Title

Hospitality employees' emotions in the workplace: A systematic review of recent literature

Abstract

Purpose

This systematic review synthesizes the recent literature (2010–2020) on hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods. This paper has three objectives: (1) to clarify the definitions of emotions, affect, and moods; (2) to explain how theories are integrated into understanding hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods; and (3) to assess how emotions, affect, and moods are measured.

Design/methodology/approach

Using seven major databases, we selected 61 peer-reviewed academic journal articles published in hospitality outlets for review. We based our study on five stages of conducting a systematic review: (1) scoping, (2) planning, (3) identification, (4) screening, and (5) eligibility.

Findings

Affect is an umbrella term encompassing moods and emotions. Emotions are distinct from emotion-laden constructs, such as emotional labor and emotional intelligence. Theories on conservation of resources, emotional labor, and social exchange have been most frequently used to understand hospitality employees' emotions. However, they overlooked the dynamic nature of emotions when using these theories. Hospitality researchers often used a subset of the Positive and Negative Affect Scale and did not discuss back-translation.

Originality/value

Our findings crystallize the understanding of the emotions, affect, and moods of hospitality employees. This study further provides a roadmap for future research on hospitality employees' emotions. Specifically, data triangulation, cross-cultural research, and mixed emotions are novel opportunities for future research.

Keywords

emotions, hospitality employees, conservation of resources theory, emotional labor theory, social exchange theory

1. Introduction

Emotions are functional, discrete, and biosocial responses to external stimuli, involving the physiological and psychological changes of an individual (Fischer *et al.*, 1990; Frijda, 1993). Guzzo *et al.* (2021) defined emotions as "experiential components after the subjective assessment of meaning and implication of daily events" (p.3). Given the people-oriented nature of the hospitality work setting, daily events involve social interactions between leaders, employees, and customers, and through such interactions, various discrete emotions are generated and exchanged (e.g., Woo and Chan, 2020). As Bradley *et al.* (2010) indicated, service not only involves the delivery of materials but also satisfies the socioemotional needs of customers and employees. Basch and Fisher (2000) proposed event–emotion matrices, associating job events in the hospitality work setting with employees' emotional responses.

Accordingly, employee emotions have received considerable attention in hospitality research. Emotions have been examined as antecedents of work-to-family conflict, family-to-work conflict, work engagement, organization citizenship behavior, and job performance (e.g., Grobelna, 2019; Jung and Yoon, 2016; Kang and Busser, 2018; Karatepe and Magaji, 2008; Medler-Liraz, 2014); as outcomes of social support, work-life balance, and leisure coping styles (e.g., Lam and Chen, 2012; Lin *et al.*, 2014; Tsaur and Tsang, 2012; Vanderpool and Way, 2013); and as mediators explaining the mechanism of organizational phenomena (e.g., Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Karatepe, 2015; Weber *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, understanding the emotions of hospitality employees is important because of the characteristics of hospitality work dynamics (Yu *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020).

However, conceptualizations of emotions are sparse in the hospitality literature because it can be a daunting task (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017; Gooty *et al.*, 2009). Studies have examined

emotions (aggregated or discrete) and emotion-laden constructs (e.g., emotional labor, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence (EI)) with no clear distinction between the two (e.g., Chu *et al.*, 2012; Zhao *et al.*, 2014). Briner and Kiefer (2005) suggested that emotion-laden constructs are umbrella terms for certain groups or reflections of emotions but are not emotions themselves. For example, people with high levels of EI can cope with anger and are likely to experience joy (Gooty *et al.,* 2014).

Therefore, the first objective of this review is to conceptualize emotions in relation to affect and moods and to distinguish emotions from emotion-laden constructs. With clear definitions, researchers can use relevant theories and measurement scales to study emotions, affect, and moods, thereby enhancing rigor. Moreover, industry practitioners can use their organizational resources to nurture employee well-being, which results from positive emotions, affect, and moods. Emotions (vs. moods) entail specific targets and causes that practitioners can detect to reduce negative employee emotions and foster positive emotions (Basch and Frisher, 2000; Ekkekakis, 2012). Overall, clear definitions of emotions, affect, and moods benefit both academia and industry.

Recently, hospitality researchers have attempted to synthesize the relevant literature on emotion-laden constructs, such as job satisfaction (Kong *et al.*, 2018) and emotional labor (Lee and Madera, 2019). Unfortunately, a systematic review of the relevant literature on hospitality employees' emotions has not been attempted. A systematic review of this important literature could identify opportunities for future research and provide guidelines for rigorous emotion research (e.g., Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017; Siddaway *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, the second objective of this review is to highlight how research has used theories to understand hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods. The third objective is to assess how studies have

measured emotions, affect, and moods. As theoretical soundness and measurements are critical issues in studying human emotions (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017), achieving these objectives provides a meaningful basis for discussion in hospitality research.

The outline of the remainder of this study is as follows. Section 2 conceptualizes emotions and related constructs, achieving our first objective. Section 3 explicates the five key stages of the systematic review. Section 4 details our findings to fulfill our second and third objectives. Last, Section 5 presents the theoretical and practical implications of our findings, suggests directions for future research, and lists the limitations of this review.

2. Conceptualizing emotions and related constructs

2.1. Definitions of emotions, affect, and moods

Emotions are complex, and thus they have no single predominant definition (Lord *et al.*, 2002). Nonetheless, a consensus has been reached regarding emotions' key characteristics (Fredrickson, 2001). First, they are subjective in nature and are commonly triggered by events (Ashkanasy, 2003; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). The literature on basic emotions (Ekman, 1992, 1993) has summarized the relationships between emotions and their antecedent events as follows: 1) socially oriented events are strong triggers of emotions; 2) facial expressions of others can trigger emotions; and 3) affective events can be lived, remembered, anticipated, or imagined. Individual responses to such events occur unconsciously or consciously (Ekman *et al.*, 1983). The same event can generate different emotions based on individuals' subjective evaluations of the event (Ashkanasy *et al.*, 2016; Gross, 2015). Second, emotions entail specific targets such as objects, people (self and others), and organizations (Lord *et al.*, 2002). Third,

emotions often entail bodily and physiological changes, such as changes in heart rate, blood pressure, and respiration (Ekman, 1992, 1993; Fischer *et al.*, 1990; Larsen, 2000).

Emotions must be understood along with affect and moods to comprehend the full scope of affective phenomena. Affect is a general term describing positive and negative feelings (Fredrickson, 2001); it is also an umbrella term encompassing moods and emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Compared with emotions, moods are less intense but last longer (Morris, 1989) and may not entail specific targets or events (Fiedler, 2001). For example, if someone is happy about getting married, that happiness is an emotion because it is directed toward an event. In contrast, when someone is happy for no particular reason and without a specific target or trigger, that happiness is a mood. Moods create an ongoing affective climate, whereas emotions are ephemeral and fluctuate based on specific events (Ekkekakis, 2012).

Affect can be either a situational state or a dispositional trait (Merz and Roesch, 2011; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). The former involves a specific trigger and is short-lived, whereas the latter persists across situational triggers in a manner similar to personality traits (Merz and Roesch, 2011). The dual nature of affect explains not only how emotions fluctuate according to daily experiences but also how emotional responses vary between individuals. According to the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) model (Larsen, 2000), individual emotional responses to the same environmental stimulus differ because of differences in personality traits and in appraisals of the stimulus. For example, employees with high levels of dispositional negative affect are prone to daily negative emotions (Yang and Diefendorff, 2009).

It is important to conceptualize emotions according to the people-oriented nature of hospitality work, which involves dynamic interactions between employees and customers for successful service production and delivery (Woo and Chan, 2020). Such social interactions can

trigger emotions in both employees and customers, and these emotions are further developed and exchanged through interactions (Côté, 2005). Therefore, the hospitality industry is an emotion-prone environment in which employees' emotions are a salient factor in social exchanges and interactions with customers.

2.2. Various approaches to the conceptualization of emotions

There are several approaches to the conceptualization of emotions. First is the dimensional approach in which emotions are categorized as either positive or negative (e.g., Russell and Barrett, 1999; Watson and Tellegen, 1999). Second is Larsen and Diener's (1992) affect circumplex model that geometrically classifies various discrete emotions based on pleasantness and activation. The former captures the hedonic continuum (i.e., positive or negative affectivity), whereas the latter describes the extent to which emotions are aroused (i.e., high or low arousal; Russell and Barrett, 1999). Positive emotions involve either high levels of activation (e.g., happy or excited) or low levels of activation (e.g., relaxed or calm; Russell and Barrett, 1999). Similarly, negative emotions can be either aroused (e.g., fear or anger) or not aroused (e.g., sad or melancholy; Russell and Barrett, 1999).

The literature on emotions stems from three traditions: (1) evolutionary, (2) cognitive, and (3) physiological. The evolutionary tradition maintains that emotions are biologically rooted to adapt to environmental stimuli and that the development and expression of emotions are socially structured (Ekman, 1992; Izard, 1992, 2013; Levenson, 2011). Specific action tendencies and physiological changes enable humans to cope with various environmental demands (Ekman, 1993; Levenson, 1999). In particular, seven basic emotions—happiness, surprise, fear, sadness, anger, disgust, and contempt—serve an evolutionary function. Such

emotions entail prompt reactions to the environment and activate physiological changes that enable effective coping (Ekman, 1992).

Led by appraisal theorists, the cognitive tradition suggests that emotions are based on an individual's interpretation of an environmental stimulus, not the stimulus itself (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 2000; Smith and Lazarus, 1993). Scherer (1999) suggested two stages of appraisal, namely, primary and secondary. A global assessment of an environmental stimulus or event related to one's goal occurs at the primary appraisal stage (Frijda, 1993). Individuals appraise a stimulus/event according to its affective valence and its relevance to their goals (Frijda, 1993). Positive emotions arise when the stimulus/event helps individuals achieve their goals, whereas negative emotions occur when the stimulus/event prevents individuals from achieving their goals. A more detailed analysis of the stimulus/event occurs in the secondary appraisal stage (Smith and Pope, 1992). Roseman (1984) argued that in this appraisal, the consistency of an individual's motives for performing a task and the certainty of the task's outcomes are important.

Finally, the physiological tradition contends that emotions involve different functional areas of the brain (LeDoux, 1996). Despite substantial research on the roles that the limbic system, the amygdala, and hemispheric lateralization play in governing emotion recognition, experience, and expression, divergent findings remain (Sturdy, 2003). Based on the autonomic nervous system, bodily changes may be the cause but not the consequence of emotions (Cacioppo *et al.*, 2000). The view that physiological changes actuate emotions differs considerably from the views of the evolutionary and cognitive traditions.

Extending the above conceptualizations, recent literature has defined emotional regulation, emotional contagion, and EI. Emotion regulation, including emotional labor, refers to processes through which individuals gain control over the experience and expression of their

emotions (Gross, 2015). Emotional contagion involves the transfer of emotions from one individual to another through mimicry and synchronization of the physiological manifestations of emotions (Barsade *et al.*, 2018). EI is the ability to recognize the emotions of oneself and others, understand the effects of these emotions, and manage them in interpersonal settings and decision-making (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Therefore, EI guides individuals in goal-congruent thinking and behaviors (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

3. Method

This study is a systematic review of recent research on hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods using the five stages from Siddaway *et al*. (2019): (1) scoping, (2) planning, (3) identification, (4) screening, and (5) eligibility. The scoping stage formulated the research questions and determined the breadth of the review. Our two main research questions are as follows: (1) What theories have been used? How have they been integrated into the understanding of hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods? (2) What emotions, affect, and moods of hospitality employees are frequently discussed? How are they measured? We focused on the publications from 2010 to 2020 to ensure the depth of understanding of the theoretical and measurement issues of emotions.

In the planning and identification stages, search terms, inclusion/exclusion criteria, and electronic databases were determined. We used the following search statements for titles, keywords, and abstracts: (1) "emotion*" AND "employee*," (2) "mood*" AND "employee*," and (3) "affect*" AND "employee*." The asterisks enabled the search to capture articles with term variations such as "emotions" or "emotional." In addition, the search statements included emotion words, such as pleasure, happiness, pride, enthusiasm, relief, hope, frustration, worry,

disappointment, annoyance, anger, embarrassment, sadness, disgust, gratitude, fear, guilt, shame, empathy, and sympathy. These emotions have been found to influence important employment outcomes (Totterdell and Niven, 2014).

Following Chon and Zoltan (2019), we used seven electronic databases: EBSCO Host, Emerald, ProQuest, Sage, Science Direct, Scopus, and Web of Science. The inclusion criteria were (1) peer-reviewed academic journal articles published in hospitality outlets from 2010 to 2020 and (2) articles written in English. The search ended in April 2020. Screening for duplicates yielded 422 articles. Of the 422 articles, 295 were deemed irrelevant because "affect" was used to indicate influence, effect, or change. Thus, 127 articles were retained.

Each article's title, abstract, and method section were to determine their inclusion for further analyses in the screening stage. Sixty-six articles were considered irrelevant because they discussed emotional labor or EI. Articles on emotional labor were excluded because of Lee and Madera's (2019) synthesis of emotional labor in the hospitality literature. Articles on EI were also excluded because EI is not an emotion per se (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017). However, the articles that investigated affect, emotions, or moods with emotional labor (e.g., Chu *et al.*, 2012; Kim and Baker, 2019; Medler-Liraz, 2014), EI (Wolfe and Kim, 2013), or emotional contagion (e.g., Chu *et al.*, 2012; Ustrov *et al.*, 2016) were included.

As a result, 61 articles were retained in the eligibility stage. Each article was evaluated to ensure its appropriateness for the scope of review. Our findings are presented according to the following themes:

(1) Overview of the reviewed literature

(2) Critical analysis of theories of emotion

(3) Overview of affect, emotions, and moods

(4) Critical analysis of affect, emotions, and moods

4. Findings

4.1. Overview of the reviewed literature

Table 1 shows that 47% of the reviewed articles were published in the International Journal of Hospitality Management and 16% in the International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management. Table 2 shows that 77% of the reviewed articles used a one-time cross-sectional survey, 7% used an experimental design, and 5% used a longitudinal survey. Table 3 shows that almost half of the reviewed articles involved study participants from Asia (e.g., China, South Korea, Taiwan), 26% involved participants from North America, and 12% had participants from Africa.

[Insert Table 1 around here]

[Insert Table 2 around here]

[Insert Table 3 around here]

4.2. Critical analysis of theories of emotion

The frequencies with which the various theories of emotion appeared in the reviewed articles are shown in Table 4. We focused on the five most frequently used theories: conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), emotional labor theory (Hochschild, 1983; Morris and Feldman, 1996), social exchange theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), job demands and resources (JD-R) model (Bakker *et al*., 2003), and affective events theory (AET; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Please see Appendix A for the articles that used the aforementioned five theories.

[Insert Table 4 around here]

First, COR theory has been used to examine (1) how the resources of hospitality employees affect their emotions (Lee *et al.*, 2012; Lee and Ok, 2015; Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Teng, 2019) and (2) how certain types of emotions (e.g., the hope and optimism of psychological capital) serve as resources to help hospitality employees deal with stress (Paek *et al.*, 2015). Second, emotional labor theory has been used as a framework to demonstrate the relationships between emotions and outcome variables (e.g., emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions; Chu *et al.*, 2012; Lam and Chen, 2012). Third, studies have used SET to investigate relationships between the quality of an exchange relationship (e.g., between supervisors and subordinates) and emotion-related outcomes (e.g., negative affective reactions toward jobs; Zhao *et al.*, 2011). Fourth, the JD-R model has been used to establish relationships between job resources, job demands, and emotions/emotion-laden outcomes, such as anxiety, subjective well-being, and emotional exhaustion (Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020; Karatepe, 2015; Radic *et al.*, 2020). Last, AET has been used as a framework to highlight relationships between work events (e.g., supervisory interpersonal justice, negative workplace gossip, or interviewing a facially stigmatized job applicant) and emotions (Babalola *et al.*, 2019; Lam and Chen, 2012; Madera, 2016). AET has also been used to establish the relationships between general workplace perceptions (e.g., perceived fit with an organization and job insecurity) and emotions (Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Lee *et al.*, 2017).

We summarize three critical issues regarding how the reviewed articles used the theories of emotion. First, COR, SET, emotional labor theory, and the JD-R model were not used to explain the nature of emotions. Instead, these theories were used as a framework to test the relationships between emotions and their antecedents or outcomes. For example, emotional labor

theory was used merely because a study's constructs included emotional labor (e.g., Lam and Chen, 2012; Medler-Liraz, 2014). Many relevant theories of emotion, such as affect infusion model (AIM; Forgas, 1995), cognitive–affective system theory (Mischel and Shoda, 1995), cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1999), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989), and broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998), are suitable for examining the nature of emotions. In particular, the cognitive appraisal and broaden-and-build theories address changes in emotions over time.

However, these theories have seldom been used to study hospitality employees' emotions. Cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) postulates that individuals' appraisals of environmental stimuli shape their emotions. Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) suggests that positive outcomes and resources result from the accumulation of positive emotions over time. Meanwhile, AIM identifies various situations and circumstances that may influence individuals' social judgments and affective states (Forgas, 1995). When applying these theories to study employee emotions, researchers should consider the dynamic nature of emotions. Emotions can fluctuate over a short period of time based on various workplace situations or over a long period of time based on job tenure. However, most of the reviewed articles assumed that emotions are a stable phenomenon and thus used cross-sectional designs to study them (Table 2).

Second, of the five most frequently used theories, only AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) differentiates emotions from affect and moods. This theory defines emotions and moods as part of affect, the levels of which fluctuate over time based on changes in work events and environments. The idea of "time frame" is key in AET, as it distinguishes trait affect from state affect. However, the reviewed articles only used AET to establish the relationship between work events and emotions without considering the dynamic nature of state affect. AET holds that

individual affective experiences result from immediate reactions toward work events (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Specifically, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) maintained that affect that is measured at a specific time point represents state affect not trait affect. The central tenet of AET is that employee behaviors are a function of their specific affective reactions to work events at any given moment (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). In this regard, a few studies (e.g., Shi *et al.*, 2020; Yu *et al.*, 2020) have found that work events (e.g., dealing with guest issues or being mistreated by a customer) in the hospitality industry are not stable, and thus they can change employees' positive and negative affect even within a workday. These studies have emphasized the fluctuating nature of hospitality employees' emotions, especially the emotions of those who work in guest-serving positions.

Third, the reviewed articles have neglected the multilevel nature of emotions and used theories to study emotions at the individual level only. For example, Lam and Chen (2012) and Gordon *et al.* (2019) found that at the individual level, perceived supervisor support is positively related to hotel employees' affect and emotions. However, their analyses failed to consider the multilevel nature of organizational phenomena. Perceived supervisor support can be a group-level construct (e.g., a shared perception among each workgroup or department) that may influence employees' emotions at the individual level (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017). Therefore, researchers should consider the multilevel nature of organizational phenomena (e.g., employees are nested within departments and departments are nested within organizations; Klein and Kozlowski, 2000). Converging evidence from industrial and organizational psychology indicates the importance of level (e.g., individual, team, or organization) in investigating employee emotions (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017; Diener *et al.*, 2020). In shaping emotions, cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) and AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) highlight the

importance of social environmental cues induced by the supervisor at the dyadic level, by team climate at the departmental level, and by work climate at the organizational level. However, this multilevel perspective did not gain traction in the reviewed articles.

4.3. Summary of affect, emotions, and moods

This section provides a summary and critical analysis of how affect, emotions, and moods have been measured in research. All scale items are in Appendix B.

4.3.1. Positive and negative affect

Positive and negative affect can be conceptualized as either a trait or state (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). As a trait, affect reflects a dispositional and stable occurrence of a personality characteristic. In particular, coupled with internal motivation, positive affect constituted part of personal resources (Karatepe, 2015; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011). Trait affect has been used as an antecedent variable for work–family and family–work conflict (Karatepe and Magaji, 2008; Karatepe and Uludag, 2008), emotional dissonance and exhaustion (Karatepe and Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011), emotive effort (Chu *et al.*, 2012), work engagement (Grobelna, 2019), and tip amount (Medler-Liraz, 2014). For example, Chu *et al.* (2012) revealed that positive and negative affect and affective empathy influence emotive effort, thereby affecting emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Grobelna (2019) showed that positive affectivity, polychronicity (i.e., a preference for multi-tasking), and task significance lead to work engagement and thus improve job performance.

Meanwhile, positive and negative affect as traits were outcome variables when conceptualized as part of subjective well-being (Gordon *et al.*, 2019; Lin *et al.*, 2014; Radic *et al.*, 2020; Tsaur and Tsang, 2012; Tsaur and Yen, 2018). Subjective well-being was determined by job stress and leisure coping style (Tsaur and Tsang, 2012), social support, leisure

participation, job burnout, work–leisure conflict (Lin *et al.*, 2014), job and leisure satisfaction (Tsaur and Yen, 2018), and perceived supervisor support (Gordon *et al.*, 2019). Overall, when trait affect was an outcome variable, determinants spanned the work and non-work domains. Conversely, when trait affect was an antecedent variable, the outcomes were more related to the work domain.

Unlike trait affect, state affect is short-lived and entails specific causes and targets (Ekkekakis, 2012), and thus it is similar to emotions. In the reviewed articles, emotions were often conceptualized as mediating variables between causes and downstream consequences of emotions. In particular, Xu and Wang (2020) demonstrated that positive affect mediates the relationship between customer interactivity and employee innovation behavior. Lee *et al.* (2011) showed that the positive and negative affects of employees toward their supervisor mediate the effects of leadership style on employees' customer orientation and job performance. Madera (2016) revealed that the negative affect of job interviewers mediates the effect of job applicants' facial stigma on interviewer behaviors. Madera (2018b) showed that employee negative affect mediates the relationship of situational perspective-taking of discrimination with the perceived importance and utility of diversity management.

Positive and negative affect were often measured using the positive and negative affect scale (PANAS; Watson *et al.*, 1988). Depending on the study context and brevity issues, the full version of 20 items (10 items each for positive and negative affect) or a subset was used. The scale from Agho *et al.* (1992) with 22 items was used (e.g., Karatepe, 2015; Karatepe and Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011) to capture positive and negative affect. Meanwhile, Mroczek and Kolarz's (1998) scale was used when positive and negative affect were conceptualized as dimensions of subjective well-being. Table 5 presents these three versions of

the affect scale, including the antecedents and outcomes of trait and state affect. As job satisfaction was an antecedent and consequence of the trait affect of hospitality employees, it is reasonable to assume that their relationship is bidirectional. The antecedents and outcomes of trait affect involved work and non-work domains, whereas those of state affect involved the work domain only.

[Insert Table 5 around here]

4.3.2. Discrete emotions

Various discrete emotions were discussed, including hope (Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020; Hwang and Han, 2019; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Kang and Busser, 2018; Paek *et al.*, 2015), anxiety (Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Vanderpool and Way, 2013), gratitude (Jin and Merkebu, 2015; Kim and Baker, 2019; Kim and Qu, 2020), empathy (Chu *et al.*, 2012), passion (Chen *et al.*, 2019; Teng, 2019), anger (Weber *et al.*, 2017), fear, disappointment, and discomfort (Mkono, 2010). Hope was conceptualized as part of psychological capital; it was measured using three items from the shortened version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-12) developed by Luthans *et al.* (2007). The PCQ-12 consists of 12 items on four dimensions: hope, optimism, efficacy, and resilience. As part of employee psychological capital, hope was an antecedent of job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Jung and Yoon, 2015), work engagement (Kang and Busser, 2018; Paek *et al.*, 2015), and emotional demands–abilities fit (Hwang and Han, 2019).

Anxiety was conceptualized as either job-specific or generic (Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Lam and Chen, 2012; Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Vanderpool and Way, 2013). For job anxiety, Lam and Chen (2012) revealed that a lack of supervisory support engenders negative emotions among employees (e.g., anxiety), increasing surface acting, turnover intention, and turnover. Anxiety

was measured using two items (i.e., anxious and worried). Vanderpool and Way (2013) showed that work–family balance has a negative effect on job anxiety, which affects turnover intention. Tsaur and Tang (2012) suggested that job stress comprises time stress and job anxiety and examined the relationship between job stress and well-being. Vanderpool and Way (2013) and Tsaur Tang (2012) measured job anxiety using five items from Parker and DeCotiis (1983; e.g., "I have felt fidgety or nervous because of my job"). Meanwhile, Cheung *et al.* (2019) revealed that generic anxiety mediates the effect of job insecurity on job satisfaction when psychological capital or perceived employability is low. Generic anxiety was measured using the scale from Lovibond and Lovibond (1995; e.g., "I found myself in situations that made me so anxious I was most relieved when they ended").

Meanwhile, the reviewed literature mentioned gratitude. Kim and Qu (2020) illustrated that employee gratitude toward customers is a consequence of their interactions and the customers' politeness. Kim and Baker (2019) investigated observer reactions to employees' emotional labor strategies (i.e., deep vs. surface acting) when employees encounter uncivil customer behavior. They found that observers' gratitude toward the employee practicing deep (vs. surface) acting was higher. Gratitude was measured using three items from Palmatier *et al.* (2009; e.g., "I feel grateful, thankful, and appreciative to customers").

Chu *et al.* (2012) conceptualized trait empathy using two dimensions, namely, empathic concern and emotional contagion. The former involves thinking about how others would feel, and the latter denotes feeling what others feel. The measurements were drawn from the Individual Reactivity Index (IRI) for empathic concern (Davis, 1983) and Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) Emotional Empathy Scale for emotional contagion. Chu *et al.* (2012) suggested that these two dimensions influence emotional labor (i.e., emotive effort and dissonance).

Meanwhile, Weber *et al.* (2017) examined the effect of customer-related and online review-related stressors on employee anger. The measurements were drawn from Rupp *et al.* (2008) and Taylor (1994) with four items (angry, annoyed, irritated, and furious).

Harmonious and obsessive passion was also examined (Chen *et al.*, 2019; Teng, 2019). Chen *et al.* (2019) illustrated the effect of harmonious and obsessive passion for work on employees' emotional labor (deep and surface acting). The measurement scale included 14 items from Vallerand and Houlfort (2003; e.g., "I am completely taken with my work," harmonious passion; "I have almost an obsessive feeling for my work," obsessive passion). Teng (2019) showed that passion for work mediates the relationship between job crafting and customer service behavior. Teng (2019) measured passion for work using a short version of Marsh *et al.*'s scale (2013).

Last, fear, (dis)comfort, and disappointment were investigated. Mkono (2010) investigated the workplace sexual harassment experiences of Zimbabwean hospitality students. Most cases of sexual harassment involving customers as perpetrators were unreported because of the students' (victims) fear of dismissal, stigma, or ridicule. When harassment incidents were reported, the students experienced discomfort and disappointment toward management and the company. Christou *et al.* (2019) conducted in-depth interviews with tourists about their interactions with expressive or inexpressive employees. Interviewees experienced feelings of comfort and pleasure from interactions with expressive employees.

4.3.3. Moods

Hospitality employee moods were also examined (Babalola *et al.*, 2019; Ustrov *et al.*, 2016; Wolfe and Kim, 2013). The Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997) consists of general mood, intrapersonal EQ, interpersonal EQ, stress management EQ, and

adaptability EQ, which all collectively capture EI. General mood captures optimism and happiness. Wolfe and Kim (2013) revealed that general mood, stress management EQ, and intrapersonal EQ are positively associated with job satisfaction. Ustrov *et al.* (2016) showed that employee moods do not influence their displayed emotions, which influence customer mood. In measuring employee and customer moods, Ustrov *et al.* (2016) used Thompson's (2007) short version of the PANAS with 10 items. Babalola *et al.* (2019) demonstrated an interactive effect of perceived workplace gossip and mindfulness on negative employee moods. The measurements included three items (i.e., anger, anxiety, and irritation) drawn from Bono *et al.* (2007).

As noted, affect and moods were conceptualized as part of broader constructs, such as subjective well-being (Gordon *et al.*, 2019; Lin *et al.*, 2014; Radic *et al.*, 2020; Tsaur and Tsang, 2012; Wolfe and Kim, 2013). Similarly, discrete emotions were used to capture broader constructs, such as work engagement and affective commitment (Frye *et al.*, 2020; Qu *et al.*, 2020; Radic *et al.*, 2020). For example, commitment toward an organization or job entails happiness, pride, and guilt (e.g., "I am proud to work for this company," "I would feel guilty if I left this company now"; Frye *et al.*, 2020, and "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company"; Qu *et al.*, 2020). Meanwhile, work engagement reflects enthusiasm (e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job" and "At my work, I feel full of energy"; Radic *et al.*, 2020).

4.4. Critical analysis of affect, emotions, and moods

Our synthesis is drawn from the comparisons of affect, emotions, and moods (Table 5). Antecedents of hope and empathy were not examined, possibly because of the trait nature of hope and empathy. Hope, as part of psychological capital (Jung and Yoon, 2015; Kang and Busser, 2018; Paek *et al.*, 2015; Hwang and Han, 2019), is similar to positive affect, which is

conceptualized as part of personal resources (Karatepe, 2015; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011). In psychological capital, hope captures present- and future-oriented emotions (e.g., "I can think of many ways to reach my current goals."), whereas positive affect in personal resources taps into present-oriented emotions (e.g., "I often feel happy and satisfied for no particular reason."; see Appendix B for the specific wordings of the measurement items). Psychological capital and personal resources lead to positive workplace outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Jung and Yoon, 2015) and work engagement (Grobelna, 2019).

Among the scales of affect, emotions, and moods, Lovibond and Lovibond's (1995) generic anxiety scale encompasses both physiological and psychological manifestations of emotions. However, other scales (e.g., Parker and DeCotiis, 1983) reflect only psychological manifestations of emotions. Autonomic arousal and skeletal musculature effects (e.g., "I am aware of dryness of my mouth.") tap into physiological manifestations, whereas situational anxiety and subjective experiences of anxious effect (e.g., "I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself.") tap into psychological manifestations. Capturing various manifestations of emotions (cognitive, physiological, and subjective) enhances the psychometric properties of emotion scales (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017; Dashborough *et al.*, 2008).

Emotions reflect individuals' reactions toward environmental stimuli, objects, or events (Basch and Frisher, 2000; Ekkekakis, 2012) and may be caused by people (customers, coworkers, or supervisor), job-related factors (work schedule or commute), or a combination of the two. Thus, when conceptualizing emotions (vs. moods), researchers should specify the target of an emotion. For example, Lee *et al.* (2017) suggested that employees' perceived fit with organization, team, and job is positively associated with their positive emotions toward these

factors. These positive emotions are captured using three items, namely, pleased, excited, and happy. Moreover, sources of employee emotions should be specified. Xu and Wang (2020) measured employee positive affect that results from customer interactions using three items (e.g., "When I remember delightful service encounters, I feel enthusiastic/delighted/excited about my work.").

However, some researchers have failed to specify the stimuli or objects associated with emotions (e.g., Lam and Chen, 2012; Weber *et al.*, 2017). Weber *et al.* (2017) established the relationship between customer-related social stressors and employee anger. However, the respondents were asked to report a general and recent level of anger ("how angry have you felt at your workplace in the recent few weeks?"), and thus the associated stimuli or work events could include factors other than customer-related social stressors. The specific causes and events that trigger anger are likely obscured. Lam and Chen (2012) showed that a lack of supervisory support engenders negative employee emotions. Supervisory support at Time 1 and negative employee emotions at Time 2 were measured. However, many events can occur between the two measurement periods. That is, negative emotions at Time 2 can result not only from supervisory support but also from support from coworkers, the organization, family members, or customers.

Moreover, emotions, moods, affect, affectivity, and well-being were used interchangeably. For example, Chu *et al.* (2012) defined employee emotions as moods and measured them at a single time point without specifying their target or trigger. Lee *et al.* (2012) used affectivity, moods, and emotions interchangeably. Ustrov *et al.* (2016) proposed that employee moods are related to their displayed emotions, which affect customer moods. However, Ustrov *et al.* (2016) did not distinguish emotion from moods. Moods were measured using the PANAS and emotions were captured using items related to facial expressions, such as

smile and eye contact (Ustrov *et al.*, 2016). Overall, in the reviewed literature, emotions were occasionally used interchangeably with moods, affect, affectivity, and subjective well-being.

Meanwhile, the entire set of measurement items was not always used for affect or emotions. The scale of Agho *et al.* (1992) consists of 22 items (11 items each for positive and negative affects), but several studies used a subset of 22 items (e.g., Grobelna, 2019; Karatepe, 2015; Karatepe and Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe and Magaji, 2008; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011; Karatepe and Uludag, 2008). A subset of the scale can be used to reduce survey fatigue in respondents. However, because of the discrete nature of emotions (e.g., enthusiasm vs. satisfaction vs. joy; Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017), researchers should provide strong justifications for excluding and including certain items in relation to the study context. Reducing and modifying scale items can alter their psychometric properties (Hair *et al.*, 2010); thus, (exploratory or confirmatory) factor analysis should be conducted to demonstrate construct validity and reliability.

Moreover, when using the PANAS (20 items total, with 10 items each for positive and negative affect; Watson *et al.*, 1988) to measure positive and negative affect, almost all of the reviewed literature used its subset (for a notable exception, see Lee *et al.*, 2011). For example, Madera (2016) asked participants to imagine themselves as interviewers for graduate program admissions and to see an interviewee's facial stigma of a port-wine stain birthmark on the cheek. Madera (2016) measured only negative (vs. positive) affect because the context of a facial stigma was negative. Madera (2018a, 2018b) used 10 items of negative affect from the PANAS to investigate discrimination at work. Given the nature of the study context (facial stigma and discrimination), measuring only negative (vs. positive) affect was justified. Overall, the appropriateness of using a PANAS subset is determined according to a study's context.

Hospitality researchers should exercise caution when deciding whether to include positive affect, negative affect, or both in a model. For example, Karatepe and Uludag (2008) examined the influence of both positive and negative affect on family–work and work–family conflict. Meanwhile, Karatepe and Magaji (2008) measured only negative affect, which breeds family–work and work–family conflict/harmony. It is reasonable to assume that family–work and work–family conflicts are more closely related to negative (vs. positive) affect. Therefore, capturing only negative affect (vs. both negative and positive affect) is considered adequate in the context of work–family or family–work conflict. In contrast, when investigating both conflict and harmony, as in the case of Karatepe and Magaji (2008), both negative and positive affect should be incorporated into the model.

However, researchers should measure both positive and negative affect when they are conceptualized as part of subjective well-being. Gordon *et al.* (2019) captured subjective well-being using 12 items from Mroczek and Kolarz (1998). The items of negative affect were reverse-coded and combined with those of positive affect to generate a composite score. This practice is disputable because positive affect and negative affect are distinct constructs (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). That is, individuals with high negative affect scores do not necessarily exhibit low levels of positive affect. Thus, the reverse coding approach falsely assumes that positive affect is the direct opposite of negative affect. As the PANAS is not exhaustive of all emotions, researchers should use other scales when employee emotions cannot be fully assessed using the PANAS, given a study's context. Specifically, several prosocial emotions (e.g., empathy and compassion) are not in the PANAS. Therefore, the PANAS may be inadequate in contexts involving such prosocial emotions.

Lam and Chen (2012) illustrated relationships between supervisory support, interactional justice, and five negative emotions (i.e., anxiety, unhappiness, anger, hopelessness, and tiredness). The mean rating of supervisory support was 3.95, whereas that of interactional justice was 4.91. The mean ratings of the five negative emotions ranged from 2.14 to 3.18. All of the items were measured on a 7-point scale. Examination of the above mean ratings leads to the reasonable conclusion that interactional justice is satisfied to a certain extent and none of the negative emotions is salient. Thus, both positive and negative employee emotions should be measured to draw a broader picture of employee emotional responses to supervisory support.

Although several studies used back-translation (e.g., Chan *et al.*, 2015; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Karatepe *et al.*, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2012; Tsaur and Tang, 2012), others did not discuss any translation procedure (e.g., Lin *et al.*, 2014; Paek *et al.*, 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2014). This is alarming because hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods were examined across various countries (Nigeria, Karatepe, 2011; Zimbabwe, Mkono, 2010; United Arab Emirates, Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011; China, Zhao *et al.*, 2011; US, Vanderpool and Way, 2013; South Korea, Choi *et al.*, 2014; Taiwan, Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Israel, Medler-Liraz, 2014; Spain, Ustrov *et al.*, 2016; Portugal, Margues *et al.*, 2018; Ecuador, Xu *et al.*, 2018; Poland, Grobelna *et al.*, 2019; Iran, Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020; Thailand, Khejenkarn and Agmapisarn, 2020). Back-translation is highly desirable when a study context involves more than one country or a language other than that of the original version of the scale is used (e.g., translating the PANAS, originally developed in English, to Chinese; Brislin, 1970).

Last, the reviewed articles rarely discussed the timing of the measurements of emotions, moods, and affect. Unlike moods and trait affect, emotions are short-lived and ephemeral (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017). Thus, measurements of emotions in lagged periods may decrease

reliability. This is particularly important when participants are asked to reflect on a recent emotion-triggering experience. For self-administered surveys or interviews based on previous experiences of felt emotions, a selection criteria based on the recency of such experiences should be used. For scenario-based surveys, researchers should promptly measure the emotions after participants read the scenarios.

5. General discussion

5.2. Theoretical implications

First, it crystallizes the definitions of emotions, affect, and moods and clarifies their relationships. By doing so, it lays a solid foundation for emotion-related research on conceptualization and methodology. Affect is an umbrella term that encompasses emotions and moods (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Emotions are intense and short-lived, involving specific targets (Ashkanasy and Dorris 2017; Lord et al., 2002). Emotions are based on individuals' subjective evaluations of a situation or event, and they accompany physiological and bodily changes (Fischer et al., 1990; Roseman and Smith, 2001). Meanwhile, moods are less intense but last longer and may not involve specific targets (Fiedler, 2001). A clear distinction between emotions, affect, and moods should thus precede theorizing and measuring emotions.

Second, this review reveals that the five most frequently used theories in the hospitality field are COR (Hobfoll, 1989), emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983), SET (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), and AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). These theories have mainly been used as frameworks for establishing the relationships between emotions and organizational variables. However, they have not been used to examine the dynamic nature of emotions. For example, AET (Weiss and

Cropanzano, 1996) addresses the dynamic nature of emotions based on work events. This tenet of AET was not studied in the reviewed articles.

Moreover, some critical theories of emotions in the organizational psychology and organizational behavior literature were scantly used in the reviewed articles, such as broaden-and-build theory, AIM, and cognitive appraisal theory. For example, cognitive appraisal theory is related to an individual's appraisal of various stimuli and can be integrated with AET to deepen the understanding of employees' emotions. The dynamics of short-term and long-term fluctuations of emotions should be considered because job demands fluctuate daily in the hospitality workplace (Shi et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2020). The present study advances our understanding of theories of emotion by critically reviewing what and how theories were used to reflect the nature of emotions in the literature.

Third, we critically evaluate measurements of employees' emotions, affect, and moods in the hospitality literature. Researchers have often failed to specify the target or the source of emotions when measuring emotions in self-administered surveys (e.g., Lam and Chen, 2012; Weber et al., 2017). This issue is important, considering the dynamic social interactions among leaders, peers, and customers in the hospitality work environment (Coté, 2005). Therefore, the source of the environmental stimuli (e.g., customers, leaders, or peers) and the target toward which emotions are directed should be specified. Furthermore, some hospitality researchers have mixed the scales of emotions with those of well-being and affect (e.g., Chu et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Ustrov et al., 2016). They have also overlooked the importance of the study context when using a subset of the emotions scale (e.g., Lin et al., 2014; Paek et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2014). Consequently, this systematic review enriches the knowledge regarding important measurement issues surrounding hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods.

Lastly, hospitality literature has investigated various discrete emotions of hospitality employees (e.g., empathy, gratitude, anxiety, and hope). Addressing the discrete nature of emotions advances the research on emotions because it moves beyond the rudimentary approach of positive and negative emotions. This advancement is aligned with cognitive appraisal theory, in which an individual goes through two appraisal stages when developing emotions; the second appraisal stage determines the discrete emotions, leading to various behavioral outcomes (Briner and Kiefer, 2005). Reviewed articles mainly captured such discrete emotions through cross-sectional surveys. This study enhances the understanding of (1) how to integrate emotion theories and (2) what methods to use to illustrate the discrete nature of emotions.

5.2. Managerial implications

First, the hospitality industry is labor-intensive, high touch in nature, and replete with social interactions, thus leading to dynamic employee emotions (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2020). Our findings consider these characteristics of the hospitality work environment by indicating different triggers of employee emotions, such as work–family or work–leisure conflict (Karatepe and Magaji, 2008; Karatepe and Uludag, 2008; Lin *et al.*, 2014; Tsaur and Yen, 2018), interactions with customers (Xu and Wang, 2020), perceived supervisory support (Gordon *et al.*, 2019), and leadership style (Lee *et al.*, 2011).

Second, hospitality employees' emotions lead to far-reaching consequences in attitudes, intentions, and behaviors in both work and non-work domains, such as innovation behavior (Xu and Wang, 2020), well-being (Radic *et al.*, 2020), job satisfaction (Lee *et al.*, 2011), job performance (Babalola *et al.*, 2019; Darvishmotevali and Ali, 2020; Grobelna, 2019; Jiang *et al.*, 2019; Lee *et al.*, 2017), turnover intention (Gordon *et al.*, 2019; Kang and Busser, 2018; Khejenkarn and Agmapisarnare, 2020), and life satisfaction (Zhao *et al.*, 2011). Effective

practices (e.g., creating a supportive climate) that help evoke positive employee emotions and reduce negative employee emotions are thus desirable. Positive and negative emotions are independent of each other (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). That is, a low level of negative emotions may not always translate into a high level of positive emotions. Therefore, managers should be aware of the various antecedents of positive and negative employee emotions.

Third, our review demonstrates that negative emotions among hospitality employees may not be fully avoidable. For example, work stress (customer-related social stressors and negative online review stressors), work–family conflict, job insecurity, workplace gossip, and sexual harassment result in negative emotional outcomes (e.g., Cheung *et al.*, 2019; Choi *et al.*, 2014; Madera, 2018; Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Zhao *et al.*, 2014). A thorough understanding of the triggers of negative employee emotions can help hospitality managers reduce their presence, thereby fostering employee well-being and work engagement (Harris, 2019). When negative emotions prevail in the workplace, measures to reduce their triggers are particularly important. Moreover, to alleviate such negative emotions, managers may have to devise wellness programs and mindfulness meditation workshops, which are especially critical during times of crisis. During the COVID-19 pandemic, negative emotions such as anger, sadness, and anxiety have been widely experienced by hospitality employees (Park *et al.*, 2020). Hospitality companies may have to work with fitness and wellness organizations to provide employees with access to online exercise programs and consultation sessions to release their physical and emotional fatigue. Managers should also note that emotions can be work- or job-specific or generic, and their respective anxieties involve different outcomes. Job anxiety influences job stress, emotional labor, and turnover intention (Lam and Chen, 2012; Tsaur and Tang, 2012; Vanderpool and Way, 2013), whereas generic anxiety engenders job satisfaction (Cheung *et al.*, 2019).

Last, our review points to the importance of the prosocial emotions of employees (e.g., empathy). Such prosocial emotions may enhance their involvement in corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. CSR has gained continued attention in the hospitality industry, and as one of its major stakeholders, employees play a crucial role in its implementation (He *et al.*, 2019). Hospitality employees' prosocial emotions are also important in facilitating organizational citizenship behavior, which is affiliative and cooperative (Mossholder *et al.*, 2011). As such, managers may consider developing training programs to foster employee empathy (e.g., virtual reality training during the COVID-19 pandemic; see Zielinski, 2021).

5.3. Suggestions for future research

This study provides a roadmap for future research based on a synthesis and critical analysis of the literature on hospitality employees' emotions. Of the reviewed articles, only two, namely, Mkono (2010) and Christou *et al.* (2019), reported qualitative studies. Qualitative research is instrumental in studying emotions because it involves not only the interviewees' descriptions and expressions of emotions but also the interviewers' observations on these emotions. Capturing emotions through various methods, including interviews, field observations, self-administered surveys, and even functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) can boost the validity of study findings (Ashkanasy and Dorris, 2017). Although 77% of the reviewed articles used a cross-sectional survey to measure emotions once, illustrating changes in emotions over time using a longitudinal design may be illuminating. A systematic examination of the factors that influence the duration of emotions is also necessary.

Moreover, within-person temporal changes in emotions have been benignly ignored in the literature. A daily diary study or experience sampling method (ESM; Hektner *et al.*, 2007) has been commonly used in the mainstream literature on organizational behavior and human

resource management. For example, the ESM study of Liao *et al.* (2018) examined the moderating effect of moral attentiveness (between-person level) on the day-level relationship between abusive supervision and supervisors' experienced guilt (within-person level). However, hospitality scholars have not typically used such methods to illustrate the influences of between-person variability (e.g., personality traits) on within-person variations in daily employee emotions. Hospitality workplace emotions are diverse because employees deal with various customer types daily (Yu *et al.*, 2020). Ecological momentary assessment (Shiffman *et al.*, 2008), an extension of ESM, can also be used to demonstrate hospitality employees' emotions toward work events.

Apart from between-person level factors (e.g., individual differences), factors from dyadic, departmental, and organizational levels can influence employee emotions. However, a paucity of studies has used the cross-level perspective to explore hospitality employees' emotions. For example, a supportive climate at a departmental and/or organizational level may breed positive emotions. Considering the multilevel structure of organizations, theories explicating the nature of emotions, such as cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991) and AIM (Forgas, 1995), could be used to examine various circumstances across interpersonal, departmental, and organizational levels. As such, multilevel modeling is recommended to identify the cross-level antecedents of daily employee emotions.

Future research could consider using mixed methods that have been seldom used in the reviewed literature. Mixed methods are encouraged when researchers triangulate qualitative with quantitative data (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative data can be obtained by observing emotions displayed during interactions or interpreting emotions expressed during interviews, whereas quantitative data can be obtained in experimental designs, fMRI studies, or recall-based self-

administered surveys. Finally, the reviewed literature has rarely used longitudinal design despite its usefulness in illustrating long-term consequences of affect, emotions, and moods. Integrating ESM with longitudinal design would be useful for examining whether short-term fluctuations in certain emotions influence the corresponding long-term trajectories.

Moreover, there is a dearth of cross-cultural investigations in the reviewed literature. Although some studies have examined hospitality employees' emotions in more than one country (e.g., Hofmann and Stokburger-Saucer, 2017; Radic *et al*., 2020), they did not make cross-country comparisons of emotions. Schwartz (2006) suggested three dimensions of culture, namely, autonomy–embeddedness, egalitarianism–hierarchy, and harmony–mastery. Inglehart and Baker (2000) proposed two dimensions of culture: traditional vs. secular-rational and survival vs. self-expression. With a wide range of cultural dimensions, researchers should carefully choose which to integrate into their hypotheses development. Cross-cultural investigations into employee emotions are important because of the prominence of multinational firms in the hospitality industry and the popularity of diversity training programs (Madera *et al.*, 2018). In these cross-cultural examinations, researchers are highly advised to use back-translation (Brislin, 1970).

We further make specific suggestions for future research on discrete emotions. First, gratitude may merit further investigation. Kim and Qu (2020) and Kim and Baker (2019) examined gratitude arising from interactions between customers, employees, and other customers who observe such interactions. However, the gratitude of hospitality employees toward supervisors and organizations has garnered limited attention. The spillover of subordinates' gratitude toward supervisors upon supervisory support to work behaviors could be interesting to examine. Second, empathy is multidimensional, comprising empathic concern, emotional

contagion, and compassion (Davis, 1983). Although the effect of the trait empathy of hospitality employees on their emotional labor strategies has been examined (e.g., Chu *et al*., 2012), future research is necessary to discuss the implications of both trait and state empathy across work and non-work domains. Given the mixed findings regarding empathy (e.g., Sturzu *et al*., 2019), investigating its positive and negative consequences in work and non-work domains may be illuminating. For example, the empathy of hospitality employees may enhance positive workplace behaviors while decreasing employee emotion regulation in non-work settings.

As shown in Table 5, many studies have focused on job satisfaction, work engagement, and job performance as outcomes of employee emotions, affect, and moods. However, the effects of hospitality employees' emotions, affect, and moods on organizational citizenship and socially responsible behaviors have rarely been discussed (for an exception, see Jung and Yoon, 2015). Organizational citizenship behavior indicates unwritten rules that are beyond employment contracts and foster employee well-being (Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). Given the importance of organizational citizenship behavior, identifying which emotions shape such behavior may be illuminating.

The effects of emotions (e.g., passion, empathy; Chen *et al*., 2019; Chu *et al*., 2012) on emotional labor and vice versa (e.g., gratitude; Kim and Baker, 2019) have been examined in disparate streams. Future research could investigate the bidirectional relationship between hospitality employees' emotions and their emotional labor strategies. In this regard, ESM could effectively establish the effect of empathy on emotional labor (e.g., deep acting) on day 1 and vice versa on day 2. Broad implications of hospitality employees' affect, emotions, and moods for non-work settings are sparse in the reviewed literature. An exception is the study of Tsaur and Tang (2012), who examined the effect of job anxiety on well-being. Thus, future research is

needed to understand how hospitality employees' affect, emotions, and moods manifest in both work and non-work domains.

The reviewed literature has largely focused on univalent emotions (e.g., positive or negative emotions). In contrast, bivalent emotions, also called mixed emotions, have been overlooked. Mixed emotions entail concurrent positive and negative emotions (e.g., bittersweetness and nostalgia). Emerging evidence suggests that mixed emotions are crucial determinants of individual well-being (Berrios *et al.*, 2018). Thus, the antecedents of the mixed emotions of employees is a novel opportunity for future hospitality research. In conclusion, we suggest that a dynamic approach be taken in studying hospitality employees' emotions.

5.4. Limitations

Our review did not include conference papers, industry reports, newspaper articles, or other unpublished works. The literature written in languages other than English was also excluded. Although several studies (e.g., Morrison *et al.*, 2012) showed that including only English-language publications does not bias meta-review results, cross-validating our findings with a systematic review that includes non-English publications may be useful. Moreover, this study only reviewed published research, potentially entailing publication bias (Siddaway *et al.*, 2019). As our focus is literature in the recent decade, we excluded articles published before 2010. Last, our review focused on hospitality outlets. A review of the relevant mainstream literature on organizational behavior or human resources and a comparison with our findings may be illuminating.

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Table 1. Frequencies of articles by journal

Journal name	Rank	Frequency	%
International Journal of Hospitality Management	2	28	45.9
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	3	10	16.4
Cornell Hospitality Quarterly	17	6	9.8
Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management	14	5	8.2
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research	12	3	4.9
European Journal of Tourism Research	n.a.	2	3.3
Tourism Management	1	2	3.3
Anatolia	n.a.	1	1.6
Annals of Tourism Research	5	1	1.6
International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research	n.a.	1	1.6
Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	n.a.	1	1.6
Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism	n.a.	1	1.6
Total		61	100.0

Note. Journal ranking is available from 1st and 20th, and it is based on h5-index from Google Scholar.

Table 2. Frequencies of research design

Study design	Frequency	Percent
Cross-sectional survey (single wave)	47	77.0
Experimental design	4	6.6
Longitudinal survey	3	4.9
Cross-sectional survey (multiple waves)	3	4.9
Interviews	2	3.3
Experience sampling method	1	1.6
Mixed methods	1	1.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 3. Frequencies of study contexts

Continent	Frequency	Percent
Asia	30	49.2
North America	16	26.2
Africa	7	11.5
Europe	6	9.8
South America	1	1.6
Cross-continents	1	1.6
Total	61	100.0

Table 4. Frequencies of emotion theories

Theories with references	Count
Conservation of Resources Theory (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Tizabi, 2011; Lee & Ok, 2012; Lee et al., 2012; Tsaur & Tang, 2012; Choi et al., 2014; Lee & Oak, 2015; Paek et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Weber et al., 2017; Tsaur & Yen, 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Ozturk & Karatepe, 2019; Teng, 2019)	14
Emotional Labor (Chu et al., 2012; Lam & Chen, 2012; Lee & Ok, 2012; Medler-Liraz, 2014; Zhao et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017; Marques et al., 2018; Woo & Chan, 2020)	8
Social Exchange Theory (Karatepe, 2011; Zhao et al., 2011; Kang & Busser, 2018; Jiang et al., 2019; Kim & Bakker, 2019; Ozturk & Karatepe, 2019; Kim & Qu, 2020)	7
Job Demand and Job Resources Model (Karatepe, 2015; Paek et al., 2015; Grobelna, 2019; Hwang & Han, 2019; Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020; Radic et al., 2020)	6
Affective Events Theory (Lam & Chen, 2012; Madera, 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Babalola et al., 2019; Cheung et al., 2019)	5
Role Theory (Vanderpool & Way, 2013; Ustrov et al., 2016; Tsaur & Yen, 2018)	3
Person-Environmental Fit (Li et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017; Gordon et al., 2019)	3
Self-Determination Theory (Karatepe, 2015; Chen et al., 2019; Teng, 2019)	3
Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Weber et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2018; Kim & Bakker, 2019)	3
Scarcity Theory (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008; Tsaur & Yen, 2018)	2
Perception Mechanism (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Magaji, 2008)	2
Attribution Theory (Zhao et al., 2011; Kim & Bakker, 2019)	2
Transactional Theory of Stress (Karatepe et al., 2014; Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020)	2
Basic Theory of Heat-Affect-Overload (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009)	1
Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Medler-Liraz, 2014)	1
Theory of Separate Spheres (Zhao et al., 2011)	1
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Lee & Ok, 2012)	1

Facial Feedback Theory (Lee & Ok, 2012)	1
Theory of Planned Behavior (Vanderpool & Way, 2013)	1
Stressor-Strain-Outcome Framework (Choi et al., 2014)	1
Work-Leisure Conflict (Lin et al., 2014)	1
Work-Family Conflict (Zhao et al., 2014)	1
Spillover Theory (Tsaur & Yen, 2018)	1
Boundary and Border Theory (Vanderpool & Way, 2013)	1
Theory of Subjective Well-being (Lin et al., 2014)	1
Social Cognitive Theory (Karatepe, 2015)	1
Stigma Theory (Madera, 2016)	1
Person-Job Fit (Grobelna, 2019)	1
Social Capital Theory (Li & Hsu, 2017)	1
Organizational Climate Theory (Li et al., 2017)	1
Social Interaction Model (Nam & Shin, 2017)	1
Expansion-Enhancement Perspective (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008)	1
Social Identity Theory (Madera, 2018)	1
Two-Step Process of Threat Appraisal (Madera, 2018)	1
Job Characteristic Theory (Grobelna, 2019)	1
Control Theory (Kim & Bakker, 2019)	1
Equity Theory (Kim & Bakker, 2019)	1
Attachment Theory (Qu et al., 2020)	1
Stimulus-Organism-Response Framework (Xu & Wang, 2020)	1

Table 5. Affect, emotions, and moods

	Type	Antecedents	Outcomes	Scales
Affect 19 articles (31%)	Trait	Job stress, demands	Work-family and family-work conflict	Watson et al.'s (1988) PANAS
		Leisure coping styles	Emotional dissonance	Agho et al.'s (1992) scale
		Social support	Emotive effort	Mroczek and Kolarz's (1998) scale
		Job burnout	Emotional exhaustion	
		Work-leisure conflict	Work engagement	
		Job and leisure satisfaction	Tip amount	
		Supervisory support	Job satisfaction & performance	
	State	Leadership style	Customer orientation	
		Customer interactivity	Innovation	
		Facial stigma	Job performance	
		Perspective-taking of discrimination	Interviewer behavior	
			Importance of diversity management	
Emotions 39 articles (64%)	Hope		Organizational citizenship behavior	Luthans et al.'s (2007) Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-12)
			Job satisfaction	
			Emotional demands–abilities fit	
			Work engagement	
	Job anxiety	Supervisory support	Surface acting	Parker and DeCotiis's (1983) scale
		Work-family balance	Turnover intention	
			Well-being	
	Generic anxiety	Job insecurity	Job satisfaction	Lovibond and Lovibond's (1995) scale
	Gratitude	Customers' politeness	Customer service	Palmatier et al.'s (2009) scale
		Surface vs. deep acting	Customers' tipping behavior and loyalty	
	Empathy		Emotive effort	Davis's (1983) Individual Reactivity Index
			Emotive dissonance	Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) Emotional Empathy Scale
	Passion	Job crafting	Surface vs. deep acting	Vallerand and Houlfort's (2003) scale

			Customer service	Marsh et al.'s (2013) shorten version of scale
	Anger	Work-related social stressors	Emotional exhaustion	Rupp et al. (2008) and Taylor (1994) scale
			Cynicism	
			Personal efficacy	
	Happiness	Job satisfaction, Organizational justice	Intention to remain Workplace deviant behavior	Affective commitment from Frye et al. (2010) and Qu et al. (2020)
	Pride			
	Guilt			
	Fear disappointment discomfort	Sexual harassment	Organizational blame	
Moods		Workplace gossip	Job satisfaction	The Bar-On (1997) emotional quotient inventory
3 articles (5%)			Customers' satisfaction and behavioral intention	Thompson's (2007) short version of PANAS
				Bono et al.'s (2007) scale

Appendix A. Summary of literature with the five most frequently used theories

Conservation of resources theory

	Year	Authors	Key findings	Theories	Contexts and samples
1	2009	Karatepe & Aleshinloye	Emotional exhaustion partially mediates the influence of emotional dissonance on turnover intention.	1. Conservation of resources (COR) theory 2. The basic theory of heat-affect-overload	Full-time frontline employees of five-star hotels in Abuja and Lagos, Nigeria
2	2011	Karatepe & Tizabi	Emotional exhaustion fully mediates the effect of positive affectivity on depression.	COR theory	Full-time Arab frontline employees in five-star hotels in Dubai, UAE
3	2012	Lee et al.	Three dimensions of workplace stressors (i.e., customer-related, work environment-related, and job task-related) influence negative affectivity.	COR theory	Full-time frontline hotel employees in South Korea
4	2012	Tsaur & Tang	The impact of job stress of well-being is moderated by regularly leisure coping styles. Specifically, planned-breather leisure coping style buffers the impact of job stress on well-being. On the contrary, avoidant leisure coping style magnifies the negative effect of job stress on well-being.	COR theory	Female frontline hotel employees in Taiwan
5	2014	Choi et al.	Customer related social stressors positively influence emotional exhaustion of frontline employees, which in turn negatively impacts customer orientation and service recovery performance.	1. Stressor–strain–outcome framework 2. COR theory	Frontline employees working in travel agencies, hotels, and restaurants in South Korea
6	2014	Lee & Ok	1. Hotel employees' job burnout mediates the relationship between their emotional dissonance and service sabotage. 2. The mediating effects of hotel employees' burnout is moderated by emotional intelligence (EI). Employees who are high EI is less likely to be influenced by burnout and to experience emotional dissonance.	COR theory	Employees in the guest-facing positions in the hotel industry in the United States (US)

7	2015	Paek et al.*	1. Hotel employees' work engagement partially mediates the psychological capital - job satisfaction relationship and psychological capital - affective organizational commitment relationship.	1. COR theory 2. Job demands and job resources model (JD-R model)	Frontline employees in the five-star hotels in South Korea
8	2017	Li et al.*	1. Hospitality employees' surface acting mediates the relationship between mindfulness and emotional exhaustion. 2. When the levels of perceived climate of authenticity increase, the positive relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion is weaker.	1. Organizational climate theory 2. COR theory 3. Person-environment fit theory 4. Emotional labor theory	Casino frontline employees in Macau, China
9	2017	Weber et al.	1. Anger mediates the relationship between employees' work-related social stressors (customer-related stressors and negative online review stressors) and part of the job burnout, including emotional exhaustion and cynicism.	1. Cognitive appraisal theory 2. COR theory	Restaurant employees in the US
10	2018	Tsaur & Yen	Both work-to-leisure conflict and leisure-to-work conflict had negatively impacts on job satisfaction. Work-to-leisure conflict also negatively influenced leisure satisfaction and psychological well-being. Generational differences moderated the relationship between work-leisure conflict and outcomes.	1. Scarcity theory 2. Role theory 3. Spillover theory 4. COR theory	Employees in hotels, travel agencies, theme parks, and airline companies in Taiwan
11	2019	Chen et al.	Deep and surface acting mediated the relationship between harmonious, obsessive passion and emotional exhaustion	1. Self-determination theory 2. COR theory	Frontline restaurant employees in Taiwan
12	2019	Teng	Job crafting positively influenced employees' role-prescribed service behavior and extra-role service behavior via harmonious passion	1. COR theory 2. Self-determination theory	Hotel employees in Taiwan

	Emotion constructs	Emotion measurements	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Outcome
1	Negative affectivity (NA), emotional exhaustion (EE)	NA: 3 items from Agho et al. (1992), EE: 8 items from Maslach and Jackson (1981)	Negative affectivity, intrinsic motivation	Emotional dissonance, emotional exhaustion	N/A	Job performance, turnover intention
2	Positive affectivity (PA), emotional exhaustion, depression	PA from Agho et al. (1992), EE: 8 items from Maslach and Jackson (1981), depression: 20 items from the CES-D (Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression) scale developed by Radloff (1977)	Positive affectivity (PA), intrinsic motivation (IM)	Emotional exhaustion	Interaction between PA and IM	Depression
3	Negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion	NA: 3 items from Watson and Clark (1984), EE: 4 items from Maslach and Jackson (1981)	Three dimensions of workplace stressors	Negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion	Organizational level	Customer orientation
4	Positive and negative affectivity as part of well-being	6 items from Psychological General Well-Being Index by Grossi et al. (2006)	Job stress	N/A	Leisure coping styles	Well-being
5	Emotional exhaustion	8 items from Maslach and Jackson's (1981)	Customer-related social stressors	Emotional exhaustion	N/A	Customer orientation, service recovery performance
6	Emotional dissonance	Hospitality emotional labor scale from Chu & Murrman (2006)	Emotional dissonance	Burnout	Emotional intelligence	Sabotage
7	Hope as part of psychological capital	PsyCap scale (Luthans et al., 2007)	PsyCap	Work engagement	N/A	Job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment

8	Emotional exhaustion	1. 6 items from Maslach and Jackson (1981)	Mindfulness	Surface acting	Climate of authenticity	Emotional exhaustion
9	Anger, emotional exhaustion	Anger: 4 items from Rupp et al. (2008) and Taylor (1994), EE: from Maslach et al. (1996)	1. Customer-related social stressors 2. Negative online review stressors	Anger	N/A	Job burnout (emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and personal efficacy)
10	Psychological well-being	Iwasaki and Smale (1998)	1. Work-to-leisure conflict 2. Leisure-to-work conflict	N/A	Generational differences (baby boomers, generation X, millennials)	Leisure satisfaction, psychological well-being, job satisfaction
11	Passion	Vallerand and Houlfort (2003)	Harmonious and obsessive passion	Deep and surface acting	N/A	Emotional exhaustion
12	Passion	Marsh et al. (2013)	Job crafting	Harmonious passion, obsessive passion	N/A	Role-prescribed service behavior, extra-role service behavior

Emotional labor theory

	Year	Authors	Key findings	Theories	Contexts and samples
13	2012	Chu et al.	Positive/negative affect and affective empathy influence emotive effect, which in turn impacts emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.	1. Emotional labor theory 2. leader-member exchange (LMX) theory	Full-time frontline hotel employees in the US
14	2012	Lee & Ok*	Emotional intelligence negatively influences emotional dissonance, which in turn positively impacts emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is negatively related to job satisfaction.	1. Emotional labor theory 2. COR theory 3. Facial feedback theory	Frontline hotel employees and managers in the US
15	2014	Medler-Liraz	1. When employees are engaged in surface acting and deep acting, there is a positive relationship between negative affectivity (NA) and tip size. 2. When employees perceive a high quality relationship with their leaders, NA is positively associated with tip size.	1. Emotional labor theory 2. leader-member exchange (LMX) theory	Restaurant employees in Israel
16	2014	Zhao et al.	1. Employees' family-to-work conflict has a positive relationship with physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion. While the results were not found in the influences of work-to-family conflict. 2. Employees who experience physical exhaustion are more likely to fake positive emotions and suppress negative emotions. In turn, faking positive emotions positively influence employees' role performance at work and negatively impact customer satisfaction.	1. Work-family conflict theory 2. Emotional labor theory	Frontline employees and customers in hotels in Macau, China
17	2018	Marques et al.	Organizational customer orientation was positively associated with expression of genuine emotions, whereas individual customer orientation was positively related to both deep acting and expression of genuine emotions. Emotional labor strategies had different impacts on burnout, affective delivery, job satisfaction and affective commitment.	Emotional labor theory	Frontline employees in hotels and travel agencies in Portugal
18	2020	Woo & Chan	Customers perceive a higher degree of frontline service employee's nonverbal immediacy in the high (vs. low) extent Duchenne smile condition. Nonverbal immediacy was positively and significantly associated with employee-customer rapport.	Emotional labor theory	Hong Kong, China

	Emotion constructs	Emotion measurements	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Outcome
13	Positive and negative affectivity, empathy (empathic concern & emotional contagion)	6 items from PANAS, 7 items of empathic concern from the Individual Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1983), 7 items of emotional contagion from Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) Emotional Empathy Scale	Positive and negative affectivity, empathy (empathic concern & emotional contagion)	Emotional labor (emotive dissonance and effort)	N/A	Job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion
14	Emotional exhaustion	7 items from Maslach and Jackson (1986)	Emotional intelligence	Emotional labor (emotive dissonance and effort)	N/A	Job satisfaction, burnout
15	Negative affectivity	PANAS (Watson et al., 1988)	Negative affectivity	N/A	Emotional labor strategies, leader-member exchange	Tipping amount
16	Emotional displays, emotional exhaustion	Emotional displays: 4 items from Rupp & Spencer (2006) and Spencer & Carnevale (2003), EE: 2 items from Pines et al. (1981)	1. Work-to-family conflict 2. Family-to-work conflict	Exhaustion (physical, emotional, and mental), emotional display	N/A	Employees role performance, customer satisfaction
17	Emotional exhaustion	Maslac (1993)	1. Organizational customer orientation 2. Individual customer orientation	Emotional labor strategies	N/A	Burnout, affective delivery, job satisfaction, affective commitment
18	Pre- and post-encounter customer affect	Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006)	Duchenne smile (high extent vs. low extent) and repeated down-nods (high extent vs. low extent) for service employee	Nonverbal immediacy, authenticity of service encounter, post-encounter customer affect	N/A	Employee-customer rapport

Social exchange theory

	Year	Authors	Key findings	Theories	Contexts and samples
19	2011	Karatepe	Work engagement fully mediated impacts of procedural justice on affective commitment, job performance, and extra-role customer service.	Social exchange theory (SET)	Full-time frontline employees of the four- and five-star hotels in Abuja, Nigeria
20	2011	Zhao et al.	Both work-family conflict and family-work conflict negatively influence the affective component of job satisfaction, which in turn positively impacts life satisfaction.	1. Theory of separate spheres 2. SET 3. Attribution theory	Hotel sales managers in China
21	2018	Kang & Busser	1. Employees engagement mediates the psychological capital - turnover intention relationship and service climate - turnover relationship. 2. Psychological capital and service climate have a stronger impact on managerial employees than frontline employees.	SET	Employees from a casino resort in the US
22	2019	Jiang et al.	Leaders' positive affective presence had positive impacts on employees' energy at work, which in turn, lead to better service performance. And the relationship between energy at work and service performance was moderated by group service climate	SET	Employees and their direct supervisors in hotels in China
23	2019	Kim & Baker	Customers experienced greater level of gratitude when they saw employees' deep acting, compared to surface acting, which in turn, led to tipping and loyalty.	1. Control theory 2. Equity theory 3. Appraisal theory of emotion 4. Theory of reciprocity 5. Attribution theory	US consumers
24	2019	Ozturk & Karatepe*	1. Psychological capital influence hotel employees' intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work and absenteeism only through the mediating role of trust. 2. Psychological capital has a direct relationship with creative performance and an indirect relationship through the mediating role of trust.	1. COR theory 2. SET	Full-time hotel frontline employees in Russia
25	2020	Kim & Qu	Customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange were associated with gratitude and obligation, which in turn, influence role-prescribed customer service and extra-role customer service	SET	Restaurant frontline employees in the US

	Emotion constructs	Emotion measurements	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Outcome
19	Affective commitment	5 items from Mowday et al. (1979)	Procedural justice	Work engagement	N/A	Job performance, affective commitment, extra-role customer service
20	Affective component of job satisfaction	4 items from Grandey et al. (2005)	1. Work-family conflict 2. family-work conflict	Cognitive and affective components of job satisfaction	N/A	Life satisfaction
21	Hope as part of psychological capital	PsyCap scale (Luthans et al., 2007)	1. Psychological capital 2. Service climate	Work engagement	N/A	Turnover intention
22	Leaders' positive affective presence	Madrid et al. (2016)	Leaders' positive affective presence	Employees' energy at work	Group service climate	Service performance
23	Customer gratitude	Palmatier et al. (2009), McCullough et al. (2002)	Emotional labor strategy	Customer gratitude	service consumption criticality	Customer loyalty to employee, tipping
24	Hope and optimism as psychological capital	Luthans et al. (2007)	Psychological capital	Trust	N/A	Intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work, absenteeism, creative performance
25	Gratitude	Palmatier et al. (2009)	1. Customer-employee exchange, 2. Leader-member exchange, 3. Coworker exchange	Gratitude and obligation	N/A	Role-prescribed customer service and extra-role customer service

Job demands-resources model

	Year	Authors	Key findings	Theories	Contexts and samples
26	2015	Karatepe	1. Hotel frontline employees' personal resources (positive affectivity, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy) mediate the relationship between their perceived organizational support and three outcomes (emotional exhaustion, extra-role customer service, turnover intentions)	1. Self-determination theory 2. Social cognitive theory 3. JD-R model	Hotel frontline employees in the guest-facing positions in Cameroon
27	2019	Grobelna	Work engagement mediated the relationship between positive affectivity, polychronicity, task significance and job performance	1. Person–job fit theory 2. JD-R model 3. Job characteristics theory (JCT)	Frontline hotel employees in Poland
28	2019	Hwang & Han	Psychological capital was positively related to emotional demands–abilities (ED–A) fit, which in turn, led to positive affective delivery. And this mediation was moderated by customer-related social stressors (CSS)	JD-R model	Ground service staff and their supervisors from airlines in Taiwan
29	2020	Darvishmotevali & Ali	Job insecurity negatively influenced subjective well-being, which in turn, influenced their job performance. Psychological capital moderated the relationship between job insecurity and subjective well-being	JD-R model	Hotel employees and their supervisors in Iran
30	2020	Radic et al.	Job resources were positively relation to work engagement and to well-being. Job resources positively influence work engagement and, to a considerably lesser degree, well-being. Work engagement has a strong and direct positive effect on well-being.	JD-R model	Cruise ship consumers (61.5% from Europe, 12.5% from North America, 12.2% from Asia, and 3.4% from Africa)

	Emotion constructs	Emotion measurements	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Outcome
26		PA: 3 items from Agho et al. (1992), EE: 8 items from Maslach and Jackson (1981)	Perceived organizational support	Personal resources (positive affectivity, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy)	N/A	1. emotional exhaustion 2. extra-role customer service 3. turnover intention
27	Positive affectivity	Positive affectivity: Iverson et al., 1998 work engagement: Schaufeli et al., 2006	1. Task significance 2. positive affectivity 3. Polychronicity	Work engagement	N/A	Job performance
28	Hope and optimism as psychological capital	Grandey (2003)	Psychological capital	Emotional demands-abilities fit	Customer-related social stressors	Positive affective delivery, breaking character
29	hope as psychological capital	Diener et al. (1985)	Job insecurity	Subjective well-being	Psychological capital	Job performance
30	Well-being	WHO-5 scale from World Health Organization (1998)	Job demands & resources	Work engagement	N/A	Well-being

Affective event theory

	Year	Authors	Key findings	Theories	Contexts and samples
31	2012	Lam & Chen*	The lack of supervisory support induces negative emotions of employees, which in turn influence surface acting and turnover behaviors.	1. Emotional labor theory 2. Affective event theory (AET)	Frontline hotel employees and their immediate supervisors in five-star hotels in China
32	2016	Madera	1. Job applicants' facial stigma positively influence job interviewers' negative affect and negative behavior, which in turn, influence job applicants' ratings of the interviewers' behaviors	1. AET 2. Stigma theory	Students in MS/MBA hospitality programs in the US
33	2017	Lee et al.	1. Person-organization fit has a positive relationship with emotions toward organization, team and job. Person-job fit only positively associated with organizational and job emotions. 2. Organizational and team emotions is positively associated with employees' performance.	1. Person-environment fit theory 2. AET	Employees in the guest facing positions in luxury hotel restaurants in South Korea
34	2019	Babalola et al.	Target trait mindfulness and target trait forgiveness moderated the indirect effect of perceived negative workplace gossip on target customer service performance via target negative mood	AET	Employee-customer dyads in hotels in Nigeria
35	2019	Cheung et al.*	Anxiety mediated the impact of job insecurity on job satisfaction when psychological capital or perceived employability was low	1. AET 2. JD-R model	Full-time casino and hotel employees in Macau, China

	Emotion constructs	Emotion measurements	Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Outcome
31	Negative emotions	Five item in total - anxiety, unhappiness, tiredness, and anger from Daniels (2000) and Fisher (2000 and hopelessness from Snyder et al. (1991)	Supervisory support	Justice, emotions, emotional labor, job satisfaction	N/A	Service quality rated by supervisors and actual turnover of employees
32	Negative affect	1. 10-item PANAS scale (Watson et al., 1988)	Job applicant stigma	Job interviewers' negative affect and negative behavior	N/A	Applicants' ratings of the interviewers' behaviors
33	Organizational, group, and job emotions	3 items from Lee et al. (2008)	1. Person-organization fit 2. Person-team fit 3. Person-job fit	Emotions toward organization, team and job	N/A	1. employee self-rated job performance 2. supervisor-rated job performance
34	Negative mood	Bono et al. (2007)	Perceived negative workplace gossip	Negative mood	Target trait mindfulness and target trait forgiveness	Target customer service performance
35	Anxiety	Lovibond and Lovibond (1995)	Job insecurity	Anxiety	Psychological capital and perceived employability	Job satisfaction

Note. Asterisk (*) indicates articles that used multiple theories.

Appendix B. Emotion measures

Agho *et al.*'s (1992) scale for positive and negative affectivity

Positive affectivity
       It is easy for me to become enthusiastic about things I am doing.
       I often feel happy and satisfied for no particular reason.
       I live a very interesting life.
       Every day I do things that are fun.
       I usually find ways to liven up my day.
       Most days I have moments of real fun or joy.
       I often feel sort of lucky for no special reason.
       Every day interesting things happen to me.
       In my spare time, I usually find something interesting to do.
       For me life is a great adventure.
       I always seem to have something pleasant to look forward to.

Negative affectivity
       I often find myself worrying about something.
       My feelings are hurt rather easily.
       Often I get irritated at little annoyances.
       I suffer from nervousness.
       My mood often goes up and down.
       I sometimes feel 'just miserable' for no good reason.
       I am easily startled by things that happen unexpectedly.
       I often lose sleep over my worries.
       Minor setbacks sometimes irritate me too much.
       There are days when I'm 'on edge' all of the time.
       I am too sensitive for my own good.
*All of the items are keyed as 'true' or 'false'. True is scored as 1 and false is scored 0.

Watson *et al.*'s (1988) PANAS scale

Positive affect
       enthusiastic; interested; determined; excited; inspired; alert; active; strong; proud;
       attentive

Negative affect
       scared; afraid; upset; distressed; jittery; nervous; ashamed; guilty; irritable; hostile

Mroczek and Kolarz's (1998) scale for positive and negative affect

During the past 30 days, how much of the time did you feel ...
Negative affect
       so sad nothing could cheer you up
       nervous

restless or fidgety
hopeless
that everything was an effort
worthless

Positive affect
    cheerful
    in good spirits
    extremely happy
    calm and peaceful
    satisfied
    full of life
1 = none of the time 2 = a little of the time 3 = some of the time 4 = most of the time 5 = all of the time

Hope (Snyder *et al.,* 1996)
    If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of ways to get out of it.
    At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals.
    There are lots of ways around any problem that I am facing now.
    Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.
    I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.
    At this time, I am meeting the goals that I have set for myself.

Optimism (Scheier and Carver, 1985)
    In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
    It's easy for me to relax.
    If something can go wrong for me, it will.
    I'm always optimistic about my future.
    I enjoy my friends a lot.
    It's important for me to keep busy.
    I hardly ever expect things to go my way.
    I don't get upset too easily.
    I rarely count on good things happening to me.
    Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.

Gratitude (Palmatier *et al.,* 2009)
    I feel thankful/grateful/appreciative to customers

Job anxiety (Parker and DeCotiis, 1983)
    I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.
    My job gets to me more than it should.
    There are lots of times when my job drives me right up the wall.
    Sometimes when I think about my job, I get a tight feeling in my chest.

Generic anxiety (Lovibond and Lovibond, 1995)
Autonomic arousal

1 was aware of the action of my heart in the absence of physical exertion (e.g, sense of heart rate increase, heart missing a beat)*

I perspired noticeably (e.g. hands sweaty) in the absence of high temperatures or physical exertion

1 was aware of dryness of my mouth*

1 experienced breathing difficulty (e.g. excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion)*

I had difficulty in swallowing

Skeletal musculature effects

I had a feeling of shakiness (e.g. legs going to give way)

I experienced trembling (e.g. in the hands)*

Situational anxiety

I was worried about situations in which I might panic and make a fool of myself*

1 found myself in situations which made me so anxious I was most relieved when they ended

I feared that I would be "thrown" by some trivial but unfamiliar task

Subjective experience of anxious affect

I felt 1 was close to panic*

I felt terrified

I felt scared without any good reason*

I had a feeling of faintness

Passion toward work (Vallerand and Houlfort, 2003)

Harmonious passion

My work allows me to live a variety of experiences.

The new things that I discover within the confines of my work allow me to appreciate it even more.

My line of work reflects the qualities I like about myself.

My work is in harmony with the other activities in my life.

My work is a passion, that I still manage to control.

My work allows me to live memorable experiences.

I am completely taken with my work.

Obsessive passion

I cannot live without my work.

The urge is so strong. I can't help myself from doing my work.

I have difficulty imagining my life without my work.

I am emotionally dependent on my work.

I have a tough time controlling my need to do my work.

I have almost an obsessive feeling for my work.

My mood depends on my being able to do my work.