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**SUCCESSFUL AGING AND TURNOVER INTENTION AMONG
OLDER HOSPITALITY
FRONTLINE EMPLOYEES**

A Dissertation

presented in partial fulfillment of requirements

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in the Department of Nutrition and Hospitality Management

The University of Mississippi

By THAMSANQA JONGILE

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ABSTRACT

This two-part dissertation delves into the intertwined precursors of successful aging and turnover intent in the hospitality sector. The first part applies a structural equation model to examine the link between perceived narcissistic leadership, successful aging, and turnover intentions. The author posits that work engagement, employee cynicism, and emotional fatigue are the mechanisms through which perceived narcissistic leadership affects successful aging and turnover intent. The findings affirm these conjectures, revealing that narcissistic leadership serves as a predictor of successful aging and turnover intent.

The second manuscript probes further into the antecedents of successful aging, evaluating a theoretical model in which the author proposes that emotional labor strategies are indirectly associated with successful aging and turnover intention. Specifically, the study insists that employee resilience, job satisfaction, and emotional labor are the channels through which emotional labor strategies influence successful aging and turnover intention among older employees. The results of a structural equation model disclose that surface acting, due to its associations with employee resilience, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction, is a distal predictor of successful aging and turnover intent. However, while deep acting was associated with job satisfaction and employee resilience, there was no support for its impact on successful aging and turnover intention.

Taken together, the manuscripts offer an encompassing perspective on the successful

aging phenomenon within the hospitality work environment. They illuminate the influence of psychosocial elements on occupational longevity, thereby holding substantial theoretical, practical, and policy significance. The studies also set the stage for future inquiries into the notion of successful aging at work, a topic of high relevance considering the anticipated workplace demographic shift.

The dissertation is structured into five chapters. The first chapter presents the topic, provides context, and justifies the research. The second chapter assesses the existing literature and pinpoints the research gaps that this study seeks to bridge. The ensuing chapters detail the manuscripts, including their research methodology, data collection, and analysis. The concluding chapter integrates the principal findings and proposes directions for future research. Altogether, this dissertation enriches the hospitality literature by underlining the impact of psychosocial factors on the successful aging of older workers, a group whose services the industry will increasingly depend on.

Keywords: Successful Aging, Turnover Intention, Emotional Exhaustion, Work Engagement, Narcissistic Leadership, Surface Acting, Deep Acting,

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This dissertation marks the pinnacle of my scholarly voyage, earning my PhD in Hospitality Management from the University of Mississippi. The conception, development, and penning of this academic piece has been a taxing yet enlightening endeavor.

I dedicate this body of work to my family, whose unwavering love, steadfast support, and ceaseless inspiration have been my bedrock during this strenuous journey. I am deeply indebted to my dissertation supervisor, Dr. David Joung, for his invaluable guidance. I also express special gratitude to my dissertation committee members: Drs. Teresa Carithers, Cindy Choi, Saim Kashmiri, and James Taylor for their wisdom, constructive feedback, and relentless backing.

I further extend my appreciation to the faculty members, peers, and friends at the University of Mississippi, who fostered a stimulating academic environment, incited intellectual dialogues, and served as a wellspring of inspiration. I am most grateful for my girlfriend and best friend, Davita Dijkstra, for constantly pushing me to be my best. Finally, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my friend, Goldar Nano Tiene who despite the demands of young motherhood, has always made time to assist me with my academic work.

The research conducted and the conclusions drawn in this dissertation are solely my own, unless explicitly cited or acknowledged. ii

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INTRODUCTION

The 20th century witnessed a surge in global life expectancy by nearly 30 years (Cubric & Petruzelli, 2020). This shift, in conjunction with elements such as enhanced health care and declining birth rates, has resulted in a substantial increase in the number of older adults in the workforce (Ann & Blum, 2020). For the first time in recent history, today's workplace is characterized by the presence of employees from four different generations (Gabriel et al., 2020). As one might anticipate from such generational diversity, this shift has ushered in changes in attitudes, societal norms, and workplace relationships (Kooij et al., 2020). Hence, authoritative bodies like the World Health Organization, the White House Conference on Aging, and the National Institute on Aging have initiated calls for research into the determinants of successful aging at work, with a goal to garner insights for policymaking and workplace interventions (Kooij et al., 2020).

So far, the crucial questions regarding the successful aging concept are: what does 'success' mean in the context of aging? How can organizations ensure that their employees age successfully? What is the criterion used to qualify an individual as an older employee? The modern concept of successful aging at work (SAW) finds its roots in present-day interpretations of organizational and lifespan developmental theories. This idea highlights the crucial role of the workplace in facilitating successful aging (Olson & Schultz, 2019), suggesting that rewarding, long-term work experiences can be upheld by effectively adapting to both personal (such as age-related) and external (like environmental) changes (Kooij, 2015; Olson & Schultz, 2019; Zacher,

2015). Employees subjectively assess how successfully they are aging based on how positively their trajectories of a work outcome deviate from the average outcome (Robson et al., 2006; Hansson et al., 2007; Zacher, 2015).

Kooij (2015) interprets successful aging at work as the continuous preservation of an individual's ability, health, and drive to work until, and even beyond, retirement. This definition underscores the importance of the employee's proactive engagement in creating work resources and ensuring a sustained match between themselves and their environment. Furthering this concept, Zacher (2015) emphasized that successful aging doesn't only involve preserving existing levels of functioning but also includes an employee's development or growth. Consequently, successful aging at work can be perceived as an individual's age-related advancement towards a work outcome (like well-being or job performance) that shows a positive deviation from the average age-related progression. From this viewpoint, an employee whose work outcome has decreased over time can still be seen as aging successfully if their progression is more favorable than the average age-related trajectory (Zacher, 2015).

While there has been increase interest on the concept of successful aging at work, the literature concept of an increased interest on the successful aging concept, the criteria upon which one is classified as an older worker remains contested (Bal, 2015). Some scholars, taking cues from the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, set the threshold at 40 years old (e.g., Bal et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2006; Zacher, Kooij & Beier, 2018), while others abide by the U.S. Department of Labor's guideline, marking aging workers as those aged 55 or over. Due to theoretical and practical considerations, this study chooses 40 or over as the cut-off. Theoretically, research suggests that employees' functional capacities begin to diminish around this age (Cheung et al., 2018). For instance, Ilmarinen (2001) proposed that workers' functional

abilities, specifically physical capability, and perceived work capacity, would start to decline at 40. On a practical note, acknowledging the issues faced by these comparatively "young" aging workers allows researchers and organizations to devise and execute strategies sooner, thereby maximizing their potential and assuring their effective navigation of the workplace. Hence, based on both theoretical rationale and practical consequences, this study considers 40 years old as the defining age for older workers.

Organizations can promote successful aging by instituting processes, mechanisms, and conditions that encourage positive subjective and objective work outcomes for employees at various life stages (Kooij, 2015; Zacher et al., 2016). These considerations are especially vital for "older employees," defined as those aged 40 or above (Bal et al., 2015), who are typically nearing the end of their career trajectories (Zacher, Kooij & Beier 2018). Despite the wide array of organizational studies in hospitality literature, the focus on age is usually limited to its function as a control variable rather than the primary subject of investigation. However, in light of the anticipated demographic shift, hospitality organizations face a key question: how to devise interventions for the sustainable employability of older employees. Regrettably, due to the paucity of research on the successful aging phenomenon, the hospitality industry has little guidance on managing this demographic transition.

Therefore, this dissertation presents a collection of studies that intertwine organizational behavior and gerontology viewpoints to investigate the effects of psychosocial factors on successful aging in the hospitality frontline employees. A frontline employee in the hospitality industry is an individual who interacts directly with guests and represents the face of their establishment. They play a crucial role in shaping guests' experiences and ensuring customer satisfaction. Their tasks may range from check-ins, food and beverage service, to addressing

queries and concerns. Common positions for frontline employees in this sector include receptionists, bellhops, waitstaff, bartenders, housekeeping staff, and concierges. Given their direct interaction with customers, frontline employees are essential in influencing a guest's perception of the hospitality brand and play a pivotal role in service delivery and guest satisfaction. Specifically, the research proposes that emotional regulation, narcissistic leadership, and human resource policies intersect with elements like employee resilience, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction to shape employee functionality and longevity within hospitality careers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aging trend, often referred to as the "Silver Tsunami" (Henderson et al., 2017), is occurring alongside "the great resignation"—a post-pandemic phase during which numerous sectors, particularly the hospitality industry, are witnessing higher than usual resignation rates. Acknowledging the severity of the problem, certain hospitality organizations like airlines have turned to recruiting older workers to address this challenge (Ann & Blum, 2020). However, despite the variations in their needs, values, and aging trajectories (Kooij et al., 2008), no studies have explored the factors that might impede or promote healthy, extended, and productive working lives for older employees in the hospitality industry. Therefore, to further the research and practical measures in this domain, this dissertation scrutinizes the diverse psychosocial elements that may impact successful aging among older frontline hospitality employees.

Despite widespread support for the concept of successful aging, its definition and the underlying processes remain ambiguous. From an organizational perspective, successful aging is considered the processes, mechanisms, and conditions that lead to positive work outcomes throughout one's lifespan, particularly in later years (Hansson et al., 1997; Kooij, 2015; Zacher,

2015). Nevertheless, the term successful aging is frequently employed ambiguously, typically focusing solely on the positive outcomes for older workers (Zacher, 2015, Kooij et al., 2020). This method tends to downplay the psychosocial contextual factors at the heart of these outcomes. Ignoring these elements can be problematic as it results in a limited understanding and interpretation of the concept, leading to inconsistent narratives when discussing the best strategies to support the aging workforce.

Accordingly, the current study has three primary objectives:

1. The study seeks to determine the impact of psychological resources on successful aging and turnover intention. In so doing, the study provides guidance on how personal resources can be utilized for the benefit of both the individual and the organization.
2. The inquiry aims to investigate the relationship between despotic leadership and successful aging and turnover intention among older restaurant frontline employees. Through this knowledge, practitioners may better understand how leadership qualities may foster or hinder productive employee longevity within the organization.
3. The current study seeks to examine the impact of emotional coping strategies on the successful aging and turnover intentions of older restaurant frontline employees.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The roots of successful aging research can be traced back to the early 1950s in gerontology and developmental psychology, where scholars put forth three impactful theories to further the discourse. The disengagement theory, the first of these, suggested that as individuals age, they become more aware of their impending mortality, leading them to retreat from social activities to prepare for their inevitable departure (Cumming & Henry, 1961). That same year, Havighurst's (1961) activity theory provided a counterpoint, asserting that successful aging was the outcome of older adults remaining engaged and socially involved within their communities. Aligned with the literature on active aging, the activity theory proposes that the upkeep of life roles, personal relationships, and social activities positively influences subjective well-being, which in turn impacts life satisfaction and the degree of successful aging. Building on this perspective, the continuity theory (Atchley, 1989) postulated that older adults need to sustain the same level of engagement and activity as in their youth, providing a foundation for continuity that ultimately leads to successful aging.

The 1980s and early 1990s marked a significant progression in the concept of successful aging from a medical viewpoint (Rowe & Kahn, 1987). In this period, experts defined successful aging as the concurrent existence of a low risk of disease, high levels of maintained physical and cognitive function, and sustained social engagement (Rowe & Kahn, 1997). In this narrative,

researchers proposed that an individual's aging process is considered normal if they follow the average or typical age-related trends in these outcomes. However, those aging successfully exhibit outcomes that are positively divergent from this average. Nevertheless, it was also posited that there could be significant differences in how individuals experience these simultaneous outcomes due to factors such as genetics and lifestyle habits (Rowe & Kahn, 1987).

The conceptualization of successful aging by Rowe and Kahn (1987) has been met with criticism in organizational behavior literature, mainly due to its lack of acknowledgment for the social, economic, and institutional factors that significantly influence the process of aging successfully, particularly in a work setting (Hansson et al., 2007; Zacher & Rudolph, 2017). Scholars argue that the activities embodied in the generalized understanding of the phenomenon are insufficient for evaluating the concept in the context of work. Therefore, researchers have come to a consensus that successful aging is a complex construct that requires context-specific assessments rather than generic ones (Shane, 2019; Kooij, 2015; Zacher, 2015). This viewpoint has prompted researchers to establish varied criteria for measuring the concept.

In the 1990s and subsequent years, two influential models associated with successful aging have emerged: the Selection, Optimization, and Compensation model (SOC) (Baltes & Baltes, 1990) and the Motivational Theory of Lifespan Development (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). The SOC model suggests that successful aging is the result of effectively leveraging strategies of selection, optimization, and compensation. The selection aspect of the model is divided into elective selection, involving goal setting, prioritization, and refinement to realize desired outcomes, and loss-based selection, involving repetition of specific activities to mitigate losses (Kooij et al., 2020). The underpinning principle of selection is driven by two assumptions: firstly, that goal setting is an integral part of development, and secondly, that development is

constrained by existing limitations like time and resources (Baltes, 1997). The optimization part of the model involves various strategies to facilitate and maximize goal attainment. For instance, an individual may manage time effectively to reach their goals or conserve their resources. Conversely, compensation involves achieving and maintaining the desired level of functionality in the anticipation of a resource decrease (Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2003).

The Motivational Theory of Lifespan Development (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995) aims to elucidate how individuals actively shape their growth throughout their lives. At the heart of this theory is the notion that primary control provides the adaptive advantages necessary for an individual to navigate and flourish in their environment (Shane & Heckhausen, 2019). Essentially, the theory suggests that aging facilitates the development of regulatory skills, enabling older adults to choose and pursue goals more effectively (Wrosch et al., 2003). Nevertheless, despite an individual's motivation to maximize control remaining constant across their life (Heckhausen, 1997), both biological and societal factors may curtail their ability to do so (Heckhausen, 1999). As a result of this disconnect, individuals are prompted to adopt strategies that optimize their changing circumstances (Shane & Heckhausen, 2019). These strategies broadly encompass the dimensions of primary and secondary control, as well as selection and compensation (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1993). Each is orchestrated in a way that enables individuals to effectively pursue and achieve their goals.

Selective primary control strategies involve the mental and behavioral commitment to a goal (Shane & Heckhausen, 2019). In the professional sphere, such strategies might involve activities that enhance career development, such as participating in training opportunities that potentially further career progression (Kooij et al., 2020). However, as not all objectives are straightforward to achieve, the anticipation and response to associated challenges require the

implementation of selective secondary control strategies. These encompass internal volitional actions such as enhancing the perceived importance of the goal and strategies to avoid distractions (Poulin & Heckhausen, 2007). Alternatively, compensatory primary control strategies involve identifying different avenues for goal achievement. These strategies gain prominence when the attainment of a goal becomes challenging (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1993). In a work setting, such a strategy could involve pursuing one's objectives through measures like seeking help from colleagues (Kooij et al., 2020).

Compensatory secondary control strategies involve self-protective measures that individuals employ to disengage from a goal (Heckhausen J. W., 2010). Ideally, these strategies are implemented to mitigate threats to psychological resources like self-esteem when a person withdraws from a goal (Shane & Heckhausen, 2019). Such strategies might include self-protective thoughts, such as comparing oneself to others who seem to be in more challenging situations (e.g., "I think of my co-workers who have to deal with even worse supervisors"), or attributing failures to external sources (e.g., "I remind myself that it is not my fault that I failed to meet the deadline"). Thus, grounded in organizational and lifespan development theories, the emerging concept of successful aging at work is theorized as the sustainable preservation of an individual's health, motivation, and capacity to work until or even beyond retirement (Kooij, 2015).

Successfully aging at work is a self-guided endeavor in which individuals employ regulatory behavior to maintain, adjust, and restore their person-job fit in the work environment (Kooij et al., 2020). From a work perspective, successful aging entails the maintenance or improvement of an individual's physical, mental, and social well-being, along with the continual demonstration of high performance and engagement levels as they age (Zacher et al., 2018). As

such, the process can be seen as a worker's continuous successful adaptation to the work environment and job demands (Taneva & Arnold, 2018) – which may be influenced by fair treatment and employment security (Robson et al., 2007).

Those considered to be successfully aging from a work perspective show positive deviations from the average age-related work outcomes (such as job performance) (Zacher, 2015). As a result, successful aging not only means that workers are motivated to work until or beyond retirement, but also that they remain productive and competent members of the workforce as they age (Hertel & Zacher, 2018). However, while successful aging is especially significant for older workers due to age-related decline, it is not confined to this group. Workers at various stages of their lifespan can also experience successful aging (Taneva & Yankov, 2020). This has led to an increase in alternative age constructs that, while related, are distinct from those that consider chronological age as a predictor of aging (Rudolph et al., 2019). Several organizational factors may stimulate the experience of successfully aging at work. These include decision discretion, which involves the employer providing choice and autonomy over work processes (Spreitzer et al., 2012); information sharing, which involves the clear communication of important organizational information; a climate of trust and respect; and access to performance feedback (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007; Spreitzer et al., 2010; 2012).

Robson et al.'s model (2006) offers one of the more comprehensive measures for the subjective evaluation of successful aging in the workplace. In their attempt to establish the criteria through which employees evaluate successful aging, these scholars asked older employees to assess their social, psychological, and cognitive aging experiences based on a standard of five domains in the work environment. The first of these is adaptability and health,

which emphasizes an employee's physical well-being and their ability to adjust to changes in the workplace. The next domain was positive relationships, highlighting an employee's interpersonal relationships with co-workers. The third domain was occupational growth, underscoring an employee's perception of opportunities for development and career advancement.

Fourth, is personal security, which emphasizes how workers perceive their environment and work role to be conducive to their health. Last is the continued focus and achievement of the personal goals domain, which highlighted the extent to which employees perceived that their work environment helped facilitate their career goals (Robson et al., 2006). Studies that adopted this scale have found that factors such as future time perspective, proactivity, and cognitive constraints are related to successful aging at work (Cheung et al., 2017).

Robson et al.'s model (2006), is founded on the premise of the relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1976) and the social identity theory (Tafjel & Turner, 1985). The former stipulates that individuals form their self-assessments on their judgments of how they compare to those they perceive to be of similar standing in their immediate environment. The latter posits that the definition and evaluation of the self are mainly relative and comparative. Tafjel and Turner's theory (1985) asserts that individuals define themselves relative to how they compare to individuals in their category. In essence, the theory contends that individuals assign meanings to self-evaluations primarily based on their perception of how they compare to others.

In attempts to advance research in this area, Zacher (2015) identified four themes, which he argued were relevant for investigating successful aging at work. Specifically, the scholar argued that in addition to Robson et al.'s (2006) subjective criteria, objective work outcomes and mediators that explained the link between employee age and work outcomes were also crucial in measuring successful aging in the workplace. Based on these themes, Zacher (2015) proposed a

comparative view where he argued that employees who age successfully are those whose average trajectories of a work outcome deviate positively from the expected outcome. On the contrary, employees who age unsuccessfully are those whose average trajectory of the same work outcomes differs negatively (Zacher & Rudolph, 2017). Based on this comparative framework, Thrasher et al. (2018) conducted a study to investigate how the successful aging scores of older employees differed based on differences like self-reported health. The study revealed that employees with low self-reported health scored lower on the successful aging measure than those with higher self-reported health scores.

Kooij (2015) also proposed a complementary perspective in which she argued that researchers must consider factors like career-related behaviors, person-environment (P-E) fit, and the effective and sustainable management of personal resources when measuring successful aging at work (Kooij et al., 2015; Kooij et al., 2017). In this, she argued that the extent employees age successfully depends on their proactive involvement with their health, motivation, and work ability. In support of this notion, Hanscom & Cleveland (2018) reveal that successful aging interacts with factors such as the age type of the job (i.e., "older," "younger," and "age-neutral") and stereotypical age-based performance patterns influence a worker's evaluation about their performance.

As the research on successful aging unfolds, there has been a growing interest in identifying the determinants, processes, and outcomes of successful aging at work (Kooij, 2015a, 2015b; Zacher, 2015a, 2015b). Primarily, scholars are interested in how organizations can utilize these factors to delay retirement (Rudolph & Baltes, 2017; Truxillo et al., 2015). In this vein, scholars reveal that supportive human resource policies positively relate to successful aging (Cheung & Wu 2012), while focusing on increasing career opportunities is crucial for fostering

successful aging among older workers (Zacher & Frese, 2011). Moreover, Kooij et al. (2015) argue that older workers strategically make self-initiated changes to align with the intrapersonal changes, thereby allowing for better successful aging through job crafting.

In a separate but related stream of research, scholars emphasize the importance of leadership on older employees' career development and behavior (e.g., Van Vianen et al., 2011). In this, scholars demonstrate that leaders who are more sensitive to the needs of older employees are critical in determining the extent to which these workers age successfully. Moreover, a recent study revealed that the perceived transformational leadership style is related to all the successful aging at work dimensions (Cheung et al., 2018). However, while these studies have been instrumental in understanding the link between leadership and successful aging, they do not address how old workers may respond to perceived narcissistic leadership.

The lifespan development literature considers age a continuous variable (Incera & McLennan, 2018; Kooij, 2015; Truxillo et al., 2015; Zacher, 2015). Consistent with this work, this study adopts the label "older workers" for descriptive purposes to refer to those employees whose age values are 40 years and higher as this is the point where age protections begin in the U.S. Accordingly, the U.S. Department of Labor defines older workers as those 40 years and older. Additionally, researchers posit that employees begin to have subjective evaluations of their ability to continue working at this stage (Zacher et al., 2015). While there is still no consensus on who qualifies as an "older" employee, researchers tend to define this cohort as either 40, 45, or 50 years and older (Kooij et al., 2008).

CHAPTER III

MANUSCRIPT I

**THE 'I' IN TEAM: THE EFFECTS OF NARCISSISTIC SUPERVISION ON
SUCCESSFUL AGING AND TURNOVER INTENTION IN RESTAURANT
FRONTLINE EMPLOYEES.**

Background

The phenomenon termed "Great Resignation" or "Big Quit" denotes the unprecedented wave of turnover that swept across U.S. organizations in the post-pandemic era (Liu-Lastrez et al., 2023). The hospitality sector continues to bear a significant brunt of this exodus, with staggering turnover rates peaking at 66% (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022). Consequently, the driving factors behind these resignations have become a focal point for hospitality scholars. Echoing themes in the management literature (such as Kim & Toh, 2019), hospitality research has expanded on the pivotal role played by a leader's personality (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Ahn et al., 2020). Of particular interest has been narcissism - a trait characterized by a resistance to criticism, a penchant for self-promotion, and a tendency to shift blame for personal failures onto others (APA, 2000).

The influence of narcissistic leadership on subordinates is profound (Huang et al., 2019). Although such leaders often exude charisma, compelling their followers to embrace their vision, the frequent neglect of their subordinates' needs, and emotions can engender a tense work atmosphere (Fatfouta, 2019). Given narcissism's paradoxical nature, the debate over its value in leadership has been a focal point in management studies (Liu et al., 2021; Sedikides & Campbell, 2017). While seemingly straightforward, the question of its value has several permutations: which employee aspects suffer most under narcissistic leadership? How can organizations equip their staff to counteract the impact of such leadership? Is it prudent for firms to even contemplate narcissistic candidates for leadership roles? While the repercussions of perceived narcissistic leadership primarily affect the subordinates, its effects also extend to their families, customers, and society (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012; Nauman et al., 2018). However, despite ongoing

practitioner discussions, the hospitality literature offers a limited exploration into the phenomenon of narcissistic leadership as it pertains to supervisors (e.g., Aboramadan et al., 2020). This is a shocking omission, given that supervisory support is identified as a significant determinant of employee turnover (Park & Min, 2020).

Perhaps, an even more striking gap in the hospitality literature is the absence of knowledge on the relationship between narcissistic supervision, successful aging, and turnover intention. In what has been coined the "silver tsunami" (Hirsch, 2017), scholars predict that there will be an unprecedented growth of the adult population in the service workplace (Pietrzak et al., 2014). More specifically, projections from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018) suggest that by 2050, the cohort of working adults aged 40 and above is poised to nearly triple in size. This demographic shift will likely usher in evolving attitudes, societal norms, and dynamics in workplace relationships. Given these changes, there's an urgent demand for insights into the conditions that either promote or hinder successful aging at work. Recognizing this need, esteemed organizations like the World Health Organization, the White House Conference on Aging, and the National Institute on Aging actively encourage research to delve into the intricacies of this evolving phenomenon (Kooij et al., 2020).

In response to the call, this inquiry investigates the impact of narcissistic leadership on successful aging and turnover intentions among older restaurant frontline employees. However, understanding the impact of narcissistic leadership on employee outcomes requires that researchers examine the condition under which such conduct occurs (Liu et al., 2021). Accordingly, this study introduces a conceptual model that argues that emotional exhaustion, employee cynicism, and work engagement act as pathways for narcissistic leadership to impose

its effects on successful aging and turnover intentions among older employees. However, relevant to this association is context. Specifically, the inquiry leverages the behavioral plasticity hypothesis to posit that employees with lower levels of organizationally based self-esteem (OBSE) experience a more pronounced negative impact from narcissistic supervision than those with high OBSE.

The predicted workplace demographic shift and current labor shortage crises suggest that the employment and retention of older workers is a clarion call for practitioners in the hospitality industry (Bajrami et al., 2021). Older employees have a strong understanding of company culture, a knack for client-relationship building, and are empathetic towards patrons of their age (Hannon, 2017, Ann & Blum, 2020). Moreover, older workers are dependable and have a good work ethic (Zemke et al., 2013). Thus, by understanding how leadership characteristics impact successful aging and turnover intention, hospitality organizations are better equipped to formulate strategies to ensure effective governance and the retention of older employees. Moreover, such knowledge may enable hospitality organizations to design better workplace climates that optimize and ensure the longevity of older workers in the hospitality industry.

The current study adds to the hospitality literature in three ways. First, it contributes to our understanding of the mediation and moderation processes that underlie the relationship between narcissistic supervision and the successful aging of frontline employees. Through this examination, the study offers a theoretical perspective of the behavioral implications of narcissistic leadership on an aging workforce in the hospitality context. Second, the study answers the call of past researchers to test the behavioral plasticity theory (Brockner, 1988) in organizational settings by investigating whether the effect of perceived narcissistic supervision

hinges upon factors like organizationally based self-esteem. Last, the study highlights the importance of personal resources in predicting successful aging and turnover intention among older employees in the hospitality industry.

Narcissistic Leadership

The narcissism trait entails three interrelated sub-dimensions: leadership, grandiose exhibitionism, and entitlement (Ackerman et al., 2011). The leadership dimension emphasizes a narcissist's perception of themselves as a natural-born leader (Emmons, 1987). As such, it is characterized by assertiveness. Because of its relationship with psychological adjustment indices like improved self-esteem and lower anxiety, individuals who score high on this component tend to have better adaptive capabilities (McDonald, Donnellan, & Navarrete, 2012). Moreover, such individuals have passionate desperation for power and authority over their peers (Weiser, 2015).

On the contrary, the grandiose exhibitionism and entitlement dimensions are maladaptive components of narcissism that scholars positively associate with interpersonal difficulties and toxicity (Ackerman et al., 2011). Grandiose exhibitionism is characterized by a narcissist's tendency to self-promote (Fatfouta, 2019). Individuals who score high on this component tend to crave praise and admiration. Accordingly, such individuals often actively seek opportunities to be leaders because they afford the platform for public attention. The entitlement domain is characterized by narcissists' unreasonable belief that they inherently deserve more favorable treatment than others (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003). Because of this internalized sense of entitlement, narcissists often pursue social interactions that are positive and focused on themselves (Hill & Roberts, 2011). Accordingly, individuals who score high on this component tend to exploit their peers in attempts to pursue self-fulfillment (Hill & Roberts, 2011).

Substantial empirical findings exemplify the adverse effects of narcissism. For instance, scholars demonstrate that narcissistic leaders are egocentric individuals who lack empathy (Sedikides & Campbell, 2017), bully their peers (Bushman et al., 2009), and exploit others for personal gain (Dorasamy, 2018; Nevicka et al., 2018). In some instances, individuals with high levels of narcissism tend to be aggressive, even without provocation (Park & Colvin, 2015). Such behavior is often a result of their grandiose sense of self and superiority, which they try to maintain at all costs (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Consequently, narcissists are inconsiderate self-centered individuals (Campbell et al., 2005) who are often sensitive to criticism (McCullough, Kilpatrick, & Mooney, 2003). These qualities make them detrimental to the well-being and success of their followers (Volmer, Koch, & Göritz, 2016). Moreover, these attributes suggest that organizations with such individuals in authority are prone to troublesome scrutiny and increased risk of litigation (O'Reilly, Doerr & Chatman, 2017).

Past research also shows that narcissists embrace prototypical leadership qualities such as confidence, extraversion, and dominance (Back et al., 2010), which result in biased evaluations of their potential (Barrick et al., 2010), thereby enhancing their chances of being promoted to positions of influence (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2011). These qualities also enable narcissistic leaders to be bold decision-makers in uncertainty (Liu et al., 2017). Consequently, narcissists excel in scenarios where they must make an impression, such as a job interview (Paulhus, 2014). As CEOs, narcissists are radical innovators (Kashmiri et al., 2017) who make bold decisions that ensure company success (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Wang et al., 2016). Narcissists are also adept at inspiring their followers to align with their vision (Braun, 2017) – a quality often attributed to their extroverted nature, making them highly likable at first glance (Back et al., 2010).

Employee cynicism

Cynicism, i.e., the unwarranted negative attitudes arising from the perception that workplace entities lack integrity (Dean, Brandes & Dharwadkar, 1998), has negative consequences on employees (Morf et al., 2019) and their organizations. When coupled with powerful emotional reactions, employee cynicism can lead to disparaging behavior such as absenteeism (Dolen et al., 2012), poor performance (Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005), and decreased cooperative work behaviors (Jung & Kim, 2012). In addition, employee cynicism involves adverse attitudes directed at authority in the workplace (Salanova et al., 2005). In this regard, cynical employees are often resistant to change, have lower levels of commitment, and are dissatisfied with their jobs (Simha et al., 2014). Furthermore, such individuals also suspect their leadership is exploitative and self-centered (Li & Chen, 2018). As a result, cynics are often frustrated and have difficulty trusting others (Kokalan, 2019).

The employee cynicism construct comprises three domains: cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism (Brandes et al., 2000). Cognitive cynicism is characterized by the conviction that some entities in the employee's organization have no integrity (Dean et al., 1998), the affective cynicism domain is characterized by the feeling that an employee has towards their organization (Abraham, 2000), while the behavioral cynicism domain is characterized by behaviors such as complaining or sharing organizational information with outsiders (Dean et al., 1998). The reported antecedents of employee cynicism include bad managerial behavior (Wanous et al., 2000), lack of support (Kasalak & Aksu, 2014), and interpersonal conflict (Naus et al., 2007). In addition, studies show that workers react to abusive behavior through stress, frustration, and disappointment (Aboramadan et al., 2021). Accordingly, a hospitality study

reveals that narcissistic leadership predicts negative behaviors such as cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2021).

While there are extensive studies about the narcissism trait, little knowledge exists about the effects of narcissistic leadership at the supervisory level. This omission is significant because supervisors represent an essential aspect of the hospitality industry (Shi & Gordon, 2020). Researchers often cite supervisor support and workplace stress as predictors of employee cynicism (see review by Chiaburu et al., 2013). Moreover, scholars attribute employee cynicism to ineffective leadership (Bunting, 2004) and organizational environments where extrinsic rewards are prioritized over employee well-being (Anderson, 1996). Others even assert that the nature of the supervisor-subordinate relationship is the foundation upon which cynicism grows (Chiaburu et al., 2013). These findings suggest that supervisor characteristics are also influential predictors of employee cynicism. Thus, examining the impact of narcissism at a supervisory level would help provide a more integrated perspective of employee cynicism.

Work engagement

Work engagement is a positive and fulfilling affective state of well-being (Bakker, 2017, Chen & Fellens, 2020) characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Demerouti et al., 2001; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Vigor refers to a willingness to engage in high mental energy and persistence despite difficulty (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Dedication emphasizes a strong sense of involvement, which results in feelings of significance, inspiration, and pride in one's work (Bakker et al., 2008). Finally, absorption is characterized by a sense of being heavily engrossed in one's work such that an individual has difficulties detaching themselves from the job (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). Employees with high levels of work

engagement are involved with, committed to, and passionate about their jobs (Attridge, 2009). Accordingly, these employees display high job satisfaction and well-being (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Van den Berg et al., 2013). Engaged workers are also unlikely to leave their organizations (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Consistent with this contention is the finding that work engagement is positively associated with organizational support and positive work climate - factors that negatively predict turnover intention (Petrovic et al., 2017).

Scholars often adopt the JD-R model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2004; Demerouti et al., 2001) to argue that work engagement is driven by the interplay between job demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, 2017). Researchers contend that work engagement is most attainable when organizations empower employees with the resources to face work challenges (Tadic et al., 2015). Job demands refer to those aspects of an employee's work that require sustained physical and psychological effort (e.g., work overload, time pressure, and role stress) and, as a result, can negatively impact work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Memon et al., 2016); (Park & Gursoy, 2012). Job resources entail the positive aspects of the work environment that can buffer the negative aspects of work, such as career advancement opportunities and supervisory support (Bakker et al., 2007).

There is increasing empirical support for the suspicion that leadership is vital in predicting employee work engagement (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Eva et al., 2019; Hoch et al., 2016; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). Specifically, scholars demonstrate that work engagement is positively associated with two prominent leadership styles. The first of these is servant leadership – a selfless type of leadership in which a leader facilitates an organization's well-being by explicitly emphasizing its employees' needs (Van Dierendonck et al., 2010). Servant leaders are likely to engender high levels of engagement in their followers because of their compelling

vision and commitment to the development of employees (Rabiul & Yean, 2021). The second is transformational leadership – a leadership style in which a leader instills high levels of personal commitment to organizational objectives by fostering an employee's capacity for development (Hay, 2006). Transformational leaders influence work engagement through their moral maturity, intellectual stimulation, and ability to effectively articulate organizational vision (Bakker et al., 2011).

The organizational behavior literature is also replete with evidence for the relationship between personal resources and work engagement (Babakus et al., 2017; Karatepe, 2012; Kim & Koo, 2017; Suan & Nasuridin, 2016). In this vein, scholars posit that employees with high levels of psychological capital are likelier to display high levels of work engagement. Consistent with this reasoning, studies reveal that work engagement is a function of personality dispositions such as self-efficacy and core self-evaluations (Karatepe et al., 2010; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Lee and Ok, 2015). Moreover, the findings that older employees are more engaged with their work than their younger counterparts (Burke et al., 2013; Rigg et al., 2014; Zacher, 2015) suggest that age may play an influential role in the display of work engagement

Employee emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion refers to a depletion of an individual's ability to maintain the coping resources necessary to function at their job (Cole & Bedeian, 2007). Such mental fatigue is a chronic consequence of excessive job demands and is a prime feature of job burnout (Donahue et al., 2012; Li et al., 2017). Given its etiology, it is not surprising that researchers link emotional exhaustion to an array of malicious individual and organizational-level outcomes (Chen & Eyoun, 2021). At an individual level, the experience of emotional exhaustion is

evidenced in harmful effects like anxiety and depression (Bianchi, Schonfeld, & Laurent, 2015; Weigl et al., 2016). At the organizational level, emotional exhaustion includes employee absenteeism (Deery et al., 2002) and poor job performance (Cropanzano, 2003). Moreover, exhausted employees have sub-optimal functioning (Leiter & Maslach, 2005), making them unable to fully engage with their work (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005).

The quantity and quality of work demands are crucial determinants of emotional exhaustion (O'Neill & Xiao, 2010). Because hospitality organizations often demand that their employees display flawless service, it is unsurprising that their frontline employee stress levels are among the highest in service industries (Baeriswyl et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018). In addition, these employees also encounter challenges that cause psychological strain, like low wages and dependence on tips as compensation. Moreover, dealing with demanding customers is emotionally taxing because it requires employees to express emotions inconsistent with their feelings (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Thus, organizations must protect their employees from emotionally taxing circumstances.

A growing body of research reveals that despotic leadership is associated with harmful outcomes such as job burnout (Wu & Hu, 2009). In essence, scholars argue that demanding, controlling, and exploitative leaders cause emotional distress to their subordinates, resulting in emotional exhaustion (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Fontaine et al., 2010). On the contrary, scholars reveal that transformational leadership is positively associated with emotional exhaustion (Stordeur et al., 2001). Researchers attribute this relationship to the buffering effect of transformational leadership, which develops because of supervisory support (Green et al., 2013). The variations in employee levels of emotional exhaustion are also, in part, a function of factors like personality and resilience (Ângelo & Chambel, 2014; Rathi & Lee, 2016). Thus,

employees use strategies like job crafting to control the circumstances under which they invest psychological resources (Kooij et al., 2015; Siegall & McDonald, 2004).

Organizationally based self-esteem

Self-esteem is a part of the self-concept that denotes an individual's appraisal of their value as a human being. Studies show that employees assess self within and across various domains (e.g., work, family, and intellectual spheres; Gardner et al., 2018). Of particular interest to the management literature has been organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) - a distinct form of self-evaluation characterized by the extent to which employees believe themselves to be competent, significant, and worthy members of an organization (Filosa & Alessandri, 2023). OBSE is a form of specialized self-esteem that encapsulates the feeling of being a valued member of the organization (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). OBSE is built from individual experiences in the workplace and connotes the premise that an employee's involvement with and contribution to an organization matters.

OBSE is naturally distinct from general self-esteem, which is conceptualized as a general evaluation of the self without considering any external area (Donnellan et al., 2011). Scholars demonstrate that OBSE is closely linked to organization-related phenomena and, as such, provides more plausible explanations for organizational behavior compared to other self-concept measures (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Pierce et al., 2015). More specifically, management literature has linked OBSE to work-related outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee retention, and job performance (Bowling et al., 2010). Research also demonstrates that employees with high OBSE have confidence in their abilities and are often described as motivated and empowered (Gardner & Pierce, 2013). Therefore, a reasonable

presumption surrounding the study of OBSE is that employees who perceive themselves as capable, meaningful, and worthwhile to an organization (high OBSE) have higher levels of well-being and task success in the workplace (Kanabar & Fletcher, 2020).

In theorizing the construct, scholars argued that factors which predict an employee's level of OBSE are, to some degree, attributable to leadership and management behavior (Norman, Gardner & Pierce, 2013). The first of such factors is work environment structures, which entail inherent aspects of a job (e.g., work design) used by employees to evaluate their OBSE. Organizations with high levels of system-imposed control (e.g., division of labor, rigid hierarchy, and formalization) signal that organizations question their employees' ability to self-regulate (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Ultimately, these manager-imposed barriers result in a worker's decreased sense of competence, trustworthiness, and organizational importance (Norman et al., 2013). Conversely, less structured workplaces that allow for more autonomy are associated with higher levels of OBSE (Elloy, 2005). Employees that are given autonomy see themselves as capable entities who can work independently (Pierce & Gardner, 2015). As a result, this self-perception helps develop a sense of self-importance consistent with their image.

The second source of OBSE is messages from significant others in the workplace. Significant others are role models, mentors, and anyone evaluating an employee's performance (Liu et al., 2013). Because employees value and respect the authoritative figures of an organization, messages received from these individuals are often internalized and integrated into an employee's self-concept (Baumeister, 1999). In line with this reasoning, previous research demonstrates that a manager's acknowledgment of an employee's performance enhances their level of self-worth (De Cremer et al., 2005). On the contrary, studies reveal that directive and controlling management unintentionally communicate that employees are neither competent nor

trustworthy (Vecchio, 2000). Accordingly, studies show a negative association between an employee's level of OBSE and the perceived authoritarian management style (Wang et al., 2010), while the servant leadership style is positively associated with high levels of OBSE (Yang et al., 2018).

Finally, scholars also argue that environmental experiences predict OBSE and its subsequent impact (Bowling et al., 2010). According to scholars, positive experiences contribute to a high level of OBSE, while negative experiences have the opposite effect (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Consistent with this assertion, scholars reveal that successful work experiences increase self-efficacy, positively influencing OBSE (Gardner & Pierce, 2001). These findings, taken together, suggest that OBSE is a malleable trait that shifts as individuals encounter various experiences reflecting their organizational importance (e.g., level of pay and psychological contract fulfillment; Gardner & Pierce, 2016).

With time, the work experiences accumulated by an employee evolve into conceptualizations of their competence, significance, and worthiness (Gardner & Pierce, 2016). Employees' belief about their worthiness in the workplace has substantial implications for their attitude and behavior (Kanabar & Fletcher, 2020). According to the self-verification theory (Korman, 1970), individuals prefer that their image of self is consistent with the public's perception of who they are. OBSE provides a coherency platform between the positive self-concept and one's perceived external image at work and is facilitated by signals from parties considered to be of organizational significance (Gardner & Pierce, 2013; Liu et al., 2013). OBSE also acts as an essential psychological resource, which helps facilitate healthy, productive work attitudes like organizational citizenship behavior (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Accordingly,

research promotes OBSE as a requirement for invoking positive work behavior (Lu & Lu, 2019).

Turnover intention

Employee turnover is a well-documented problem in the hospitality industry (Yang et al., 2012, 2019). The turnover rate of food service employees is among the highest in the private sector (McGinley et al., 2017; Kang, Busser & Choi, 2018). A meta-analytic review (Park & Min, 2020) reveals significant antecedents of turnover intention in hospitality research. Amongst these is work attitude, which represents an individual's affective state toward work-related targets such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Park & Min, 2020). In this vein, Kang et al. (2015) reveal that effective supervision strengthens frontline employees' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. These scholars argue that supervisors are the principal focus and source of perceived support due to their proximity to executive leadership and subordinates. Organizations with high supervisory support levels enable employees to feel valued and understood (Kang, Gatling & Kim, 2015). Consistent with this notion, previous research has shown that supervisor-subordinate relationships enhance career satisfaction and employee retention (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2017).

In principle, turnover intention refers to the intensity of an employee's conscious and deliberate desire to leave an organization (Jang & Kandampully, 2018). An employee's decision to leave an organization may be involuntary or voluntary. The former occurs when an organization suggests that an employee's services are no longer needed, while the latter is characterized by an employee's intent to leave an organization (Nazir & Ahmed, 2016). This study focuses on involuntary turnover, which according to Stumpf and Dawley (1981), emerges

due to a worker's perception that they have outrun their physical and mental capacity to perform (Rehman et al., 2012). Scholars identify turnover intention as the most critical predictor of turnover behavior (Chen & Wang, 2019). Furthermore, scholars argue that the intention to leave has a causal impact on a turnover decision (Biron & Boon, 2013; Rahman & Nas, 2013; Harhara, Singh & Hussain, 2015). Thus, practitioners must identify and eliminate factors that influence turnover early when these are still controllable (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). Such factors include low job satisfaction, high job stress, and lack of devotion (Pang, Kucukusta, & Chan, 2015). Other studies attribute turnover intention to supervisor attitude, behavior, and leadership styles (Kim & Brymer, 2011).

Supervisors play a significant role in hospitality organizations as their status allows them the proximity to positively or negatively impact both employer and employee outcomes (Richard et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2020). As a result, subordinates view these individuals as an organization's agents and a colleague (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Given their position, the relationship between supervisor behavior and employee attitude has received considerable attention in the hospitality literature (see review by Park & Min, 2020). Researchers often emphasize perceived supervisor support (e.g., Karatepe, 2014) and leader-member exchange (e.g., Kim et al., 2010) when investigating leadership behavior in the hospitality industry. Scholars demonstrate that leader-member exchange is negatively related to turnover intention, while perceived supervisor support indirectly predicts turnover (Cheng et al., 2013). In support of this premise, a study by DiPietro and McLeod (2012) reveals that perceived supervisor support alleviates turnover intention, while an inquiry by Tepper (2000) shows that abusive supervision significantly predicts job exit behavior. Similarly, researchers posit that high job dissatisfaction levels explain

quitting intention (Palanski et al., 2014). These findings, taken together, suggest that adopting the appropriate supervisory behavior is vital for employee motivation and morale in organizations.

Successful Aging

A look at the successful aging literature illustrates various conceptualizations of the subject. In earlier investigations, researchers defined successful aging as the absence of disease or illness, high physical and cognitive function maintenance, and sustained engagement in socially productive activity (Rowe & Kahn, 1997). While these processes encompass the general aging process, organizational scholars have challenged this perspective for its lack of appreciation for the social, economic, and institutional contexts inherent in the workplace (Hansson et al., 2007). Accordingly, from an organizational psychology perspective, successful aging is the proactive maintenance of optimal functionality in a profession, particularly at older ages (Kooij et al., 2020). Organizations can consider their employees to be aging well if their trajectories deviate in increasingly positive ways from the average trajectory of a desirable work outcome (Zacher, 2015).

Robson et al. (2006) proposed a model that has since been empirically tested in different work environments to measure the concept of successful aging at work. In this model, researchers ask older employees to evaluate their social, psychological, and cognitive aging experiences based on five domains of the work environment. The first dimension of these dimensions is adaptability and health, which emphasizes an employee's physical well-being and ability to adjust to changes in the workplace. Next is the positive relationships dimension, which concerns an employee's interpersonal relationship with co-workers. The third is the occupational growth domain, emphasizing employees' perception of room for development and career

advancement. Fourth is personal security, concerned with how workers perceive their environment and work role conducive to their health. Last is the continued focus and achievement of personal goals, which is concerned with how employees perceive their work environment as facilitative of their career goals (Robson et al., 2006).

As the research on successful aging unfolds, there has been a growing interest in identifying the determinants, processes, and outcomes of successful aging at work (Kooij, 2015a, 2015b; Zacher, 2015a, 2015b) as they relate to promoting longevity and delaying retirement (Rudolph & Baltes, 2017; Truxillo, Cadiz, & Hammer, 2015). For example, scholars reveal that supportive human resource policies positively relate to successful aging (Cheung & Wu 2012). Other researchers suggest increasing career opportunities is crucial for fostering successful aging among older workers (Zacher & Frese, 2011). Moreover, Kooij et al. (2015) argue that older workers strategically make self-initiated changes to align with the intrapersonal changes, thereby allowing for better successful aging through job crafting.

In a separate but related stream of research, scholars emphasize the importance of leadership on older employees' career development and behavior (e.g., Loretto & White, 2006; Van Vianen, Dalhoeven, & de Pater, 2011). In this, scholars demonstrate that leaders who are more sensitive to the needs of older employees are critical in determining the extent to which these workers age successfully (Ilmarinen & Tempel 2002; Ries et al. 2013). Moreover, a recent study revealed that the perceived transformational leadership style is related to all the successful aging at work dimensions (Cheung, Yeung & Wu, 2018). However, while these studies have been instrumental in understanding the link between leadership and successful aging, they do not address how old workers may respond to perceived narcissistic leadership. To address this gap,

we adopt the behavioral plasticity theory to test the relationship between perceived narcissistic supervision, employee behavior, and successful aging.

Hypothesis formulation

The JD-R model suggests that work engagement is influenced by the equilibrium between job demands and the available resources to address those demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2013). Disengagement is a consequence when workers lack sufficient resources to tackle job-related challenges (Bakker et al., 2008). Given narcissists' tendencies towards self-absorption, exploitation, and frequent unethical choices (Braun et al., 2018), it stands to reason that employees might view narcissistic supervisors as an added job stressor necessitating extensive physical and emotional exertion. Building upon the premise of the JD-R model, it is plausible that employees with scant resources are potentially more vulnerable to the negative repercussions of narcissistic leadership, which can lead to disengagement. Supporting this perspective, previous studies have shown that the manifestation of adverse behaviors by supervisors has a pronounced negative effect in roles where subordinates heavily rely on that leader (Anderson & Brion, 2014). Considering the pivotal role of supervisors in the hospitality sector, it's conceivable that narcissistic leadership might have an inverse relationship with work engagement. With these considerations in mind, the subsequent hypothesis is posited:

H1c: Narcissistic supervision is negatively associated with subordinate work engagement

Drawing from the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, it's posited that work-related strain emerges when a disconnect exists between job requirements and the necessary resources to satisfy those demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This model suggests that excessive job

demands can compromise health, depleting an employee's reservoir of energy, culminating in emotional weariness and eventual job burnout (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Conversely, limited job resources can incite individuals to adopt withdrawal tendencies, which subsequently lead to a sense of detachment and job burnout (Demerouti et al., 2002). Given that narcissistic leaders are marked by their exploitative nature, propensity for criticism, and imposing unrealistic expectations upon their subordinates (Sedikides & Campbell, 2017), there's a logical inference that such leaders could subject their team to heightened emotional distress. In alignment with this thought, prior studies in the hospitality domain indicate that team members working under manipulative leadership are more prone to emotional resource depletion due to the undue pressures exerted upon them (Wang et al., 2021). Over time, those under the yoke of such leadership might attempt to counterbalance the psychological strain by investing more cognitive energy, which further erodes their emotional well-being (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000). Grounded in this rationale, the ensuing hypothesis is presented:

H1b: Narcissistic supervision is positively related to subordinate emotional exhaustion.

Psychological contracts and social exchange theories frequently serve as foundational constructs for understanding cynical tendencies within organizational settings. Rooted in the psychological contracts theory, it's posited that employees formulate their perceptions about their employers based on past organizational experiences or their preconceived notions of how companies should ideally operate (Koçoğlu, 2014). Given that narcissistic leaders often indulge in behaviors that nourish their own egos, they inadvertently foster an environment of disenchantment and frustration (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012). Thus, it is reasonable to infer that subordinates, in turn, may shape their workplace attitudes based on the negative interactions with these self-centered leaders. Validating this notion, prior studies highlight a correlation

between perceptions of psychological contract breaches, unfavorable work encounters, and the emergence of employee cynicism (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). The social exchange theory also posits that employees are intrinsically driven to reciprocate behaviors (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees who sense a genuine appreciation and respect from the organization are more inclined to mirror these sentiments in their professional conduct. Conversely, any perceived disparity in the reciprocal dynamics between the employees and their superiors can trigger counterproductive work tendencies (Mousa et al., 2020). Aligning with this logic, existing literature indicates that employees typically retaliate against narcissistic leadership through negative emotional and behavioral outbursts (Neves, 2012; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004). Grounded in this analytical discourse, we present the following hypothesis:

H1c: Narcissistic supervision is positively associated with employee cynicism

This research leans on the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and the behavioral plasticity theory (Brockner, 1988) to delineate the nuanced role of OBSE in moderating the relationship between narcissistic leadership and intermediary variables. Rooted in the conservation of resources theory, there's an emphasis on the differential impacts of resource depletion across individuals exposed to analogous situations (Hobfoll, 2001). This theoretical framework posits that employees with a constrained resource reservoir are more severely impacted by stress-inducing situations compared to their resource-rich counterparts (Hobfoll, 2018). Given that OBSE stands as a crucial psychological buffer for employees confronting workplace stressors (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2018; Perinelli et al., 2021), it's reasonable to infer that narcissistic leadership would weigh more heavily on an employee with diminished self-esteem relative to one with a bolstered self-worth.

The behavioral plasticity theory (Brockner, 1988) suggests that an employee's sensitivities to environmental stimuli in the workplace vary. This differential receptiveness to external stressors consequently molds employees' dispositions and behavioral tendencies. Aligning with this perspective, research illustrates that employees fortified with high OBSE levels tend to be more resilient to adverse work scenarios, banking on their inherent skills and proficiency to navigate environmental challenges. Conversely, employees with a lower OBSE reservoir, seeking external affirmations like benevolent supervision, exhibit heightened sensitivity to job-related stressors (Filosa & Alessandri, 2023). Additionally, individuals with high OBSE typically experience enhanced well-being (Bowling et al., 2010) and heightened satisfaction levels (Diener & Diener, 2009; Dulebohn et al., 2012), factors that buffer them against feelings of exhaustion, cynicism, and disengagement. Given this analytical backdrop, it's postulated that OBSE levels play a pivotal role in determining an employee's susceptibility to the ramifications of narcissistic leadership. Building on this rationale, we present the ensuing hypothesis.

H2a: An employee's level of OBSE moderates the impact of narcissistic supervision on work engagement.

H2b: An employee's level of OBSE moderates the impact of narcissistic supervision on emotional exhaustion

H2c: The impact of narcissistic supervision on employee cynicism is conditional on an employee's level of OBSE.

Bakker et al., (2011) illuminate the rejuvenating nature of positive emotions stemming from work engagement. Such emotions act as buffers against the debilitating effects of emotional exhaustion. This is primarily because individuals who are deeply engrossed in their work often exude a contagious enthusiasm and unwavering commitment that equips them to better handle

and navigate job-related stressors (Hakanen et al., 2018). Additionally, the heightened levels of engagement empower employees with a sense of autonomy over their job roles (Saks, 2011). This perceived control fosters an elevated self-efficacy, which subsequently propels them to adeptly handle, and counterbalance job demands, rendering them less prone to the strains of emotional exhaustion (Xanthopoulou et al., 2013). Echoing this logic, empirical studies have consistently shown that a heightened work engagement is intrinsically linked with the augmentation of invaluable resources, such as interpersonal support. This reciprocal enrichment ultimately acts as a shield, reducing an employee's susceptibility to emotional weariness (Hakanen et al., 2015). Drawing from this foundational understanding, we posit the subsequent hypothesis.

H3a: Work engagement is negatively related to emotional exhaustion

Work engagement and employee cynicism share a complicated bond, often moving in opposing trajectories as depicted by Halbesleben et al. (2013). On one hand, work engagement thrives on three main pillars: the physical vitality of vigor, the emotional commitment of dedication, and the mental state of absorption - all culminating in an individual's fervor for their job (Bakker et al., 2014). On the contrary, employee cynicism is the shadow of this positivity, drenched in distrust, disillusionment with the organization, and a prevalent sense of negativity regarding work duties (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Those who are engaged with their jobs often perceive their daily tasks as purposeful and filled with meaning, making them less inclined to develop or harbor skeptical viewpoints about their employing organization. Their deep alignment with organizational goals and values naturally cultivates a favorable attitude, further mitigating cynical perspectives (Demerouti et al. 2015). Conversely, the very essence of cynicism pushes employees into a state of detachment and apathy towards their tasks, as evidenced by the

correlation between cynicism and decreased work engagement (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). It is, therefore, no surprise that empirical studies consistently unearth a stark inverse relationship between the vigor of work engagement and the somber cloud of cynicism (Bakker et al., 2014; Demerouti et al., 2015). Grounded on this conceptual exploration, we advance the ensuing hypothesis.

H3b: Work engagement is negatively associated with employee cynicism

The COR theory stipulates that individuals strive to acquire, increase, and preserve physical and psychological resources to help them deal with work challenges and to achieve their goals (Hobfoll, 2001). Accordingly, stress threatens their resources (Hobfoll, 2002). Because people high on organizational cynicism are afraid that their organizations lack integrity and would betray them (Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017), these beliefs pose a threat to their emotional security, which in turn drains their resources and results in emotional exhaustion (Naseer et al., 2020). Consistent with this assertion, the ego depletion theory proposes that the stimulus of a lousy work environment depletes an employee's emotional resources, thus resulting in emotional exhaustion. Accordingly, past research has demonstrated a positive relationship between employee cynicism and emotional exhaustion (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Naseer et al., 2020). Thus, the following hypothesis has been proposed.

H3c: Employee cynicism is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

Past research demonstrates that employee cynicism predicts turnover intention (Leiter & Maslach, 2009; Cicek et al., 2021). An unfavorable evaluation of the work environment can result in feelings of dissatisfaction, which in turn, elicits turnover intention (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Because cynicism depletes an individual's psychological resources, cynical employees will probably instigate coping strategies that prevent further resource loss (Halbesleben et al.,

2014). One such strategy may be voluntarily quitting a job to protect one's emotional resources (Yang et al., 2020). Moreover, individuals with cynical attitudes toward their organization also espouse negative feelings about their job (low job satisfaction) and, as a result, are more prone to withdrawal cognitions. Consistent with this line of reasoning, a study of 250 bankers reveals that organizational cynicism is directly linked to turnover intention (Khan, 2020). Thus, based on this discussion, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H3d: Employee cynicism is positively associated with turnover intention

Past research demonstrates that such engaged employees interpret work more as an invigorating challenge than as a mere stressor (Bakker et al., 2014). This distinct viewpoint dampens the impact of workplace stressors on them compared to their less-engaged counterparts. Studies have further underscored that employees exhibiting high levels of engagement consistently manifest greater positive emotions than those less engaged (Schaufeli & Van Rhenen, 2006). Moreover, engaged employees radiate a vibrant connection to their tasks, demonstrate low inclinations to leave their jobs, and often express willingness to continue working past conventional retirement years (Cheung & Wu, 2013; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Zacher, 2014). Consequently, these individuals often display a proactive approach, embracing creativity and a keenness to uncover opportunities that amplify their capabilities (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013). Considering that these traits are paramount for successful aging (Kooij et al., 2015), it can be surmised that employees with high work engagement are likely to showcase thriving aging patterns. Grounded in the aforementioned exposition, this study puts forth the subsequent hypothesis.

H4a: Work engagement is positively related to successful aging in the workplace

In what has been termed the happy-productive worker hypothesis (Wright et al., 2007), organizational psychologists state that satisfied and happy workers are more productive than those who are not. Scholars argue that an individual's well-being and organizational-level performance are theoretically related (Bakker et al., 2007). In other words, high emotional exhaustion is associated with an employee's inability and unwillingness to perform well (Kristensen et al., 2005). In support of this notion, studies reveal that in some instances, emotional exhaustion results in decreased subjective well-being (Santoro, 2018), which in turn causes emotionally drained employees to prematurely exit their careers (Lindqvist, Nordanger, & Carlsson, 2014). Moreover, emotionally exhausted employees have increased rates of illness and substance abuse (Pines & Maslach 1978) and depression and irritability (Rohland, 2000), all of which past research links to employee turnover intention. Because an employee's evaluation of how successfully they are aging is partly reliant on their subjective well-being perceptions, it is plausible to surmise that emotionally exhausted employees will age less successfully than their counterparts. Thus, based on this discussion, the current study proposes the following:

H4b: Emotional exhaustion is negatively related to successful aging in the workplace.

Researchers contend that employee cynicism is a precedent factor for alienation and turnover intention (Srivastava & Adams, 2011). That is, cynicism begins with the perception that the entities of an organization lack integrity, and then it is followed by depictions of negative attitudes, which are then succeeded by the engagement of disparaging behaviors that are consistent with an employee's beliefs about the respective entities of the organization (Stanley et al., 2005; Srivastava & Adams, 2011). Consistent with this premise, Turner (2018) contends that the turnover process begins with an employee's evaluation of the work environment. Workers who positively evaluate their work environment are more likely to have reduced intentions to

leave their job. In contrast, those with negative evaluations of their organizations have an increased propensity to display exit behavior (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Because employee cynicism develops due to an employee's negative evaluations of their company, it is plausible that workers with higher cynicism will age less successfully than those with lower levels of the attitude. Based on this discussion, this study proposes that:

H4c: Employee cynicism is negatively related to successful aging in the workplace.

A previous study reveals a significant relationship between successful aging in the workplace and turnover intentions (Cheung et al., 2013). Successful aging positively impacts turnover intentions among older adults by enhancing their job satisfaction. In essence, employees who are successfully aging are likely to experience greater job satisfaction (Rowe & Kahn, 1997), which in turn may result in a situation where individuals feel more integrated and involved with their organization (Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000), thus resulting in decreased turnover intentions (Pruchno et al., 2010). Moreover, because successfully aging individuals have a sense of career fulfillment and social engagement (Ng & Feldman, 2008), these deter turnover intention (Allen & Meyer, 2000). In addition, a growing body of evidence supports the notion that successfully aging employees are more engaged with their work and, as a result, exhibit lower turnover intentions (Cheung & Wu, 2013; Harter et al., 2002; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Zacher, 2014). Thus, based on this discussion, the following has been hypothesized:

H5: A negative relationship exists between successful aging at work and turnover intention.

Past research reveals that narcissistic leadership is positively associated with perceived psychological contract breach, predicting turnover intention (Nevicka et al., 2018). Because narcissistic leaders tend to be excessively self-centered individuals who lack empathy for their subordinates (Tepper et al., 2017), their behavior may likely create a toxic environment in which

employees are stressed and dissatisfied (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2014). This constant stress can lead to emotional exhaustion, negatively impacting psychological well-being - a critical component of successful aging at work and turnover intention (Kooij et al., 2020; Ong et al., 2020). It is also plausible that because of their behaviors, narcissistic supervisors may make their subordinates feel unappreciated and undervalued, which could result in their disengagement (Fatfouta, 2019). Past research demonstrates that employees who perceive their leaders as narcissistic report lower work engagement levels (Giacalone et al., 2014). Thus, because of its purported association with work engagement and emotional exhaustion, it is likely that narcissistic leadership is a distal predictor of successful aging at work and turnover intention. Accordingly, the following hypotheses have been proposed:

H6a: Narcissistic leadership is indirectly positively associated with employee turnover intention.

H6b: Narcissistic leadership is indirectly negatively associated with employee turnover intention.

Methodology

Procedures

Participants for this study were sourced from Qualtrics panels, a renowned online research platform. All participants were U.S. residents working in restaurants across the nation. To align with the study's objectives, only respondents aged 40 and above were eligible to participate, and they had to be actively engaged or have prior experience in frontline roles within restaurants. At the survey's commencement, a succinct definition of a "frontline employee" was provided to ascertain the participants' fit. Those identifying with this role were then instructed to

share feedback based solely on their experiences in such positions, irrespective of their current employment status. The study upheld voluntary participation and maintained confidentiality in line with the university's Institutional Review Board guidelines. Detailed terms of participation were clarified in an accompanying letter presented to participants prior to the survey's release. Upon understanding and agreeing to these terms, participants proceeded to offer their informed consent through a digital signature.

Before initiating the main data collection, we conducted a pilot test using the survey instrument on a sample of 50 respondents. This helped in pinpointing and rectifying any ambiguities or issues concerning clarity, design, and structure. After making the necessary adjustments, the refined survey was rolled out to a larger group of 280 participants. Nonetheless, due to incomplete data from 21 participants, the final analysis was based on 259 complete responses. As affirmed by past research, Qualtrics-generated data showcases robust psychometric qualities and offers reliability on par with conventional survey methods (Owens & Hawkins, 2019). The sophisticated controls within Qualtrics further ensured that our sample matched the intended criteria, and participants were remunerated only after they successfully finished the survey (Newman et al., 2021).

Measures

This inquiry administered a 37-item survey to examine the impact of the variables proposed in the relationship between perceived narcissistic supervision and successful aging. The adopted Hochwarter and Thompson's (2012) six-item scale ($\alpha = .93$) to measure perceived supervisor narcissism. The scale is scored on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores on the scale indicate higher levels of perceived

supervisor narcissism. Based on previous management research, the scores associated with this scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .93$, $\alpha = .88$) (De Hoogh et al., 2015; McCleskey et al., 2013). Moreover, this measure is based on the personality and leadership research domains (American Psychiatric Association DSM-IV, 2000; Campbell and Campbell, 2009; Twenge et al., 2008). Some of the measurement items in the scale include: “My supervisor is a very self-centered person,” “My supervisor has an inflated view of him/herself,” “My supervisor brags about him/herself to get positive strokes from others,” and “My supervisor always has to be the center of attention no matter what.”

The study also utilized a 9-item exhaustion measure adopted from Maslach’s (1996; $\alpha = .87$) burnout inventory scale. Each item was measured based on how frequently customers feel exhausted by their job. Item scores range from never (1) to always (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Examples of such measurement items include statements such as: “I feel used up due to work,” “I feel emotionally drained from my work,” and “I feel burned out from my work.” Based on extant research, the scores on the emotional exhaustion scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .92$, $\alpha = .88$) (Chau et al., 2009; Seery & Corrigan, 2009).

The employee cynicism construct was measured using Kim et al.’s. (2009) 7-item scale. The scale scores each item on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of employee cynicism. Examples of the measurement items include: “I believe top management says one thing and does another” and “I criticize top management’s practices and policies with others.” Based on extant hospitality research, scores on the emotional exhaustion scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .88$, $\alpha = 0.94$) (Kim et al., 2009; Megeirhi, Ribeiro & Woosnam, 2020). The employee turnover intention was

measured using a 3-item scale ($\alpha = 0.92$) by Mowday et al. (1982). Each scale item is scored on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of turnover intention. Examples of the items include “I often think about quitting my job,” “I seriously think about moving to another firm,” and “I have the intention to change my job to another firm.” Scores on this scale appear highly reliable based on extant research ($\alpha = 0.94$, (Chen et al., 2022).

The study also utilized a 4-item scale (Pierce et al., 1989) to measure OBSE. The scale is scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of organizationally based self-esteem. Examples of the items include “I am an important part of my company)” and “I am trusted within my company.” Based on previous research (Kim et al., 2021), the scores of the OBSE scale appear reliable ($\alpha = 0.79$). Work engagement was measured using Schaufeli et al.’s. (2006) short form of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9). The scale consists of nine items and is scored on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 (“never”) to 5 (“always”). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of work engagement. The scale has sound psychometric properties and has been widely adopted for empirical use in the hospitality literature (e.g., Karatepe, 2014; Karatepe and Demir, 2014; Sulea et al., 2012). Sample scale items include “At my work, I feel like I am bursting with energy” and “I am enthusiastic about my job.” Based on previous hospitality research, the scores of the UWES-9 appear reliable ($\alpha = 0.89$) (de Souza Meira & Hancer, 2020).

Last, the study measured successful aging in the workplace through a 33-item scale proposed by Robson et al. (2006). The scale consists of five dimensions: adaptability and health, positive relationships, occupational growth, personal security, and continued focus and

achievement of personal goals (Robson et al., 2006). The scale scores each item on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of the five dimensions. Examples of the measurement items include: “I accept suggestions for improving my performance,” “I am satisfied with my co-workers,” and “My career is still growing.” The successful aging at work scale scores appears reliable based on past research ($\alpha = .83$; Cheung & Wu, 2012).

Control variables

The study adjusted for tenure's potential impact on an employee's reaction to narcissistic leadership. As supported by earlier research, employees with longer tenures might be more resilient to narcissistic leadership's impacts, attributed to resources they've gathered over time, such as established relationships within the organization (Heijden et al., 2019). For measurement purposes, tenure was denoted in years. Meanwhile, the leader gender dyad was categorized using a binary variable: '1' represented a male leader-female follower combination, while '0' signified a female leader-male follower pair.

Results

Sample Profile

The sample profile shows that a significant portion of the participants were males (68.6%). The participants' ages ranged from 40 - 60+ years, with 73.4% of the sample being 50 years & older. White participants accounted for 91.9% of the population, while the Black participants accounted for 5.4%, followed by the Asian participants with 1.9%, and the Hispanic/Latino which only 0.8% of the sample. Of all the study participants, 63.3% were full-

time employees, while 36.7% were employed part-time. The married participants account for 53.3%, while those who never married comprise 29.3% of the sample. A vast number of participants either had a high school education (22.4%), some college education (30.9%), a professional degree (32.8%), a bachelor's degree (9.7%), or a graduate degree (2.7%). Table 1 shows the sample profile of the study's participants.

Table 1*Demographic Profile of the Sample (N = 259)*

Characteristics	Category	N	%
Gender	Male	94	31.4
	Female	205	68.6
Employment Status	Full-time	164	63.3
	Part-time	95	36.7
Age	40-49 years	69	26.5
	50-59 years	99	38.0
	60 + years	92	35.4
Race	White	238	91.9
	Black	14	5.4
	Asian	5	1.9
	Hispanic	2	0.8
Education	Less than high school	4	1.
	High school graduate	58	22.4
	Some college	80	30.9
	Professional degree	85	32.8
	Bachelor's degree	25	9.7
	Graduate degree	7	2.7
Marital Status	Married	138	53.3
	Widowed	5	1.9
	Divorced/Separated	40	15.4
	Never married	76	29.3
Annual income	Under \$20,000	67	25.8
	\$20,000-\$39,999	101	39.0
	\$40,000-\$59,999	41	15.8
	\$60,000-\$79,999	25	9.7
	\$80,000-\$99,999	15	5.8
	Over 100,000	10	3.9

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the underlying structure of the constructs (Table 2). The CFA and reliability analysis supported the scale's measurement model. The CFA showed that the hypothesized model exhibited acceptable fit statistics, with $\chi^2(684) = 1483.797$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.169$, CFI = .915, TLI = .952, RMSEA = .067 (90% CI: .063–.072). The construct reliability values of the eight constructs ranged from .90 to .96. These values are higher than Fornell and Larcker's (1981) recommended cut-off point, thus indicating satisfactory reliability.

Table 2

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Measures

Construct	NAR	EC	WE	EE	TOI
NAR	.782 ^a				
EC	.430 ^b	.757			
WE	.170	.260	.614		
EE	.180	.470	.440	.635	
TOI	.230	.470	.430	.510	.829
CR ^c	.960	.930	.900	.920	.940

Note: NAR (Narcissistic Leadership), EC (Employee Cynicism), WE (Work Engagement), EE (Emotional Exhaustion), TOI (Turnover Intention); ^aAverage variance extracted (values on the diagonal); ^bSquared multiple correlation coefficients; ^cConstruct reliability.

Hypothesis test

Table 3 summarizes the results of the hypotheses test. The analysis revealed that narcissistic leadership had a direct influence on employee cynicism ($\beta = .532$, $p < .01$) and work engagement ($\beta = -.413$, $p < .01$). However, contrary to the hypothesis, there was no significant direct relationship between narcissistic leadership and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.092$, $p = .171$).

Nonetheless, while not hypothesized in the study, there was evidence to support an indirect relationship between these variables ($\beta = .522, p < 0.01$; 95% BCCI [- 0.342, - 0.587]). The analysis also revealed the negative relationships between work engagement and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.432, p < .01$), and work engagement and employee cynicism ($\beta = -.294, p < .01$). Additionally, the results of the analysis reinforced the hypothesized positive relationships between employee cynicism and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .526, p < .01$), and between employee cynicism and turnover intention ($\beta = .377, p < .01$). Although the analysis supported the relationships between work engagement and successful aging ($\beta = .694, p < .01$), and between emotional exhaustion and successful aging ($\beta = -.388, p < .01$), there was no evidence corroborating a direct relationship between employee cynicism and successful aging ($\beta = -.006, p = .98$). Nonetheless, consistent with the hypothesis, the analysis revealed a significant relationship between successful aging and turnover intention ($\beta = -.499, p < .01$).

The analysis also provided some evidence for the indirect relationships between narcissistic leadership and turnover intention ($\beta = .474, p < 0.01$; 95% BCCI [- 0.379, - 0.561]) and between narcissistic leadership and successful aging ($\beta = -.458, p < 0.01$; 95% BCCI [- 0.616, - 0.288]). The upper and lower limits of the bias-corrected confidence intervals indicate that the indirect effects were significant (Sarwar et al., 2022). Inconsistent with past research, the analysis reveals that the control variables of employee tenure ($\beta = 0.15, p = 0.17$), and leader-follower gender dyad ($\beta = 0.13, p = 0.08$), yielded no significant differences between the groups.

This investigation sought to examine whether the proposed measure of OBSE was invariant across participants with high, and low measures of the trait. The results indicate a statistically significant difference in the model fit across the two groups, thereby suggesting a lack of measurement invariance. The chi-square difference test between the unconstrained and

constrained models was statistically significant with $\chi^2(34) = 49.057, p < .05$ suggesting that the measure does not operate equivalently for participants with high and low OBSE. Consistent with the reported lack of invariance, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) showed a significant decrease and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) increased, indicating a poorer fit in the constrained model.

These findings suggest that our psychological measure is biased when used across different levels of OBSE. More specifically, the results suggest that the differences in the scores between high and low OBSE individuals may not purely reflect variations in the underlying construct being measured but could also be due to differential functioning of the measure itself. Thus, further research is needed to explore the potential sources of this bias and to develop a more robust and invariant measure.

Table 3*Results of Hypotheses Test and SEM Parameter Estimates*

Hypothesis	Standardized path coefficients	95% CI	Results
H1a: NAR → WE	-.413**	[-.530, -.273]	Supported
H1b: NAR → EE	-.092	[-.237, .039]	Not Supported
H1c: NAR → EC	.532**	[.413, .662]	Supported
H3a: WE → EE	-.432**	[-.576, -.293]	Supported
H3b: WE → EC	-.294**	[-.419, -.128]	Supported
H3c: EC → EE	.526**	[.371, .691]	Supported
H3d: EC → TOI	.377**	[.102, .548]	Supported
H4a: WE → SA	.694**	[.473, .942]	Supported
H4b: EE → SA	-.388**	[-.626, -.113]	Supported
H4c: EC → SA	-.006	[-.274, .260]	Not Supported
H5: SA → TOI	-.499**	[-.713, -.342]	Supported

Note: NAR (Narcissistic Leadership), EC (Employee Cynicism), WE (Work Engagement), TOI (Turnover Intention), SA (Successful Aging) * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$., *** $p < .001$

Results of Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling was conducted to test the proposed model. Overall goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model was satisfactory with $\chi^2_{(688)} = 1490.703, p < .001,$ $\chi^2/df = 2.167,$ CFI = .914, TLI = .908, RMSEA = .067 (90 % CI: .063-.072). Figure 2 displays the proposed model with the standardized path coefficients.

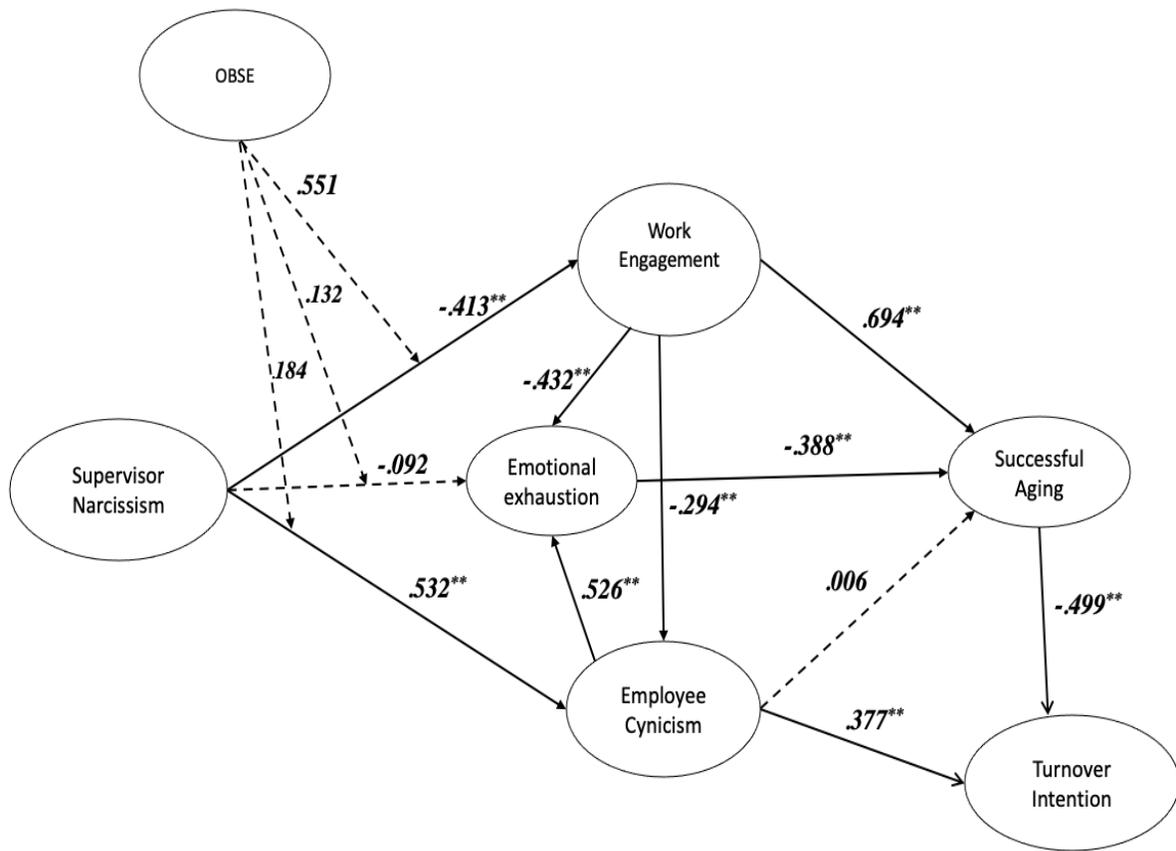


Figure 1. Results of structural equation modeling.

Note: Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(688)} = 1490.703, p < .001,$ $\chi^2/df = 2.167,$ CFI = .908, TLI = .961, RMSEA = .067 (90 % CI: .063-.072), Straight line = significant, dashed line = not significant. * $p < .05,$ *** $p < .001$

Discussion

The intention of this study was to illuminate the repercussions of perceived narcissistic leadership on successful aging and turnover intention. While leaders demonstrating narcissistic tendencies can sometimes ignite positive results (Fatfouta, 2019; Kashmiri et al., 2017), the potentially damaging effects on their subordinates should not be overlooked. In alignment with prior studies, the findings of this study underscore that employees operating under a perceived narcissistic manager may harbor increasing cynicism towards their organization (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2017). Narcissistic leaders have a propensity to belittle, exploit, and disparage their subordinates (Filosa, 2022), causing an erosion of trust and instilling a sense of maltreatment (Nevicka et al., 2011). These actions provide fertile ground for the growth of employee cynicism (Leroy et al., 2019). Echoing this perspective, previous studies have exposed a significant positive correlation between perceived narcissistic leadership and employee cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2017; Leroy et al., 2019).

This research further established a negative correlation between perceived narcissistic leadership and work engagement. Narcissistic leaders may place undue stress on their subordinates, as they often have unrealistic expectations and a tendency towards micromanagement (Nevicka et al., 2020). Such behavior can lead subordinates to experience feelings of burnout and a decreased sense of control over their work, ultimately influencing their engagement levels at work (Nevicka et al., 2018). In alignment with the findings of this study, earlier research has also reported a negative correlation between perceived narcissistic leadership and work engagement (Braun et al., 2016; Nevicka et al., 2018).

This research further underscores that perceived narcissistic leadership indirectly influences successful aging at work. The ripple effect of narcissistic leadership on successful

aging is best explained through the mediating role of work engagement (Braun et al., 2018). Fundamentally, narcissistic leadership impairs work engagement, which in turn affects psychological well-being (Shimazu et al., 2015), an indirect determinant of successful aging through its association with job crafting (Kooij et al., 2020). Additionally, the research identifies an indirect connection between perceived narcissistic leadership and turnover intention, thereby suggesting that perceived narcissistic leadership acts as an indirect predictor of turnover intention. Perceived narcissistic leadership influences turnover intention indirectly by promoting employee cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020). In other words, the derogatory behaviors of a narcissistic leader breed mistrust among employees towards their organization. This erosion of trust fosters an employee's cynicism—a state of organizational skepticism tied to turnover intention (Leroy et al., 2019).

Although the study proposed that OBSE would moderate the effect of perceived narcissistic leadership, the analysis revealed no buffering effect. This finding suggests that carrying a positive self-image does not automatically translate into an individual's ability to better withstand the effects of narcissistic leadership. Despite inadequate support for a direct relationship between narcissistic leadership and emotional exhaustion, the study demonstrates that narcissistic leadership indirectly predicts emotional exhaustion. A possible explanation for this result is that perceived narcissistic leadership indirectly impacts emotional exhaustion through its association with employee cynicism (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2017) and reduced work engagement (Nevicka et al., 2018). In essence, the negative behaviors of narcissistic leaders foster cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020), which in turn, lowers work engagement (Braun et al., 2016) – an outcome negatively associated with emotional exhaustion among employees (Demerouti et al., 2001). The analysis also revealed inadequate support for a direct relationship

between employee cynicism and successful aging. While successful aging is influenced by various factors, including job satisfaction, work engagement, and a supportive work environment, no empirical evidence exists on the relationship between employee cynicism and successful aging. Accordingly, further research is warranted to understand this relationship and its underlying mechanisms better

Lastly, the study confirms that surface acting serves as a distant predictor of successful aging and turnover intention. Engaging in surface acting is linked with elevated job dissatisfaction, reduced psychological well-being, and emotional dissonance (Grandey et al., 2005) – factors known to diminish an employee's willingness to remain with an organization. Given that surface acting requires mental effort, individuals using this strategy are likely to experience emotional exhaustion, negatively affecting their successful aging and turnover intentions.

Theoretical implications

This inquiry provides considerable insights into the behavioral implications of entrusting supervisory authority to individuals whose behavior is perceived to be narcissistic. While the hospitality literature has seen increased interest in leadership research, perceived narcissism remains a relatively under-explored area. Accordingly, this study responded to the call for researchers to enrich the management literature, as the empirical findings are inconclusive (Braun, 2017). Although some hospitality studies illuminate the impact of narcissistic leadership on various employee outcomes (e.g., Aboramadan et al., 2020; Hasan & Neela, 2022; Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jang, 2018; Late & Chaudhary, 2022; Zhuang et al., 2022), limited research exists on how age plays into an employee's response to narcissistic behavior. Given the predicted

changes in the workforce demographic, researchers must identify factors that may impact the sustainable employment of older hospitality frontline employees. Thus, by examining the impact of exploitative leadership on the behavior and successful aging of older employees, this study opens a timely and relevant avenue of inquiry into factors that may foster or hinder the hospitality industry's adaptation to the "silver tsunami."

As suggested in prior research, it is crucial that organizational studies theoretically identify and empirically test moderating variables that can explain the conditional effect of perceived narcissistic behavior on employee outcomes (Carnevale et al., 2018). While the hospitality literature has investigated the relationship between perceived narcissistic leadership and employee cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020), most studies tend to consider this impact in the context of mediating variables. Consequently, our understanding of how perceived narcissistic leadership influences key employee outcomes is advanced. However, less is known about the moderating factors that can be utilized to mitigate the effects of perceived narcissistic leadership. Thus, by exploring the mediating and moderating mechanisms underlying this relationship, this study opens a new avenue of inquiry into the factors that can buffer the effects of perceived narcissistic leadership.

Building upon the behavioral plasticity theory, the study proposed that the harmful effects of perceived narcissistic leadership would be less pronounced in employees with high organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) compared to those with lower levels. However, the lack of evidence supporting this proposition implies that the application of the behavioral plasticity theory might not extend to all self-concept variables. Therefore, future studies investigating the influence of narcissistic leadership on crucial employee outcomes should consider the

conditional influence of other self-concept variables, such as self-efficacy, the impostor phenomenon, and self-regulation.

This inquiry also extends the study of age-inclusive HR practices by incorporating the concept of successful aging into the hospitality literature. Although there is an understanding of how management practices on work outcomes differ between younger and older employees (Kooij et al., 2013; Kooij et al., 2014), there are no hospitality studies that have examined the effects of narcissistic leadership on the successful aging of employees who are at the tail- end of their careers. Given that all U.S. age-related protections at work begin at age 40, the absence of such information may leave firms susceptible to significant legal and organizational consequences. Thus, this study extends the hospitality literature by identifying the determinants, processes, and outcomes of successful aging at work as they relate to this vulnerable cohort of employees who may be an avenue to avert labor shortage challenges in the hospitality industry.

Practical implications

Scholars have suggested that hospitality organizations adopt psychological and personality assessment tests to timely identify and eliminate narcissists from their supervisory promotion pool (Aboramadan et al., 2020). This recommendation, while plausible, entirely dismisses the opportunity for organizations to maximize the positive characteristics of narcissistic leadership (Fatfouta, 2019; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). One such quality is their ability to inspire followers to align with their vision (Grijalva et al., 2015), often achieving goals (Ouimet, 2010). Given such a rare ability, practitioners may meet the recommendation to exclude narcissists from supervisory positions with hesitation.

Fortunately, there exist several strategies to mitigate the negative effects of perceived narcissistic leadership (Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Maccoby, 2003). One such approach is for organizations to prioritize imparting knowledge to supervisors about certain behaviors that could lead their subordinates to perceive them as narcissistic. This approach may entail confrontation through behavior-based feedback in which organizations use assessments from subordinates to identify and address narcissistic tendencies. Previous studies have shown that this approach effectively fosters positive changes in employee behavior, primarily due to the created perception that a supervisor's conduct is under constant scrutiny by multiple observers (Dean et al., 2021). However, because narcissists often have distorted recollections of past events (Fatfouta, 2019), they are likely to challenge any accusations leveled against them. Thus, it is crucial for subordinates to document every instance of harmful narcissistic conduct meticulously and openly.

Organizations can also mitigate the effects of perceived narcissistic leadership by establishing and enforcing an ethical code of conduct that promotes fairness, equity, and respect in all interpersonal interactions within the organization. This ethical framework must explicitly address the unfavorable facets associated with behaviors that cause supervisors to appear as narcissistic leaders, including lack of empathy and a predisposition to take advantage of others (Padilla et al., 2007). However, because ethical standards have little effect unless they are actively upheld (Kaptein, 2015), it behooves human resource practitioners to establish unequivocal repercussions for breaches of the code of conduct, and to ascertain that these are uniformly applied to employees irrespective of their position.

Because narcissists are less likely to thrive in environments that discourage selfish and exploitative behavior (Grijalva & Harms, 2014), it may be beneficial for organizations to

establish a culture that prioritizes teamwork rather than competition. Such an approach could entail introducing work processes that prioritize team accomplishments over individual success. In a restaurant setting, such an initiative may involve re-structuring gratuity compensation in a way that rewards team members equally. Given how crucial gratuity is for a frontline employee's income, such an action will allow for more team accountability, forcing employees to feel equally responsible for the team's successes and failures. Because this approach eliminates the stage for individual recognition and praise, the attraction of personal veneration will be curtailed, thereby compromising the enticing appeal of the supervisory position.

Limitations

Despite the considerable insights this research has provided, a fundamental limitation of this study is that it is based on cross-sectional data. While cross-sectional data may enhance the external validity of research, the unavailability of longitudinal data limits a study's ability to provide causal conclusions. The study's cross-sectional nature also limits support for its theoretical framework as a definite model, thus making it difficult to know whether the impact of narcissistic leadership on successful aging and turnover intention is stable over time.

Accordingly, the authors advocate that future studies utilize a longitudinal dataset as this will help provide a more nuanced understanding of the phenomenon at hand.

The revelation of the detrimental impact of narcissistic leadership on key employee outcomes, the results of this study are based on a dyadic level of analysis in which the subordinate uses their perception to rate their supervisor's narcissism. This approach, while common, introduces a biased narrative about narcissistic leadership as it pertains to supervisors because the conclusive answer about the effect of their narcissism depends more on the rating

sources rather than the objective observation of their behavior. Moreover, because Hochwarter and Thompson's (2012) scale does not differentiate between constructive and destructive narcissism (Sosik et al., 2014), the extent to which their conceptualization of the trait is theoretically valid remains unclear. Thus, future studies must utilize scales that account for the trait's high bright-side and low dark-side characteristics to allow for a more nuanced understanding of the phenomenon.

Although this study focused on narcissistic leadership from the context of a supervisor's behavior, it may be more beneficial for researchers to use contextual factors like person-environment fit (Braun, 2017) to analyze its effects on organizational outcomes. For instance, narcissistic leaders may be a good fit in environments like social media marketing where self-aggrandization benefits the firm (e.g., sales, return on assets), but a bad fit in environments where fruitful collaboration with subordinates drives results (e.g., restaurants, housekeeping). Thus, utilizing multiple contexts to understand the conditions under which narcissistic leadership harms or bolsters organizational functions may better inform practical implications.

The lack of consensus surrounding the conceptualization and operationalization of successful aging at work makes it difficult to measure the construct (Kooij et al., 2019). Accordingly, the adoption of Robson et al.'s (2006) successful aging model as the framework for this study limits generalizability as the behavioral tactics suggested in this model do not interact with age (Zacher & Rudolph, 2017). Moreover, while the experiences of thriving at work are driven by both person and organizational factors (Taneva & Arnold, 2018), the scale used in this study does not integrate these multi-level factors. This omission is crucial as the interaction of person and organizational factors has been shown to relate positively to high job and career role performance (Porath et al., 2012).

CHAPTER IV

MANUSCRIPT II

**SMILE FOR A WHILE: EMOTION LABOR, SUCCESSFUL AGING & TURNOVER
INTENTION IN RESTAURANT FRONTLINE EMPLOYEES.**

Background

Emotions are an integral part of our human experience—spontaneous, indispensable, and sometimes irrepressible (Prentice, 2014). However, the hospitality industry, under its "service with a smile" mantra, necessitates a facade of perennial positivity (Grandey & Sayre, 2019). The mandate for such organizational emotions undeniably boosts the quality of service interactions and bolsters a company's image (Grandey, Rupp, & Brice, 2015). However, portraying emotions that are at odds with one's genuine feelings births a state of emotional dissonance (Wang, 2020). This incongruity, albeit seemingly benign, can exert considerable psychological strain on employees (Lam et al., 2022). It underscores the need for both scholars and industry practitioners to discern the impacts of implementing emotional labor strategies.

The hospitality literature frequently references two principal emotional labor strategies: surface acting, a technique of modifying outward emotion while leaving inner feelings untouched (Lee & Madera, 2019; Luo et al., 2019), and deep acting, an internal adjustment of emotions to align with those sanctioned by an organization (Moin et al., 2020; Shapoval, 2019). Notwithstanding the wealth of studies on the antecedents and effects of these strategies, there is a noticeable absence of research on the relationship between emotional labor strategies, successful aging, and turnover intentions, particularly among older hospitality industry employees. This dearth of research is startling given the forecast of a looming 'silver tsunami,' a demographic transition wherein the number of older employees at the end of their typical career trajectory is predicted to have more than doubled by 2050 (Mather, Jacobsen, & Pollard, 2015).

In light of these concerns, several pertinent questions arise: How do we define successful aging? How does 'success' translate in the context of aging? How can organizations foster an

environment conducive to successful aging? And who exactly are these 'older employees'? Successful aging at work encapsulates the proactive preservation of an employee's capability to work till, or even beyond, the standard retirement age (Kooij et al., 2015). Employees aging successfully are those whose career trajectories diverge positively from the average outcome (Zacher, 2015). Organizations can champion successful aging by introducing structures and conditions that yield favorable subjective and objective work outcomes for employees across various life stages (Kooij, 2015; Zacher et al., 2016). These points are especially significant for "older employees," typically defined as those aged 40 and above who are transitioning into the later stages of their careers (Bal et al., 2015; Zacher, Kooij & Beier, 2018).

The predicted increase in the workforce, combined with the hospitality industry's already high turnover rate (Cook, 2021), suggests that there will be an imminent dependence on the skills and experience of older workers. As such, there's a pressing demand for knowledge that can guide effective measures to ensure the career longevity of this increasingly critical demographic. If the outcomes of emotional labor hinge on the type of emotional regulation strategy employed (Lee & Madera, 2019), then it is crucial for researchers to discern adaptive strategies from those that are maladaptive and explore the pathways through which these strategies influence key employee outcomes. Accordingly, this study set out to probe the impact of emotional labor strategies on successful aging and turnover intention among older employees in hospitality. This exploration has the potential to equip industry professionals with the knowledge needed to create strategies that safeguard the career sustainability of their older employees. Fittingly, the objectives of this study are twofold. First, to delve into the impact of emotion labor strategies on job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and employee resilience, and second, to examine the

sequential mediation of these factors on the relationship between emotion regulation strategies, successful aging, and turnover intention.

Literature Review

Emotion Regulation

Surface and deep acting are hospitality literature's most cited emotion regulation strategies. Surface acting is a response-focused regulation strategy in which employees "fake" prescribed emotional responses to adhere to organizational display rules (Hochschild, 2003; Wang, 2019). For example, service employees often surface act by exaggerating facial expressions and compliments (Grandey, 2003; Reyers & Matusitz, 2012). However, such a strategy can be psychologically taxing for employees because it requires them to display emotions that conflict with their feelings (Wang, 2019). Accordingly, researchers link the habitual use of surface acting to increased negative affect (Wegner, 1994), absenteeism (Nguyen, Groth, & Johnson, 2016), and psychological strain (Gross, 1998). Moreover, employees who regulate emotions through surface acting are more prone to experiencing burnout (Prentice et al., 2013).

On the contrary, deep acting is an antecedent-focused regulation strategy (Mallory & Rupp, 2014) that involves altering one's emotions to align with organizational expectations, creating emotional expressions consistent with how an individual feels (Grandey, 2000). Furthermore, deep acting often occurs in advance and, as a result, requires more time and conscious cognition than surface acting (Mallory & Rupp, 2016). For example, with this approach, employees may reflect on pleasant memories to alter their feelings from irritation to cheerfulness before engaging with a problematic patron (Zou & Dahling, 2017). As such, deep

acting is associated with positive outcomes like customer-oriented behavior (Lee et al., 2020), effective service recovery performance (Kim et al., 2012; Nart et al., 2019), employee creativity, and stress decrease (Geng et al., 2014). Moreover, employees who regulate emotions through the deep-acting strategy have higher levels of task effectiveness (Prentice et al., 2013). However, despite these benefits, the empirical evidence on the positivity of deep acting has been inconsistent (see review by Côté & Morgan, 2002). For instance, some studies link deep acting to turnover intention (Jung & Yoon, 2014) and lower levels of organizational commitment (Moon et al., 2013).

Hospitality researchers often employ the conservation of resources theory when arguing for the antecedents and outcomes of emotional labor (Lee & Madera, 2019). According to the theory (Hobfoll, 1989), individuals who have frequent exposure to stressful situations try to maintain and protect their psychological resources by utilizing strategies that help them replenish their perceived resource loss. Eventually, repeated exposure to stressful experiences results in psychological resource depletion (Lee & Ok, 2014). In other studies, display rules are recognized as an imperative antecedent of emotional regulation in the workplace (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Holman et al., 2008; Zhan et al., 2016). In this, researchers posit that displaying certain emotions is contingent on how employees perceive those expressions to be an inherent part of their job (Xanthopoulou et al., 2018). Organizations are compelled to demand positive emotional displays from their employees because such expression is associated with improved service quality perceptions (Wang, 2019), positive consumer moods (Luong, 2005), and willingness to return (Tsai, 2001). Consequently, regulation strategies such as surface acting are deployed to manage organizational demands (Totterdell & Holman, 2003).

The hospitality research on interpersonal emotion regulation has focused chiefly on its ability to improve or impair employee well-being (see meta-analytic review by Madera & Lee, 2019). While employee well-being and successful aging are related constructs, these ideas differ. The first refers to the extent to which an employee's satisfaction with their job impacts their overall state of being content with life (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2008), while the second refers to the proactive maintenance of the ability to continue working optimally in a profession (Kooij et al., 2020). However, the tendency of researchers to use these ideas interchangeably (e.g., Keating, 2005; Peel, McClure & Bartlett, 2005) may prove problematic as it may engender inaccurate generalizations about the practical implications of studies conducted (Van der Heijden et al., 2020). Thus, examining the relationship between successful aging and emotion regulation helps understand the consequences of regulatory action on an employee's continued optimal functionality.

Employee resilience

An organization's survival and fitness are partly reliant on its employees' ability to withstand and adapt to adversity (Kuntz et al., 2018). Resilience at work includes a capacity to survive unfavorable circumstances and the ability to learn and grow because of such challenges (Sull, Harland & Moore, 2015). This capacity determines an individual's response to unanticipated change (McEwen & Boyd, 2018). In addition, resilience implies a possession of multiple characteristics that vary from one individual to another based on time, age, gender, and cultural origin (e.g., Rutter, 1985; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Werner & Smith, 1992). Thus, there may be various explanations for the causes of resilience in employees. However, despite different viewpoints on the mechanisms that underlie resilience (Navrady et al., 2018;

Wolf et al., 2018), there seems to be a consensus that resilience is a learned attribute that can develop over time (Kalisch et al., 2015). Consistent with this argument, some scholars conceptualize employee resilience as a "state-like" competency that entails a constellation of qualities that organizations can instill and enhance in their workers (Britt et al., 2016; Malik & Garg, 2018; Naswaltet al., 2019).

While an attainable competency, the capacity to build and maintain employee resilience is contingent on organizational strategies (Seville, 2018). While some techniques have failed to enhance employee resilience, a growing body of research provides empirical support for the efficacy of some workplace resilience interventions (Bardoel et al., 2014; Kuntz et al., 2017; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2011). These training efforts enhance resilience by developing an employee's psychological capital and stress management techniques (Koerber et al., 2018; Vanhove et al., 2016). Accordingly, a previous experimental study reveals that employees who received resilience training had lower levels of depression, anxiety, and negative affect than those in the control group (Forbes & Fikretoglu, 2018; Robertson et al., 2015). Additionally, employees who receive resilience training report higher well-being and performance levels than those who do not (Robertson et al., 2015).

Emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion refers to a mental state of weariness arising from stress exposure (Li et al., 2017). Psychologically drained employees have poor job performance (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007) and decreased levels of well-being (Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Li et al., 2017). In addition, such employees tend to be cynical (Pavesic & Brymer, 1990), irritable, and frustrated (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotionally exhausted employees also tend to have low levels of

job satisfaction (Seery & Corrigan, 2007), thus explaining why they tend to have an increased propensity to search for jobs elsewhere (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Some scholars attribute a service employee's emotional exhaustion to messages such as "the customer is always right" (Yagil, 2008) or "the customer is king" because these indirectly communicate that employees must be unconditionally submissive to customers, regardless of their behavior (Reynolds & Harris, 2006). Consequently, employees over-extend their emotional resources to make customers happy, resulting in emotional exhaustion - a core component of job burnout (Maslach, 2001).

The consequences of emotional exhaustion in service occupations suggest ample reason to investigate this phenomenon in the hospitality industry (Chi et al., 2011; Karatepe, 2015). A multilevel analysis of emotional labor among casino employees reveals that mindfulness and a climate of organizational authenticity mitigate psychological strain effects at work (Li, Wong & Kim, 2017). Other studies argue that sufficient organizational support may remedy frontline employees' emotional exhaustion and turnover intention (Karatepe, 2015). In a related stream of research, scholars stipulate that customer satisfaction decreases when an employee's emotional display is perceived to be ingenuine (Zhao, Matilla & Ngan, 2014). In essence, scholars demonstrate that surface acting strongly predicts emotional exhaustion (Newnham, 2017), while others reveal the beneficial impact of deep acting on employee psychological resources (Chi et al., 2011; Côté, 2005).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the emotional state of contentedness that arises due to the job being adequately fulfilling to an individual (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018). Satisfied employees are

imperative for organizational success and can be critical in differentiating successful organizations from the alternative (Ćulibrk et al., 2018). Moreover, satisfied employees often report positive feelings about their jobs (Colquitt et al., 2015). Accordingly, some practitioners often utilize job satisfaction as a key performance indicator when implementing business strategies (Hristov & Chirico, 2019).

Previous research shows that more than half the hospitality industry employees are dissatisfied and have, at one point, considered moving to other sectors (Stamolampros et al., 2019). The commonly cited reasons for low job satisfaction in the hospitality industry are low earnings, unsocial work hours, high-intensity work, and the lack of career advancement opportunities (Lillo-Bañuls et al., 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2014). These conditions, coupled with a hazardous work environment, make it difficult for hospitality organizations to be stress-free workplaces where employees are physically and psychologically healthy (Díaz-Carrión, Navajas-Romeroa & Casas-Rosal, 2020; Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017). Thus, it is in an organization's best interest to use job satisfaction to prevent staff turnover (Strenitzerová & Achimský, 2019). Job satisfaction is also positively associated with employee loyalty, customer service, and extra-role behaviors (Choi & Kim, 2012; Jung & Yoon, 2015; McPhail et al., 2015). Moreover, satisfied employees report better personal well-being and are more productive than their dissatisfied counterparts (Kong et al., 2018).

The management literature provides ample empirical support for the relationship between satisfaction and emotional labor (Anari, 2012; Joshi et al., 2015; Ouyang et al., 2015; Ali et al., 2012). In this, scholars posit that the deep-acting strategy is positively associated with high levels of job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2012). Such a finding may explain why employees with high measures of emotional intelligence prefer the deep-acting strategy over surface-acting

(Mikolajczak et al., 2007). Moreover, research reveals that individuals who lack emotional intelligence skills are more likely to surface act and become dissatisfied with their jobs (Wen et al., 2019). Fortunately, practitioners can control this effect by engaging in activities that improve an employee's perceived organizational support (Hur et al., 2015).

Successful aging

Projections of an unprecedented demographic shift have compelled organizational scholars to investigate successful aging in the workplace. Accordingly, there has been an increase in investigations of the successful aging concept and its operationalization in the work context. Despite the lack of consensus surrounding its definition, organizational scholars agree that successful aging is a multi-faceted construct that involves social, psychological, and physical factors which must be afforded context-specific rather than general evaluations (Cheung & Wu, 2012; Kooij, 2015; Robson et al., 2006, Zacher, 2015). As a result, there have been frameworks on employee development over the working lifespan (Robson et al., 2006; Kooij, Tims & Kanfer, 2008; Peeters & van Emmerik, 2008; Olson & Schultz, 2019; Stynen et al., 2017, Wang Olson & Schultz, 2012).

Scholars argue that it is essential that older workers remain employed until or even beyond retirement age. However, age diversity has proven to be a challenge for many organizations (Schmitt & Unger, 2019). The difficulties often encountered in age-diverse workforces include age prejudice and ageism (Ng & Feldman 2012), which result in stereotypical views about the character and competence of employees in specific age cohorts (Kunze et al. 2011). While the evidence contradicts some of these stereotypes, such views make successful aging challenging for older employees, who are often at the receiving end of

discrimination (Kulik et al., 2014). Thus, organizational researchers and practitioners have begun investigating factors influencing successful aging at work (Hertel & Zacher, 2018; Truxillo, Cadiz, & Hammer, 2015).

To date, Robson et al.'s. (2006) Five theoretical domains have been identified as key indicators of successful aging at work. The first of these domains is adaptability and health, which emphasizes an employee's physical health and ability to adjust to changes in the work environment. The following domain is the positive relationships component, highlighting an individual's interpersonal relationships with colleagues. While rated as the least essential domain amongst elderly workers, the context of interpersonal relationships at work helps employees find a social purpose in their work (Sterns & Huyck, 2001), which improves work-related and individual outcomes (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008).

The third dimension of successful aging is occupational growth, which emphasizes employees' perception that their organization allows room for career advancement (Hobson et al., 2006). Studies show that older workers (compared with younger workers) place less emphasis on the extrinsic components of work, such as career advancements and striving for achievement (Carstensen, Isaakowitz, & Charles, 1999; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Kooij et al., 2011). The fourth domain is personal security, which concerns how employees perceive the work environment and job are conducive to their health and well-being (Cheung, Yeung & Wu, 2019). Factors such as occupational stress threaten older employees' success, given their susceptibility to physical and cognitive decline (Hansson et al., 2001). Thus, strategies that help older workers maintain personal security and safety likely contribute to successful aging (Robson & Hansson, 2007).

The last domain is continued focus and achievement of personal goals, which are concerned with career goals. Regardless of the actual achievement of the plan, goal setting organizes behavior and contributes to an individual's sense of purpose (Lerner, Easterbrooks & Mistry, 2013). In addition, goal setting helps elderly employees assess their progress toward desired outcomes and evaluate whether the ongoing process of goal attainment maximizes gains while minimizing their losses (Freund, Li, & Baltes, 1999). In other words, the benefits of the perceived outcomes must equal or outweigh the repercussions of the perceived losses. In addition to being empirically tested, Robson et al.'s (2006) model also fits well with other successful aging models like Baltes and Baltes' (1990) selection-optimization-compensation (SOC) paradigm. The SOC model emphasizes selection and optimization as critical processes in evaluating successful aging. According to the model, the optimization process emphasizes how workers can maintain optimal function, while the selection process concerns articulating goals (Lerner, Easterbrooks & Mistry, 2003). These processes are reflected in Robson et al.'s (2006) occupational growth and achievement of personal goals domains.

Hypothesis development

Fredrickson's *broaden-and-build theory* (1998, 2001) stipulates that positive emotions generate substantial resources that help build an individual's repertoire of social and psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001; Siu, Cheung & Lui, 2015). According to the theory, positive emotions aggregate to well-being and survival over time, facilitating effective adaptation (Fredrickson, 2008). Accordingly, empirical research has linked positive emotions to desirable work outcomes like effective stress recovery (Hu & Kaplan, 2015; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). On the contrary, the *theory also posits that* negative emotions

present immediate threats to an individual, narrowing aspects like attention and cognition and impairing an individual's coping ability in stressful circumstances (Cohn et al., 2009).

While surface and deep acting have been reported to be functional workplace responses (Côté, 2005), studies show that they yield different emotional outcomes. Surface acting tends to be associated with negative emotions (Grandey, 2003; Lennard, Scott & Johnson, 2019), while deep acting is linked to positive outcomes like affective well-being and an enhanced sense of professional efficacy (Johnson & Spector, 2007). Because surface acting entails displaying emotions incongruent with one's true feelings (Wang, 2020), it can result in emotional dissonance. This psychological resource-depleting state hinders an employee's ability to cope with work-related challenges (Diefendorff & Richard, 2011).

On the contrary, deep acting fosters emotional authenticity and emotional regulation skills, which enhance an individual's resilience (Luthans et al., 2015). These differing outcomes can be attributed to the effort required to fake emotional responses when one is engaged in surface acting (Dahlin & Perez, 2010). Given the broaden and build theory's assertion that positive emotions counteract the effects of negative emotional experiences (Tugade & Frederickson, 2007), it is plausible to suspect that individuals who use the deep-acting emotional labor strategy are more resilient than those who utilize surface-acting. Thus, these ideas suggest that deep acting is positively associated with employee resilience, while surface acting is negatively associated. Accordingly, this study proposes the following:

H1a: Surface acting is negatively associated with employee resilience

H1a: Deep acting is positively associated with employee resilience

Studies demonstrate that emotion regulation can negatively affect employee well-being (Bechtoldt et al., 2013). Because surface acting entails employees exerting emotions that

contradict their feelings, the psychological effort required to perform such a feat can be taxing (Kenworthy et al., 2014). Moreover, such incongruence may result in emotional dissonance (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007) – a state of mental fatigue positively associated with a depletion of energy, cognitive resources, and poor intellectual performance (Johns, Inzlicht & Schmader, 2008). Accordingly, researchers reveal that employees who often display inauthentic emotions are more likely to be emotionally exhausted (Grandey, 2015).

On the contrary, employees who utilize the deep acting strategy do not have to "fake" authentic expressions because their emotions are adjusted to be consistent with their genuine feelings (Grandey, 2000). Thus, they are less prone to facing emotional dissonance because their emotional expressions are carried out in "good faith" (Hochschild, 1983). Not only is deep acting effective in alleviating emotional dissonance, but it also results in positive customer feedback, which helps build an employee's resources and self-efficacy (Grandey, 2003; Martínez-Íñigo & Totterdell, 2016). Consistent with this contention, studies reveal that employees who use the deep-acting strategy have lower levels of job stress (Geng et al., 2014), while those who use surface-acting have higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Grandey et al., 2015). Thus, based on this literature, we propose the following hypothesis:

H2a: Surface acting is positively associated with emotional exhaustion

H2b: Deep acting is negatively associated with emotional exhaustion

The theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) stipulates that individuals experience discomfort or psychological tension when they harbor emotion that is contradictory to what they feel. Because surface acting entails the suppression of emotion to conform to organizational display rules (Karatepe, 2019), utilizing this strategy may create a sense of emotional inauthenticity (Grandey, 2003). This incongruence may lead employees to perceive a

misalignment between their values and the expectations of their role, which in turn erodes their job satisfaction (Jia & Huang, 2020). Accordingly, surface acting is positively linked to emotional exhaustion (Hur, Moon & Han, 2015) - a strong predictor of job dissatisfaction (Koon & Pun, 2018). In contrast, deep acting allows individuals to genuinely experience and express emotions consistent with their feelings (Grandey, 2003). This authentic expression of positive emotion enables increased positive affect, which is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001). Consistent with this logic, the hospitality literature reveals a positive association between deep acting and job satisfaction (Kwon et al., 2019). Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H3a: Surface acting is negatively associated with job satisfaction

H3b Deep acting is positively associated with job satisfaction

Scholars posit that successful aging at work entails adaptive competence, characterized by an employee's resilience in adversity (Kooij, Tims & Kanfer, 2015). Consistent with this line of reasoning, Pietrzak et al. (2014) conceptualize employee resilience as a protective psychosocial variable that enables individuals to adapt to a changing environment. Resilient employees possess the necessary psychological resources to cope with work stressors and transitions, thereby maintaining well-being (Wang & Shultz, 2010). Accordingly, resilient older individuals are better equipped to manage work-life demands and maintain boundaries, resulting in enhanced satisfaction and successful aging (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Given that adaptation is a crucial component of successful aging (Robson et al., 2006), it is plausible that resilience is an integral component of successful aging (Heslin, Burnette, & Ryu, 2021; Robertson et al., 2015). Thus, these theoretical lenses, taken together, explain the positive association between employee

resilience and outcomes such as employee well-being and successful aging. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H4; Employee resilience is positively associated with successful aging

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al. 2001) suggests that emotionally exhausted employees are likelier to age unsuccessfully. According to the theory, jobs have physical, psychological, social, and organizational facets which require constant cognitive and emotional effort (Nahrgang et al., 2011). If not buffered by adequate resource levels, these demands may result in emotional exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001), which is associated with various psychological and physiological tolls (McDowell et al., 2019). Furthermore, emotionally exhausted employees tend to have increased negative affect, influencing their evaluations of their ability to cope with psychological work demands (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Accordingly, Said & Tanova (2021) stipulate that emotional exhaustion perpetuates a feeling that a job is beyond an employee's control. This notion is consistent with the finding that emotionally drained employees have higher turnover intention and reduced job performance (Anasori et al., 2020). Accordingly, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H5; Emotional exhaustion is negatively associated with successful aging

Some scholars have examined the successful aging concept through the lens of the subjective well-being model (Andrews & Withey, 1976). According to the model, an individual's successful adaptation depends on their content and satisfaction with their experiences and resources (Butt & Beiser, 1987). Accordingly, past research has revealed the positive impact of job satisfaction on outcomes like employee retention (Yeatts et al., 2000), life satisfaction, and overall well-being (Judge et al., 2001). Furthermore, scholars reveal that an employee's positive subjective evaluation of their job heightens their intention to continue working optimally for

their organization (Cheung & Wu, 2012). Consistent with these findings, past research (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen & Schlosser, 2011; Loi et al., 2009) reveals that job satisfaction is significantly related to an employee's intention to stay in the organization. Employees with low job satisfaction are more prone to leave their jobs than those with high satisfaction (Yeatts et al., 2000). These findings suggest that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of successful aging at work. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H6: Job satisfaction is positively related to successful aging

A previous study reveals a significant relationship between successful aging in the workplace and turnover intentions (Cheung et al., 2013). In this regard, scholars posit that successful aging negatively impacts turnover intentions among older adults by enhancing job satisfaction. Consistent with this finding, a study by Hansson et al. (1997) highlights a positive relationship between successful aging, job attitudes, and employee performance. In addition, a growing body of evidence supports the notion that successfully aging employees are more engaged with their work and, as a result, exhibit lower turnover intentions (Cheung & Wu, 2013; Harter et al., 2002; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Zacher, 2014). Based on these findings, it is plausible to suspect that satisfied employees will exhibit better successful aging at work. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H7: A negative relationship exists between successful aging at work and turnover intention.

Research suggests that engaging in high levels of emotional labor results in emotional exhaustion and burnout (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). More specifically, surface acting strains interpersonal work relationships (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), a key component of successful aging at work (Robson et al., 2006). Because surface entails the maintenance of an inauthentic connection (Wang et al., 2019), employees who utilize this strategy may experience higher levels

of stress and emotional exhaustion (Troughakos et al., 2015), which in turn, negatively impacts their ability to age successfully (Warr et al., 2014). Additionally, surface acting contributes to disengagement (Uy et al., 2017) and decreased work motivation, thus, ultimately resulting in increased employee turnover intention (Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2017).

Although surface acting has been theorized to be a maladaptive strategy (Lee & Madera, 2019), past research tends to argue that deep acting is positively linked to well-being outcomes (Alabak et al., 2020; Humphrey et al., 2015). This association can be attributed to the notion that deep acting is less effortful and, as a result, requires fewer mental and energetic resources (Uy et al., 2017). Consistent with this assertion, a meta-analysis by Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) revealed that while deep acting was weakly associated with indicators of impaired well-being, it was strongly associated with emotional performance and job satisfaction. This finding suggests that deep acting improves performance and work-related attitudes without compromising an employee's well-being. In line with this premise, the meta-analytic structural model tested by Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) revealed that while deep acting was associated with performance increases and job satisfaction, it was unrelated to emotional exhaustion. These findings suggest that deep acting is an adaptive strategy while surface acting is maladaptive. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H8a: Surface acting has a negative indirect impact on successful aging at work

H8b: Deep acting has a positive indirect impact on successful aging at work

H8c: Surface acting has a positive indirect negative effect on turnover intention

H8d: Deep acting has a negative indirect impact on turnover intention

Measures

The current study administered a 51-item survey to evaluate the relationship between emotional regulation and successful aging.

More specifically, the study adopted Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) 6-item emotional labor scale to measure the respective deep acting ($\alpha = .83$) and surface acting ($\alpha = .92$) constructs. The scale items constitute two interconnected yet independent factors (as posited by Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2015). There are three items that measure surface acting with a reliability coefficient (alpha) of 0.83. These refer to the modification and faking of facial expressions. Simultaneously, there are three items that measure deep acting, with a higher reliability coefficient (alpha) of 0.92. These items primarily examine the extent to which an employee alters emotions to adhere to display rule. The scale is scored on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores on this scale indicate higher levels of the emotional regulation strategy utilized by employees. Based on previous research, scores associated with this scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .93$, $\alpha = .88$) (Jeong, Park, Hyun, 2018; Ogunsola, Fontaine & Jan, 2018). Some of the items in the scale include: "When dealing with customers, I often hide my true feelings about a situation" and "When dealing with customers, I try and experience the feelings that I must show."

The study also utilized a 9-item exhaustion measure adopted from Maslach's (1996; $\alpha = .87$) burnout inventory scale. Each item was measured based on how frequently customers feel exhausted by their job. Item scores range from *never* (1) to *always* (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Examples of such measurement items include statements such as: "I feel used up due to work," "I feel emotionally drained from my work," and "I feel burned out from my work." Based on extant research, the scores on the

emotional exhaustion scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .92$, $\alpha = .88$) (Chau et al., 2009; Seery & Corrigan, 2009). The job satisfaction construct was measured using a 3-item scale adopted from Chi and Gursoy (2009) ($\alpha = .87$). The scale is scored on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of job satisfaction. Based on previous research, the scores of the job satisfaction scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .83$; $\alpha = .90$) (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Zopiatis et al., 2014). Some scale items include: "Overall, I am satisfied with my job at this organization" and "In general, I like working here." However, three items dropped from the scale due to a lack of convergent validity.

The employee resilience construct was measured using Smith et al.'s (2008) six-item scale resilience scale ($\alpha = .87$). The scale scores each item on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of employee resilience. Examples of the measurement items include: "I tend to take a long time to get over setbacks in my life (Reverse coded)" and "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times." Based on extant research, scores on the resilience scale appear highly reliable ($\alpha = .85$) (Chmitorz et al., 2018). The employee turnover intention was measured using a 3-item scale ($\alpha = 0.92$) by Mowday et al., (1982). Each scale item is scored on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores were indicative of higher levels of turnover intention. Examples of the items include "I often think about quitting my job," "I seriously think about moving to another firm," and "I have the intention to change my job to another firm." Scores on this scale appear highly reliable based on extant research ($\alpha = 0.94$; Chen et al., 2022).

Last, the study utilized Robson et al.'s (2006) 33-item scale to measure successful aging at work. The scale consists of five dimensions: adaptability and health, positive relationships,

occupational growth, personal security, and continued focus and achievement of personal goals (Robson et al., 2006). The scale scores each item on a five-point response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores are indicative of higher levels of each dimension. Some examples of measurement items include: "I accept suggestions for improving my performance," "I am satisfied with my coworkers," and "My career is still growing." Based on past research, the successful aging at work scale score appears reliable ($\alpha = .83$; Cheung & Wu, 2012).

Results

Sample Profile

The sample overview reveals that most of the study's participants are males, accounting for 68.6% of the respondents. The participants were all above the age of 39, with a significant majority (73.4%) being 50 or older. Most participants were White, accounting for 91.9% of the participants, followed by Black and Asian participants, who account for a combined 7.3%, and then the Hispanic/Latino participants, representing a mere 0.8% of the total sample. Full-time employees formed most of the study's participants at 63.3%, while part-time employees constituted only 36.7%. The participants' education varied as many had either completed high school (22.4%), attended some college (30.9%), earned a professional degree (32.8%), held a bachelor's degree (9.7%), or had a graduate degree (2.7%). Finally, 53.3% of the participants were married, 1.9% were widowed, 15.4% were divorced or separated, and 29.3% had never been married. Table 1 illustrates a more detailed profile of the study participants.

Table 1*Demographic Profile of the Sample (N = 259)*

Characteristics	Category	N	%
Gender	Male	94	31.4
	Female	205	68.6
Employment Status	Full-time	164	63.3
	Part-time	95	36.7
Age	40-49 years	69	26.5
	50-59 years	99	38.0
	60 + years	92	35.4
Race	White	238	91.9
	Black	14	5.4
	Asian	5	1.9
	Hispanic	2	0.8
Education	Less than high school	4	1.
	High school graduate	58	22.4
	Some college	80	30.9
	Professional degree	85	32.8
	Bachelor's degree	25	9.7
	Graduate degree	7	2.7
Marital Status	Married	138	53.3
	Widowed	5	1.9
	Divorced/Separated	40	15.4
	Never married	76	29.3
Annual income	Under \$20,000	67	25.8
	\$20,000-\$39,999	101	39.0
	\$40,000-\$59,999	41	15.8
	\$60,000-\$79,999	25	9.7
	\$80,000-\$99,999	15	5.8
	Over 100,000	10	3.9

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the underlying structure of the constructs (Table 2). The CFA and reliability analysis supported the scale's measurement

model. The CFA showed that the hypothesized model exhibited acceptable fit statistics, with $\chi^2(641) = 1211.585$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.890$, CFI = .932, TLI = .925, RMSEA = .059 (90% CI: .054–.064). The construct reliability values of the eight constructs ranged from .83 to .92. These values are higher than Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) recommended cut-off point, thus indicating satisfactory reliability.

Table 4
Convergent and Discriminant Validity Measures

Construct	SA	DA	ER	EE	TOI	JS
SA	.626 ^a					
DA	.000 ^b	.790				
ER	.008	.020	.683			
EE	.180	.000	.270	.635		
TOI	.150	.000	.160	.510	.829	
JS	.130	.030	.200	.530	.600	.803
CR ^c	.830	.920	.920	.920	.940	.920

Note: SA (Surface Acting), DA (Deep Acting), ER (Employee Resilience), EE (Emotional Exhaustion), TOI (Turnover Intention), JS (Job Satisfaction); ^aAverage variance extracted (values on the diagonal); ^bSquared multiple correlation coefficients; ^cComposite reliability.

Results of Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling was conducted to test the proposed model. Overall goodness-of-fit indices of the structural model was satisfactory with $\chi^2_{(651)} = 1425.881$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.190$, CFI = .907, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .068 (90 % CI: .063-.073). Figure 4 displays the proposed model with the standardized path coefficients.

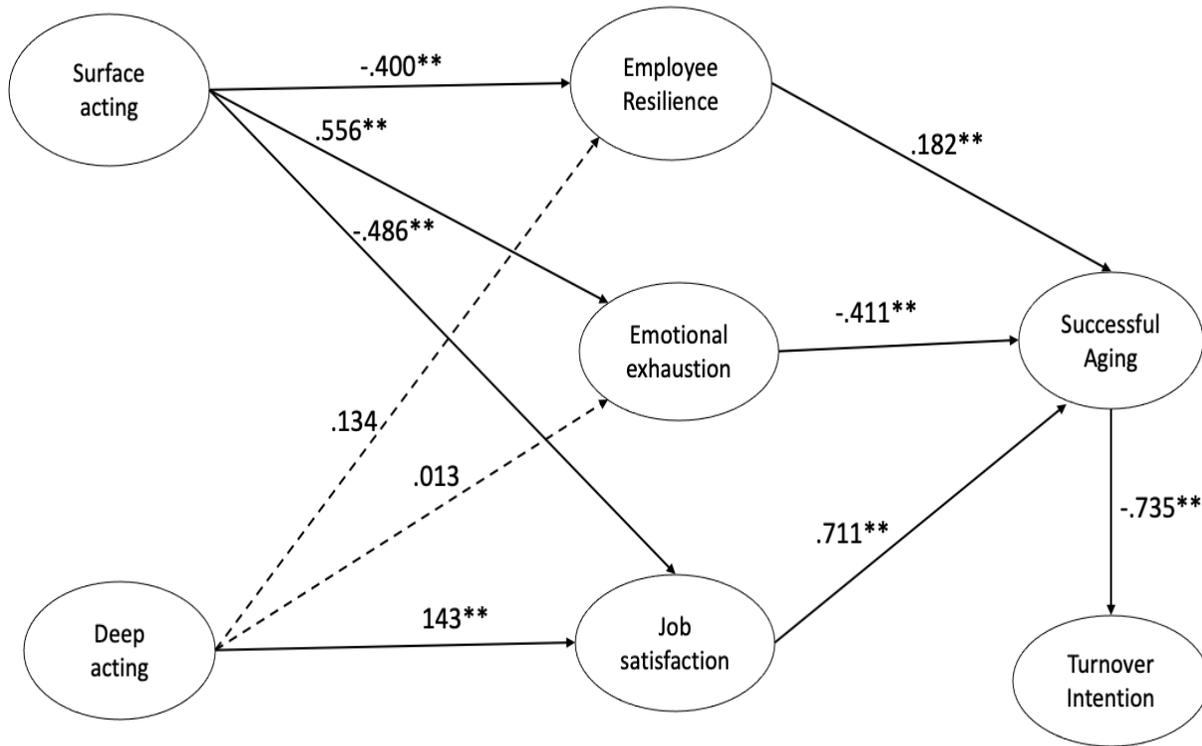


Figure 2. Results of structural equation modeling.

Note: Fit indices: $\chi^2_{(651)} = 1425.881$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.190$, CFI = .907, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .068 (90 % CI: .063-.073), Straight line = significant, dashed line = not significant. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis test

Table 5 summarizes the results of the hypotheses test. The analysis revealed a significant negative relationship between surface acting and employee resilience ($\beta = -.400$, $p < .01$; 95% CI [-.653, -.198]). Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, no evidence supported a direct association between deep acting and employee resilience ($\beta = -.134$, $p = .074$). However, consistent with the study's proposition, there was a significant positive relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .556$, $p < .01$; 95% CI [.356, .942]). In line with the

study's proposition, the analysis results also affirm the absence of a direct relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.013, p = .86$). Additionally, the findings of the study also reinforce the presence of a significant negative relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.486, p < .01$; 95% CI [-.822, -.281]), and the positive association between deep acting and job satisfaction ($\beta = .143, p < .01$; 95% CI [.029, .293]). The analysis also supported the propositions of a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and successful aging ($\beta = -.411, p < .01$; 95% CI [-.641, -.192]) and the positive associations between employee resilience and successful aging ($\beta = -.182, p < .01$; 95% CI [.019, .391]), and between job satisfaction and successful aging ($\beta = .771, p < .01$; 95% CI [.598, .962]). Finally, the analysis revealed a negative relationship between successful aging and turnover intention ($\beta = -.735, p < .01$; 95% CI [-.832, -.598]).

The results also confirmed the indirect impact of surface acting on successful aging ($\beta = -.676, p < .01$; 95% BCCI [-.969, -.437]), and turnover intention ($\beta = .497, p < .01$; 95% BCCI [.313, .759]). However, there was no support for the indirect impact of deep acting on successful aging ($\beta = .129, p = .10$; 95% BCCI [-.021, .311]), and turnover intention ($\beta = -.095, p = .09$; 95% BCCI [-.227, .017]).

Table 5*Results of Hypotheses Test and SEM Parameter Estimates (Direct effects)*

Hypothesis	Standardized path coefficients	95% CI	Results
H1a: SA → ER	-.400**	[-.653, -.198]	Supported
H1b: DA → ER	.134	[-.022, .270]	Not Supported
H2a: SA → EE	.556**	[.356, .942]	Supported
H2b: DA → EE	.013	[-.139, .169]	Not Supported
H3a: SA → JS	-.486**	[-.822, -.281]	Supported
H3b: DA → JS	.143**	[.029, .293]	Supported
H4: ER → SuccA	.182**	[.019, .391]	Supported
H5: EE → SuccA	-.411**	[-.641, -.192]	Supported
H6: JS → SuccA	.771**	[.598, .962]	Supported
H7: SuccA → TOI	-.735**	[-.832, -.598]	Supported

Note: SA (Surface Acting), DA (Deep Acting), ER (Employee Resilience), SuccA (Successful Aging), EE (Emotional Exhaustion, TOI (Turnover Intention), JS (Job Satisfaction); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$., *** $p < .001$

Discussion

This research explored the interplay between emotional labor strategies and successful aging and turnover intention among seasoned employees within the hospitality industry. The findings corroborate that surface acting is indeed a detrimental emotional labor strategy (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015) and further establish its role as a remote predictor of successful aging in older employees. Surface acting's depiction as a maladaptive strategy (Madera et al., 2019) is validated by the observation that the suppression of authentic emotions to align with organizational norms negatively affects employee resilience. Given that the enactment of inauthentic emotions constitutes a mentally demanding task leading to emotional exhaustion (Lam et al., 2022), this strategy results in the depletion of essential personal resources for resilience, increasing individuals' vulnerability to workplace stressors (Troughakos et al., 2015).

This contention is supported by a study on resilience and emotional labor among mental health nurses, indicating that employees concealing their genuine emotions reported reduced resilience (Delgado et al., 2019).

Even though deep acting is theoretically considered an adaptive emotional labor strategy, this study could not provide sufficient evidence supporting its influence on employee resilience and emotional exhaustion. A potential reason for this non-significance could be the scale's insufficiency in capturing the multi-dimensional character of deep acting (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Specifically, deep acting involves cognitive modification and attentional deployment (Grandey, 2000), yet it is often treated as a unified construct capturing an individual's effort to conform to an organization's emotional display rules (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Hence, using such a scale might result in mixed findings as it does not account for the cognitive strategies that employees leverage to modify their felt emotions (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Mikolajczak et al., 2009).

Furthermore, the study indicated a positive correlation between the use of surface acting and heightened levels of emotional exhaustion. Given that surface acting, a response-focused strategy, is usually employed when there's a dissonance between the felt emotions and the emotions required for display (Grandey, 2000), it leads to a higher expenditure of mental energy and consequent resource depletion (Uy et al., 2017). Consistent with previous research (Lavelle et al., 2021), studies within the hospitality sector have also shown a positive correlation between surface acting and emotional exhaustion (Chen et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2019; Jeung et al., 2018).

The findings underscore that employees utilizing surface acting are likely less satisfied than those using deep acting. Surface acting, being more strenuous than deep acting (Uy et al., 2017), leads to employees experiencing fatigue. Additionally, the suppression of felt emotions

results in emotional inauthenticity (Grandey, 2003), consequently eroding job satisfaction (Jia & Huang, 2020). Conversely, as deep acting facilitates the expression of genuine emotions (Grandey, 2003), individuals using this strategy experience an increased positive affect, positively predicting job satisfaction (Kwon et al., 2019). This positive association between deep acting and job satisfaction aligns with previous hospitality research (Wen et al., 2019).

The research findings also illustrate that resilient employees are more prone to age successfully. Resilient individuals employ adaptive coping strategies, maintaining a positive outlook when encountering adversity (Lamond et al., 2018). They also exhibit high levels of well-being (Gerstorf et al., 2010) and positive affect (Robertson et al., 2015), enabling them to cultivate supportive social networks and positive relationships (Windle, 2011; Wrosch et al., 2013). Considering that well-being is a critical determinant of successful aging (Kooij et al., 2020), the positive correlation between employee resilience and successful aging could be due to its relationship with employee well-being

The research corroborates that emotional exhaustion negatively impacts successful aging. Prior studies have linked emotional exhaustion to adverse employee outcomes obstructing successful aging. This includes decreased psychological well-being, leading to physical and psychological consequences harmful to older adults' overall well-being (Demerouti et al., 2017), and diminished work engagement, compromising an employee's motivation, involvement, and enthusiasm for work, ultimately affecting successful aging (Zacher & Schmitt, 2016). Finally, emotional exhaustion is associated with reduced work engagement, impeding an employee's sense of purpose, productivity, and career development (Demerouti et al., 2011), thereby hampering their successful aging process (Kooij et al., 2018).

The positive relationship between job satisfaction and successful aging suggests that

content employees are more likely to work up to or beyond their retirement age. Previous studies have associated job satisfaction with extended participation in the workforce and delayed retirement (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2019), contributing to improved cognitive functioning, financial security, and overall well-being in older age (Wang & Shultz, 2010). Satisfied employees also report lower stress levels, fewer complaints, and higher motivation, all of which contribute to growth and productivity during aging (Kooij et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Moreover, satisfied employees typically engage positively with their coworkers, fostering an improved social support network critical for maintaining well-being and social integration during the successful aging process (Judge et al., 2017; Warr, 2019).

Lastly, the study confirms that surface acting serves as a distant predictor of successful aging and turnover intention. Engaging in surface acting is linked with elevated job dissatisfaction, reduced psychological well-being, and emotional dissonance (Grandey et al., 2005) – factors known to diminish an employee's willingness to remain with an organization. Given that surface acting requires mental effort, individuals using this strategy are likely to experience emotional exhaustion, negatively affecting their successful aging and turnover intentions.

Theoretical Contributions

This research enhances the hospitality literature on emotional labor (Lee & Madera, 2019), pioneering an exploration into the influence of emotional labor on the successful aging of older frontline workers. The investigation uncovers that employees using the surface acting strategy tend to experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion and are more likely to display less successful aging patterns. To further this narrative, the study employs the principles of the

job demands theory (Bakker & Demerouti 2017), proposing that job demands, such as the obligation to engage in surface acting, can induce exhaustion when they necessitate sustained physical or emotional effort. Essentially, the research suggests that as surface acting is an emotionally taxing strategy demanding consistent effort and self-control, its usage leads to emotional exhaustion, adversely affecting an employee's inclination to continue working until or beyond retirement (Kooij et al., 2018).

Existing research on emotional labor implies that deep acting is a beneficial strategy, leading to resource gain and lower levels of mental exhaustion (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Nevertheless, in spite of this reasoning, there has been limited support for this link between deep acting and emotional exhaustion. In fact, some studies have discovered that deep acting can have a reverse impact, as its application also demands mental energy expenditure (Diefendorff et al., 2011). In line with Brotheridge and Grandey's study (2002), this investigation discloses no connection between deep acting and emotional exhaustion. Hence, this study enhances the literature by acknowledging that examining deep acting as a single entity rather than a multi-dimensional construct results in mixed findings (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Applying the deep acting strategy necessitates individuals to engage in cognitive change and attentional deployment (Grandey, 2000). However, as the current scale only captures an individual's attempt to align with emotional display rules, the use of this scale yields consistent findings. Consequently, it is crucial for future research to establish a more valid scale.

Lastly, this investigation also augments the current research on the impact of emotional labor strategies on turnover intention. Specifically, the study indicates that while surface acting is not directly connected to turnover intention, it is a remote predictor of the phenomenon. The mental effort involved in exhibiting misaligned emotions leads to decreased employee resilience

(Anasori et al., 2019), which is linked with emotional resource depletion (Grandey et al., 2015), thereby making employees more prone to turnover intention. Although there have been propositions that the alternative solution to this problem might be adopting the deep acting strategy, this study presents no evidence of a significant relationship between deep acting and turnover intention.

Practical Implications

The adverse consequences of surface acting imply that it might be beneficial for organizations to implement emotion regulation skills training to aid their employees in coping with emotionally demanding situations (Grandey, 2015). A skill fostered through such a program is perspective-taking, highlighting an individual's capacity to comprehend others' mental states (Davis, 1983). Employees possessing this skill are better prepared to understand customer emotions, potentially leading to their adoption of the most effective strategies in customer interactions (Giardini & Frese, 2006). Furthermore, such training endows employees with adaptive capabilities like reflection, associated with employee well-being (Hülshager et al., 2014; Kotsou et al., 2011). Fortunately, such competency can be acquired, nurtured, and supported via interventions like mindfulness training (Wang et al., 2016), which alleviates emotional exhaustion by enhancing employee mood (Hülshager et al., 2013).

Given the detrimental effects of poor emotion regulation (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), practitioners should view the quality of emotional competence as a crucial component of their employee selection and training policies. Emotional competence refers to an employee's capacity to express, comprehend, perceive, and utilize emotions in the work context (Ikävalko et al., 2020). Research shows that emotionally competent employees are better equipped to deal with

emotional dissonance and psychological job demands (Giardini & Frese, 2006). Despite being a relatively stable characteristic, training interventions can foster and enhance emotional competence (Roger & Hudson, 1995; Cheung & Tang, 2009). Previous research has proven the effectiveness of emotional competence training on employee outcomes such as well-being (Kotsou et al., 2011; Nelis et al., 2009). However, despite its proven effectiveness, emotional competence training is often targeted at workers in higher-level leadership roles rather than subordinates in lower-level positions. Therefore, its impact on service frontline employees is still to be explored.

Although there have been recommendations for organizations to implement training interventions to help employees deep act, there is limited guidance on the interventions that will help achieve this feat. Thus, a potential avenue organization can pursue is perspective training – a psychological technique that fosters empathy and improves interpersonal relationships. This kind of training builds empathy by teaching individuals to see matters from the perspective of others (Madera et al., 2016). The several techniques utilized in perspective training entail imaginative perspective training, in which employees imagine themselves in another’s situation, informational perspective-taking, which involves learning about a person’s experience, preference, and values to understand their perspective better; and emotional perspective training, which involves trying to understand others’ feelings or emotional states (Tamir & Mitchell, 2012).

Organizations can also improve their employees’ emotional capacity by utilizing just-in-time adaptive interventions (Xanthopoulou et al., 2017). This intervention entails helping prepare employees for emotionally demanding encounters by tailoring the provision of their support to the type, intensity, and timing of such events (Nahum-Shani et al., 2017; Spruijt-Metz & Nilsen,

2014). Just-in-time adaptive interventions are particularly efficacious when promoting and sustaining effective emotion regulation strategies at the trait level (Xanthopoulou et al., 2017). In addition, organizations can enhance the efficacy of such a measure by hiring experienced and observant supervisors. Such qualities enable them to predict better the occurrence of emotionally demanding situations (Spruijt-Metz & Nilsen, 2014).

Limitations

This inquiry has several limitations that warrant the results being interpreted cautiously. First, the analysis is based on cross-sectional data, which provides a snapshot of the participants at one point in time. At the same time, successful aging is a dynamic process that entails changes over time (Schaie, 2005). Cross-sectional datasets also make it difficult to infer causality as there is no insight into how the variables interact as an individual ages (Maxwell & Cole, 2007). Additionally, such data does not account for the possibility of cohort effects (Shadish et al., 2002). More specifically, individuals of the same age cohort may have undergone disparate experiences because of the era in which they grew up. As a result, these differences could influence the attitude, actions and perception of the successful aging process (Yang & Land, 2013).

Although the current study provides empirical support for the positive impact of successful aging on employee turnover intention, it does not explore how successful aging influences other key employee outcomes like citizenship behavior, job performance, and affective commitment. Given the positive association between these outcomes and employee retention (Paille, 2013), future studies must consider models that explore the relationship between this factor and successful aging. Such a nuanced approach may allow hospitality

researchers to incorporate the successful aging concept into conceptual frameworks that have industry relevance. The current study also included only two independent variables as predictors of successful aging in its theoretical framework. As a result, the inquiry provides a limited glimpse of the importance of work-related coping strategies. Thus, future studies must explore the impact of other industry-related psychological coping strategies like quiet quitting to allow for a more comprehensive understanding of the psycho-social factors underlying successful aging at work.

Finally, the current study did not include the demographic variables of socio-economic status (e.g., perception of financial constraints, voluntary vs. involuntary work) as a control variable in its analysis. While there is no empirical evidence for this logic, it is plausible to suspect that the experience of aging at work could be shaped by factors such as an individual's financial status or motivations for working (Cheung et al., 2018). For instance, a financially secure employee working voluntarily may evaluate their aging experience differently than an individual who works because of financial constraints. Following this logic, future studies must include socio-economic status as a control variable to account for its effect on successful aging in the workplace.

Conclusion

The overarching objective of this dissertation was to delve into the implications of psychosocial stressors on successful aging and turnover intention among older employees. From the investigation, it emerges that perceived narcissistic leadership, albeit occasionally advantageous (Fatfouta, 2019; Kashmiri et al., 2017), is predominantly associated with unfavorable employee outcomes. Specifically, the study uncovered that employees may develop

a cynical attitude toward their organization when subjected to a supervisor that they perceive to be narcissistic (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2017). This cynicism often stems from leaders' habits of belittling, disparaging, and taking advantage of their employees (Tepper et al., 2017). These actions result in dwindling trust and a perception of maltreatment (Nevicka et al., 2011), which breed deeper cynicism (Leroy et al., 2019).

While much of the discourse in management literature on perceived narcissism predominantly focuses on high-ranking leadership roles, like CEOs (Kashmiri et al., 2017; O'Reilly et al., 2017), the implications of narcissism in supervisory positions should be given equal weight, given their central role as gatekeepers in the hospitality sector (Kwon et al., 2016; Shi & Gordon, 2020). This research underscores a pressing concern by showcasing that the negative ramifications of perceived narcissistic leadership are not exclusive to boardrooms but seep down to the supervisory levels, influencing both successful aging and turnover intentions significantly. Thus, it is crucial that organizations are vigilant against narcissistic behaviors throughout all levels of management.

This research additionally identifies that surface acting is a distant but decisive precursor to successful aging and turnover intention. Engaging in surface acting is correlated with increased job dissatisfaction, decreased psychological well-being, and emotional dissonance (Grandey et al., 2005) – factors known to inhibit an employee's intention to stay with their organization. Given that surface acting necessitates a mental toll to execute, individuals who adopt this strategy are likely to experience emotional fatigue, negatively affecting their successful aging and inclinations towards turnover. Following this logic, and as hinted in prior studies, one might expect that the deep acting strategy would have a converse influence. However, this study did not unveil substantial evidence underlining the effect of deep acting on

successful aging and turnover intention. This outcome may be partially ascribed to the scale employed to assess the construct, which treats the multi-dimensional entity of deep acting as a single, unitary construct, thus restricting a complete understanding of this complex phenomenon. Therefore, future research should contemplate creating and applying multi-dimensional scales that acknowledge the array of strategies employees deploy to regulate their emotions.

From a practical perspective, organizations must recognize the potential damage narcissistic leaders can impose on their workforce. As advised by prior research, organizations should implement psychological and personality evaluation tests to proactively identify and weed out potential narcissists from their pool of supervisory promotion candidates (Aboramadan et al., 2020). While this strategy seems reasonable, outright dismissal of narcissistic individuals for supervisory roles may not be appropriate as it may cause organizations to overlook potential benefits associated with the trait. Therefore, organizations need to apply firm measures when addressing harmful narcissistic behaviors. Furthermore, cultivating an organizational culture that underscores the value of teamwork could be beneficial. Removing the spotlight on individual accolades might make supervisory roles less appealing to those seeking such positions for egoistic motives.

Given the adverse implications of surface acting on successful aging and turnover intention, it's incumbent upon organizations to reassess their promotion of indirect messages that could prompt frontline employees to engage in surface acting, such as "service with a smile" or "the customer is always right." Equally important is the need for practitioners to incorporate emotion regulation skills training - like perspective taking - to assist employees in managing emotionally challenging interactions (Grandey, 2015). Such interventions employ adaptive strategies, such as reflection, to safeguard an employee's emotional well-being (Hülshager et al.,

2014; Kotsou et al., 2011). Furthermore, organizations should regard emotional competence as pivotal when formulating employee selection and training policies.

While this dissertation sheds light on the connection between psychosocial stressors, successful aging, and turnover intention, it is crucial to cautiously approach the study's results. The findings are premised on cross-sectional data, offering a one-time snapshot of participants' responses. This temporal limitation should be noted because successful aging represents a dynamic, ongoing process. Such cross-sectional data also pose challenges in making causal inferences. Furthermore, the study didn't account for cohort effects, implying that the derived results don't factor in the potential that the respondents, although grouped as "older workers," might have experienced varying circumstances due to their respective generational contexts. Consequently, these differential experiences could impact their attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of their aging process.

Drawing on the behavioral plasticity theory, the study posited that the detrimental impacts of narcissism would be less severe in employees exhibiting high levels of organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) compared to those with lower levels of the trait. The absence of support for this assertion suggests that future studies employing the behavioral plasticity theory does not apply to all self-concept variables. Thus, future studies examining the impacts of narcissistic leadership on key employee outcomes must consider the conditional effect of other self-concept variables like self-efficacy, the impostor phenomenon, and self-regulation.

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Front Office Manager, Carnival Cruise Line, Miami, U.S.A **2015- 16**

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PUBLICATIONS

Jongile, T., & Joung, H.-W. (Under revision). My share is not fair: Gratuity structure and organizational citizenship behavior display in restaurants. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*.

Jongile, T., & Joung, H.-W. Carithers, T. (In progress). Starting with the man in the mirror: self-esteem, self-compassion, self-confidence, and successful aging in the hospitality industry. Targeted journal: *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*

- Jongile, T., & Salter, V** (Under review). What we choose not to see: The impacts of colorblind racism on the outcomes of diversity training
Targeted journal: *Personnel Psychology*
- Jongile, T., & Joung, H.-W.** (In progress). Not so funny! Investigating the impact of leader humor on employee behavior in restaurants.
Targeted journal: *International Journal of Hospitality Management*
- Jongile, T., & Salter, V** (Under review). Hidden in plain sight: Investigating the impacts of micro-aggressions on employee employee withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*
- Jongile, T., & Salter, V** (Under review). Age is just a number! Investigating the impacts of age bias training on ageism in the restaurants. *Journal of Organizational behavior*.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

- Jongile, T & Roseman, M. G.** (2019) Continuance Commitment, A multi-dimensional approach in the hospitality Industry, *Central CHRIE conference*, Indiana
- Jongile, T & Roseman, M. G.** (2019) organizational justice and citizenship behavior in the hospitality industry, *ICHRIE conference*, New Orleans, 2020
- Jongile, T., & Joung, H.-W.** (2020) Gratuity structure and organizational citizenship behavior display in restaurants. *SEC-CHRIE conference*, p34-48
- Jongile, T., & Choi, E-K.** (2020) The role of perceived employee effort and failure severity on the antecedents and consequences of service recovery in airlines. *SEC-CHRIE conference*, p 83-101

HONORS AND AWARDS

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| Best Food and Beverage Student Award, Stenden University | 2012 |
| Best Community Contribution by a Student, Stenden University | 2013 |
| Top academic achiever: Hospitality Strategic Management, Stenden University | 2014 |
| International Hoteliers Summit 2015 Leadership Award, Lausanne, Switzerland | 2014 |
| Best Student Representative Council Member, Stenden South Africa | 2015 |
| Certification in Hotel Industry Analytics (CHIA) Competition Finalist, New York | 2019 |
| Graduate College Conference Travel Grant, University of Mississippi | 2019 |
| Three Minute Thesis Competition Finalist, University of Mississippi | 2019, |
| 20,21 | |

Standout Three Minute Thesis Winner, University of Mississippi **2021**
Graduate Writing Fellowship, University of Mississippi **2021**
Graduate School Spring Dissertation Nomination, University of Mississippi **2022**

SERVICE

AFRICAN CARIBBEAN STUDENTS' ASSOCIATION (Vice President)
2019- Present

- Advocate for the needs of international students of African and Caribbean descent

OXFORD COMMUNITY VOLUNTEER **2020-2021**

- Participated as a coach and referee for little league soccer

TECHNICAL SKILLS

SPSS
JASP
JAMOVI
R

LICENSES

COURT OF MASTERS SOMMELIER CERTIFICATION