increase the worker's level of exhaustion and lead to a depletion of energy. If the worker's exhaustion continues for too long, it can lead to a breakdown (Demerouti et al., 2001: 352). Here, then, lies the answer to the question of why emotional demands and burnout are related. As explained earlier, emotional exhaustion can predict the total or cumulative effects of job stress. Therefore, exhaustion is accepted as a core dimension of burnout; indeed, burnout is defined as chronic exhaustion (Douglas, 1977: 23; Demerouti et al., 2003: 14).

A growing number of studies have examined the relationship between emotional demands and burnout, but how? The term burnout is a persistent response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors in the workplace. It is also thought that burnout is more likely to occur when there is a large gap between the nature of the work and the nature of the person. Similarly, emotional demand is a process that involves the effort, planning, and control required to display organizationally desired emotions for the duration of an interpersonal transaction, which manifests as a discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions (Maslach and Leiter, 2016: 351; Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 9; and Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990). Zaph et al. (1999: 373) help us understand the concept by explaining in detail: The dimensions of emotional demand are positive and negative emotions, sensitivity to customers' emotions, and emotional dissonance. This means that emotional demand can come in many forms. For instance, Zapf and Holz (2007: 4) explored the notion of emotional demands has been shown to be one of the determinants of job demands because

showing and expressing appropriate emotions during interactions between employees and customers (e.g., face-to-face or voice-to-voice) causes employees to control or suppress their genuine emotions (referred to as emotional dissonance). Confronting emotional dissonance is therefore thought to have greater predictive power for burnout than stressors like job demands, as emotionally healthy workers who have developed consciously displayed emotions in interpersonal interactions have developed coping strategies for the demands of their jobs (Heuven and Bakker, 2003: 87). Rae (1998: 139) explained how emotional demands can increase exhaustion by being sensitivity to clients' emotions. Let us consider home care workers who must behave professionally and follow the demands of the organization in order to provide an appropriate service. In doing so, they must keep their emotions under control in the face of elderly clients' pain or moodiness, not showing too many positive or negative emotions, and hiding, suppressing, or faking their true feelings. In addition, the constant care of sick clients can increase the emotional demand on home care workers. Therefore, a worker who is in control of their emotions frequently and for an extended period of time is more likely to suffer from exhaustion. Thus, the first hypothesis is proposed such that there will be a positive relationship between emotional demand and burnout.

H1: Emotional demand is positively related to employees' burnout.

2.2. BURNOUT AS AN ANTECEDENT OF DEPRESSION

In the previous sections, the relationship between emotional demands and burnout was documented with the corresponding rationales. Maslach (1982: 3) stated that burnout occurs when workers' batteries are depleted by the stress of work. This stress is seen as a result of the intense social interaction between worker/helper and client/recipient and is also referred to as emotional demand. The term burnout implies that the worker's emotional resources are depleted, that he or she has no energy left to handle another day of work, and that he or she has no source or motivation left to replenish them. When workers who do 'people work' are burned out, they have begun to build an emotional distance between themselves and their customers, whose needs and demands overwhelm them. The relationship between worker and client can lead

to emotional self-protection to protect the worker from the stress of working closely with the client. This intense self-protection can lead to dehumanizing behaviors, such as ignoring the client's requests and demands or being unwilling to offer help, care, or services. These negative feelings persist until they cause the employee to become depressed themselves, which translates into lower personal performance. These situations are so emotionally demanding situations that it is impossible to give of oneself, so emotional exhaustion is inevitable. It leads workers to feel helpless and hopeless when they feel trapped by the endless demands of customers and the rules of organizations. It is claimed that some workers simply cannot cope and burn out. Bianchi et al. (2021: 580) explained that burnout is a depressive response to job stress (as cited in Ahola et al., 2014: 29; Bianchi et al., 2020; Wurm et al., 2016).

Given this information, it is safe to assume that emotional demands can lead to burnout. But how and why does burnout affect depression? Numerous studies have examined the relationship between burnout and depression. Idris and Dollard (2014: 292) state that burnout and depression share some of the same characteristics, but burnout is due to stress at work, while depression is due to all kinds of negative experiences in life. However, burnout and depression may arise due to the unmanageable chronic stress at work (Bianchi et al., 2021: 580). Therefore, Hobfoll and Shrion (2000: 329) found that prolonged job stress leads to burnout and prolonged burnout leads to depression as workers' coping resources are depleted. It can be concluded that burnout begins in the office and spreads throughout the employee's life and then it is referred to as a depressive disorder. Furthermore, Bianchi et al., (2021: 580) see burnout as a stage in the development of depressive symptoms (as cited in Maslach et al., 2016: 103). At this point, it is good to remember that depressive states are characterized by loss of interest and pleasure, feelings of anger, hostility, loss of emotional involvement, interpersonal distancing, and depressed mood, which are common features of burnout. Thus, the authors claim that workers who are at the upper end of the burnout process are depressed (as cited in Bianchi et al., 2014: 307; Schonfeld and Bianchi, 2016: 22). So, it can be stated that burnout influences depression.

How does the relationship between emotional demand and depression occur? As presented earlier in this review, job demands are defined as "those physical, social,

or organizational aspects of work that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (Demerouti et al., 2001: 501). Several studies have shown that burnout is an important outcome in the JD-R framework and that job resources generally have a buffering function in reducing burnout in response to increased job demands (Bakker et al., 2005: 171). Based on the JD-R model, when job demands are high, such as emotional demands, a worker may not be able to cope with these demands in a healthy way, leading to burnout and physical and mental health problems. Burnout is thought to be more likely when there is a great gap between the nature of the work and the nature of the person, which comes a high human cost. Similarly, emotional demand process, which includes the effort, planning, and control required to display organizationally desired emotions for the duration of an interpersonal transaction, which manifests as a discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions. Thus, a worker who is in control of his emotions frequently and over a long period of time is more likely to suffer from exhaustion (Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 9; and Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990). It can be concluded that depression is influenced by burnout and burnout is influenced by emotional demands, so emotional demands can influence depression through burnout.

Therefore, in this study, it is argued that emotional demands would predict depression indirectly through increased burnout, leading to the following hypothesis:

H2: Emotional demands will be positively and indirectly related to depression through burnout.

2.3. THE MODERATING ROLES OF LEADER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND POSITIVE HUMOR

The JD-R model also assumes that job resources such as constructive feedback and support protect workers from the detrimental effects of job demands on psychological well-being (Bakker and Demerouti, 2016: 2; Bakker et al., 2003: 345). Therefore, researchers analyzed job resources as a buffer to the detrimental effects of job demands on the path to burnout. Kahn and Byosiene (1992: 622) found that buffering variables can help reduce the impact of stressors on health. Bakker et al. (2005: 171) hypothesized and found that resources such as social support, a good

relationship with supervisor, autonomy, and performance feedback can buffer the positive relationship between job demands and burnout. These hypotheses are also consistent with Maslach et al. (2001: 407) who argued that lack of social support, lack of feedback, and lack of autonomy moderate the relationship between job stressors and burnout. Demerouti et al. (2001: 501) noted that limited work resources can lead to energy depletion, undermining of employee motivation, and disengagement. As noted earlier, although the role of various contextual job resources in buffering the detrimental effects of emotional job demands has been studied in relation to burnout and employee well-being, the potential role of leader self-resources, including leader emotional intelligence and positive humor, has, to our knowledge, received much less attention.

2.3.1. The Moderating Role of Leader's Emotional Intelligence

In this study, it is assumed that the emotional intelligence of leaders has a buffering effect on employees who suffer from the emotional demands of job. As mentioned earlier, burnout is present when social support, autonomy, the quality of the relationship with the supervisor and performance feedback are lacking and emotional demands exist. Mann (1999: 356) stated that emotional demands show up when there are rules for showing emotions and the obligations to suppress and fake emotions. The previous section established that the expected relationship between emotional demands and burnout is positive. One of the consequences of this relationship is decreased performance because employees have low self-esteem due to emotional exhaustion. Employees who experience higher burnout think negatively about their own performance and see fault or failure in themselves in most situations (Garden, 1991: 971). This situation leads to absenteeism (Dyrbye et al., 2019: 3) because those who perform poorly do not want to come to work. Another consequence is lower job satisfaction (Dolan, 1987: 5) because the emotional demands make it difficult for the worker to engage in an unprofessional standard, and a high number of patients in a short period of time while faking or suppressing his or her emotions makes the worker feel inadequate and guilty. The other consequence is (Bakker et al., 2003: 345) that motivation to achieve goals decreases, loyalty decreases and withdrawal from work

increases because employees are emotionally exhausted and have a negative attitude towards themselves and others. This also leads to a lack of empathy (Wilkinson et al., 2017: 21), which is fundamental to the quality of healthcare professionals' relationships and helps to enrich their trust, interaction, and relationships by experiencing and sharing the feelings of others.

So, how can emotionally intelligent leaders reduce the consequences of emotional demands and burnout? It is important to remind that emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to perceive, understand, regulate, and express emotions in oneself and others, and to exhibit empathy, sociability, warmth, and optimism. People with the ability to regulate emotions help to improve their own mood and that of others, and to manage emotions to motivate others (Mayer et al., 2000: 396; Mayer et al., 2001: 128; and Salovey and Mayer 1990: 185). Badea and Pana (2010: 71) examined that these emotions lead to performance when directed through enthusiasm and to low performance when employees feel fear. Employees expect a leader to have an encouraging emotional connection; they expect empathy. Under an empathetic leader, employees have a common understanding, share ideas, learn from others, make decisions together, and follow through on their actions, so they can stay focused even in the face of great uncertainty. Emotionally intelligent leaders know how employees fit into the right position in the company. Accordingly, they set goals by considering employees' needs, talents, and abilities. This is because emotionally intelligent leaders have the ability to use emotions to motivate, plan, and achieve by perceiving, understanding, regulating, and expressing emotions and needs in themselves and others. Employees feel that they have a voice in management decisions, that they have control over their work, that they can influence work through clear work standards, specific goals, helpful feedback, recognition for work behaviors, involvement in decision making, planning, coaching, and leadership skills provided by leader. As a result, employees put more energy and effort into their work and feel engaged, satisfied, or excited. Emotionally intelligent leaders are supportive leaders who help affirm employees' competence and self-worth through supportive communication and feedback. In this way, employees become committed to doing the right work and see that their efforts are meaningful, which translates into high employee performance (Mayer et al., 2000: 396; and Salovey and Mayer, 1990: 185, as cited in Potter, 1998:

4). It can be concluded that leaders with emotional intelligence give their employees what they need to protect employees from the harmful effects of emotional work demands on their well-being. Along these lines, Palmer et al. (2001: 8) found that emotionally intelligent leaders motivate and inspire both themselves and their employees to work toward common organizational goals while monitoring and managing emotions in themselves and others. Leaders who are able to control and manage emotions can pay special attention to the performance and development needs of their employees. For example, the manager senses that an employee needs more or less challenging tasks, needs feedback or more communication and support from the manager. The use of emotions of leaders has a positive effect at the work environment and satisfaction of job of employees since expressing emotions helps to maintain and develop social interactions (Kafetsios et al., 2011: 1136).

Why does the leader's emotional intelligence skill play a buffering role in the relationship between emotional demand and burnout? Since employees are faced with emotionally demanding situations, they expect to be understood in order to avoid burning out. Therefore, Barbuto and Burbach (2006: 53) stated that emotionally intelligent leaders have strong empathy skills, meaning they can understand their employees' thoughts, feelings, and their point of view. The empathy of leaders is considered to be so supportive that it helps to eliminate employee distress, increase interpersonal orientation, positive perceptions of the leader and the work, and job satisfaction. Zhou and George (2003: 556) stated that leaders who have high emotional intelligence are able to perceive and understand non-positive affect in their followers and direct it toward problem diagnosis rather than gradual withdrawal from the workplace. In addition, leaders with emotional intelligence have mood regulation skills that help them manage and better cope with both their own emotions and their employees in stressful situations. In addition, leaders who control and manage emotions pay special attention to the performance and development needs of their employees by sensing that an employee needs more or less challenging tasks, feedback, or more communication and support from the supervisor, which in turn increases employee motivation so that employees have higher self-esteem and less absenteeism (Barbuto and Burbach, 2006: 53; Palmer et al., 2001: 8). As a result, these leaders put their employees in a positive mood and help them see opportunities in the

darkness. This skill helps to increase employee motivation, so, the employees have more self-esteem than ever. In summary, through their enhanced social skills such as empathy and understanding and managing emotions in self and others, emotionally intelligent leaders would provide help to their subordinates in coping with emotional demands in their job, resulting reduced burnout. Thus, the following two hypotheses can be proposed:

H3a: Leader's emotional intelligence is negatively related to employees' burnout.

H3b: Leader's emotional intelligence reduces the positive association of emotional demands at work and employee burnout.

2.3.2. The Moderating Role of Leader's Positive Humor

The second proposition in this study is that the use of positive humor should also reduce the detrimental effects of emotional demands on employee burnout. How can humor help with this? The basic idea of humor is that it promotes appropriate coping mechanisms for stress. Therefore, it can reduce the impact of stress on health (Doosje, 2010: 9). Moreover, humor makes individuals think more openly and broadly and makes them flexible in creative problem-solving situations (Chen and Martin, 2007: 5). How can leader's humor be helpful? Davis and Kleiner (1989: 1) stated that leaders use humor to (a) reduce stress in the workplace, (b) help employees understand the leader's concerns by improving communication patterns, and (c) motivate their followers. Priest and Swain (2002: 170) also found that leader's humor is due to their recognition and their humorous expressions make the workplace more congenial and effective. This can lead to a decrease in employee absenteeism and increased job satisfaction. Vecchio et al (2009: 172) found that (as cited in Christopher and Yan, 2005) the use of humor helps to build and develop interpersonal working relationships so that organizational outcomes will increase in parallel with higher job satisfaction. Thus, leader humor has a positive impact on employee well-being and job performance as a result of a social mechanism.

Why may the leader's positive humor play a moderating role in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout? Since affiliative humor is considered as

positive humor, it can reduce the social distance between supervisors and subordinates (Gkorezis et al., 2016: 87). It will help employees to accept necessary feedback, increase the level of communication and receive support and feedback from the supervisor without being offended. It will also reduce feelings of loneliness and social anxiety (Vernon et al., 2009: 131). Let us consider loneliness from the perspective of newcomers. Positive humor from leaders can strengthen the bond with newcomers and help them feel welcomed, valued, and supported (Gkorezis et al., 2011: 88). Lee (2015: 67) found that (cited in Kuiper et al., 2004) leaders' affiliative humor can increase effectiveness between leaders and employees. This relationship helps to facilitate the exchange of ideas and information between leaders and employees, which can lead to a reduction in uncertainty. This will affect the climate throughout the organization and the atmosphere in the workplace will be harmonious. This can have a positive effect on the relationships between employees so that their performance and satisfaction can increase. Employees are not afraid to make mistakes and feel comfortable. It also makes them feel empowered and gives them a sense of cohesion. The other positive humor is self-enhancing humor, which has been shown to positively correlate with empathy and self-esteem and increase creativity in both self and co-workers (Hampes, 2010: 36; Lee, 2015: 62; Yang et al., 2021: 391). The reason for the increase in creativity is that employees tend to mimic the mood of the leader in order to get along with him or her, so that a coherent mood is created in the workplace. This leads to a comfortable thinking environment and thus more creative output from the employees. These creative thinking employees will be fully motivated to perform. The leader's humorous communication can help cultivate positive emotions in employees, and these positive emotions can help overcome emotional exhaustion by strengthening psychological resources. A leader who uses positive humor can create a pleasant work environment. Thus, work can still be stressful, but employees feel less pressured and exhausted (Cooper et al., 2018: 769; Pundt, 2015: 878; Fredrickson, 2004: 1367; and Jian and Song, 2019: 348).

Since humor decreases the social distance between superiors and subordinates, it helps employees to accept and embrace necessary feedback from the leader, increase the level of communication, and receive support, which makes them feel empowered and gives them a sense of cohesion. The improved relationship between leader and

employees can lead to facilitating the exchanging of ideas and information, which can lead to a reduction in uncertainty. This leads to higher performance and greater job satisfaction among employees. Leaders with positive humor are able to compensate for the loss of employees' resources and maintain employees' resources. Thus, humor is such an important factor of social interaction that makes employees feel that the leader trusts and supports them (Cooper, 2008: 1087; Pundt and Herrmann, 2015: 108; Pundt and Venz, 2017: 87; Robert et al., 2015: 375; Eisend, 2009: 191; and Bippus et al., 2011: 287). Since employees are not afraid to make mistakes and feel comfortable, they have more creativity in a comfortable thinking environment, which motivates employees to perform better. When employees see that the result of their creative insights enables the organization to survive in a changing and competitive environment, employees feel more engaged, have higher job satisfaction, higher loyalty, and are less likely to withdraw from work (Vernon et al., 2009: 131; Hampes, 2010: 36; Lee, 2015: 62; Yang et al., 2021: 391; Lee, 2015: 66).

In summary, a positive workgroup climate with enhanced motivation, trust, and psychological safety (Neves and Karagonlar, 2020: 2) should emerge when leaders display positive humor (affiliating and self-enhancing). In this way, employees would perceive emotional demands less as a threat and more as a challenge to be overcome. Thus, if supervisors' positive humor increases, the positive effects of emotional demands on burnout would be weaker. Based on the discussion in this section, therefore, two hypotheses can be made, one concerning the main effect of humor and the other its moderating role:

H4a: Leader's positive humor is negatively related to employees' burnout.

H4b: Leader's positive humor reduces the positive association between emotional demands and burnout.

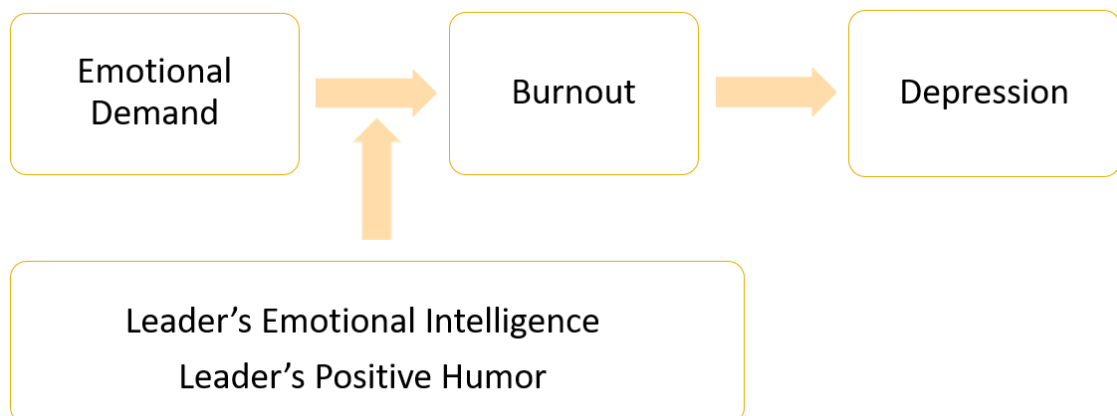
Thus far, it has been argued that leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor act as resources that help employees cope with emotional demands. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that employees cope better with emotional demands when the leader's emotional intelligence or use of positive humor at work is high. This leads to lower burnout and, consequently, less depression. That is, leader emotional intelligence and positive humor should interact with emotional demands at work to indirectly predict depression over burnout (a moderated stage 1 mediation model).

Maslach and Leiter (1997: 28) noted that burnout implies not only the presence of negative emotions but also the absence of positive emotions, which is related to the core symptoms of depression. Due to the fact that prolonged work stress cause burnout and prolonged burnout cause depression, and job burnout can also be referred to as job depression (as cited in Potter, 1998: 4; and Hobfoll and Shiron, 2000: 329), it can be stated that emotional demands influence depression through burnout. To sum up, burnout is caused by emotional demands and influences depression. Burnout acts as a mediator in this model, with emotional demands as the independent variable and depression as the dependent variable. Consistent with these considerations and examples from the literature, the following hypotheses are proposed. The model of the study is also shown in visual form in Figure 1.

H5a: The buffering effect of leader's emotional intelligence in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout will extend to depression.

H5b: The buffering effect of leader's positive humor in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout will extend to depression.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model



Source: Created by the author.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

3.1. SAMPLE AND PROCEDURE

The sample for this study was selected from two groups: white collar subordinates and their leaders (i.e., immediate supervisors). The sample included subordinates and their supervisors from different companies, so that each supervisor was from a different company. This decision was based on concerns about the feasibility and generalizability of the sample. At a single point in time, each subordinate reported their perceptions of emotional job demands and their experiences with burnout and depression. On the other hand, each supervisor self-rated their positive humor (affiliative and self-enhancing) and emotional intelligence using a questionnaire. Participants differed on demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, and gender. All participants worked in the service industry, as there is intense social interaction between workers and customers in the service sector, potentially leading to emotional demands.

Data were collected from 229 professionals and 29 leaders. To obtain demographic responses, workers were asked their gender and age. 146 of the 229 respondents are female (63.8%), 81 are male (35.4%), indicating that females comprise the majority of the sample. The minimum age of the workers is 21 years, and the highest age is 60 years with a mean of 29.78 years ($SD = 6.21$). Workers who participated in the study were also asked about the number of years they had been working in their current company. However, length of service may not be sufficient to provide an indication of the quality of relationships between employees and their leaders, as employees (especially those who have worked in the same workplace for a long time) may have dealt with multiple leaders during their tenure. Therefore, it was also important to collect data on how long workers had been working with their current leaders in their workplace. Consistent with this logic, workers who participated in the study were also asked about the number of years they had worked with their current leader. It was found that the maximum organizational tenure was 29 years with a mean of 4.27 years ($SD = 4.35$) and the maximum tenure with the current supervisor was 11

years with a mean of 3.03 years ($SD = 2.56$).

In order to obtain the demographic responses of the leaders, they were asked about their gender and age. The sample of leaders was predominantly male (21 of the 29 respondents, or 72.4%, were male). Most of the leaders in the study were in the age group of 31 to 45 years, as 44.8% of the participants belonged to this category. The other largest group in terms of age categories were the participants over 45 years old, which accounted for 44.8% of the total sample. This was followed by the age groups of 18-30 years with 10.3% of the sample.

Subordinates and their supervisors participated in two different online surveys. The subordinate survey contained items measuring emotional demands at work, burnout, and depression. The supervisor survey contained measures of supervisors' emotional intelligence, affiliative humor style, and self-enhancing humor style. Both questionnaires included demographic control questions at the end. Both subordinates and supervisors were informed that the data collected from them would be used for academic purposes and, if necessary, for management improvement, and that their responses would be kept strictly confidential. After a brief description of the content of the current study and the expected response time (approximately 20 minutes for both surveys), participants were instructed to complete the questionnaires. A coding system was used so that each subordinate's data could be matched with their respective supervisor's data to test the study's hypotheses.

The first survey was distributed digitally to leaders and their responses were collected in digital format. The leader survey consists of 3 separate parts. Leaders could proceed to the next part after answering the questions in their current section. At the beginning of the first section, it is announced that some statements are made that reflect people's attitude towards life and other people. Therefore, using the scale next to the statements, they were asked to indicate the extent to which each of these statements reflected the participants. It was emphasized that it was important to tick the option that best reflected the participants and to answer each question. Therefore, brief, and clear instructions were provided to help participants complete the questionnaires correctly. The first section of the leader questionnaire was of interest to measure the positive humor of the leaders and this section consists of 16 questions. At the beginning of the second section, it is announced that some statements were given

about the leaders themselves. They were therefore asked to indicate the extent to which each of these statements reflected the participants, using the scale next to the statements. It was reiterated that it is important to tick the option that best reflects the participants and to answer each question. The second section of leader questionnaire was of interest to measure the emotional intelligence of the leaders. This section consists of 12 questions. The last section was used to collect the demographic data of the leaders.

The employee survey was also distributed digitally to the participating employees and their responses were collected in digital format too. The employee survey consisted of 4 separate parts. Employees could proceed to the next part after answering the questions in the current section. At the beginning of the first section, it was announced that participants should use the scale next to the statements to indicate the extent to which each of these statements applied to them. It was reiterated that it was important to tick the option that best applied to the participant and to answer each question. The first section of the questionnaire for employees was of interest to measure the emotional needs of workers, and this section consists of 7 questions. The second section of the questionnaire for employees was to measure their depression. This section consists of 7 questions. At the beginning of the second section, it is pointed out that there are statements about some feelings and emotions that everyone may experience from time to time. They were asked to answer to what extent these statements reflect their feelings and emotions in the last six months using the scale provided. The third section of the employee questionnaire was of interest to measure employee burnout. This section consists of 12 questions. At the beginning of the third section, it is indicated that this part contains statements about some negative emotions and feelings that people may experience at work. It was announced that they should use the scale next to each statement to indicate the extent to which these statements reflect their current feelings and emotions about their work.

Therefore, the importance of ticking the option that best fits the worker and answering each question was emphasized. And in the last part, the demographic data of the employees were collected: Age, gender, the year they worked for their current company, and the year they worked for their current supervisor. In this way, both leader and employee surveys were conducted in a single session and all relevant data

was collected from the survey participants.

3.2. MEASURES

3.2.1. Subordinate's self-report of Emotional Demand

The translation-back translation method recommended by Brislin (1970: 324) was used to translate the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ II) measure below. Accordingly, the questionnaire was translated from English into Turkish by a bilingual speaker. A second bilingual speaker translated the Turkish version back into English. Subsequently, the back-translated version and the original version were compared and the necessary corrections to the Turkish translation were made jointly by the two bilinguals.

To analyze the emotional demands of the employees, a seven-item short version of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ II) with a 5-point scale (1: never, 5: always) by Pejtersen et al. (2010: 8) was used. These 7 items captured subordinates' perceptions of what emotions they are demanded to express and hide at work. This measure has been frequently used in prior research and has good psychometric properties (Pejtersen et al., 2010; as cited in Dick et al., 2018; and Rugulies et al., 2009). The sample items are "Does your work put you in emotionally disturbing situations?" and "Do you have to relate to other people's personal problems as part of your work?". The reliability of the measure (the Cronbach's alpha) in the current study was .77, which is, sufficiently reliable.

3.2.2. Subordinate's Self-report of Burnout

To analyze employee burnout, the Turkish version (Gencay, 2007: 765) of the 12-item short version of Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) (Schaufeli et al, 2020: 2) was used for the purpose of this study. A five-point scale (1: never, 5: always) was employed. The BAT scale is free for academic purposes and has been argued to be superior to other commonly used burnout measures, such as Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and Copenhagen Burnout Inventory, in terms of its conceptualization

and psychometric properties (Schaufeli et al., 2020: 2). Indeed, Schaufeli and colleagues (2020: 2) argue that it provides a more comprehensive conceptualization of burnout and it is consistent with the growing evidence that the MBI conceptualization is imperfect. The BAT inventory measures four dimensions (namely exhaustion, mental distance, and emotional and cognitive impairment) and can also be used through a second order factor structure and provide an overall burnout score, as done in the current thesis. Examples from the BAT measure: “At work, I feel mentally exhausted.” and “After a day at work, I find it hard to recover my energy.”. The reliability of the measure (the Cronbach’s alpha) in the current study was .91, that is, sufficiently reliable.

3.2.3. Subordinate’s Self-report of Depression

Depression was measured by the Turkish version (Yılmaz et al. 2017: 80) of the seven-item depression subscale of the Depression- Anxiety Stress Scale (DASS-21) by Antony et al. (1998: 177). A 4-point scale (1: not correct, 4: totally correct) was utilized. Some examples from the questionnaire are: "I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all." and "I felt that I had nothing to look forward to.". In the original study, the Cronbach's alpha for the depression measure was .94, suggesting high reliability. The reliability of the measure (Cronbach's alpha) in the present study was .82, which means that it is satisfactorily reliable.

3.2.4. Leader’s Self-report of Emotional Intelligence

The 12-item short form of Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (REIS) by Pekaar et al. (2017: 222) was chosen as the measurement tool for this study. The Turkish translation and validation of this scale was done by Tanrıöğen and Türker (2019: 349) and was used in the present thesis with a 5-point scale (1: totally disagree, 5: totally agree). Tanrıöğen and Türker (2019: 349) reported good reliability and construct validity of the translated version. The REIS scale measures the extent to which leaders perceive and understand both their own emotions and the emotions of others and regulate both their own emotions and the emotions of others to achieve a

goal. This scale is one of the most frequently used self-report measure of emotional intelligence with good construct validity and psychometric performance (Pekaar et al., 2017; Schlegel and Mortillaro, 2019; and Zhoc et al., 2017). The reliability of the scale (Cronbach's alpha) in the present thesis was found .90, which means that it is satisfactorily reliable. Examples from the questionnaire: "I always know how I feel." and "I can distinguish my own emotions well."

3.2.5. Leader's Self-report of Positive Humor

To measure leader's humor, this study used the Humor Styles Questionnaire (HSQ) developed by Martin and Doris (2003: 48) and translated to Turkish by Yerlikaya (2003: 71). A 5-point Likert scale (1: strongly disagree, 5: strongly agree) was used in recording the participants' responses. HSQ has four dimensions associated with individual differences in humor use. These dimensions are 'self-enhancing' to strengthen the self, 'affiliative' to strengthen one's relationships, 'aggressive' to strengthen the self at the expense of others, and 'self-defeating' to strengthen relationships at the expense of the self. This scale is the first and most frequently used self-report measure of humor styles with good construct validity and psychometric performance (Martin and Doris, 2003; Romeo and Cruthirds, 2006; Chen and Martin, 2007; Kuiper et al., 2004).

In this thesis, only two positive humor styles, namely affiliative and self-enhancing humor styles, were measured, using 8-items for each style. Sample items from the questionnaire can be stated as "I usually don't laugh or joke around much with other people." and "I don't have to work very hard at making other people laugh, I seem to be a naturally humorous person." In Martin and Doris' original work (2003) the Cronbach's alphas for affiliative humor and self-enhancing humor were reported as .80 and .81, respectively in the present thesis, the Cronbach's alphas were found .82 and .76 for the affiliative and self-enhancing humor dimensions, respectively.

3.2.6. Control Variables

Subordinate's age, gender, organizational tenure, and tenure with their supervisor were demographic controls due to their potential confounding effects (Bianci et al., 2021: 586; Purvanova and Muros, 2010: 173; and Brewer and Shapard, 2004: 115). Becker (2005: 1) suggests that control variables should be included in statistical analyses only when they have significant correlations with at least one of the outcomes. Following this recommendation, only subordinate's gender was controlled for in statistical analyses due to its significant correlations with burnout and depression. The results did not change regardless of whether gender was included in the statistical models or not. The results in the next section are presented with gender in the models.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Variable means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities, and zero-order correlations among variables are presented in Table 1. As expected, emotional demands were positively correlated with burnout, $r(229) = .17, p = .01$. However, the correlation between emotional demands and depression was not significant, $r(229) = .10, p = .12$, consistent with the notion that burnout is a more proximal outcome of emotional demands than depression. Furthermore, correlations among the conceptually related variables (i.e., burnout and depression; affiliative humor and self-enhancing humor) did not exceed .60, supporting the discriminant validity of these constructs.

Table 1: Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Employee Age	29.78	6.2	-									
2. Employee Gender	1.37	.50	.13*	-								
3. Employee Organizational Tenure	4.27	4.46	.87**	.15*	-							
4. Employee Tenure with Supervisor	3.03	2.56	.69**	.01	.70**	-						
5. Employee's Emotional Demand	3.75	.64	-.19**	-.10	-.24**	-.08	(.77)					
6. Employee's Depression	1.47	.50	-.03	-.16*	.00	.05	.10+	(.82)				
7. Employee's Burnout	2.10	.70	-.13	-.12	-.12	-.09	.17*	.59**	(.91)			
8. Leader's Emotional Intelligence	3.72	.62	.09	.02	.02	-.13*	.00	-.29**	-.38**	(.90)		
9. Leader's Affiliative Humor	3.87	.70	-.08	-.05	-.09	.15*	.07	-.18**	-.18**	.15*	(.82)	
10. Leader's Self-enhancing Humor	3.13	.68	-.16*	-.09	-.10	-.01	-.10	-.08	-.11	-.14+	.55**	(.76)

Notes: Employee gender was coded as follows: Woman = 1, Man = 2, and Other = 3. *: $p < .05$, **: $p < .01$. "+" denotes $p < .1$.

Source: Made by the author.

4.1. DATA ANALYTIC STRATEGY

A path model with the proposed cross-level moderated mediation effects was created in MPlus 8.4 (Asparouhov and Muthen, 2019: 119). Consistent with recommendations for testing cross-level interactions (Aguinis et al., 2013: 1490), the level 1 predictor, emotional demands, was group-mean centered; whereas the level 2 predictors were grand-mean centered. Accordingly, burnout, the proposed mediator, was regressed on emotional demands and gender of the subordinate (at level 1) and the three supervisor-level predictors, namely self-reported emotional intelligence, affiliative humor, and self-enhancing humor at level 2.

In addition, the slope of the main effect of employees' emotional job demands on burnout was simultaneously regressed on supervisor's emotional intelligence, affiliative humor, and self-enhancing humor to assess the cross-level interactions involving (1) employee's emotional demands x supervisor emotional intelligence, (2) employee's emotional demands x supervisor affiliative humor, and (3) employee's emotional demands x supervisor's self-enhancing humor. In the second part of the model, which examined the relationship between the mediator (burnout) and the outcome variable (depression) while controlling for the main effects of the predictors, employee's depression was regressed on subordinate's emotional demands, burnout, and gender (at level 1) and the three supervisor-level predictors (i.e., supervisor self-reported emotional intelligence, affiliative humor, and self-enhancing humor) were regressed at level 2. Furthermore, it was reasonable to assume that emotional job demands and burnout may differ across supervisors, i.e., each team may carry different levels of emotional demands and consequently burnout.

Therefore, the between-group effects for emotional demands and burnout were also controlled for at the level 2 intercept. The Monte Carlo method for calculating indirect effects (Selig and Preacher, 2008: 1) was used to test the mediation and moderated mediation hypotheses. Preacher and Selig (2012: 77) show that the Monte Carlo method has comparable performance to bootstrapping, which is not applicable to multilevel data. In addition, the Monte Carlo method yields lower Type 1 and Type 2 errors compared to its competitors, such as the Baron and Kenny's (1986: 1173) causal chain method, the delta method and the product of indirect effects, suggesting a more reliable test of mediated effects.

Table 2: Model Results

	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>S.E</i>	<i>Est./ S.E</i>	<i>Two-Tailed P-Value</i>
Within Level				
(Level 1: Employee)				
Depression On				
Emotional Demand	.03	.08	.36	.72
Burnout	.40	.10	4.04	.00
Employee Gender	-.10	.06	-1.58	.11
Burnout On				
Employee Gender	-.08	.04	-1.78	.08
Residual Variances				
Depression	.16	.03	6.32	.00
Burnout	.23	.05	4.74	.00
Between Level				
(Level 2: Supervisors)				
Depression On				
Emotional Demand L2	-.03	.06	-.51	.61
Burnout L2	.42	.09	4.57	.00
Burnout On				
Emotional Demand L2	.02	.18	.12	.90
Supervisor's Emotional Intelligence	-.54	.15	-3.65	.00
Affiliative Humor	-.02	.10	-.17	.86
Self-Enhancing Humor	-.27	.15	-1.81	.07
S1 On				
Supervisor's Emotional Intelligence	-.22	.10	-2.11	.03
Affiliative Humor	.07	.08	.83	.41
Self-enhancing Humor	.33	.12	2.65	.00
Intercepts				
Depression	.73	.22	3.25	.00
Burnout	2.29	.09	24.49	.00
S1	.33	.08	4.24	.00
Residual Variances				
Depression	.01	.01	.61	.54
Burnout	.16	.07	2.43	.02
S1	.00	.00	999.00	999.00

Source: Made by the author.

Notes: S1 refers to the slope of the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout. SE refers to standard error. Intercept for S1 indicates the main effect of emotional demands on burnout. Emotional Demand L2 and Burnout L2 capture the contextual effects of these variables on group-level outcomes.

4.2. HYPOTHESIS TESTS

4.2.1. Test of Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicts a positive relationship between subordinates' emotional job demands and their reports of burnout. As seen in Table 2, the main effect of emotional demands on burnout, labeled S1 in the table, was positive and significant, $\gamma = .329$, $SE = .078$, $p < .01$. This result supports Hypothesis 1. It should also be noted that the group effect of emotional demands on burnout was not significant, $\gamma = .022$, $SE = .182$, ns. Considering that emotional demand was group-mean centered at the individual level, this suggests that employees' personal experiences of emotional demands contribute to their burnout to the extent that they experience higher emotional demands compared to their work group average.

4.2.2. Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that the positive association between emotional demands and burnout would extend to employee depression. In addition to the significant effect of emotional demands on burnout described above, burnout was positively and significantly related to level 1 depression, $\gamma = .403$, $SE = .10$, $p < .01$ (Table 2). Monte Carlo analysis of mediated effects with 20,000 replications revealed a significant mediation effect, as indicated by the 95% confidence interval (CI) for the indirect effect that did not include zero, 95% CI = .05 and .23. Further, consistent with mediation, the direct effect of emotional demands on burnout controlling for burnout was not significant ($\gamma = .03$, ns). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported. It should also be noted that the group-level effect of burnout on depression was also significant and

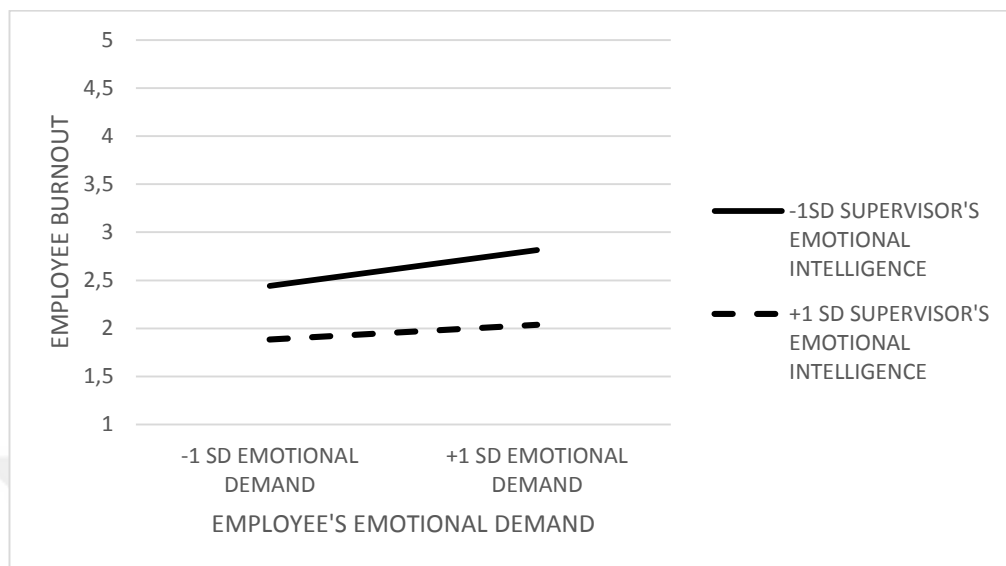
similar in magnitude ($\gamma = .42$, $SE = .09$, $p < .01$), suggesting that the variance in average burnout across groups would also explain the variation in depression across work groups.

4.2.3. Test of Hypotheses 3a and 3b

Hypothesis 3a argued that supervisor's emotional intelligence would be negatively related to employee burnout, while Hypothesis 3b predicted that the positive relationship between emotional demands and burnout will be moderated by supervisor's emotional intelligence. Table 2 shows that, as predicted by Hypothesis 3a, the relationship between supervisor's emotional intelligence and employee burnout was significant and negative, $\gamma = -.539$, $SE = .148$, $p < .01$. As shown in Table 2, the slope S1 (of the path from emotional demands to burnout) regressed on supervisor's emotional intelligence was significant, $\gamma = -.221$, $SE = .104$, $p < .05$, corresponding to a cross-level interaction effect. To examine the nature of this interaction effect, the relationship between emotional demands and burnout was examined separately at 1 standard deviation (SD) above and 1 SD below the mean of the supervisor's emotional intelligence.

When supervisor's emotional intelligence was low (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), emotional job demands appeared to increase burnout ($b = .47$, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$). However, when supervisor's emotional intelligence was high (1 SD above the mean), this positive effect was reduced ($b = .19$, $SE = .08$, $p < .05$). This finding is consistent with a buffering role of supervisor's emotional intelligence and thus supports Hypothesis 3b. The simple slope graph for this cross-level interaction effect is shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: The Relationship Between Emotional Demand and Burnout at Low and High Levels of Supervisor's Emotional Intelligence



Source: Made by the author.

4.2.4. Test of Hypotheses 4a and 4b

Hypothesis 4a predicted that leader's positive humor, especially affiliative and self-enhancing humor, would be negatively associated with employee burnout. However, the main effect of supervisor's affiliative humor on burnout was not significant ($\gamma = -.018$, $SE = .103$, ns). Similarly, supervisor's self-enhancing humor only slightly predicted burnout ($\gamma = -.266$, $SE = .147$, $p = .07$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that the positive association between emotional demands and burnout would be attenuated by affiliative and self-enhancing humor. Table 2 shows that the cross-level emotional demand and supervisor's affiliative humor interaction effect was not significant, $\gamma = .066$, $SE = .08$, ns. On the other hand, the cross-level emotional demand and supervisor's self-enhancing humor interaction effect was significant, $\gamma = .326$, $SE = .123$, $p < .01$. Simple slope analysis, performed as in the test of Hypothesis 3b, revealed a pattern opposite to that predicted by Hypothesis 4b: when supervisor's self-enhancing humor was high (+1 SD), emotional demands positively predicted burnout ($b = .55$, $SE = .06$, $p < .01$). In contrast, when self-

enhancing humor was low (-1 SD), the relationship between emotional demands and burnout was not significant ($b = .107$, $SE = .15$, ns). Therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. The graphical representation of this interaction can be seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3: The Relationship Between Emotional Demand and Burnout at Low and High Levels of Supervisor's Self-Enhancing Humor



Source: Made by the author.

4.2.5. Test of Hypotheses 5a and 5b

Hypothesis 5 states that the supervisor's emotional intelligence (Hypothesis 5a) and the supervisor's positive humor (Hypothesis 5b) would attenuate the indirect relationship between emotional demands and depression through burnout. Because the cross-level emotional demand x supervisor's affiliative humor on burnout was not significant, its indirect effect on depression was not tested. As with the test of Hypothesis 2, Monte Carlo analysis of mediated effects with 20,000 replications was used. This time, the independent variable was the respective interaction effects (emotional demand x supervisor emotional intelligence and emotional demand x supervisor's self-enhancing humor). The interaction effect of emotional demand x

supervisor's emotional intelligence on depression from burnout (i.e., the moderated mediation index) was significant, as indicated by the 95% confidence interval (CI) that did not include zero (95% CI ranged from $-.19$ to $-.006$, with a mean effect of $-.09$). In addition, consistent with Hypothesis 5a, the indirect effect of emotional demands on depression on burnout was significant when supervisor's emotional intelligence was low (i.e., -1 SD) (95% CI ranged from $.07$ to $.34$ with a mean effect of $.19$). When the supervisor's emotional intelligence was high (i.e., $+1$ SD), the indirect effect was smaller in magnitude ($.08$) but significant, as indicated by the 95% CI that did not include zero (lower limit: $.01$ and upper limit: $.16$). This result suggests the buffering role of supervisor's emotional intelligence and thus supports Hypothesis 5a.

As noted above, contrary to the prediction of Hypothesis 4b, the supervisor's self-enhancing humor strengthened the relationship between emotional demands and burnout. Next, it is examined whether this unexpected cross-level interaction would also affect depression. As with the testing of Hypothesis 5a, a Monte Carlo analysis with 20,000 replications was performed. The 95% CI showed a significant moderated mediation effect (the effect ranged from $.03$ to $.26$ with a mean of $.13$).

In addition, the indirect effect of emotional demands on depression over burnout was not significant when the supervisor's self-enhancing humor was low (95% CI ranged from $-.07$ to $.18$), whereas the indirect effect was significant when the supervisor had high self-enhancing humor (95% CI ranged from $.11$ to $.34$ with a mean effect size of $.22$). This finding provides evidence that is opposite to the prediction of Hypothesis 5b.

Finally, the same path model was run with the addition of (1) group mean emotional demand \times supervisor's emotional intelligence, (2) group mean emotional demand \times supervisor's affiliative humor, and (3) group mean emotional demand \times supervisor self-enhancing humor as interaction terms on the level 2 intercept. Because level 1 emotional demand at Level 1 was group-mean centered, the addition of these terms represented an unconfounded model.

With the exception of the interaction between group-mean emotional demand and supervisor's self-enhancing humor, no other effect was significant. The interaction between group-mean emotional demand and supervisor's self-enhancing humor revealed a similar pattern to the cross-level interaction reported previously. Most

importantly, all effects, including the cross-level interactions and moderated mediation effects reported above, remained significant.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

The first aim of this study was to examine the association of emotional demands with burnout and consequently depression. In other words, the first aim was to understand how emotional demands at work predict diminished psychological well-being among workers, operationalized by job burnout and depression. The second aim was to understand the factors that buffer the detrimental impact of emotional demands at work on burnout and depression. In this direction, it was proposed that the leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor will help reduce the harmful effects of emotional demands on burnout and the consequent depression.

Therefore, the research question was, "How does the leader protect employees from the detrimental effects of burnout? The role of leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor." Analysis of the data provides a number of findings related to the construct examined in this study, which shows a correlation between emotional demands, burnout, and depression with moderated effects by leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor.

Accordingly, first, it was expected that the relationship between emotional demands and burnout would be positive. The results paralleled this prediction and therefore supported Hypothesis 1. The next hypothesis suggested a positive and indirect relationship between emotional demands and depression, as it was believed that emotional demands would indirectly predict depression through increased burnout, and this result provided support for the relationship stated in Hypothesis 2. In the context of the moderating role of the leader, Hypothesis 3a, which predicted a negative relationship between leader emotional intelligence and employee burnout, and Hypothesis 3b, which expected that leader emotional intelligence would reduce the positive relationship between emotional demands at work and employee burnout, were supported by the study's empirical data. In the context of another moderating role of the leader, Hypothesis 4a expected that the relationship between the leader's positive humor and employee burnout would be negative, and Hypothesis 4b hypothesized that the leader's positive humor would decrease the positive relationship between

emotional demands and burnout, because employees would perceive the emotional demands less as a threat and more as a challenge to be overcome if the leader exhibited positive humor.

However, the interaction effects differed from the original predictions, implying that the leader's positive humor is not perceived as a coping mechanism for emotional demands. Consequently, because the effect expected in hypotheses 4a and 4b was not significant, it was not supported by the empirical data. Finally, hypothesis 5a expected that the leader's emotional intelligence would have a buffering effect in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout to depression, and the results paralleled this prediction, so hypothesis 5a was supported. However, hypothesis 5b, that the leader's positive humor in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout will also have a buffering effect on depression, was not supported because the empirical data suggest an opposite direction for this construct.

The first of these constructs that should be stated when discussing the results of the study is a possible effect that can be observed in these work environments since this study also aims to contribute to a greater understanding of antecedents and consequences of burnout. In this direction, the concept of burnout was evaluated as a major problem for organizations due to its impact on the bottom line (Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 65). Within the JD-R model, burnout is thought to be caused by emotional demands and to influence depression, which is why burnout is proposed as a mediator in the conceptual model of this study. Thus, the results of this study relate to what is already known in the field and what one would expect to find between the independent variable and the dependent variable with mediators. This means that this result is consistent with previous studies such as Anitha and James (2016: 25), who found that employees in the service sector generally have emotionally demanding interactions with customers. Therefore, they found that the relationship between emotional demand and job demands and emotional exhaustion (i.e., burnout) is positive; moreover, emotional demand has a greater impact on burnout than job demands.

In addition, the study of Azharudeen and Arulrajah (2018: 13) found that the relationship between emotional demand and emotional exhaustion is significantly positive. This means that emotional demand promotes employee burnout as it is

influenced by employees' work hours, work shifts, and workload.

Consistent with this logic, the data support the theory that emotional demands are a significant antecedent to burnout (Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 9; and Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990) and that an increase in job burnout over time predicts an increase in depression (Hobfoll and Shiron, 2000: 329; Bianci et al., 2021: 580; and Maslach and Leiter, 1997: 28). Thus, this work extends the literature on the emotional demands that lead to burnout (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 990 and Blanc et al., 2007: 255), with burnout influencing worker depression (Iacovides et al., 2003: 218 and Schonfeld and Bianchi, 2016: 33). The literature also supports the finding of this study by Castanheira and Chambel (2013: 412), who found that burnout and emotional demands are related.

Moreover, Ahola et al. (2005: 55) studied that burnout and depressive disorders were clearly related. The risk of depressive disorder was greater when burnout was critical. Thus, the idea that emotional demands trigger job burnout and that burnout exacerbates depression is supported by the literature. Thus, the first contribution of this thesis is to improve our understanding of the relationship between emotional demands as a significant antecedent to burnout and depression as a consequence of burnout in the context of JD-R model. The results of hypotheses 1 and 2 are positively related to previous studies, as the results show that as emotional demands increase, burnout increases, and as burnout increases, depression increases. Similarly, Rogers et al. (2014: 232) found that work-related burnout mediates the relationship between emotional demand and depressive symptoms. Thus, the results of this thesis extend the indirect relationship between emotional demands and depression.

Due to job resources have a buffering effect of job demands on the way to burnout (i.e., job depression) or ensure that employees do not respond to these job demands with burnout, this approach would be effective in terms of the significance of the study since managers play a mediating role through interactions with employees. Demerouti and Bakker (2007: 316) argue that high levels of job resources, such as a good relationship between workers and their supervisors, can act as a buffer against high job demands. That is, if the quality of the relationship between supervisors and workers is high, the harmful effect of job demands on well-being and performance will decrease. Thus, this study proposes a solution for managers to protect their employees

from the detrimental effects of job depression with a new job resource, namely leader's emotional intelligence. The reason this trait can be considered a job resource is that it meets the three criteria of job resources (first, they are functional for achieving job goals, second, they reduce job demands at the associated physical and physiological costs, and third, they promote personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001: 501)). In addition, a leader with high emotional intelligence can ensure that employees perceive emotional demands as constructive and challenging. In this way, the leader can make employees more tolerant to these job demands.

Due to the leaders with emotional intelligence have the ability to regulate and improve both their own and others' emotions and moods, they can manage emotions to motivate employees. Motivated employees are characterized by low absenteeism, high performance levels, continuous employee development, and improved customer service (i.e., the opposite of the results of burnout). These implications corroborate with the previous findings on the field. For example, Zhou and George (2003: 546) have studied that leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to both understand how their employees feel and why, and take the necessary steps to give them the courage, optimism, and enthusiasm to deal flexibly with creativity.

In this way, the company does not have to deal with a high turnover rate and saves money by not having to hire and train new employees. This insight is especially important for companies that provide services through direct human interaction. Even when the work is emotionally demanding (e.g., in healthcare or call centers), effectiveness, quality of social interactions, employee creativity, trust, collaboration, and voice in decision making can be observed at all levels of the organization with the support of an emotionally intelligent leader. This finding is also supported by Badea and Pana (2010: 70), who found that a leader with high emotional intelligence increases satisfaction and performance of the entire group. In addition, Barbuto and Burbach (2006: 51) studied that emotionally intelligent leaders have the ability to regulate mood to influence and promote employees' thoughts and motivation for their tasks when employees are self-directed. These leaders promote personal growth and development by influencing employees' intrinsic motivation. The results of this work are also consistent with the study by Zammuner et al. (2013: 145), who found that emotionally intelligent leaders promote employee engagement. Moreover, Huang et

al. (2010: 1124) found that some dimensions of emotional intelligence can reduce service workers' experience of burnout. Thus, based on the findings of the present thesis and previous research, it is reasonable to argue that the favorable work environment an emotionally intelligent leader creates would reduce the harmful effects of emotional demands on employees' psychological wellbeing.

So far, it has been discussed how the results of this work positively related the results of previous studies and what the results of this thesis contribute to the field of research. However, this thesis has unexpected results, like the results of hypotheses 4a and 4b. Leader's positive humor was selected as a possible job resource (because it also met the criteria for job resources) and its scientific support related to previous work. Because humor is essential as a coping mechanism for people's daily lives, reduces interpersonal conflict, and improves communication, it can be an effective management tool for leaders. Leaders are believed to use humor for team building by increasing solidarity between leaders and their team members, softening the sting of a necessary criticism or negative comment from the leader, and achieving workplace goals (Stieger et al., 2011: 748, and Holmes and Marra, 2006: 125), which emotionally intelligent leaders do.

Therefore, it was not expected that the results of hypotheses 4a and 4b would not be supported. In contrast, numerous studies have found that a leader's use of humor has a positive impact on reducing burnout. Consistent with this idea, leader's humor has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, job performance, supervisor satisfaction, and group cohesion (Decker, 1987: 225; Gkorezis et al. 2011: 83; Avolio et al. 1999: 219; Decker and Rotondo, 2001: 450; Cann et al. 2009: 452), which are the opposite of burnout. On the other hand, Yang et al. (2015: 2) found that leader humor may not be as functional in a high-power distance culture as in a low power distance culture. They claimed that employees from high power distance cultures are less likely to appreciate humor. Since the data in this paper were collected from Turkish people (a high-power distance culture), cultural dimensions may be responsible for these unexpected results.

Nevertheless, it would be helpful to replicate this unexpected finding in larger samples, accounting for the effects of potential confounders, including power distance and personality.

5.2. LIMITATIONS

This study has some limitations due to practical aspects of data collection. The first limitation was fieldwork, that is, the limitation that actually occurs in any fieldwork. Since the results are correlational, it is difficult to interpret them in the context of cause and effect. The reason we chose fieldwork was for external validity, that is, we wanted to make sure that the study was truly applicable and generalizable to business. In short, external validity was more important in this context, and also, it was very difficult to experiment in such a context. Nevertheless, future studies should involve longitudinal designs to strengthen the internal validity of the present findings.

The second limitation was that simple mediation effects and our hypotheses testing simple mediation relationships were based on data from a single source (employees). Therefore, these results may have been influenced from common method variance. However, measuring emotional demands, burnout and depression from the employee was necessary because these constructs reflect a person's personal experiences and thus, are hard to obtain without self-report measures. Hence, collecting data on these variables from employees was the logical option. Another aspect that makes the study strong is that we also measured some variables of the leader. For this reason, we also tested the entire model as a cross-level moderated mediation. The findings had significant results. Therefore, it is unlikely that these results are affected significantly by the common method variance mentioned above.

Since data in this study were collected at a specific point in time to draw conclusions about the population, the data have experienced some bias. Although care was taken in the choice of measurement methods to minimize such effects, the advantages and disadvantages of different research designs should be carefully weighed to totally eliminate them.

Last limitation is these data were collected almost at the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic. The fact that most of the present findings are consistent with the thesis' theory-driven hypotheses makes it less likely that the pandemic context biased these results. Nevertheless, it would be helpful to replicate these findings after the pandemic is completely over. Potential research designs that might be useful for future studies are reviewed in the next section.

5.3. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

By examining the relationships that exist among the selected constructs, this study highlights new conceptual possibilities and paths for future research.

First recommendation for future studies is concerning about the addition of control variables such as the individual's personality and mood. Since personalities are an important factor in perceiving the dynamics and circumstances of work as optimistic or pessimistic, this could potentially extend the present research.

Secondly, in this study, hypothesis 5b, that the leader's positive humor in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout also has a buffering effect on depression, was not supported. Instead, a null effect for affiliative humor and an opposite effect for self-enhancing humor were found. This was an unexpected finding because, like emotional intelligence (presented in hypothesis 5a), positive humor could also be considered a job resource since it also met the three criteria of job resources. In the literature, Vernon et al. (2009: 131) stated that positive humor could be an extension of emotional intelligence, as positive humor types showed a positive relationship with five emotional intelligence variables.

This leads to a new line of thought: the dimensions of culture. Future research can study especially power distance dimensions because Yang et al. (2015: 2) studied the relationship between humor and leadership in different cultural contexts, and they found that in a high- power distance culture, the leader is expected to be a serious role model in managing daily work, and humor is not expected of the leader. Thus, in a high-power distance culture, the leader's humor may not be as functional as in a low power distance culture. Therefore, future studies may examine whether power distance can account for this unexpected finding. That is, the hypothesized interaction may hold only in low power distance cultures but, not in high power distance cultures.

It would paint a more precise picture of a leader who has humor, because Yang et al. (2017: 1454) humor may differ from the behaviors usually expected of a leader in the formal work environments of Eastern countries. Thus, the practical implications of this finding could be relevant for leaders (especially international leaders) in raising awareness of the target country and adapting to a new environment by emphasizing the importance of the context (as cited in Kang and Shen, 2018: 164). Therefore, the

result of these findings should not be underestimated, especially in the age of globalization and increasing interconnectedness of societies. Therefore, the next studies should examine the role of humor in greater detail.

The current thesis examined the buffering role of emotional intelligence and positive humor only for the effect of emotional demands on psychological well-being. It would be practically and theoretically important to examine whether these moderating effects could be generalizable to the relationships of various other job demands with employee well-being. If the buffer effect of leader's emotional intelligence is generalizable to other work demands, then having emotionally intelligent leaders would be crucial for organizations.



CONCLUSION

This study has investigated the burnout problem among professionals and helps to solve this problem between emotional demand depression with moderated effects of leader's emotional intelligence and positive humor.

The first expectation was that the relationship between emotional demands and burnout would be positive, the second that there would be a positive and indirect relationship between emotional demands and depression, the third that there would be a negative relationship between the leader's emotional intelligence and employee burnout, the fourth, that the leader's positive humor would reduce the positive relationship between emotional demands and burnout, and the last expectation was that the leader's emotional intelligence would have a buffering effect in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout to depression and the leader's positive humor would also have a buffering effect on depression in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout. After reviewing the existing literature and empirical findings on constructs, previous studies and theories in this area were summarized and hypothesized.

Data were collected via online surveys from two groups, workers, and their supervisors, covering a wide range of occupational categories in the service sector, and analyzed using various statistical analysis methods. It was found that although the data supported the hypotheses regarding the mediating effect of burnout between emotional demands and depression, the moderating effect of the leader's emotional intelligence in this relationship was in the positive direction as expected, whereas the moderating effect of the leader's positive humor in this relationship was observed in the opposite direction than expected.

Limitations of this study were presented with its justifications. A possible explanation for this study's contribution to the literature is presented as managers' emotional intelligence may be a new job resources. So, this paper argued that if the buffering effect of leaders' emotional intelligence is generalizable to other work demands, emotionally intelligent leaders are of critical importance to organizations since it may reduce the turnover rate in the company and saves money by not having to hire and train new employees. This paper discussed the possibilities of why this

study came to the opposite conclusion regarding the positive humor of leaders. Thus, it is noted that these results point the way to a new line of thought: the dimensions of culture, as the literature supports the idea that in a high-power distance culture, humor of leader's may not be as effective as in a low-power distance culture. Therefore, possible directions for future research were discussed.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: The Questionnaire Used in the Research for Subordinates

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İşletme Yönetimi Bilim Dalı'nda gerçekleştirilmekte olan akademik bir araştırmaya veri sağlamak üzere hazırlanmıştır. Ankette yer almış olan ifadelerle, çalışanların işleri ile ilgili hislerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Ankette kimliğinizi ortaya koyacak hiçbir bilgi istenmemiştir. Cevaplarınıza ilişkin bilgiler tarafımızdan kesinlikle gizli tutulacak olup çalıştığınız kurum yetkilileri ya da diğer üçüncü kişilerle asla paylaşılmayacaktır. Elde edecek olduğumuz veriler sadece ve sadece bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Anket, üç bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde işiniz ile ilgili bazı sorular yer almaktadır, ikinci ve üçüncü bölümde ise yaşanabilecek olumsuz duygu durumlarınızla ilgili sorular yer almaktadır.

Değerli zamanınızı ayırarak verdiğiniz cevaplar ve araştırmaya katkınızdan dolayı şimdiden çok teşekkür ederiz.

Bölüm 1: Duygusal Talep Ölçeği (Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire)

Bu bölümde işiniz ile ilgili duygu durumlarınız hakkında sorular yer almaktadır. Burada cevaplamanız gereken soru sayısı 7'dir. Sizi en doğru yansıtan seçeneği işaretlemeniz ve her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

	Her Zaman	Sıklıkla	Bazen	Nadiren	Asla
1.İşiniz sizi duygusal bakımdan rahatsız edici durumlara sokuyor mu?					
2.İşiniz gereği, diğer insanların kişisel problemleriyle ilgilenmek durumunda kalıyor musunuz?					
3.İşiniz duygusal açıdan zorlayıcı bir iş mi?					
4.İşinizde sizi duygusal yönden etkileyen durumlarla karşı karşıya kalır mısınız?					
5.Öyle hissetmeseniz bile, herkese eşit bir şekilde davranmanız gerekli mi?					

6.İşiniz, duygularınızı saklamayı gerektirir mi?					
7.Karşı tarafın size nasıl davrandığı fark etmeksizin, herkese karşı kibar ve iletişime hazır olmanız gerekli mi?					

Bölüm 2: Depresyon Ölçeği (DASS-21)

Bu bölümde olumsuz duygu durumlarınız hakkında sorular yer almaktadır. Burada cevaplamanız gereken soru sayısı 7’dir. Soruları, son altı aydaki duygu durumlarınızı düşünerek, sizi en doğru yansıtan seçeneği işaretlemeniz gerekmektedir. Her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

	Bana Uygun Değil	Bana Biraz Uygun	Bana Genellikle Uygun	Bana Tamamen Uygun
1.Hiç olumlu duygu yaşamadığımı fark ettim.				
2.Hiçbir beklentimin olmadığı hissine kapıldım.				
3.Birey olarak değersiz olduğumu hissettim.				
4.Hayatın değersiz olduğunu hissettim.				
5.Kendimi perişan ve hüzünlü hissettim.				
6.Hiçbir şey bende heyecan uyandırmıyordu.				
7.Bir iş yapmak için gerekli olan ilk adımı atmada zorlandım.				

Bölüm 3: Tükenmişlik Ölçeği (Burnout Assessment Tool)

Bu bölümde olumsuz duygu durumlarınız hakkında sorular yer almaktadır. Burada cevaplamanız gereken soru sayısı 12’dir. Sizi en doğru yansıtan seçeneği işaretlemeniz ve her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1.İşteyken bitkinlik yaşıyorum.					
2.İşte bir gün geçirdikten sonra enerjimi toparlamakta zorlanıyorum.					
3.İşteyken kendimi bedenen bitkin hissediyorum.					
4.İşime karşı şevk duymakta çok zorlanıyorum.					
5.İşime karşı güçlü bir isteksizlik hissediyorum.					
6.Yaptığım iş diğerleri için çok da önemli değil gibi hissediyorum.					
7.İşime odaklanarak çalışmıyorum.					
8.Çalışırken konsantre olmakta zorlanıyorum.					
9.Aklım başka yerde olduğundan işimde hatalar yapıyorum.					
10.İşteyken duygularımı kontrol edemiyorum.					
11.İş yerinde verdiğim duygusal tepkilere baktığımda kendimi tanıyamıyorum.					
12.İş yerinde istemeyerek aşırı tepkiler verebiliyorum.					

Bölüm 4

Bu bölümde kimliğinizi ele vermeyecek iki adet demografik bilgi ve de iş deneyiminizle ilgili sorular yer almaktadır. Her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

1. Yaş
2. Cinsiyet	<input type="radio"/> Kadın <input type="radio"/> Erkek <input type="radio"/> Diğer
3. Kaç senedir bu iş yerinde çalışıyorsunuz?
4. Kaç senedir şu anki liderinizle çalışıyorsunuz?

Appendix 2: The Questionnaire Used in the Research for Supervisors

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi İşletme Yönetimi Bilim Dalı'nda gerçekleştirilmekte olan akademik bir araştırmaya veri sağlamak üzere hazırlanmıştır. Ankette yer almış olan ifadelerle, çalışanların işleri ile ilgili hislerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

Ankette kimliğinizi ortaya koyacak hiçbir bilgi istenmemiştir. Cevaplarınıza ilişkin bilgiler tarafımızdan kesinlikle gizli tutulacak olup çalıştığınız kurum yetkilileri ya da diğer üçüncü kişilerle asla paylaşılmayacaktır. Elde edecek olduğumuz veriler sadece ve sadece bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Anket, iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Her iki bölümde de olumlu duygu durumlarınızla ilgili sorular yer almaktadır.

Değerli zamanınızı ayırarak verdiğiniz cevaplar ve araştırmaya katkınızdan dolayı şimdiden çok teşekkür ederiz.

Bölüm 1: Mizah Ölçeği (Humor Styles Questionnaire)

Bu bölümde mizaha bakış açınızla ilgili sorular yer almaktadır. Burada cevaplamanız gereken soru sayısı 16'dır. Sizi en doğru yansıtan seçeneği işaretlemeniz ve her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katlıyorum	Kesinlikle Katlıyorum
1.Genellikle çok fazla gülmem ya da başkalarıyla şakalaşmam.					
2.İnsanları güldürmek için çok fazla uğraşmam gerekmez, doğuştan esprili bir insan gibiyimdir.					
3.Başımdan geçen komik şeyleri anlatarak insanları pek güldürmem.					
4.Yakın arkadaşlarımla çok sık şakalaşır ve gülerim.					

5.Genellikle fıkra anlatmaktan ve insanları eğlendirmekten hoşlanmam.					
6.İnsanları güldürmekten hoşlanırım.					
7.Arkadaşlarımla çok sık şakalaşmam					
8.Başkalarıyla birlikteyken genellikle aklıma söyleyecek esprili şeyler gelmez.					
9.Moralim bozuk olduğunda genellikle kendimi mizahla neşelendirebilirim					
10.Tek başıma bile olsam çoğunlukla yaşamın gariplikleriyle eğlenirim.					
11.Üzgün ya da umutsuzsam, kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için genellikle o durumla ilgili gülünç bir şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.					
12.Yaşama karşı takındığım mizahi bakış acısı, benim olaylar karşısında aşırı derecede üzülmemi ya da kederlenmemi önler.					
13.Tek başımayısam ve mutsuzsam, kendimi neşelendirecek gülünç şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.					
14.Kederli ya da üzgünsem genellikle mizahi bakış açımı kaybederim.					
15.Tecrübelerime göre bir durumun eğlendirici yanlarını düşünmek, sorunlarla başa çıkmada çoğunlukla etkili bir yoldur.					
16.Neşelenmek için başkalarıyla birlikte olmam gerekmez, genellikle tek başımayken bile gülecek şeyler bulabilirim.					

Bölüm 2: Duygusal Zeka Ölçeği (Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale)

Bu bölümde sizin duygularınız ve başkalarının duyguları ile ilgili bazı değerlendirmeleriniz hakkında sorular yer almaktadır. Burada cevaplamanız gereken soru sayısı 12'dir. Sizi en doğru yansıtan seçeneği işaretlemeniz ve her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Karasızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Her zaman nasıl hissettiğimi bilirim.					
2. Kendi duygularımın çok iyi bir şekilde farkında olurum.					
3. Kendi duygularımın farkındayım.					
4. Çevremdeki insanların duygularının farkındayım.					
5. Başkalarının hangi duygular içerisinde olduğunu bilirim.					
6. Diğer insanlara baktığımda onların neler hissettiklerini anlayabilirim.					
7. Kendi duygularımı kontrol edebilirim.					
8. Duygularımı kolayca bastırabilirim.					
9. Duygularımın beni kontrol etmesine izin vermem.					
10. Başka birinin farklı hissetmesini sağlayabilirim.					
11. Başka bir insanın ruh halini değiştirebilirim.					

12.Başkalarının duygularını coşturabilir veya yatıştırabilirim.					
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Bölüm 3

Bu bölümde kimliğinizi ele vermeyecek iki adet demografik bilgi ve de iş deneyiminizle ilgili sorular yer almaktadır. Her soruya cevap vermeniz önem taşımaktadır.

1. Yaş

2. Cinsiyet ☐ Kadın
☐ Erkek
☐ Diğer