EMOTION REGULATION: A MEDIATOR BETWEEN TRAIT MINDFULNESS, SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND BURNOUT

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Dedication

This is dedicated to my parents. My father, Lawrence Johnson, who passed away early in life, and yet left me with large dreams, strength, and a call to action. My mother, Agripina Sturgis, who sacrificed and dedicated her time so that I could have a chance to grow and succeed. I am blessed to be their child. I am everything I am today because they loved me.

Acknowledgement

First, I would like to acknowledge my family, friends, peers, colleagues, mentors, and professors for helping me get through this process. To all that supported me, words cannot express my gratitude. When I was down, you were there to pick me up. When I didn't believe in myself, you were there to ignite my confidence, offer kind words of support and keep me going. You saw me when I couldn't see myself. I couldn't have done any of this without you.

Dr. Lopez, thank you for guiding me through the dissertation process. I felt very confident going into my proposal hearing and final defense because I was fortunate to have you as my chair. You are talented, knowledgeable, and thoughtful – a true leader. I am going to miss working with you and having your compassionate and patient energy in my life. Although I am moving on, I will always think dearly of you. It is my goal to shine bright and make you proud.

Dr. Troper, thank you for believing in me and giving my ideas a chance to blossom. It was you that I first connected with within the program. I remember the interview like it was yesterday. You whipped me into business shape and gave me the space to explore mindfulness. You bet on me, gave me a chance, and that chance positively changed my life. For that, I am forever grateful.

Abstract

This study examines trait mindfulness and its impact on dependent variables subjective well-being and burnout through the mediating variable emotion regulation (which is comprised of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). A survey was conducted among 293 working professionals from a variety of industries. The online survey included questions on trait mindfulness, emotion regulation, subjective well-being, and burnout. Results were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM was used to evaluate the fit for the hypothesized model, analyzing path coefficients, model fit, and fit indices (Byrne, 2010). To test the mediating effects of emotion regulation, the Baron and Kenny (1986) method was utilized, and indirect and direct effects were measured. Results indicated that the emotion regulation strategy cognitive reappraisal mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and dependent variables subjective well-being and burnout. Expressive suppression only mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction. This study's results have theoretical and practical implications for the use of mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies in the workplace. In particular, this study showed that trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal are both helpful resources when combating burnout and increasing subjective well-being among employees.

Keywords: trait mindfulness, burnout, subjective well-being, cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Budding research in organizational psychology suggests that mindfulness is associated with better workplace functioning, cultivating resilience, and preventing psychological distress, burnout, and workplace stress (Hilton et al., 2019). The majority of the current workplace research focuses on mindfulness interventions and state mindfulness. However, this paper intends to add to existing research by focusing on trait mindfulness and its impact on subjective well-being and burnout through the mediating variable emotion regulation.

Trait Mindfulness has seen a spike within the field of psychology, precisely due to its ability to be assessed through self-report scales (Reb et al., 2014). The consensus is that trait mindfulness is correlated with more significant physical and psychological well-being (Reb et al., 2014). These benefits apply to the workplace, as well. Trait mindfulness has been associated with higher task performance and well-being amongst employees who work in vigorous environments (Narayanan et al., 2011).

To clear up possible confusion regarding the construct of mindfulness, the following definitions will be utilized in this paper. Mindfulness as a concept that refers to nonjudgmental, concentrated observation of one's perceptions, thoughts, and emotions in the present moment, with an attitude of openness, acceptance, equanimity, and curiosity (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Mindfulness is an all-encompassing term that includes both trait mindfulness and state mindfulness (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Trait mindfulness or dispositional mindfulness is categorized as a trait when one is more inclined to be mindful in one's daily life (Kiken et al., 2015). State Mindfulness is a temporary state of awareness resulting from mindfulness training or being in a state of present-moment awareness (Black, 2011). Examples of mindfulness

training include MBSR (Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction), meditation, and journaling. In contrast, state mindfulness can be actively changed, while trait mindfulness refers to an individual's average or baseline (Siegling & Petrides, 2014).

How does mindfulness impact burnout in the workplace? The use of mindfulness training in the workplace has proliferated over the years and have been found to decrease burnout's psychological symptoms such as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment (Krasner et al., 2009; Goodman & Schorling, 2012; Abenavoli et al., 2013).

The phenomenon of burnout can be metaphorically explained as the smothering of a flourishing flame (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Without proper resources, the flame can no longer burn as brightly as it used to and, if prolonged, will possibly cease to exist. Employees who are not given the proper resources will begin to diminish. Just like the flame, they will not have the energy to shine. Consequently, it will become more challenging to make a meaningful impact at work.

Burnout has been recognized as a severe threat in the workplace (Jackson et al., 1986). A recent Gallup study conducted on 7500 full-time employees discovered that "23% stated feeling burned out very often or always, furthermore, an added 44% reported feeling burnout sometimes" (Wigert & Agrawal, 2018, p.1). Burned-out employees are "63% more likely to take a sick day, and 2.6 times as likely to be actively seeking a different job" (Wigert & Agrawal, 2018, p.1). According to Brown & Ryan (2003), burnout is dangerous to individuals because it reduces mental well-being. Burnout has been linked to depression, making it severely detrimental to employees' health in organizations and organizations as a whole. Fresh employees enter the workplace with high hopes, expectations, and lofty career goals. Soon after being hired, employees undergo long working hours, high demands, and a lack of resources. Over time, the

once enthusiastic employees begin to experience burnout symptoms, including emotional exhaustion, disengagement, cynicism, and lowered sense of accomplishment (Lieter & Maslach, 2003).

Thomas, Kholi & Choi (2014) suggest that burnout rates have been gradually increasing due to role ambiguity, declining wage rates, limited opportunities, upward mobility, and increasing workload. The Jobs-Demand-Resources model posits that burnout occurs when a person's job demands outweigh the quality and quantity of resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Resources such as trait mindfulness have been found to ease the pain of heavy work and personal demands, therefore, making it a useful resource for individuals to tap into (Taylor & Milliear, 2016).

The little research completed on the link between trait mindfulness and burnout describes an inverse relationship between them (Taylor & Millear, 2016; Charoensukmongkol & Suthatorn, 2018; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2017). This paper intends to investigate a possible mediating variable that could further explain the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout. The same mediating variable will explain the relationship between trait mindfulness and the second dependent variable in the study, subjective well-being.

Subjective well-being (SWB) is defined as an individual's experience of affective reaction and cognitive judgments. It is broken down into effect and life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). SWB has been found to be positively correlated with trait mindfulness and burnout (Chen et al., 2017). Why is it essential to research subjective well-being in the workplace? A vital life domain for most includes their working life (Russell, 2008). A positive and reciprocal relationship has been discovered between subjective well-being and job satisfaction (Russell, 2008). Subjective well-being influences employee's lives by impacting the way they collect and

store information about their jobs. For example, an employee with high subjective well-being may think of their work differently and more positively than an individual with low subjective well-being. Subjective well-being has also been found to impact job performance positively. Cote (1999) proposed that positive affect improves work performance, and in return, satisfactory work performance creates positive affect. “Employees who report experiencing a greater balance of positive emotional symptoms over negative emotional symptoms received higher performance ratings from supervisors than employees who report feeling more negative than positive symptoms of emotion” (Russell, 2008, p. 119). According to George and Brief (1992), employees who experience high subjective well-being earn more money, have better workplace relationships, are more engaged, and are better organizational citizens.

What mediator may explain the relationship between the independent variable trait mindfulness and the two dependent variables: burnout and subjective well-being? The answer is emotion regulation. We live in a society where emotional awareness is becoming prominent, especially in the workplace. The workplace used to be looked upon as a habitat for sound, rational judgment. However, researchers have now discovered that the management of emotions is linked to positive work outcomes (Grandey, 2000). Existing research has mainly focused on emotional labor, which consists of deep acting when one adjusts feelings to express the desired emotion, and surface acting, where an individual regulates emotional expressions. This paper intends to build on existing research by focusing mainly on the two emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. “Cognitive reappraisal is a form of emotion regulation that involves cognitively construing a negative situation in a way that alleviates its emotional impact” (Wilkins, 2014, p. 286). Expressive suppression is a concept that

includes regulating bodily and expressive behavior to hide a current emotional state (Butler et al., 2003).

Statement of the Problem

Organizations are being put in a challenging position. On one hand, they want employees to have high productivity and performance rates. On the other, they also want to keep the employees healthy enough to sustain their success. This leaves us motivated to look deeper into traits that will allow employees to maintain their flame. Trait mindfulness has been found to predict burnout (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2017) and subjective well-being (Weinstein et al., 2009). However, there is room surrounding these relationships to grow. Does one simply jump from having trait mindfulness to experiencing lower burnout and increased subjective well-being? Or could emotion regulation help further explain the processes? Discovering the answer to this question could mean bringing more awareness to the power of mindfulness and well-being in the workplace.

The Purpose of the Study

In this study, the researcher sought to bridge the gap between the independent variable trait mindfulness and dependent variables: burnout and subjective well-being, by considering emotion regulation as a mediating variable. Trait mindfulness was intentionally chosen instead of state mindfulness due to the magnitude of research already completed on state mindfulness as a result of mindfulness training and MBSR. With the absence of interventions, trait mindfulness tends to be stable over time (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Therefore, making it a uniquely different construct than state mindfulness (Thompson & Waltz, 2007). This makes trait mindfulness a more advantageous variable to research due to its independence from mindfulness training or interventions.

The trait mindfulness – burnout relationship is significant to investigate due to the lack of empirical evidence supporting its existence, especially with emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) acting as a mediating variable. This relationship will utilize the Jobs Demands Resource Theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Previous researchers have examined the trait mindfulness–subjective well-being relationship, and a positive correlation has been discovered (Chen et al., 2013). Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) as a mediating variable between mindfulness and subjective well-being was recently investigated. Emotion regulation was found to mediate the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being (Mandal et al., 2017). How will this study use the existing empirical research and expand? Mandal et al. (2017) researched the variable mindfulness; this study will focus on trait mindfulness. They also focused on India's college students as the population sample, whereas this study's primary focus is on those currently employed in the U.S. This relationship will be examined from the Mindfulness to Meaning Theory (Garland et al., 2015).

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Overview

To investigate whether emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between (independent variable) trait mindfulness and (dependent variables): burnout and subjective well-being, this literature review will first discuss each construct's theory and research separately. Then, the interrelationships among these four constructs will be discussed. Key findings from past research will be reviewed, and gaps in the research will be identified. Finally, the hypotheses and the rationale for each will be presented.

Trait Mindfulness

According to Ralph Waldo Emerson, the founder of American Transcendentalism, we are souls within a body experiencing life on earth as humans (Nightingale, 2011). Our purpose is to awaken, remember, or be mindful of our authentic selves. The past three decades have observed a spike in popularity and academic interests in mindfulness's psychological benefits (Coffey et al., 2010). Throughout time many well-known philosophers and traditions have emphasized the importance of mindfulness or being entirely in the “here and now.”

The word mindfulness is an English rendition of the word “sati” in Pali, a Buddhist psychology language from 2500 years ago. According to Cullen (2011,p.187), in Buddhist Psychology, “sati” is defined as “one of 19 beautiful mental factors whose function is the absence of confusion or forgetfulness”; however, the Buddha’s Discourse describes it as a type of thoughtfulness that is skillful, good, or right. Mindfulness was and remains the core of Buddhist tradition (Germer, 2004) and is also known as the heart of Buddhist meditation (Kabat-

Zinn, 2003). Originally from an Eastern culture, mindfulness has made its way to the Western world in meditation and reflective practice, or a psychological process (Baer, 2003).

Over time, researchers have created various definitions for mindfulness, each of which consists of similar keywords. Brown & Ryan (2003) explain mindfulness as a nonjudgmental, concentrated observation of one's perceptions, thoughts, and emotions in the present moment, with an attitude of openness, acceptance, patience, and curiosity. Brown & Ryan (2003) include mindfulness or awareness as a part of consciousness. Consciousness consists of both attention and awareness; thus, one can be conscious of thoughts, emotions, motives, and sensory-perceptual stimuli. Mikulas (2011, p.2) describes mindfulness as a "behavior of the mind, the active maximizing of breadth and clarity of awareness." Mindfulness also involves awareness around internal and external stimuli, including feelings, thoughts, sounds, smells, and events that occur in one's social or physical environment (Hyland et al., 2015).

Bishop et al., (2004) created one of the most widely accepted definitions of mindfulness and emphasized attentional and acceptance-based components. The acceptance-based aspect refers to maintaining an attitude of receptivity and openness rather than judging, diminishing, or ignoring experiences. The attentional element pertains to the ability to regulate attention, which is improved by intentional observations of feelings, thoughts, and physical sensations within a present moment (Bishop et al., 2004). Shapiro et al., (2006) summarizes mindfulness in three words, attention, intention, and attitude. According to Weick and Sutcliffe (2006, p.518), "Eastern mindfulness means having the ability to hang on to current objects, to remember them, and not to lose sight of them through distraction, wandering attention, associative thinking, explaining, or rejection." Jon Kabat-Zinn (1994), a well-known scholar in the field of mindfulness, defines mindfulness as paying attention in a particular way, in the present moment,

intentionally, and non-judgmentally. This is synonymous with “insight” meditation, which means a profound, pervasive non-conceptual seeing in the mind and world's nature (Kabat-Zinn, 1994).

Table 1 provides a summary of definitions of mindfulness from critical authors in this field of study. As seen below, many of the definitions revolve around maintaining a present and nonjudgmental awareness. In contrast, some authors include the ability to acknowledge emotions. All of the definitions appear to have one common theme, which is “awareness.”

Table 1.

Summary of Mindfulness Definitions

Source	Definition
Weick and Sutcliffe (2006)	The ability to focus on the present and not lose sight of the present moment through distraction.
Kabat-Zinn (1994)	Paying attention in a particular way, in the present moment, intentionally, and non-judgmentally.
Mikulas (2011)	The behavior of the mind, the active maximizing of breadth and clarity of awareness.
Hyland et al. (2015)	Awareness around internal and external stimuli which includes, feelings, thoughts,

	sounds, smells, and events that occur in one's social or physical environment
Shapiro et al. (2006)	Summarizes mindfulness in three words, attention, intention, and attitude.
Brown & Ryan (2003)	Nonjudgmental, concentrated observation of one's perceptions, thoughts, and emotions in the present moment, with an attitude of openness, acceptance, stability, and curiosity
Bishop et al. (2004)	Emphasis on attentional and acceptance-based components of mindfulness. Acceptance refers to the ability to maintain an attitude of receptivity and openness rather than judging, diminishing, or ignoring experiences. Attention pertains to the ability to regulate attention, which is improved by intentional observations of feelings, thoughts, and physical sensations that happen within a present moment

Mindfulness in the workplace. In recent years, mindfulness has become increasingly popular within organizations. Large companies such as General Mills, Aetna, Mayo Clinic, Goldman and Sachs, and Google have established mindfulness training programs to increase employee well-being and improve workplace dynamics (Hyland et al., 2015). Jon Kabat-Zinn

(1982) became the father of mindfulness when he introduced the mindfulness-based stress reduction program. Traditionally built off the Buddhist mindfulness meditation, the mindfulness-based stress reduction program made mindfulness and meditation more universally accepted in the workplace by removing any religious aspect. Once viewed as mystical or touchy-feely, mindfulness quickly became recognized as a beneficial management tool due to its ability to be studied and documented.

Not long after mindfulness training was introduced into the workplace via the mindfulness-based stress reduction program, it entered the academic world, making its way into universities. Schools such as Harvard Business School, New York University, University of Massachusetts, and the University of California, Berkeley began to offer mindfulness training (Hunter & McCormick, 2008). Studies have found that workplace mindfulness improves employee service quality, employee turnover, task performance, and management quality (Aikens et al., 2014). Through a review of existing literature, Glomb et al., (2011) suggest that mindfulness's critical processes are empathy, increased working memory, experience/emotions, decreased rumination, and response flexibility. Mindfulness also improves the ability to perform under stress, job satisfaction, creativity, sustained goal-directed effort, and decision-making (Glomb et al., 2011).

Trait mindfulness vs. State mindfulness. According to Brown & Ryan (2003), mindfulness is both a state and a trait. Anyone can achieve a state of mindfulness, but there are distinct differences in a tendency toward mindfulness. Mindfulness is described as a state when practiced in meditation; it is categorized as a trait when one is predisposed to be mindful in daily life. Trait mindfulness represents a person’s baseline or an average of mindfulness (Kiken et al.,

2015). Glomb et al., (2011, p. 119) define trait mindfulness as "the individual differences in mindfulness."

Thus far, little is known about how differences in trait mindfulness might affect brain processing and mindfulness practice success. People tend to differ in their attitudes towards mindfulness meditation; however, new evidence has shown that mindfulness practice stimulates both trait and state changes (Tang, 2017). In clinical psychology, mindfulness was considered a type of awareness refined by nonjudgmental, purposeful attention. It could also be conceptualized as a personality trait (Mohammadkhani et al., 2015).

According to Tang (2017), mindfulness practice can momentarily change the brain's state and corresponding activity pattern. It also changes personality traits following a more extended period of training. Kiken et al., (2015) and Kabat-Zinn (1990) have reported that meditation practice throughout a mindfulness-based intervention results in increased trait mindfulness. This implies that trait mindfulness can change over time due to mindfulness practice or life experiences (Tang, 2017). This study is intended to investigate further the nature of trait mindfulness among employees in an organizational setting, specifically how it impacts employee's well-being.

Subjective Well-being

In the past, psychologists mainly observed the nature of hostile states, particularly unhappiness, and positivity was ignored. Fortunately, in the last decade, research surrounding positive constructs, including subjective well-being, has improved. In 1973, the Journal Social Indicators Research was founded and dedicated to research on subjective well-being, emphasizing how and why people experience positivity in life.

Subjective well-being (SWB) can be viewed as a child of its parent's branch, positive psychology. According to Donaldson & Ko (2010), positive psychology concentrates on strengths, flow, gratitude, happiness, excellence, resilience, positive organizational scholarship, and subjective well-being. Researchers are interested in how positive aspects of an individual affect personal and organizational performance. The concept of SWB fell within the hedonic perspective and is used synonymously as hedonic well-being. The hedonic perspective defines well-being as fundamentally about maximizing pleasure and minimizing pain, which differs from the eudemonic perspective, which focuses on finding the meaning of life and self-realization.

Definition of subjective well-Being. In 1967, researcher Warner Wilson presented a review of subjective well-being in which subjective well-being was described as a "young, healthy, well-paid, extroverted, optimistic, worry-free, religious, married person with high self-esteem, job morale, modest aspirations, or either sex and of a wide range of intelligence" (Diener et al., 1999). The field of subjective well-being, a derivative of positive psychology, has come a long way since then. Social scientists and philosophers are less worried about the characteristics or demographics and more attentive to the underlying processes of SWB. According to Diener (1984), subjective well-being (SWB) is defined as an individual's experience of cognitive judgments and affective reactions. The cognitive aspect focuses on how an individual may think about his/her life as a whole and specific domains such as work and relationships. This appraisal may take the form of thoughts when a person makes an informed evaluative judgment about his or her satisfaction with life (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). The affective portion of subjective well-being refers to how one feels about his/her life. An individual is said to have high subjective well-being if one experiences infrequent negative feelings such as depression and anger and recurrent positive experiences such as passion, love, and happiness (Diener et al. 1999).

Subjective well-being can be found under the hedonic approach, which means that an individual is mainly interested in maximizing pleasure and avoiding pain (Culbertson et al., 2010). This version of well-being is distinct from its sister concept, eudaimonic well-being, in which the main goal is to live life by one's true self, therefore finding satisfaction in purpose and meaning (Waterman, 1993).

Components of subjective well-being. Subjective well-being can be broken down into two elements: affect or experienced emotions (Diener et al., 1999). Affect, in a psychological context, describes feelings or emotions. The affective component of SWB is contingent upon the frequency and not on the intensity of negative and positive affective experiences (Kuppens et al., 2008). Positive affect (PA) represents the degree to which a person feels lively, enthusiastic, and attentive. High PA is a state of high energy, enjoyable engagement, full concentration, whereas low PA is categorized by sorrow and exhaustion. Negative Affect (NA) is a measurement of subjective suffering and unwelcomed involvement that includes a mixture of aversive mood states, comprising of annoyance, contempt, disgust, shame, fear, anger, and anxiety, with low NA being a state of stillness and safety (Watson et al., 1988). Many argue that affective evaluations should form the foundation for SWB judgments because unpleasant and unpleasant affect reflect essential experiences of ongoing events in people's lives (Diener et al., 2009).

To evaluate affect, researchers have mainly focused on emotions and moods, two separate constructs correlated with each other. According to Frijda (1999), emotions are temporary reactions connected to specific events or external stimuli, while moods are drawn-out affective feelings that may not be tied to particular circumstances. Scherer (2009) suggests that there are four essential features of emotions:

1. Emotions occur when an event directly impacts needs, values, goals, or general well-being.
2. Emotions prepare an individual to handle important invents in life, thus producing states of action readiness.
3. Emotions typically involve automatic arousal, therefore engaging the entire person.
4. The activation of emotion is generally associated with behavior changes toward the environment or the readiness for particular behaviors.

Researchers also use the dimensional approach (Diener et al., 2009). Over time, moods and emotions are found to be positively correlated within individuals and between individuals. For example, a person may experience massive bouts of anger while also experiencing high sadness or anxiety levels. Diener et al. (2009) suggest an underlying process that could be causing the emotions. Over long periods, distinct emotions of the same valence are moderately correlated, making it easier for researchers to focus on emotional dimensions rather than feelings themselves.

The second element of SWB is life satisfaction, which is evaluating satisfaction in general and specific areas of one's life (Diener et al., 1999). Also, to affect, SWB experts are invested in understanding cognitive evaluations of life satisfaction. Andrews (1974) discovered that life satisfaction formed a separate factor from the two types of affects, indicating that life satisfaction is an entirely different construct. Christoph & Noll (2003) suggests that the term life satisfaction incorporates both satisfaction with necessary life domains (work, family, health) as

well as life overall (a universal judgment of one's own life). Kozma & Stones (1985) describes life satisfaction as fulfilling a suitable proportion of the principal desires.

Researchers used to focus mainly on positive affect and negative affect. Later, Diener (1984) created the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). The SWLS measures affective and cognitive dimensions by having people self-assess their satisfaction rather than having researchers make judgments. Satisfaction over the domain of life is called domain satisfaction and is judged individually by a person. For example, someone who is depressed may be weighting unsuccessful domains heavily compared to. Someone who is happy and is experiencing success within their weighted domains (Diener et al., 2003). Measuring domain satisfaction allows researchers to hone in on a specific domain. This is helpful when studying certain groups of people, such as those in the workplace, students, or the elderly.

Subjective well-being in the workplace. Organizations expect their employees to be positive, engaged, and motivated, making subjective well-being an essential topic in the workplace. According to Bakker & Leiter (2011), SWB in the workplace refers to whether one is satisfied with his/her job and whether one experiences infrequent negative emotions and consistent positive emotions. The circumplex model of affect created by Russell (1980) helps to understand how one can experience positive emotions within the workplace. Russell (1980) suggests that affective states originate from two basic neurophysiological systems: one related to arousal (activation and deactivation), and the other that is relevant to a pleasure and displeasure continuum. It is an extensive theoretical framework that categorizes experiences of SWB as positive and negative.

Positive forms of work-related SWB. Subjective well-being in the workplace includes positive indicators such as job satisfaction, work engagement, and happiness at work (Bakker &

Leiter, 2010). Many of these have already been positively linked to higher job performance (Cropanzano & Wright, 2000) and can be further explained by incorporating them into the circumplex model. According to Cropanzano & Wright (2000), job satisfaction can be defined as an "internal state that is expressed by affectively or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor." According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from evaluating one's job. It is the most researched variable of work-related SWB and can be found in the right lower quadrant of the circumplex model due to its low arousal level and high level of pleasure. Employees who experience job satisfaction have been shown to have high levels of pleasure and low levels of aspiration or energy (Buhmeyer & Hunt, 1982). According to (Bakker & Leiter, 2010), those who rank high in pleasure are grateful for their job, even though it may not be ideal.

Work engagement falls into the upper right quadrant, therefore containing high levels of pleasure and high activation levels. Bakker & Demerouti (2008) describe work engagement as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption." Vigor can be characterized as having mental resilience and high energy levels. An employee dedicated will be actively involved in one's work while experiencing a sense of significance and excitement. Absorption infers that the employee is fully concentrated on work, so joyfully immersed that time passes quickly (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Due to their positive outlook and high energy, engaged employees can withstand long workdays and tend to describe their tiredness as pleasant. They are not addicted to their work. However, they do find it to be fun and entertaining. Engaged employees craft their feedback loop in terms of gratitude, acknowledgment, and success (Bakker, 2009).

According to Seligman (2002), the idea of happiness is correlated with SWB and is often used interchangeably, as they will in this paper. Diener (2016) reports that SWB is the scientific term for happiness. “Subjective well-being is the label given by scientists to the various forms of happiness taken together” (Diener, 2016, p. 3). Happiness or SWB is placed on the mid to lower right side of the circumplex model, indicating high levels of pleasure and moderate levels of activation. According to Sharif & Majid (2014), happiness in the workplace refers to how satisfied people are with their lives and work. Happy employees are productive. Conversely, unhappy individuals may experience a decrease in productivity (Sharif & Majid, 2014).

Trait Mindfulness and Subjective Well-being

According to Ryan & Deci (2001), subjective well-being focuses on the cultivation of positive emotions to ensure individuals' peak functioning and proficiency. This concept also assesses how people feel and think about their lives. “In less mindful states, emotions may occur outside of awareness or drive behavior before one acknowledges them (Brown & Ryan, 2003, pg. 2).” Mindfulness plays a crucial role in inhibiting individuals from engaging in unhealthy thoughts and behaviors by adding clarity and vividness to experiences. Thus, one can detach from experience, get an exact look from multiple perspectives, and then decide how to feel or behave.

Chen et al. (2017) conducted a study on mindfulness training and subjective well-being in the elderly. Sixty-eight elderly participants partook in a six-week mindfulness course. Subjective well-being was measured via a survey before and after the mindfulness course. After the course, the older men and women experienced higher subjective well-being ($t=-2.95$, $P<0.05$) and lowered negative emotions ($t=2.89$, $P< 0.05$). However, the dimensions of positive emotions and life satisfaction had no statistical significance. Chen et al. (2017) state that mindfulness training

can reduce negative emotions by reconstructing negative life information. However, these researchers did not consider trait mindfulness in their study.

Bajaj & Pande (2016) researched the impact of trait mindfulness on subjective well-being by surveying 327 undergraduate students. The purpose of the investigation was to analyze the significance of mindfulness on affect and life satisfaction. Trait mindfulness was found to correlate negatively with negative affect ($r=-0.36$, $P<.01$) and positively with positive affect ($r=0.35$, $P<.01$) and life satisfaction ($r=0.18$, $P<.01$)

Weinstein et al. (2009) contributed to the research on subjective well-being and trait mindfulness by administering self-report measures to 65 undergraduates. The students performed a 3-minute cognitive task which consisted of multiplying three-digit numbers. The state levels of anxiety and stress were measured afterward. According to Weinstein et al. (2009), trait-mindful individuals reported lower perceived stress ($\boldsymbol{\beta} = -0.39$, $P<.05$) and lower use of avoidance coping ($\boldsymbol{\beta}= -0.54$, $p< .01$). Trait mindfulness predicted higher day-to-day subjective well-being ($\boldsymbol{\beta}= 0.46$, $p < 0.01$).

Kong et al. (2014) performed a study on 310 adults from mainland China to research the relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction. Participants completed an online survey including the Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (Brown & Ryan, 2003) and Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985). Trait mindfulness was a significant predictor of life satisfaction ($\boldsymbol{\beta} = .36$, $P< .001$). Considering previous research, this study proposes:

H1**:** *Trait mindfulness positively predicts subjective well-being.*

Emotion Regulation

Unlike small children, adults are required to manage and regulate their emotions — especially in the workplace, where emotions could negatively affect the organization. In the past,

the workplace was seen as a rational environment. Therefore, emotions were ignored in organizational research. This perspective has been dismantled as more researchers are discovering how emotions can be leveraged to support desirable work outcomes.

For many employees, time spent at work is not a positive experience. In every other area of our life, we can choose who we want to spend time with, but at work, it's a melting pot of personalities combined with the added pressure of performance. Therefore, employees often find themselves overwhelmed, therefore feeling more negative emotions than positive (Lawrence, et al., 2011). In intense situations, it's vital that an employee can regulate his/her emotions. For example, a customer service professional receives a call from an angry customer. The employee can respond negatively to the customer or manage his/her emotions to interact with the customer effectively.

History of emotion regulation. Emotion regulation began to arise as an independent variable of scientific study in the last decades of the 20th century (Tamir, 2011). Since then, emotion regulation has matured, and several decades of research have resulted in a substantial body of knowledge. Emotion regulation originated from developmental psychology, focusing first on children (Gross, 1998). Researchers Gross & Levenson (1993) then introduced emotion regulation to adult literature. There is no longer doubt that emotion regulation can impact health and adaptive functioning (Tamir, 2011).

What is emotion? To understand emotional regulation, one first has to understand the meaning of emotion. Gross (1998, p. 272) describes emotion as the "readout of a system that monitors the rate at which the discrepancy between a goal and reality is being decreased. Emotions can be defined as a negative or positive occurrence connected to a specific pattern of physiological activity (Schacter et al., 2011). Emotion is a mental state correlated with the

nervous system and triggered by chemical changes associated with feelings, thoughts, behavioral responses, and a degree of gratification and discontentment (Damasio, 1998; Cabanac, 2002). Emotion is not to be confused with affect as affect encompasses a broad range of feelings that embodies moods and emotions. Emotions not only allow us to feel, but they also entice us to act (Fridja, 1986). A mood is a state of mind that tends to be less intense than emotion and does not necessarily need a contextual stimulus. Moods last longer than emotions and can be experienced from hours to days, while emotions are short-lived, more intense, and often indicative of body language and facial expression (Gooty et al., 2010).

It is essential to bring awareness around the timing of an emotional occurrence. "According to the appraisal theory, emotions arise when an individual attends to and evaluates (appraises) a situation as being relevant to a particular type of currently active goal" (Gross, 2014, p. 4). The goal can be long-term or short-term. Emotions are multifaceted in nature and malleable. Emotions are a full-body experience associated with the shifts in behavior, subjective experience, and physiology (Mauss et al., 2005). In summary, the three essential core features of emotion include:

1. What gives rise to emotions – emotions are goal-oriented. They tend to arise when an individual attends to a situation and understands it as essential to their goal completion (Gross, 2007).
2. Multifaced nature – causes changes in physiology, subjective experience, and behavior (Gross, 2007).
3. Malleability – Emotions have an authoritative quality in which they can disrupt what we are doing and force themselves upon our awareness (Fridja, 1998).

Gross and Thompson (2007) created a model incorporating the three core features, the modal model of emotion. According to Gross & Thompson (2007), this model begins with an emotionally relevant situation. Attention is then directed towards the emotional situation. The emotional situation is evaluated and interpreted. Therefore, an emotional response is activated, causing a shift in physiological response systems, behavior, and subjective experience. The modal model runs on a feedback loop because an emotional response can lead back to the existing situation or an entirely new one. Gross & Thompson (2007) state that emotion generation is recursively ongoing and dynamic. For example, imagine two employees disagreeing about whether an assignment was completed correctly. Suddenly, one of the employees begins to cry, thus causing a guilt-ridden emotional response in the other. This emotional response can shift the environment and change the probability of following instances.

Emotion regulation defined. Many definitions of emotion regulation have been created. Due to its complex nature, researchers and clinicians have found it challenging to agree on one (Lawrence et al., 2011). According to Cole et al., (1994), emotion regulation is the capability to respond to the ongoing demands of experience with the range of emotions in a socially acceptable and flexible manner to permit impulsive reactions and the ability to delay impulsive reactions as needed. Eisenberg and Spinrad (2004,p.338) describe emotional regulation as "the process of initiating, avoiding, inhabiting, maintaining, or modulating the occurrence, form, intensity, or duration of internal feeling states, emotional related physiological, attentional process, motivational states, and the behavioral processes, motivational states, and the behavioral concomitants of emotion in the services of accomplishing affect-related biological or social adaptation or achieving in individual goals." Emotion regulation involves efforts to influence what emotions one experiences, when, and how they are experienced and expressed (Gross and

Thompson, 2007). Emotion regulation can be non-conscious or conscious (Bargh & Williams, 2007). Emotion regulation focuses on the regulation of emotions, not regulation by emotions (Gross, 2007). It focuses on controlling the emotions and actions that follow. Therefore, a few examples depict the regulation of emotions (emotion regulation): doing breathing exercises before giving a public speech, anticipating going on vacation to motivate yourself during the workweek, and going to happy hour after a long day at work.

There are three core features of emotion regulation. According to Gross et al., (2011) the first is *goal activation*, specifically whether the emotion-regulatory goal is activated in the individual (intrinsic motivation) who is having an emotion episode, or in someone else (extrinsic motivation). An example of intrinsic motivation would be a woman who has recently been through a breakup and trying to hide her feelings, thus appearing not to be upset. An example of extrinsic motivation would be when a coach attempts to calm down a team member after being fouled.

The second core features focus on the *engagement process,* altering the emotional trajectory (Gross, 2007). According to Gross et al., (2011), the motivation behind the engagement process can be hedonic (to maximize the good feelings and minimize the bad feelings) or instrumental (intended to achieve one's long-term goal). Much of emotion regulation can be explained by hedonic. People tend to be motivated to seek pleasure and avoid pain; however, if the pain is used towards attaining a goal, people will maximize the negative emotion to succeed. One example would be a leader who has high narcissism (vs. low) and experiences the emotions associated with narcissism such as rage, hurt, envy, and fear. Instead of minimizing these emotions, the leader maximizes them after noticing that those emotions have helped increase performance.

The third feature of emotion regulation focuses on emotion dynamics – the latency, magnitude, duration, rise time, and offset of responses in behavioral, physiological, experiential domains (Gross, 2007). Emotion regulation episodes can be *explicit* or *implicit* (Gross et al., 2011). The goal is explicit if the goal is deliberately and purposely perceived, such as when an employee attempts to look joyous in a meeting. The goal is implicit if the goal is activated outside of an individual's awareness, like when an individual enters a church service and tones down emotional responses (Mauss et al., 2007). An implicit goal intends to modify one's emotional responses while straight points to intense action toward goal attainment.

Gross (1998) created a process model to make sense of the assortment of emotion regulatory activities. This model features five points at which individuals can regulate their emotions. Each step in the informative process acts as a prospective target for regulation (Gross, 2013). The emotion regulation model's five points or families include situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation (Gross, 2013). "Each of the families is distinguished by the point in the emotion-generative process at which they have their primary impact" (Gross, 2007, p.8). Moving left to the right through the process model indicates moving through time. The emotion regulation model is built off of the modal model of emotions. As the modal model, the emotion regulation process is ongoing. This process model separates the emotion regulation strategies into two categories: response-focused and antecedent-focused (Gross, 1998). Antecedent-focused refers to the following phases: situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and cognitive change. These phases occur before the emotional response is entirely produced. Response-focused refers to the response modulation phase and occurs after the emotion is generated.

According to Schmidt et al., (2010), situation selection is the process of approaching or avoiding places, objects, or people to modify the emotional response. An employee avoids a known workplace bully's desk or seeks out a friend for emotional support. An individual who has undergone situation selection assumes knowledge of the remote situation and expected emotional responses towards the situation (Gross, 1998). Situation selection can be tricky because people have difficulties predicting their emotional responses to future events. For example, when a girl suspects she won't like her date, but when meeting him, she changes her mind. If She had followed her assumptions, she might have missed out on a suitable date.

According to Gross (1998), situation modification includes efforts to change a situation to modify its emotional impact. Examples of situation modification include converting a vital phone call into an in-person meeting or waiting for a possible predator to leave the parking lot before walking to the car. Situation modification refers specifically to modifying one's external or physical environment (Gross & Thompson, 2007).

The attentional deployment includes directing one's attention away from or towards an emotional situation. Strategies for altering attentional focus include rumination, distraction, and concentration (Gross, 1998). If one uses distraction as a tactic, one would focus on a situation's non-emotional aspects or move attention away from the situation completely. Texting during an argument to avoid feeling the intensity of the emotional experience is an example of distraction. Individuals employ distraction to stressful situations because it helps block out high-intensity emotional content, which would be otherwise challenging to appraise and process (Sheppes et al., 2011).

Rumination, like a distraction, involves directing attention. However, rumination focuses on diving further into emotions, events, and consequences. Rumination is described as the

passive and cyclic focusing of an individual's attention on distress symptoms and the reasons and consequences of these symptoms. Allowing problems to play over and over again in mind is the process of rumination. It increases emotional distress and is often connected to anxiety disorders and depression (Campbell-Sills & Barlow, 2007). Visiting a situation to understand further and learn is positive; however, revisiting the situation for too long or too many times can trap people and inhibit them from moving forward or creating a solution.

Concentration is another deployment strategy and involves entirely using cognitive resources within an activity. The individual chooses what they want to mentally focus on to regulate emotions (Wadlinger & Issacowitz, 2011). This technique is often utilized in meditation practices. Those using this meditation technique will focus on a particular object such as their breath or a candle's flame. If attention drifts from the object, the individual will let go of the distracter and return attention to the object (Wadlinger & Issacowitz, 2011).

Cognitive change involves evaluating the situation to modify its emotional significance (Gross, 1998). This can also include changing how one thinks about a situation to manage better and evaluate the situation. Examples of cognitive change include denial, isolation, and intellectualization (Gross, 1998). The cognitive change also involves reframing, when one experiences failure with a goal but reframes it as a success. Reappraisal is an example of cognitive change and includes reinterpreting an event's meaning to modify its emotional impact (Gross, 1998).

Response modulation "refers to directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding" (Gross, 1998, p.285). Examples of response modulation include expressive suppression (inhibiting emotional expressions), sleep, exercise, and drug use. Drugs like beta-blockers are used to tone done sympathetic hyperactivity. Alcohol, cigarettes, cocaine,

and food all modify the emotional experience. Exercise and sleep both down-regulate physiological and emotional distress (Gross & Thompson, 2007).

Emotion regulation strategies in question. This study intends to focus on the emotion regulation strategies cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression mentioned in the introduction. “Cognitive reappraisal is a form of emotion regulation that involves cognitively construing a negative situation in a way that alleviates its emotional impact” (Wilkins, 2014, p. 286). Expressive suppression is a concept that includes regulating bodily and expressive behavior to hide a current emotional state (Niedenthal, 2006). Expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal focus on emotion regulation's most reported objectives; expression and emotional experience (Haga et al., 2009). These components will be treated separately but remain under the umbrella of emotion regulation, thus indicating a formative structure. According to Ali & Alea (2018) and Gross (2003), the emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) from the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003) fall under the two-factor independence model. This indicates that the two strategies are not related. Haga et al., (2009) state that cognitive reappraisal decreases negative emotions and behavioral expressions. Cognitive reappraisal is beneficial to overall well-being because it requires few cognitive resources.

In comparison, expressive suppression requires many cognitive resources and has been found to reduce emotional expression while the negative emotion persists. This is problematic because research has found when an individual suppresses emotions, they are physiologically more reactive. The inhibiting emotional expression often causes the experience's emotion to double (Haga et al., 2009). Emotional inhibition can be useful in specific social settings such as

work. However, if chronically used, emotionally suppressive behaviors such as expressive suppression can be detrimental to well-being and life satisfaction (Haga et al., 2018).

Emotional Regulation and Trait Mindfulness

Many mindfulness-based techniques are gradually being utilized to treat psychological disorders (Chambers et al., 2009). Researchers now recognize psychological disorders as disordered emotion regulation (Chambers et al., 2009). Current research has revealed a positive relation between emotionality and mindfulness, notably that mindfulness is positively correlated with emotion regulation and a lowered reactivity to emotional experiences (Moushegian, 2015).

Lyvers et al., (2013) completed a study on trait mindfulness and emotional self-regulation, and executive function. The participants of the study completed a MAAS (Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale) and the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scales (DASS-21), Negative Mood Regulation (NMR) scale, Frontal Systems Behavior Scale (FrSBe), Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS-11), Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20), and the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test. The MAAS mindfulness scores were positively correlated to NMR expectations and negatively associated with anxiety, Stress Scores, DASS Depression, TAS-20 alexithymia, and all three FrSBe indices of the prefrontal cortex dysfunction and BIS-11impulsivity. The results indicate that trait mindfulness impacts facets of emotion regulation and executive function.

Coates (2018) researched the trait mindfulness on stress, emotion regulation within a sample of working adults. The study included forty-seven employees divided into an active control group (n= 23) or mindfulness group (n=24). The participants engaged in a ten-day mindfulness intervention. The Mindful Attention Awareness Scale, Depression Anxiety Stress Scale, and the Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (Gratz and Roemer, 2004) were used in

the questionnaire. Pre and post-intervention results were gathered and portrayed a significant increase in self-reported trait mindfulness (pre M = 51.46, SD =12.53 to post 65.38, SD = 16.68), decrease stress (pre M = 27.26, SD = 10.53 to post 25.43, SD =8.36) , and decrease in difficulties in emotion regulation (pre M=89.83, SD =22.59 to 69.75, SD = 21.84) within the working sample.

Hill and Updegraff (2012) completed a study to assess the relationship between mindfulness, emotion differentiation, emotion liability, and emotional difficulties. One hundred three undergraduate students were asked to attend two lab sessions. The first session involved the participants completing the Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire. The participants were given a Palm Pilot device to record their emotional experiences for a week. Mindfulness was negatively correlated with the index of negative emotion differentiation ($r = -.22$, $p=.03$). Higher levels of mindfulness were associated with greater negative emotion differentiation. Mindfulness was associated with fewer emotion regulation difficulties ($r = -.58$, $p < .001$). Mindfulness was associated with negative emotion liability ($r = -.38$, $<.05$). The results indicate that self-reported mindfulness levels are associated with greater abilities to regulate emotions effectively.

Huang et al. (2018) completed a study on emotion regulation and mindfulness in bereaved individuals. Twenty-three bereaved participants lost a significant loved one within six months to 4 years to attend a mindfulness cognitive therapy course. The self-reported questionnaires Texas Revised Inventory of Grief (TRIG), Generalized Anxiety Disorder-7 (GAD-7), and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS). Participants were asked to meditate once a week during a weekly meeting (duration of 2.5h) plus a daily practice (30-40 min in a day) at home for eight weeks. A t-test was completed using the pre-MBCT and post-MBCT, and the MBCT effect sizes (Cohen's d) were calculated. The self-reported questionnaires

showed improvements in emotion regulation (-0.76), anxiety (-0.65), reductions in grief (-0.89), and depression (-1.17) after the MBCT intervention.

Troy et al., (2013) conducted a study on mindfulness training (state mindfulness) and its impact on cognitive reappraisal ability. A total of 283 participants were asked if they had a history in mindfulness training and were then measured for cognitive reappraisal ability. An ANOVA analysis was used to compare those who have a history in mindfulness training with cognitive reappraisal levels. Results suggested that those with history in mindfulness training had higher levels of cognitive reappraisal ability (M = 0.97, SD = 0.93) than those who did not have a history in mindfulness training (M = .03, SD = 1.00, $p < .01$, $d = 1.22$).

Lalot et al., (2014) performed a study that focused on state mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). Forty-five participants were asked to watch four positive video clips and apply mindful attention, reappraisal, expressive suppression, and no strategy (control group). Participants' facial expressions were recorded, and they were also evaluated on valence (negative/positive) and arousal (calming/exciting). Valence judgments were less positive in conditions of reappraisal (M = 430.8, SD = 132.4) and mindful attention (M = 428.1, SD = 113.9) than in the expressive suppression condition (M = 476.3, SD = 94.18) and control condition without regulation (M = 461.5, SD = 81.3). The effect was not significant, $F(3,37) < 1$, n.s. Thus, arousal was not considered in further analyses. AU6 symbolized the participant's facial expression cheek raiser, and AU12 symbolized the corners of the lips pulling up. Both of the facial expressions are involved with joy. All of the variables: expressive suppression, cognitive reappraisal, mindfulness, and control condition, all found to be significant with AU12 and AU6 (Fs(1,126) > 4.1, ps <0.045). The activation of both AU12 and AU6 was the lowest in the expressive

suppression condition, the highest in the control condition, and equivalently medium in the reappraisal and mindfulness conditions. Results portrayed a positive relationship with mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). Mindfulness was found to be effective in decreasing the evaluative judgment of the videos and facial expressions.

Previous research suggests a potential relationship between cognitive reappraisal and mindfulness. It indicates that mindfulness may lead to better emotionally regulated states by decreasing negative affectivity and numerous emotion-related difficulties (Mandra et al., 2011). Therefore, mindfulness has effectively helped decrease facial expression, aiding in expressive suppression (Lalot et al., 2014). This dissertation intends to focus on trait mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). Previous research focused mainly on state mindfulness, leaving a gap in empirical evidence surrounding trait mindfulness and emotion regulation. This study proposes:

H2a*: Cognitive reappraisal (a component of emotion regulation) is positively related to trait mindfulness.*

H2b: *Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) is positively related to trait mindfulness.*

Emotion Regulation and Subjective Well-being

One of this study's intentions is to understand better the interplay between emotion regulation strategies and subjective well-being. So far, limited research has been carried out, but the current research suggests a positive and significant relationship between the two variables.

Balzarotti et al., (2016) completed research on emotion regulation and subjective and psychological well-being. A cross-sectional study on 470 Italian-speaking adults was conducted

to evaluate emotion regulation strategies. Based on the results, the emotion regulation strategies positive reappraisal, positive refocusing, and planning were positively associated (correlations ranging from .11 to .46) to subjective and psychological well-being.

Pratisti and Rini (2016) explored the relationship between subjective well-being and emotion regulation by completing a study on 131 adolescent students. The study utilized an emotion regulation scale that focused on monitoring emotion, evaluating emotions and modifying emotion. The subjective well-being scale was modified from the flourishing scale (Diener, 2009). A positive relationship ($r = 0.35$; $p < 0.05$) was found between emotion regulation and subjective well-being after running a Pearson correlation. The contribution of emotion regulation to subjective well-being was 12.3 % moderate. Based on the research, there is a significant relationship between subjective well-being and emotion regulation.

Buruck et al., (2016) researched well-being at work by treating emotion regulation skills as a personal resource. The study measured 96 elderly care workers by evaluating emotion regulation training Affect Regulation Training (ART). The elderly care workers completed an emotion regulation questionnaire (ERSQ: Berking & Znoj, 2008) pre-treatment, post-treatment, and a 6-month follow-up. The finding show that ART improves emotion regulation skills, specifically in acceptance (Pre – M = 2.71, SD = .66, Post – M= 2.95, SD = .51) and tolerance (Pre – M = 2.40, SD = .67, Post – M = 2.83, SD = .43) The modification (Pre – M = 2.63, SD = .49, Post – M =2.82, SD = .37) of negative emotions was boosted in those who experienced treatment in comparison to the control group. This means that the capability to change emotions dynamically improved over some time.

Researchers Katana et al., (2019) completed a recent study on emotion regulation, subjective well-being, and perceived stress in geriatric nurses. The study examined a daily diary

of 89 participants and utilized within-person coupling between emotion regulation strategies and both subjective well-being and perceived stress each day for three weeks. Reappraisal was negatively related to negative affect ($b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, $p < 0.01$), positively related to positive affect ($b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, $p < 0.001$), and cognitive well-being ($b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, $p < 0.01$). Daily expressive suppression was positively associated with negative affect ($b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.02$, $p < 0.001$), negatively associated with positive affect ($b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.02$, $p < 0.001$) and cognitive well-being ($b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.02$, $p < 0.001$). At the with-in person level, cognitive reappraisal was positively associated with subjective well-being and negatively associated with perceived stress. Expressive suppression was found to be negatively related to well-being and positively associated with perceived stress. At the between-person level, participants who recorded daily negative effects also reported an increase in expressive suppression. Cognitive reappraisal is a down-regulating and up-regulating strategy, meaning that it can reduce negative emotions or emphasize positive emotions. The researchers suggest emotional strategies such as reappraisal benefit well-being. Down-regulating emotional strategies such as expressive suppression which focuses on decreasing emotional expression, while the emotion persists, has been linked to negative well-being.

This dissertation intends to study the relationship between emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and suppression) and subjective well-being amongst the working class following previous research. Therefore, this study hypothesizes:

H3a: *Cognitive Reappraisal (a component of emotion regulation) positively predicts subjective well-being*.

H3b: *Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) negatively predicts subjective well-being*.

This Missing Link: Mindfulness to Meaning Theory

Does one simply jump from trait mindfulness to experiencing higher subjective well-being? The Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory (MMT) can explain this phenomenon (Garland, Farb, Goldin, & Fredrickson, 2015). According to Garland et al. (2015), the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory asserts that mindfulness allows one to decenter from stress triggers into a metacognitive state of awareness that encourages attention to broaden and observe unnoticed pieces of information about one's life previously, accommodating a reappraisal of challenging circumstances that reduces distress and promotes positive emotions. The MMT typically surrounds eudaimonic well-being, which pertains to finding self-actualization and finding meaning in one's life (Ryan & Deci, 2001). However, this study insists that the same theory can be applied to subjective well-being focuses on the cultivation of positive emotions to ensure individuals' peak functioning and proficiency.

Emotion Regulation as a Mediator

In many studies, mindfulness plays a valuable role in supporting well-being and self-regulatory behaviors. As mentioned in previous research, mindfulness can enhance well-being, positive emotional experiences, positive functioning and reduce stress (Mandal et al., 2011). Emotion regulation as a mediator between mindfulness and subjective well-being has been explored by researchers Mandal et al., (2017). In both instances' emotion regulation portrayed a mediational relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being.

Mandal et al., (2017) assessed two hundred eleven adults by utilizing the Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire (Baer et al., 2006), the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003), the Positive and Negative affect schedule (Watson et al., 1998), and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985). The study aimed to test whether emotion regulation

(suppression and reappraisal) was a potential mediator between mindfulness and subjective well-being. Mindfulness indirectly influenced life satisfaction through reappraisal (estimate .05, $p<.05$) and through expressive suppression (estimate 7.539, $p<.01$). The observed indirect effects suggest the use of emotion regulation as a mediator between mindfulness and SWB. The model supporting emotion regulation as a mediator between mindfulness and SWB could not be outright rejected because the model met the right fit standards (Mandal et al., 2017).

Garland et al., (2011) state that mindfulness and its positive emotional effects follow a reciprocal upward spiral relationship that battles the perpetual destructive effects of negative emotions and ultimately increases positive well-being and positive functioning. This upward spiral is similar to the Mindfulness to Meaning Theory. This dissertation intends to follow the work of Mandal et al., (2017), Garland et al., (2011), Nyklíček (2011) on the mediating effects of emotion regulation on mindfulness and SWB. However, this study intends to take a look at trait mindfulness instead of state mindfulness and focuses on the working-class population within the U.S.

H4: *Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and SWB.*

Burnout

The term burnout began to be used with regularity in the 1970s (Maslach et al., 1986). The concept of burnout was introduced by a novel called “A Burn-out Case” by Greene in 1961. The story covers a tormented architect who moves to the African jungle to escape from the fatigue, loss of idealism, and passion for his job (Maslach et al., 1986). Burnout was written about in fiction and non-fiction work long before becoming known as the popular concept it is now.

The research on burnout initially focused on helping professionals in law enforcement and medicine who were suffering due to the shortage of personnel and high workplace demands (Maslach et al., 2001). Like the architect in “A Burn-out Case”, helping professionals also experienced burnout symptoms such as extreme fatigue and emotional exhaustion. Maslach (1976), a social psychologist, wrote one of the first articles about burnout after she interviewed human service professionals about their jobs' emotional stress. She discovered that the way employees handled their stress directly impacted their performance and workplace behavior. Burnout was initially restricted to helping professions; it was later described as a predicament in one’s relationship with work in general, not necessarily as a crisis in one’s relationships with people at work (Maslach et al., 2001; Salanova et al., 2005). Another early article on burnout was written by Herbert Freudenberger (1980), a psychiatrist working with drug addicts. His report noted the high rate of exhaustion service professionals were experiencing when working with addicts. Freudenberger (1980) used the term burnout to describe this process, which is also utilized when referring to chronic drug use.

What is employee burnout? According to Jackson & Schuler (1983), employee burnout is a psychological process that includes a series of emotional and attitudinal reactions that an employee goes through due to job-related and personal experiences. O’Leary et al., (2015, pg 66) suggest that burnout is “a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion that is caused by long-term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding.” Maslach et al. (2001) suggest that there are five characteristics of burnout which include:

1. Lack of energy, fatigue, depression, and emotional exhaustion
2. Emphasis on the negative mental and behavioral changes
3. Burnout symptoms are work-related

4. Symptoms manifest in those who do not suffer from psychopathology
5. The decrease in job performance.

According to Maslach et al. (2001), burnout characteristics are demonstrated in three components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization/cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment. Maslach & Jackson (1981) completed a factor analysis on burnout. Three factors (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment) emerged with similar intensity, frequency ratings, and eigenvalues high enough to be considered a subscale of burnout. Emotional exhaustion was the highest factor loading with a 0.84 on frequency and 0.81 on intensity. Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were correlated with each other (0.44 for frequency and 0.50 for intensity), yet different aspects of burnout. The personal accomplishment was independent of the other scales due to its lower mean scores by burnout.

The first component is the feeling of emotional exhaustion. This feeling can be described as hitting an arbitrary wall, along with the sense of being completely emotionally drained. This feeling of emotional fatigue is due to the lack of resources to deal with the stressors. An employee experiencing emotional exhaustion may feel that s/he has nothing left to give and undergoes anxiety over the thought of work or anything work-related. Emotional exhaustion is present across all samples studied in the burnout literature regardless of the profession (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Depersonalization follows shortly after emotional exhaustion. After an employee feels that s/he hits the wall, the employee will begin to detach or disengage from the organization (Jackson & Schuler, 1983). This detachment state involves the process of depersonalization, where the employee will begin to distance himself or herself from the other employees who work within the organization. It is also known as psychological withdrawal from relationships and the

development of a cynical, negative, and callous attitude (Hartney, 2008). Depersonalization is a coping mechanism that causes employees to treat people as objects. According to Cordes & Dougherty (1993), this compassion fatigue coincides with feelings of frustration. Employees realize that they can no longer continue to give the same effort as they have in the past. Employees will no longer go the extra mile for their clients; in fact, they made do the bare minimum. Typically, depersonalization is used to describe burnout in the human services profession. The term cynicism is used to describe depersonalization in non-human service jobs. Cynicism and depersonalization both contribute distinctly to burnout and are both types of distance coping used to deal with emotional exhaustion (Salanova et al., 2005). Cynicism can be described as a distrust of the organization. Cynics in the workplace also have a negative or pessimistic view of their co-workers. They might believe that others are out to get them or that the organization is just using them for exploitation. It is in this phase of depersonalization that an employee will also disengage.

The third component of burnout is a diminished personal accomplishment, where an employee will begin to evaluate oneself negatively (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). An employee may have started his/her career with high expectations and goals. A few years into the job, those expectations and objectives may become unrealistic as one settles into the reality that maybe their job isn't ideal. Jackson & Schuler (1983) suggests that there are systemic reasons that aid in diminishing personal accomplishment, including (a) not enough resources to perform one's job, (b) restrictions placed on the worker by organizational policies and procedures, (c) quixotically high expectations because of a lack exposure to the job during training, (d) lack of feedback about one's success and performance, (e) frequently unhelpful and disobedient coworkers.

Instead of looking at the organization and its failure to provide resources, an individual may blame him/herself, which causes a sense of failure.

The combined sense of failure, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion tends to impact an individual's motivation to perform (Jackson & Schuler,1983). Maslach et al. (2001) and Pines and Aronson (1988) believe that burnout's core component is emotional exhaustion. These researchers later developed their assessment tools called the Maslach Burnout Inventory and The Burnout Measure.

Much of the prior research surrounding burnout was originated from the idea that burnout was the opposite of engagement (Maslach,1982). Schauefeli et al., (2002) suggested that engagement and burnout are contrasting concepts and deserve separate measurements. These researchers highlighted two dimensions of work-related well-being: (1) activation, ranging from exhaustion to vigor, (2) identification, ranging from cynicism to dedication. Schauefeli et al. (2002) completed a study examining the factorial structure of engagement, the opposite of burnout. A confirmatory factor analysis confirmed three factors of burnout (emotional exhaustion, professional efficacy, cynicism) and three factors of engagement (vigor, absorption, dedication). Exhaustion and cynicism (the core of burnout) and the three scales of engagement and efficacy were negatively related, sharing 22% and 38% of both samples. According to Schauefeli et al. (2002), burnout is characterized by a combination of exhaustion (low activation) and cynicism (low identification). Engagement is characterized by high activation (vigor) and high identification (dedication).

Other related theories emerged related to burnout. Among these are the Conservation of Resource (COR) theory and the Job Demands Resource Model (JD-R). The Conservation of Resources theory was originated by Hobfoll (1989) to contribute to the research on

psychological stress. Two basic principles are the foundation of this theory. The priority of resource loss states that it is harmful to individuals to lose resources compared to when there is a gain in resources. The second, resource investment, indicates that an individual will be more likely to invest resources to recover from losses, gain resources, and protect against resource loss. Furthermore, the COR model suggests that burnout occurs when an individual perceives a threat to their resources. Individuals are more sensitive to losing resources rather than gaining them. The initial response to the threat of losing resources is stress which then leads to burnout.

Demerouti et al (2001) created the Job Demands-Resource model (JD-R). The model suggests that burnout follows two processes. One process proposes that a lack of job resources leads to disengagement, and the other states that an increase in job demands leads to exhaustion. The JD-R involves the two core dimensions of burnout as a result: exhaustion and disengagement. Disengagement, similar to depersonalization, refers to distancing one from one's work. According to Demerouti & Bakker (2011), exhaustion is defined as the consequence of extreme, physical, emotional, and cognitive strain. Job demands refer to those social, physical, or organizational aspects that involve constant mental or physical effort and are therefore correlated with specific physiological and psychological costs. Examples include work pressure, physical workload, and emotional demands. Job resources are the psychological, physical, social, or organizational features of the job that reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological cost; stimulate personal growth, learning, and development; functional in accomplishing work goals (Demerouti et al., 2001). Examples of job resources include coaching, mentoring, positive work relationships, and growth opportunities.

"COR theory is largely the basis for the more work-specific leading theory of organizational stress, namely the job-demands resource model" (Hobfoll et al., 2018, p. 103).

Conditions that cause burnout. Jackson & Schuler (1983) state that two types of conditions can potentially cause burnout: organizational and personal. Organizational conditions that cause burnout include: (1) the lack of support groups; (2) a lack of clear expectations and job responsibilities; (3) lack of rewards; (4) lack of feeling autonomous or lack of control. The personal conditions break into two categories: idealistic expectations and personal responsibility. Idealistic expectations occur when an employee enters the organization with high hopes. It is possible the recruiter even sold the employee a "dream vision" during the hiring process. This can also be seen in those who are fresh from undergraduate or graduate school. They may have had a preconceived notion that their future jobs will be miraculous. However, once switching from a free-flowing schedule to a nine to five, starting at a lower salary than wanted, and learning that they only receive a couple of weeks of a year, they begin to come back to reality or experience "reality shock." Idealistic job and career goals are highly prevalent in this day and age. With the growing speed of technology, and millionaires being made seemingly overnight, it puts quite a bit of pressure on society. Many young people believe that if they are not a successful CEO when they are 28, they are somehow failing. These lofty career goals entice individuals to push past their natural limits, which leads to burnout.

Shaufeli and Enzmann (1998) have developed seven factors that contribute to burnout. These include: (1) service sector, (2) labeling, (3) individualism, (4) increase in mental and emotional workloads, (5) weakening of professional authority, (6) professional charisma, and (7) changed psychological contract. Professionals such as teaching, nursing, and social workers are among the fastest-growing occupational groups in the U.S (Shaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). Those who are service professionals run a high risk of burning out due to high emotional demands.

Therefore, an increase in burnout may be explained by the service sector's growth, incredibly human service jobs.

Labeling has become increasingly popular and is more prevalent now than it was in the past. The notions of stress and anxiety have become prominent and are typically used as umbrella labels that cover vague symptoms (Shaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Those in human service professions frequently use the word “stress” in their day-to-day organizational vocabulary. Burnout has likely followed a similar process.

Presently, social roles are no longer fixed, and people are receiving the chance to form their roles. This individualization process can be confusing at times, and if people do not have the psychosocial resources, it can cause impersonality, disconnectedness, and narcissism. People are becoming more and more self-absorbed, and the demand for instant gratification is increasing. There is a higher demand for instant gratification, yet once fulfilled, it doesn’t seem enough.

Service professionals now have to deal with a new technological environment on top of their other responsibilities. As a result, the service professional’s mental workload has increased. Having to keep up with the constant shifts in technology puts pressure on the service professionals, significantly impacting their client’s life. In addition to the increase in cognitive stress, service professionals face higher expectations to serve more people daily, emotionally taxing. Employees are now expected to work faster, produce more, and do all of this every day with smiles on their faces.

The weakening of professional authority occurred when society lost trust in corporate leaders (Schaufeli & Enzmann,1998). This lack of trust for corporate leaders bled into a lack of trust for organizations and those who work within them. In addition to the weakening of

professional authority, the sense of customer entitlement has increased, therefore causing service professionals to be under more stress. Service professionals must be attentive, compassionate, and in tune with their clients so that they can be trusted.

According to Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998), the professional mystique is a set of expectations or opinions that society holds regarding professionalism. These expectations are enforced particularly at the beginning and introduced via training programs or during onboarding. The mystique includes competence, autonomy, self-realization, collegiality, and the attitude of recipients. Self-realization refers to the understanding that a job may not be fulfilling and stimulating but dull and insignificant instead. Collegiality is explained as the competitive nature between employees. Autonomy is ideally expected within the workplace, but realistically, employees have to deal with strict guidelines, regulations, and micromanaging. Professionals who have credentials are also assumed to have competence, but that isn't always the case, especially when individuals transfer from school into the workforce without any actual practitioner experience. The recipients' attitude refers to the gratitude that the recipients are supposed to have, as expected by the service professionals. Often, clients are not grateful but are dishonest and manipulative.

Finally, the seventh factor that contributes to burnout is the changed psychological contract. The psychological contract describes an individual's belief system surrounding the contract between him/her and the organization he/she works for. Unfortunately, the balance of exchange between the employer and organization has faltered; namely, the employers are giving more than the organization. Employees feel they have to work more to remain socially accepted within the workplace, yet they are not getting paid more. This perceived breach of trust and unfair psychological contract leads to burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

The Relationship between Mindfulness and Job Burnout

There is a growing body of literature surrounding the application of mindfulness as a useful tool for job burnout. Past research has focused mainly on helping professionals because burnout is an inherent risk to those in healthcare, social work, or teaching. According to Krasner et al. (2009), up to 60% of primary care physicians have reported disturbing heights of distress and burnout. Burnout within physicians has been linked to low-quality care, costly mistakes, lawsuits, and a decrease in empathy. To understand this phenomenon, Krasner et al. (2009) implemented a study on 70 primary care physicians in New York. Specifically, Krasner et al. (2009) wanted to research whether mindfulness, self-awareness, and communication were associated with well-being, capacity for relating to patients, decreased psychological stress, and burnout. The intervention included eight weekly 2.5 hours of mindfulness training and an all-day session on the 6th or 7th week. Significant positive changes were found in mindfulness (pre=45.2, post=54.1), burnout emotional exhaustion (pre=26.8, post=20.0), depersonalization to post=16.1), as well as the personality measures including conscientiousness (pre = 6.5 to post = 6.8), emotional stability (pre = 6.1 to post = 6.6). Mindfulness was found to impact total mood disturbance (r = -0.39) positively.

Goodman & Schorling (2012) set out to investigate the impact of mindfulness-based interventions on the potential decrease of stress and burnout by using a pre-post observational study on 93 health care providers. A mindfulness stress-based course was administered two and a half hours a week for eight weeks with an additional seven-hour retreat. The course included the application of meditation, mindfulness walks, body awareness, mindful movement, and the discussion of how mindfulness can be applied in a workplace setting. As a result, burnout scores improved from before and after the course for the categories of depersonalization (pre-score 9.2

and post-score 6.7), emotional exhaustion (pre-score 28.1 and post-score 21.3), and personal accomplishment (pre-score 37.7 and post-score 41.0).

Abenavoli et al., (2013) suggested that educators' social-emotional competence could be a factor that may protect them from experiencing burnout. A study was performed on 64 educators who were 43 years old with an average of 14 years of experience. The Mindfulness Teaching Scale and Maslach Burnout Inventory were used via survey. Results portrayed strong and consistent negative associations between mindfulness and depersonalization (-.54), low accomplishment (-.56), and emotional exhaustion (-.58). This means that educators who reported high levels of mindfulness reported less burnout. Abenavoli et al. (2013) also discovered that mindfulness training was incredibly potent in reducing burnout in more ambitious educators.

Flook et al., (2013) completed a study to assess the impact of mindfulness on stress, burnout, and teaching efficacy. The study involved 18 public elementary school teachers from middle America. A survey was administered to the teachers and utilized the Five-Facet Mindfulness Scale (Baer et al., 2008), the Self-Compassion Scale (Neff, 2003), and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 1996). The teachers' classroom behavior was observed, and saliva samples (cheek swab tests) were collected to measure cortisol levels over three working days. Lastly, the Affective Go/No-Go (AGN) was used to measure emotional processing (Kaplan et al., 2006). Teachers were expected to complete practice logs that recorded the number of minutes spent engaging in mindfulness practice. Independent t-tests were utilized to conclude if the groups differed from the baseline. Results showed that mindfulness interventions boosted self-compassion, reduced psychological symptoms of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and lack of personal accomplishment, increased effective teaching behavior, and reduced attentional biases. Flook et al. (2013) also discovered that teachers who did not receive the mindfulness

intervention had lower levels of cortisol (body's primary stress hormone) in the morning and a personal accomplishment, which indicated a negative relationship with the caretaking role.

Although most of the existing research supports the relationship between burnout and mindfulness, Moody et al. (2013) did not find a significant change in burnout when implementing a mindfulness-based course on forty-eight pediatric oncology nurses. The nurses were asked to participate in 8 weeks of experiential mindfulness education in a group setting. The training focused on awareness of thoughts, body sensations, emotions, reflecting on meaningful experiences and practice, training in skillful listening and communication, and exploring self-care. These are all features taught in Kabat-Zinn's MSBR program (Moody et al., 2013). The MBI, Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen & Williamson, 1988), and Beck Depression Inventory (Beck et al., 2006) were used to survey the participants. No significant differences were found between the control and experimental groups concerning burnout or perceived stress or depression. Moody et al. (2013) believe this was due to their sample being far more stressed and burnt out than other samples. The researchers noted that adding more training onto the participant's schedule may have increased stress. The nurses' qualitative analysis indicated reduced stress; however, they may not have experienced enough stress reduction to impact burnout.

Bus (2016) desired to understand how MBSR impacted work-related psychological outcomes by using mindfulness as a personal resource in the JD-R model. The study was conducted on 160 employees of Radboud University of Applied Sciences in Nijmegen. MBSR training was a useful tool to prevent employees from developing burnout by lowering exhaustion (pre-training mean= 2.25 and post-training mean 1.90) and assisting employees in managing burnout-related complaints. A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test whether

mindfulness negatively moderated the relationship between job demands and exhaustion. Mindfulness was not found to be a personal resource in this study. The interaction between job demands and mindfulness was also not significant. Bus (2016, pg. 27) infers that "only highly mindful people utilize mindfulness as a resource or an aspect of oneself, allowing them to control and impact their environment successfully." This research points to not only looking at state mindfulness or MBSR but also focus on those who are "highly mindful."

The link between trait mindfulness and burnout in organizations. Evidence indicates that individuals, on average, experience varying levels of mindfulness (Glomb et al., 2011). Although much research has been performed on mindfulness-based interventions (to increase state mindfulness), there is still room further to understand the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout. Kiken et al. (2015) completed a study that found that meditation practice over a mindfulness-based intervention resulted in increased trait mindfulness, similar to Kabat-Zinn (1990). If the goal of mindfulness-based interventions is to enhance daily mindfulness, why is there so little research on trait mindfulness?

Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2017) set out to investigate the personal and professional correlates of trait mindfulness by meta-analytically accumulating 270 independent studies (N=58,592 adults from non-clinical samples). Results found trait mindfulness to be correlated with job satisfaction (p=.29), performance (p=.34), interpersonal relations (p=.31) while reducing work withdrawal (p=-.17), and burnout (p=-.48). Trait mindfulness was also found to add incremental predictive variance over more conventional predictors of employee burnout and work performance (Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2017).

Charoensukmongkol & Suthatorn (2018) conducted a study on salespeoples' trait mindfulness and emotional exhaustion (emotional exhaustion being a dimension of burnout) by

examining the mediating effects of optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience. The study was done on 172 Thai salespeople who worked for a multinational direct sales corporation. Trait mindfulness was discovered to be negatively associated with emotional exhaustion (Beta =-.11, p=.05) and positively connected to optimism and resilience (Beta =0.27, p<0.001). The participant's trait mindfulness was positively correlated with their resilience and optimism, which then reduced emotional exhaustion. This mediation effect was significant for resilience (**β**=0.13, SE =0.07, 95% CI [0.01, 0.29]) as well as for optimism (Beta = -0.29, SE =0.06, 95% CI [-413, -174]).

Taylor & Millear (2016) added empirical support towards the relationship of trait mindfulness and burnout by running a study on 381 employees utilizing the snowball sample method. Their research intended to investigate whether trait mindfulness was a significant predictor of the three components of burnout and test whether trait mindfulness correlated with the three components of burnout. The Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire was administered to measure the trait-like tendency to be mindful (Baer et al., 2008). Taylor & Millear (2016) used hierarchical multiple regression to analyze the results. Block 1 was composed of the trait mindfulness facets. Block 2 was composed of gender, education, optimism, and self-efficacy. Block 3 was workplace resources, and block 4 was workplace demands. After using a hierarchical multiple regression to analyze each burnout component separately, the different facets of mindfulness predicted different components of burnout. Mindfulness accounted for 16.0 % of the variance of emotional exhaustion and 19.1 % of cynicism variance. Mindfulness accounted for 11.4 % of the variance in the loss of professional efficacy. All five facets of mindfulness were negatively and significantly correlated with the three components of burnout.

Overall, the results indicated that trait mindfulness could be considered a valuable resource when battling burnout.

Due to the prevalence of burnout, trait mindfulness would be a useful trait to research as it could help combat it. Practitioners could use trait mindfulness as a selection tool during the hiring process of known stressful job positions. This study seeks to add to the existing but limited research linking trait mindfulness to burnout. It is hypothesized that:

H5: *Trait mindfulness negatively predicts burnout.*

Burnout and Emotion Regulation

Gross's (1998) process model of emotion regulation helps explain the conceptual relationship between emotion regulation and burnout. The model postulates that emotional responses and outcomes are a product of emotion regulation strategies and adaptive reactions to antecedent stress. From this viewpoint, and because burnout results from work-place related stress, the degree to which employees experience burnout may depend on the emotion regulation strategies they use to regulate that stress.

Most of the existing work of emotion regulation and burnout surrounds emotional labor (a facet of emotion regulation). Although this paper recognizes that emotional labor is associated with burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), this paper intends to focus solely on emotion regulation strategies, expressive suppression, and positive reappraisal. Emotional labor typically refers to displaying expected emotions by employees during encounters (Grandey, 2000). This typically involves strategies such as surface acting, deep acting, and expression of natural emotion. In comparison, emotion regulation involves the effort an individual makes to manage his or her emotions. Emotional labor is emotion regulation in a work context to please customers and fellow employees. According to Grandey and Gordon (2019), when employees try to change

their feelings to appear sincere (deep acting), performance can be enhanced; however, employees often "fake it" or surface act, which is detrimental to their well-being. Previous research has covered the relationship between emotional labor, burnout, and work performance (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Kim, 2008; Montgomery et al., 2006). However, this is little empirical evidence supporting the relationship between emotion regulation (expressive suppression and positive reappraisal). This paper consciously focuses on emotion regulation (expressive suppression and positive reappraisal) to build on existing research.

In the studies that have covered emotion regulation (expressive suppression and positive reappraisal) in the workplace, the researchers have discovered a significant relationship according to burnout. Ghanizadeh et al., (2015) state that emotion regulation skills help an individual's success, especially in education. Emotions are tied to many aspects of teaching and learning. Therefore, Ghanizadeh et al., (2015) completed a study on 153 foreign language teachers. The participants were asked to take the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Gross & John, 2003), assessing the emotion regulation strategies cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. The Teacher Emotional Labor Strategy Scale (Yin, 2012) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory were also used to measure emotional labor and burnout. The results demonstrated that emotion regulation positively and significantly predicts emotional labor ($\beta = .36$, $t = 2.91$) and negatively predicts burnout ($\beta = -.42$, $t = -4.23$). When looking at the relationship between emotion regulation (expressive suppression and positive reappraisal) and burnout (depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and personal accomplishment). The highest correlations were found between reappraisal and emotional exhaustion ($r = -.360$, $p < .05$) and expressive suppression and emotional exhaustion ($r = -.354$, $p < .05$). No significant relationship was found between expressive suppression and personal accomplishment ($r = -.174$, $p < .05$), and

a weak correlation was found between reappraisal and personal accomplishment. As for emotional labor, the highest negative correlation was between deep strategies and emotional exhaustion ($r= -0.500$, $p < 0.05$). Depersonalization and deep strategies ($r = -0.443$, $p < 0.05$) ranked as the second-highest correlation. No significant relationship was found between realistic strategies and personal accomplishment ($r = -0.443$, $p < 0.05$). The results indicate that both emotion regulation and emotional labor strategies significantly impact burnout amongst teachers. Following this research, this study proposes :

H6a: *Cognitive reappraisal (a component of emotion regulation) negatively predicts burnout.*

Andela et al., (2015) examined the relationship between expressive suppression and burnout. Researchers Andela et al. (2015) collected 688 questionnaires from health care professionals. The Maslach Burnout Inventory measured burnout. The questions surrounding expressive suppression were derived from the French Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Christophe et al., 2009). Correlations portrayed a positive connection between expressive suppression, emotional exhaustion ($r = .15$, $p<.01$), and depersonalization ($r = .10$, $p <. 01$).

Previous authors (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Cheung et al., 2011) have examined the relationship between emotion regulation (suppression) and burnout and discovered that emotion regulation (suppression) has a positive relationship with burnout, specifically depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. To add to existing research, this study proposes:

H6b: *Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) positively predicts burnout.*

Mediating Between Trait Mindfulness and Burnout

Gerzina and Porfeli (2012) study explored positive reappraisal and burnout in standardized patients. Past research utilizes the Jobs Demands Resource Theory and suggests that mindfulness and positive reappraisal act as protective factors against burnout. The study uses positive reappraisal as a mediator between the relationship between mindfulness and burnout. Mindfulness and positive reappraisal were found to explain a significant portion of burnout variance ($R^2 = .31$ $p < .01$). All correlations were found to be significant: positive reappraisal and mindfulness (a) r = .688, p <.01) positive reappraisal and burnout (b) r = -.527, p <.01 and mindfulness and burnout (c) r = -.496, p <.01. Positive reappraisal was found to be a mediator. When mindfulness and positive reappraisal were included in the model, the relationship between burnout and mindfulness was no longer significant. Overall, these results indicate that emotion regulation and mindfulness can be used as tools to combat burnout. Also, that an emotion regulation strategy such as positive reappraisal mediates the relationship between mindfulness and burnout, this study intends to replace state mindfulness with trait mindfulness and hypothesizes that:

H7: *Emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout.*

Summary of Hypothesis

In summary, this study will explore the following hypothesis:

H1**:** *Trait mindfulness positively predicts subjective well-being.*

H2a*: Cognitive reappraisal (a component of emotion regulation) is positively related to trait mindfulness.*

H2b: *Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) is negatively related trait mindfulness.*

H3a: *Cognitive reappraisal (a component of subjective well-being) positively predicts subjective well-being*.

H3b: *Expressive suppression (a component of subjective well-being) negatively predicts subjective well-being*.

H4: *Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and SWB.*

H5: *Trait mindfulness negatively predicts burnout.*

H6a: *Cognitive reappraisal (a component of emotion regulation) is negatively predicts burnout.*

H6b: *Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) positively predicts burnout.*

H7: *Emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout.*

CHAPTER III

Methods

Sample

This study's target population included currently employed and English-speaking individuals who were over the age of 18. Participants were required to be employed at their current position for at least six consecutive months. Previous burnout studies were mainly performed on service-based industries (Shaufeli and Enzmann, 1998; Kranser et al., 2009; Goodman & Schorling, 2012; Abenavoli et al., 2013; Flook et al., 2013); this study attempted to include employees in all industries.

To calculate the sample size, the G power sample size calculator for multiple regression was utilized. The expected effect size (f^2) was entered as 0.2, and the preferred statistical power level was entered as 0.8 (Cohen, 2013). Two predictors were entered into the G power calculator. The probability level was entered as 0.05 (Cohen, 2013). As a result, the minimum required sample size was determined to be 52. Since this G-power does not compute mediation, the minimum sample size will be tripled for 156. An additional 144 will be added to correct for those who did not complete the survey therefore bringing the desired sample size to 300 total.

Procedure

Participants were contacted by use of Amazon Mechanical Turk — an online crowdsourcing platform. According to Stritch, Pedersen, & Taggart (2017), MTurk has arisen as an effective platform for experimental exploration in the field of social sciences. MTurk has a large user base and provided a convenient way to collect data. Mturk is considered a valid and superior competitor to in-person data collection. It has shown to have good reliability and shares similar psychometric properties with data collected by more conventional survey procedures and

laboratory experiments (Casler et al., 2013; Johnson and Borden, 2012). To entice participants to engage in the study, the researcher paid per survey completed. For example, a fifteen-minute study costs on average fifty cents. It is important to note that the amount of pay rate does not impact the reliability (Stritch et al., 2017). The researcher was clear about the amount of time it took to finish the survey not to mislead the participants. According to (Stritch et al., 2017), MTurks offers a diverse pool of participants with a wide range of ages, ethnicities, backgrounds, and socioeconomic status. With the utilization of MTurks and demographic questions, this study collected data that was generalizable primarily to a particular population. However, it is essential to note that U.S Asians are overrepresented, while other ethnicities like Hispanic and African Americans are underrepresented. This may be due to socioeconomic status and lack of resources. A positive of MTurk is that participants may be more likely, to tell the truth on the surveys due to the process's anonymity.

The questionnaire was dispersed by MTurk via a link and include demographic questions and items measuring subjective well-being, emotion regulation, trait mindfulness, and burnout. After participants completed the consent form, they were able to proceed with completing the survey. Participants were informed that their answers would only be used for research purposes and remain completely anonymous. Participants were reminded that the survey is voluntary, there are no right or wrong answers, they have no obligation to finish, and they can opt-out at any time. Participants were encouraged to answer as honestly as possible as their answers impacted the study's effectiveness. This method is useful as it helps decrease evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The research complied with the Alliant International University’s Internal Review Board and ethical standards of the American Psychological Association. The survey aimed to explore the relationship between trait mindfulness

(independent variable) and dependent variables, subjective well-being, and burnout through the mediating effects of emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression).

Measures

Mindfulness awareness scale (MAAS), trait version. Mindfulness was measured through a 15-item scale. It was intended to measure the core characteristics of mindfulness, defined as a receptive state of mind. Attention, informed by a sensitive awareness occurring in the present, observes what is taking place. The MAAS has shown to be a robust psychometric measure and contains excellent properties. Many researchers have used it, including Brown & Ryan (2003) and Carlson & Brown (2005). The internal consistency levels (Cronbach's alphas) have been found to range from .80 to .90 and have demonstrated criterion validity, known-group validity, and high test-retest reliability (Brown & Ryan, 2003). The MAAS includes questions like "I rush through activities without being attentive to them" or "I drive places on automatic pilot then wonder why I went there. "

Emotion regulation scale (ERQ). Emotion regulation was assessed with a 10-item scale designed by Gross and John (2003) that focuses on cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. It is a Likert-type scale with a response that ranges from 1-7. "1" referring to a strongly disagree, and "7" referring to a strong agreement. According to Gross & John (2003), the alpha reliabilities for cognitive reappraisal are .79 and .73 for expressive suppression. The ERQ includes questions such as, "I keep my emotions to myself" or "I control my emotions by not expressing them."

Subjective well-being scale. Scale of Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) –This measure consists of two six-item subscales assessing people's positive (e.g., pleasant) and negative (e.g., bad) experiences over the previous four weeks. The answers are given on a five-

point scale ranging from 1 (very rarely or never) to 5 (very often). Due to the partial independence of the two types of feelings, the positive and negative scales are scored separately. Both the summed positive (SPANE-P) score and the negative (SPANE-N) score range from 6 to 30. These two scores can be combined by subtracting the negative score from the positive one, resulting in the balance (SPANE-B) score ranging from 224 to 24 (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2009). The Cronbach's Alpha of SPANE is .90 and higher (Li, Bai, & Wang, 2013).

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) – According to Diener et al., (1985) this scale is a five-item measure assessing satisfaction with a person's life as a whole. An example item is, ''the conditions of my life are excellent''. Responses are given on a seven-point scale with a range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Satisfaction with Life as a Whole [25] This single item asks about the participant's overall satisfaction with his/her life in terms of his/her own life and personal circumstances. It is answered on an 11-point scale from 0 (completely dissatisfied) to 10 (completely satisfied). The Cronbach's alpha of SWLS has been found to range from .84 to .88 (Galanakis et al., 2017).

Burnout scale. Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI) The MBI-GS consists of 16 items that are scored on three scales: Exhaustion (EX) (5 items; e.g., the item mentioned above); Cynicism (CY) (5 items: e.g., 'I have become less enthusiastic about my study/work'); Efficacy (EF) (6 items; e.g., 'I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my study/work'). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 ('never') to 6 ('always'). Burnout is reflected in higher scores on exhaustion and cynicism and lower scores on efficacy, while the opposite scores indicate higher engagement (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996).

According to Iwanicki & Schwab (1981), the MBI has a Cronbach alpha of .90 for emotional exhaustion, .76 for depersonalization, and .76 for personal accomplishment.

Job stress scale. Job Stress or Workplace Stress was assessed with a 13-item scale designed by Parker and DeCotiis (1983) that focuses on organizational and job-related stress. It is a Likert-type scale with a response that ranges from 1-5. “1” referring to a strong agreement, and “5” referring to a strong disagreement. According to Parker and DeCotiis (1983), the Job Stress Scale has a Cronbach’s alpha that ranges from 0.74 to 0.86.

Demographics. The electronic survey includes questions about employee’s demographic information such as race/ethnicity, gender, age, highest education level completed.

Workforce classification. Workforce classification will be characterized by the industry the employee works in, the employee's role in the industry, and the number of hours worked per week.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Introduction

This study examined trait mindfulness and its effect on dependent variables subjective well-being and burnout through the mediating variable emotion regulation. This was accomplished by running an investigation on a sample of working professionals in several industries. The participants were asked to engage in an online survey that included questions surrounding trait mindfulness, emotion regulation, subjective well-being, and burnout.

Data Screening

After the data were collected, the researcher exported the data directly from Qualtrics to IBM® SPSS®, minimizing errors that may have been made by manually entering the data. The data were then cleaned. Following Tabachnick & Fidell (2001), the data cleaning process included: observing reasonable means and standard deviations, evaluating the amount and distribution of missing data, identifying non-normal variables by checking for kurtosis, skewness, probability plots, and transform variables if needed, and checking for pairwise plots of heteroscedasticity and nonlinearity, univariate descriptive statistics for out-of-range values, the accuracy of input, univariate outliers. Lastly, the cleaning process involved identifying and assessing for any multivariate outliers.

Data Analysis Plan

This study used IBM® SPSS® to investigated and tested emotion regulation as a mediating variable between the independent variable trait mindfulness and dependent variables: subjective well-being and burnout. The correlation matrix and descriptive statistics were

evaluated with the use of SPSS. The researcher utilized structural equation modeling (SEM) with AMOS statistical software to run a confirmatory factor analysis to test the constructs independently and ensure they are independent of each other. Also, SEM was used to evaluate the excellent fit for the hypothesized model, analyzing path coefficients, model fit, and fit indices (Byrne, 2010). To test the mediating effects of emotion regulation, the researcher employed mediation testing by Baron and Kenny (1986), in which mediation effects are measured through a causal step strategy. Therefore, direct and indirect effects were reported with the mediator and without the mediator and the criterion and predictor.

The following is a discussion of the demographic data, normality results, and correlational matrix. After, an overview of the CFA results for each variable is presented, as well as the reliability for each scale. Also presented are the testing of parametric assumptions for the statistical analysis and results of hypothesis testing. This chapter concludes with a summary of the results of this study.

Participant Demographics

This study's target population included currently employed and English-speaking individuals who were over the age of 18. Participants were contacted by use of Amazon Mechanical Turk — an online crowdsourcing platform. The questionnaire was dispersed by MTurk via a link and included demographic questions and items measuring subjective well-being, emotion regulation, trait mindfulness, and burnout. After participants completed the consent form, they were able to proceed with completing the survey.

Two hundred ninety-three participants returned questionnaires; however, 45 participants did not complete the survey. Little's missing completely at random (MCAR) test was performed. The test result was significant, $\chi 2(309) = 409.070$, $p < .001$, indicating the values were not

missing completely at random. In such cases, mean imputation is not acceptable. Thus the 45 cases were removed from the analysis. This resulted in a sample size of $N = 248$ complete cases available for analysis. There were 140 (56.5%) females and 107 (43.1%) males in the sample. Most were between 25-34 years of age, 80 (32.3%). This was followed by 35-44, 79 (31.9%), and only 5 (2.0%) were younger than 24 years old. Most participants were White (non-Hispanic), 168 (67.7%). Regarding the highest education level, most had a Bachelor's degree, 100 (40.3%). Table 2 below depicts this demographic information.

Table 2

Study Demographics (N = 248)

Demographic	*f*	*%*
Gender		
Female	140	56.5
Male	107	43.1
Other	1	0.4
Age		
18-24	5	2.0
25-34	80	32.3
35-44	79	31.9
45-54	46	18.5
55-64	34	13.7
65 years or older	4	1.6
Race		
Asian/Pacific Islander	27	10.9
Black/African American	24	9.7
Hispanic	11	4.4
Native American	1	0.4
White (Non-Hispanic)	168	67.7
Multi-racial	15	6.0
Other	2	0.8
Education Level		
High school/GED	25	10.1
Some college	22	8.9
Associates degree	42	16.9
Bachelors degree	100	40.3
Graduate degree	42	16.9
Post-graduate degree	17	6.9

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 provides descriptive statistics of the study variables, emotion regulation cognitive reappraisal (M = 5.18, SD = 1,08), emotion regulation expressive suppression (M = 3.54, SD = 1.38), positive wellbeing (M = 3.55, SD = .96), negative wellbeing (M = 2.44, SD = .95), satisfaction with life (M = 4.50, SD = 1.62), trait mindfulness (M = 4.23, SD = .95), overall burnout (M = 4.40, SD = .93), emotional exhaustion (M = 3.93, SD = 1.67), depersonalization (M = 3.51, SD = 1.77), personal accomplishment (M = 5.62, SD = 1.19), and job stress (M = 3.64, SD = 1.04).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics

	N	*M*	*SD*
Emotion Regulation_CogReap	248	5.18	1.08
Emotion Regulation_ExpressiveSup	248	3.54	1.38
WellBeing (Positive)	248	3.55	.96
WellBeing (Negative)	248	2.44	.95
Satisfaction Life	248	4.50	1.62
Mindfulness	248	4.23	.95
Burnout	248	4.40	.93
Emotional Exhaustion	248	3.83	1.67
Depersonalization	248	3.51	1.77
Personal Accomplishment	248	5.62	1.19
Job Stress	248	3.64	1.04

Note. 5-point scales and 7-point scales were utilized in this study.

Testing for Normality

As mentioned earlier, questionnaires were used to measure trait mindfulness, emotion regulation, well-being, burnout scale, and job stress scale. Before conducting CFA, some assumptions had to be tested, including normality, outlier detection, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity of the variables being investigated. These assumptions were tested utilizing SPSS. The researcher performed a review of normality by assessing skewness and kurtosis values for all the dependent variables, therefore no transformations was necessary. All values were within the -3/+3 threshold indicating normality according to Tabachnik & Fidell (2001). There were no variance inflation factors larger than 10 for all variables, therefore there was no multicollinearity or singularity. The homoscedasticity was normally distributed and assessed by visual inspection.

Correlations Among Study Variables

Table 4 provides Pearson correlations between the study variables. There were significant positive correlations of positive wellbeing with job stress ($r = .496$, $p < .01$), emotional regulation cognitive reap ($r = .494$, $p < .01$), satisfaction with life ($r = .603$, $p < .01$), and mindfulness ($r = .378$, $p < .01$).

Table 4

Pearson Correlations of Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Wellbeing (Positive)	1							
2. Wellbeing (Negative)	.747**	1						
3. Burnout	.403**	.485**	1					
4. Job Stress	.496**	-.510**	-.520**	1				
5.Emotion Regulation (CogReap)	.494**	-.361**	-.132*	.287**	1			

6. Emotion Regulation (ExpressiveSup)	-.106	.156*	.104	-.169**	-.173**	1		
7. Satisfaction Life	.603**	-.499**	-.350**	.309**	.220**	-.222**	1	
8. Mindfulness	.378**	.518**	.197**	.527**	.353**	.175**	.101	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

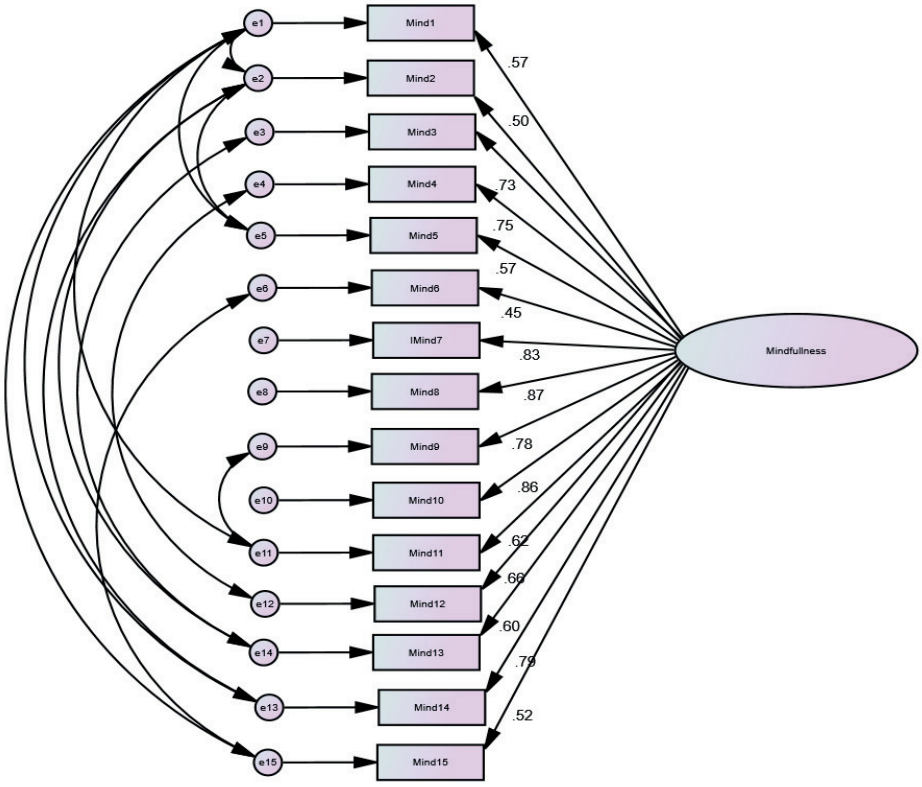
CFA was performed to assess model fit and the structure of each scale. Specifically, the Mindfulness Awareness Scale (MAAS), Emotion Regulation Scale (ERQ), Subjective Well-Being Scale, Burnout Scale, Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), and Job Stress Scale. To assess each scale's model fit, the researcher measured (RMSEA), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), and (CMIN) chi-square value were analyzed. Researcher Byrne (2010) suggests that RMSEA should be less than or equal to .08, and CFI and TLI values should be greater than or equal to .90. For CMIN, values of 3.0 or less were considered acceptable (Byrne, 2010). According to Byrne (2010), the systematic measurement error in item responses is the result of item overlap, item characteristics, and respondent characteristics. Systemic measurements error had to be taken into consideration when working to achieve model fit. To achieve acceptable values and model fit, the researcher found it necessary to covary specific error terms. This was accomplished by looking for large numbers in modification indices and covarying the error terms until the values were acceptable.

Mindfulness awareness scale (MAAS). Trait mindfulness is a one-factor scale measured through 15-items. It is intended to measure the core characteristics of mindfulness, defined as a receptive state of mind. Attention, informed by a sensitive awareness occurring in the present, observes what is taking place. The reliability of the scale was measured by computing Cronbach alpha which is a measure of internal consistency.

Figure 1 depicts the model tested in Amos. This scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.927, which is excellent reliability. All 15 items loaded strongly to mindfulness. The model initially had an RMSEA of .084. MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) have used 0.01, 0.05, and 0.08 to indicate excellent, good, and mediocre fit. Modification indexes were used to improve fit by covarying error terms with large (greater than 10) modification errors. The resulting model had improved fit with an RMSEA of .048. As stated before, the researcher had to covary many of the scale's error terms to obtain the best model fit. This is most likely due to the similarity of questions on the scale or item content overlap. For example, Mind1 ("I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until sometime later.") and Mind5 ("I tend not to notice feelings of physical tension or discomfort until they grab my attention.") are both suggesting that the participant would not be conscious of how they are feeling right away. This is also seen in connection of Mind1("I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until sometime later.") to Mind2 ("I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention or thinking of something else."), Mind11 ("I find myself listening to someone with one ear, doing something else at the same time."), Mind14 ("I find myself doing a thing without paying attention."), and Mind 15 ("I snack without being aware that I'm eating."). The items generally state that the participant is not present or paying attention to the current activity or emotion that is being felt. Figure 1 depicts the model tested in Amos.

Figure 1

CFA for trait mindfulness



The model demonstrated good model fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.566, CFI = .979, TLI = .971, and RMSEA = .048. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 5. Factor loadings ranged from .447 to .747. Additionally, all items estimates were significant ($p < .001$) as shown in Table 6.

Table 5

Mindfulness Standardized Regression Weights

Path			Estimate
Q29_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.568
Q30_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.501
Q31_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.733
Q32_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.747

Path			Estimate
Q33_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.571
Q34_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.447
Q35_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.832
Q36_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.872
Q37_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.781
Q38_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.857
Q39_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.615
Q40_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.660
Q41_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.602
Q42_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.768
Q43_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.518

Table 6

Mindfulness Regression Weights

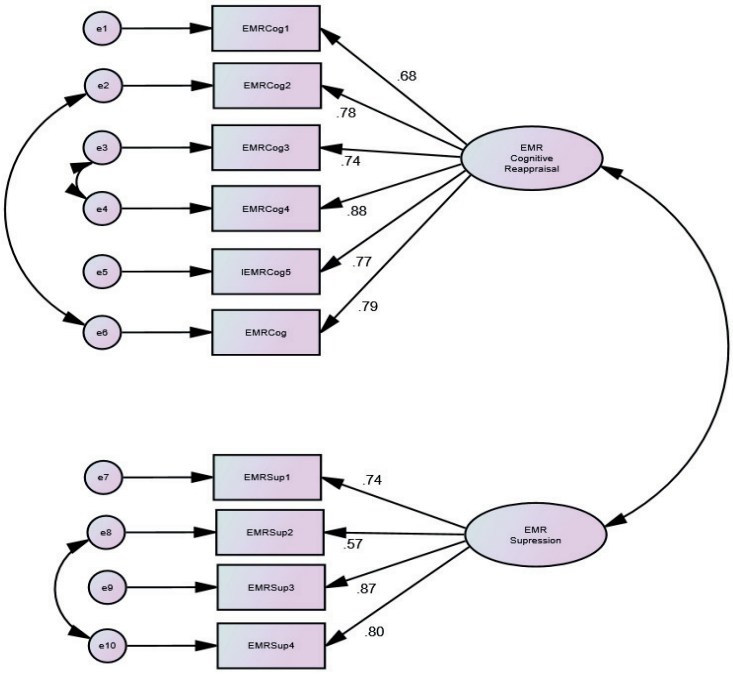
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q31_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.360	.154	8.829	<.001
Q32_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.527	.171	8.928	<.001
Q33_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.098	.125	8.756	<.001
Q34_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.925	.150	6.173	<.001
Q35_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.597	.168	9.514	<.001
Q36_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.593	.163	9.758	<.001
Q37_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.484	.162	9.168	<.001
Q38_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.622	.168	9.666	<.001
Q39_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.158	.137	8.473	<.001
Q29_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.000			
Q30_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.823	.107	7.698	<.001
Q43_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	.967	.123	7.847	<.001
Q42_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.366	.158	8.649	<.001
Q41_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.247	.161	7.743	<.001
Q40_Mindfulness	<---	Mindfulness	1.190	.144	8.241	<.001

Emotion regulation scale (ERQ). Emotion regulation was assessed with a 10-item scale designed by Gross and John (2003) that focused on two factors – cognitive reappraisal (6 items) and expressive suppression (4 items). These two factors are independent and yet underneath the same umbrella of emotion regulation, thus indicating a formative structure (Haga et al., 2009).

Both had excellent reliability as measured by Cronbach's alphas of 0.904 and .820, respectively. All 10 items loaded strongly to ERQ. It became necessary to covary specific error terms to obtain the best possible model fit; this is possibly due to overlapping item content. For example, EMRcog2 ("I keep my emotions to myself.") and EMRcog 6 ("I can control my emotions by not expressing them."). Both items have a common theme of hiding emotions or not expressing them. This is also seen in EMRcog3 ("When I want to feel a less negative emotion such as sadness or anger, I can change what I'm thinking about.") and EMRcog4 (When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them."). Items EMRsup3 ("I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.") and EMR sup4 ("when I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.") question about if the participant can change his/her way of thinking of situations to control emotions, thus pointing to possible item overlap. Initial RMSEA was .082 without any error terms covarying. When the terms with extensive modification indexes were allowed to covary, the model improved with RMSEA to .062. Figure 2 depicts the model tested in Amos.

Figure 2

CFA model for ERQ



The model demonstrated good model fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.938, CFI = .977, TLI = .967, and RMSEA = .062. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 7. Factor loadings ranged from .567 to .796. Additionally, all items estimates were significant ($p < .001$) as shown in Table 8.

Table 7

ERQ Standardized Regression Weights

			Estimate
Q2_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.681
Q4_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.776
Q6_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.740
Q8_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.884
Q9_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.769
Q11_EMR_CopRep	<---	EMRCogRep	.789
Q3_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	.738
Q5_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	.567
Q7_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	.867
Q10_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	.796

Table 8

EMR Regression Weights

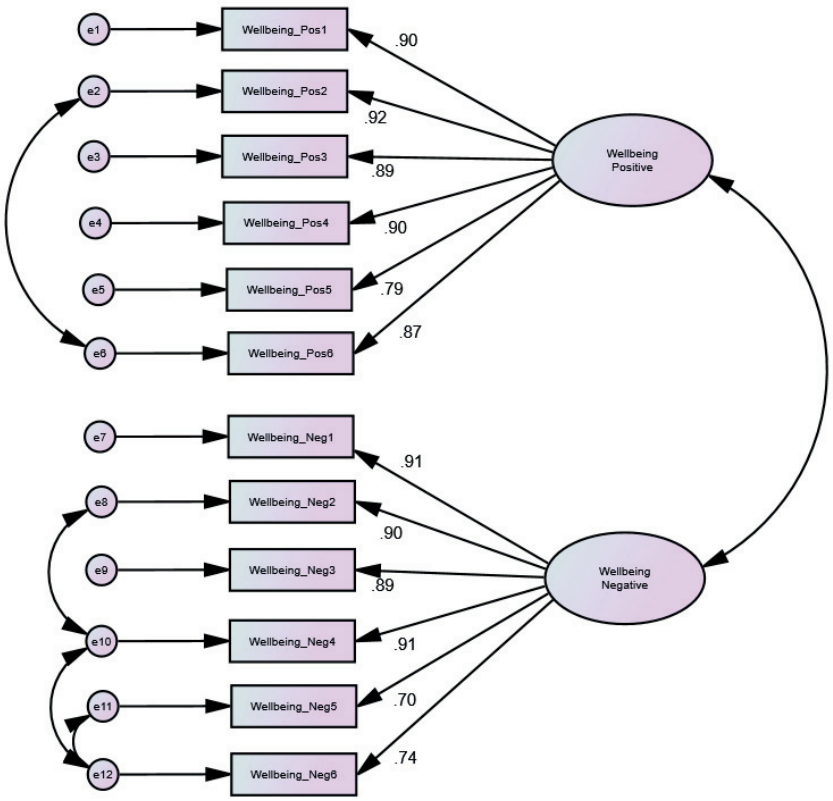
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q2_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.000			
Q4_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.152	.104	11.096	<.001
Q6_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.105	.108	10.241	<.001
Q8_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.223	.101	12.085	<.001
Q9_EMR_CogRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.024	.093	11.040	<.001
Q11_EMR_CopRep	<---	EMRCogRep	1.095	.097	11.275	<.001
Q3_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	1.000			
Q5_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	.674	.083	8.108	<.001
Q7_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	1.237	.099	12.469	<.001
Q10_EMR_ExpSup	<---	EMRSup	1.085	.094	11.536	<.001

Subjective well-being scale. This measure consisted of two six-item subscales assessing two factors – people's positive (e.g., pleasant) and negative (e.g., bad) experiences over the previous four weeks. The answers are given on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (very rarely or never) to 5 (very often). Both wellbeing positive (Cronbach's alpha = .951) and wellbeing negative (Cronbach's alpha = .936) had very good reliability. All 12 items loaded strongly to well-being. It became necessary to covary certain error terms to obtain the best possible model fit. Items Wellbeing_Pos2 (Negative) and Wellbeing_Pos6 (Unpleasant) measurement's errors were covaried possibly because it measures similar content. Item content overlapping can be seen in Wellbeing_Neg4 (joyful) and Wellbeing_Neg6 (contented). Items Wellbeing_Neg2 (sad) and Wellbeing_Neg4 (joyful) had high modification indices and required the error terms to be covaried, as well as Wellbeing_Neg5 (angry) and Wellbeing_Neg6 (contented). Due to these terms being the opposite of each other, it is most likely not due to item overlap. It could be due to respondent or item characteristics (Bryne, 2010). After covarying error terms with higher

modification indexes, the model fit improved as measured by a decrease in RMSEA from .073 to .053. Figure 3 depicts the model tested in Amos.

Figure 3

CFA for subjective well-being



The model demonstrated good model fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.685, CFI = .989, TLI = .985, and RMSEA = .053. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 9. Factor loadings ranged from .703 to .918. Additionally, all items estimates were significant ($p < .001$) as shown in Table 10.

Table 9

Wellbeing Standardized Regression Weights

Path			Estimate
Q12_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.902
Q14_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.918
Q16_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.894
Q18_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.898
Q21_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.791
Q23_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.870
Q13_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.910
Q15_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.903
Q17_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.888
Q19_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.913
Q20_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.703
Q22_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.738

Table 10

Wellbeing Regression Weights

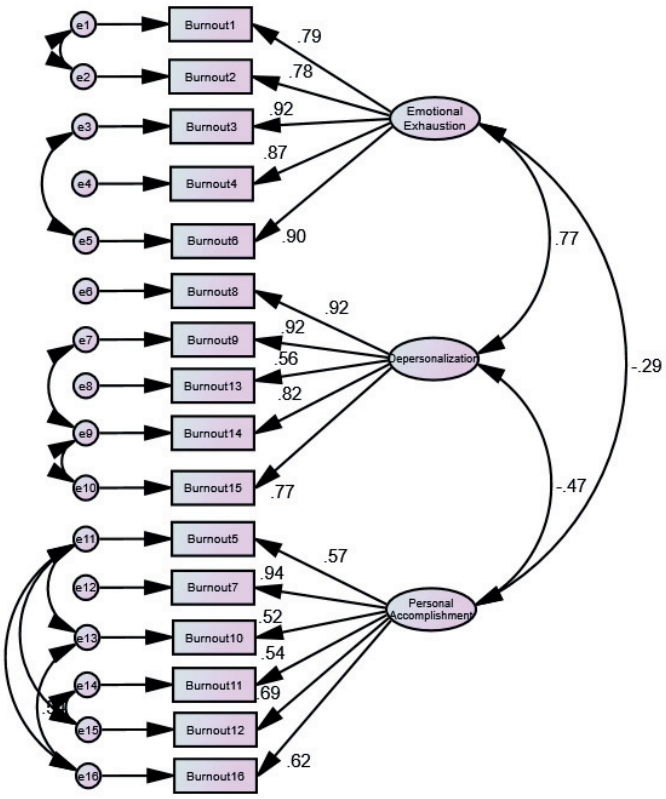
Path			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q12_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	1.000			
Q14_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	1.045	.044	23.507	<.001
Q16_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	1.095	.049	22.134	<.001
Q18_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	1.026	.046	22.372	<.001
Q21_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	.980	.058	16.909	<.001
Q23_WellBeing_Pos	<---	Wellbeing_Pos	1.126	.055	20.449	<.001
Q13_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	1.000			
Q15_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	1.001	.044	22.629	<.001
Q17_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	1.045	.047	22.224	<.001
Q19_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	1.011	.043	23.260	<.001
Q20_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.818	.059	13.855	<.001
Q22_WellBeing_Neg	<---	Wellbeing_Neg	.835	.056	14.848	<.001

Burnout Scale (Three-factor model). The MBI-GS three-factor model consists of 16 items and comprises three factors: Depersonalization, Emotional exhaustion, and personal

accomplishment. Each factor demonstrated good reliability as measured by Cronbach's alpha of 0.934 for emotional exhaustion, 0.900 for depersonalization, and 0.838 for personal accomplishment. This three-factor model was tested in Amos and is depicted in Figure 4 below. Error terms were covaried to improve model fit.

Figure 4

CFA model for three-factor Burnout Model



The model demonstrated acceptable model fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.787, CFI = .975, TLI = .968, and RMSEA = .056. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 11. Factor loadings

ranged in magnitude from .517 to .921. Additionally, all item estimates were significant ($p <$ .001) as shown in Table 12.

Table 11

Burnout Standardized Regression weights

Burnout Standardized Regression Weights			Estimate
Q44_Burnout1	<---	F1	.792
Q45_Burnout2	<---	F1	.782
Q46_Burnout3	<---	F1	.917
Q47_Burnout4	<---	F1	.869
Q49_Burnout6	<---	F1	.904
Q51_Burnout8	<---	F2	.921
Q52_Burnout9	<---	F2	.924
Q56_Burnout13	<---	F2	.560
Q57_Burnout14	<---	F2	.816
Q58_Burnout15	<---	F2	.775
Q48_Burnout5	<---	F3	.574
Q50_Burnout7	<---	F3	.941
Q53_Burnout10	<---	F3	.517
Q54_Burnout11	<---	F3	.538
Q55_Burnout12	<---	F3	.690
Q59_Burnout16	<---	F3	.618

Table 12

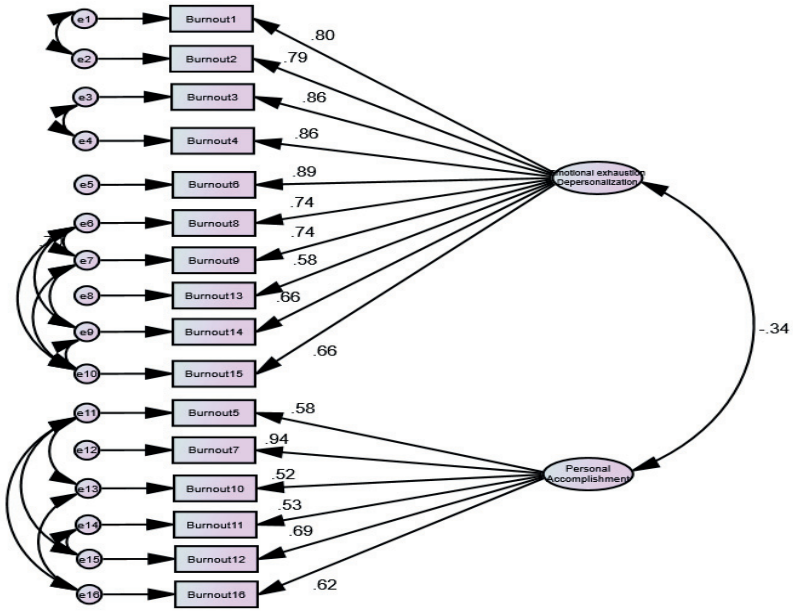
Burnout Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q44_Burnout1	<---	F1	1.000			
Q45_Burnout2	<---	F1	1.037	.050	20.697	<.001
Q46_Burnout3	<---	F1	1.182	.072	16.479	<.001
Q47_Burnout4	<---	F1	1.134	.071	15.985	<.001
Q49_Burnout6	<---	F1	1.154	.072	16.128	<.001
Q51_Burnout8	<---	F2	1.000			
Q52_Burnout9	<---	F2	.995	.042	23.854	<.001
Q56_Burnout13	<---	F2	.586	.059	9.916	<.001
Q57_Burnout14	<---	F2	.824	.047	17.483	<.001
Q58_Burnout15	<---	F2	.773	.047	16.285	<.001
Q48_Burnout5	<---	F3	1.000			
Q50_Burnout7	<---	F3	2.014	.231	8.699	<.001
Q53_Burnout10	<---	F3	.777	.092	8.459	<.001
Q54_Burnout11	<---	F3	1.168	.167	6.999	<.001
Q55_Burnout12	<---	F3	1.403	.180	7.805	<.001
Q59_Burnout16	<---	F3	1.122	.127	8.822	<.001

Two-Factor Model. Previous studies have suggested that the bi-factor burnout model has produced good model fit (Mészáros et al., 2014). The bi-factor model combines emotional exhaustion and depersonalization into one factor due to factors being correlated. To attain the best model fit, this study conducted testing on the three-factor model as created and the bi-factor model to assess which one had the best model fit. The MBI-GS two-factor model consists of 16 items and two factors: (Emotional exhaustion + Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment (Figure 5). The two-factor model demonstrated acceptable model fit as assessed by CMIN = 2.059, CFI = .967, TLI = .957, and RMSEA = .065.

Figure 5

CFA for two-factor burnout model



A comparison of the two-factor and three-factor model is depicted in Table 13. The three-factor model demonstrated superior model fit based on its lower CMIN and RMSEA values and higher CFI and TLI values. Therefore, this study utilized the three-factor model when conducting SEM.

Table 13

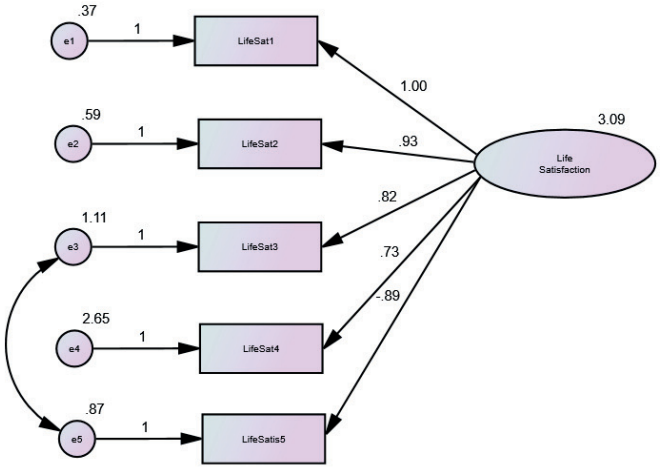
Two and Three-Factor Model Comparison

Model	CMIN	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Two-factor	2.059	0.967	0.957	0.065
Three-factor	1.787	0.975	0.968	0.056

Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS). This scale is a five-item measure assessing satisfaction with a person's life as a whole. Five items load onto one factor, life satisfaction. The reliability of the scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was .372. It is significant to note that after removing one item 5, the reliability improved from .372 to .882. However, SWLS is an established scale, so no alternate modifications were made, and the scale was used as intended. The following model was tested with Amos (Figure 6).

Figure 6

CFA revised model for satisfaction with life



It became necessary to covary items with high modification indexes to attain the best model fit. Item 3 ("I am satisfied with my life.") and item 5 ("If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.") measurement errors were covaried. This could be due to item overlap,

item characteristics, or respondent characteristics. Prior to covarying the error terms, the model fit statistics were CMIN = 7.273, CFI = 0.969, TLI = .938, and RMSEA = 0.159. After covarying the error terms, the model demonstrated good model fit as assessed by CMIN = 2.343, CFI = 0.995, TLI = 0.987, and RMSEA = 0.074. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 14. Factor loadings ranged from .619 to .945. Additionally, all item estimates were significant ($p <$ .001), as shown in Table 15.

Table 14

Life Satisfaction Standardized Regression Weights

	Path		Estimate
Q24_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.945
Q25_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.905
Q27_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.808
Q28_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.619
Q26_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	-.858

Table 15

Life Satisfaction Regression Weights

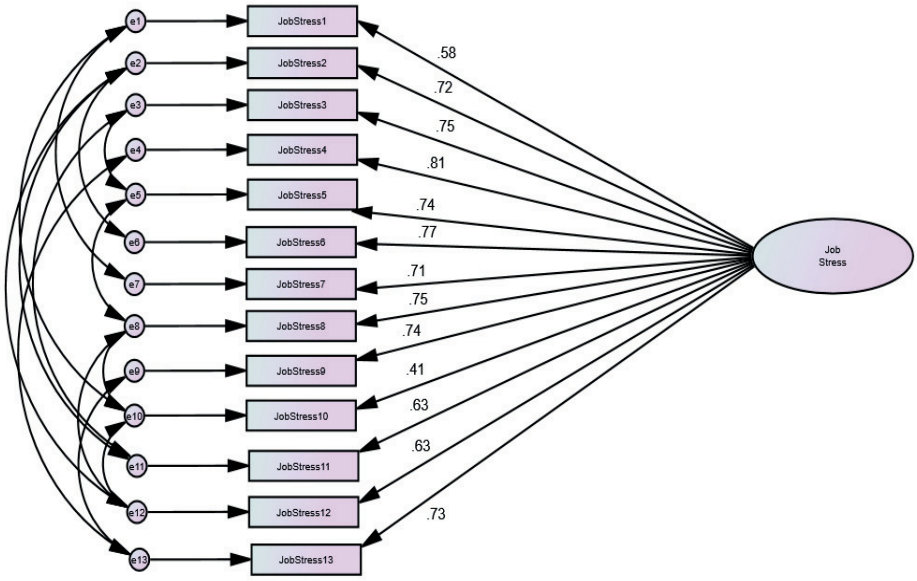
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q24 SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	1.000			
Q25_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.925	.038	24.127	<.001
Q27_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.820	.045	18.172	<.001
Q28_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	.730	.064	11.492	<.001
Q26_SatisfactionLife	<---	LifeSat	-.890	.042	-21.021	<.001

Job Stress Scale. Job stress was not an original variable in the study. Still, it was utilized to perform an exploratory analysis to assess whether job stress also mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and the variables emotion regulation and burnout. Job Stress or

Workplace Stress was assessed with one factor, 13-item scale designed by Parker and DeCotiis (1983) that focuses on organizational and job-related stress. It is a Likert-type scale with a response that ranges from 1-5. The reliability of the scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was .906. The model initially demonstrated poor fit as measured by an RMSEA of .105. When error terms with high modification indexes were allowed to covary, the RMSEA was reduced to .000. Content overlap can be seen in the items whose measurement errors were covaried. For example, item 2 ("Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family.") and item 6 ("Working here leaves little time for other activities."). The following model was tested with Amos (Figure 7).

Figure 7

CFA model for job stress



The model demonstrated good model fit as assessed by CMIN = 0.728, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.000, and RMSEA = .00. Factor loadings are depicted in Table 16. Factor loadings ranged from .410 to .943. Additionally, all items estimates were significant ($p < .001$) as shown in Table 17.

Table 16

Job Stress Standardized Regression Weights

Path			Estimate
Q60_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.583
Q61_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.719
Q62_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.748
Q63_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.810
Q64_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.738
Q65_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.772
Q66_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.706

Path			Estimate
Q67_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.747
Q68_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.736
Q69_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.414
Q70_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.626
Q71_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.626
Q72_JobStress	<---	JobStress	.727

Table 17

Job Stress Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Q60_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.000			
Q61_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.139	.129	8.839	<.001
Q62_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.384	.152	9.083	<.001
Q63_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.280	.134	9.554	<.001
Q64_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.340	.149	9.004	<.001
Q65_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.282	.138	9.291	<.001
Q66_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.192	.113	10.553	<.001
Q67_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.211	.133	9.098	<.001
Q68_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.308	.145	8.997	<.001
Q69_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.475	.239	6.165	<.001
Q70_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.163	.145	8.038	<.001
Q71_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.084	.135	8.043	<.001
Q72_JobStress	<---	JobStress	1.200	.135	8.880	<.001

Listed below in Table 18 is a summary of the results discovered from the confirmatory factor analysis.

Table 18

Summary CFA Table

Factor	$\chi 2$	*df*	CFI	GFI	TLI	RMSEA
Mindfulness	120.616	77	.979	.944	.971	.048
Emotion regulation	62.022	32	.977	.954	.967	.062
Wellbeing	82.573	49	.981	.946	.985	.053

Burnout 2-factor	185.271	90	.967	.918	.957	.065
Burnout 3 -factor	164.362	92	.975	.925	.968	.056
Satisfaction with life	9.371	4	.995	.985	.987	.074
Job stress	87.063	52	.980	.949	.970	.052

Assessing Reliability Analysis Using Cronbach's Alpha

Table 19 below summarizes the reliability of each of the scales used in this study. With exception of satisfaction with life, all showed very good reliability, based on Cronbach's alpha larger than 0.80. However, the life satisfaction scale is an established scale with well-known reliability, thus no modification was made to the scale.

Table 19

Cronbach's Alpha of Measurement Scales

Variable	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha
Mindfulness Awareness Scale (MAAS)	15	.927
Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal)	6	.904
Emotion regulation (expressive suppression)	4	.820
Wellbeing (positive)	6	.951
Wellbeing (negative)	6	.936
Burnout	16	.802
Emotional Exhaustion	5	.934
Depersonalization	5	.900
Personal Accomplishment	6	.838
Satisfaction with Life	5	.372
Job Stress	13	.906

In the next section, the results of SEM conducted in Amos will be presented. SEM was used to determine if a mediating effect of EMR existed between the independent variable trait mindfulness and the dependent variables subjective well-being, burnout, job stress, and satisfaction with life.

Hypothesis Testing

In this section, the results of SEM were conducted in Amos. SEM was used to determine if the mediating effect of EMR existed between the independent variable trait mindfulness and the dependent variable subjective well-being, burnout, job stress, and satisfaction with life. To assess mediation, the methods of Baron and Kenny (1986) were used in which mediation effects are measured through a causal step strategy. The steps to detect mediation are as follows:

1. The independent variable is shown to influence the dependent variable significantly.
2. The Independent variable is shown to influence the mediator significantly.
3. The mediator must significantly influence the dependent variable.
4. Partial mediation occurs when the independent variable's influence on the dependent variable is reduced. Complete mediation occurs when there is zero effect, i.e., the coefficient close to zero.

As previously mentioned, direct and indirect effects were reported with and without the mediator and the criterion and predictor.

Hypothesis: 1, 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b, 4. Subjective well-being is comprised of satisfaction with life and positive and negative well-being. For the hypothesis in this study to be supported, EMR (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) will have to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and satisfaction with life and positive and negative well-being.

The relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction was significant (b = .353, p = .036). There is a significant association between trait mindfulness and EMR cognitive reappraisal (b = .478, p < .001) but not with EMR suppressive (b = -.234, p = .064). EMR cognitive reappraisal (b = .445, p = .001) and EMR suppressive (b = -.264, p = .005) are significantly associated with life satisfaction. The relationship between trait mindfulness and life

satisfaction was reduced from .353 (p = .036) to .078 (*p* = .455). This supports complete mediation of EMR on the relationship between life satisfaction and trait mindfulness.

Table 20 depicts this information. The path model tested is represented in Figure 8. The model showed good fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.611, CFI = .948, TLI = .941, and RMSEA = .050

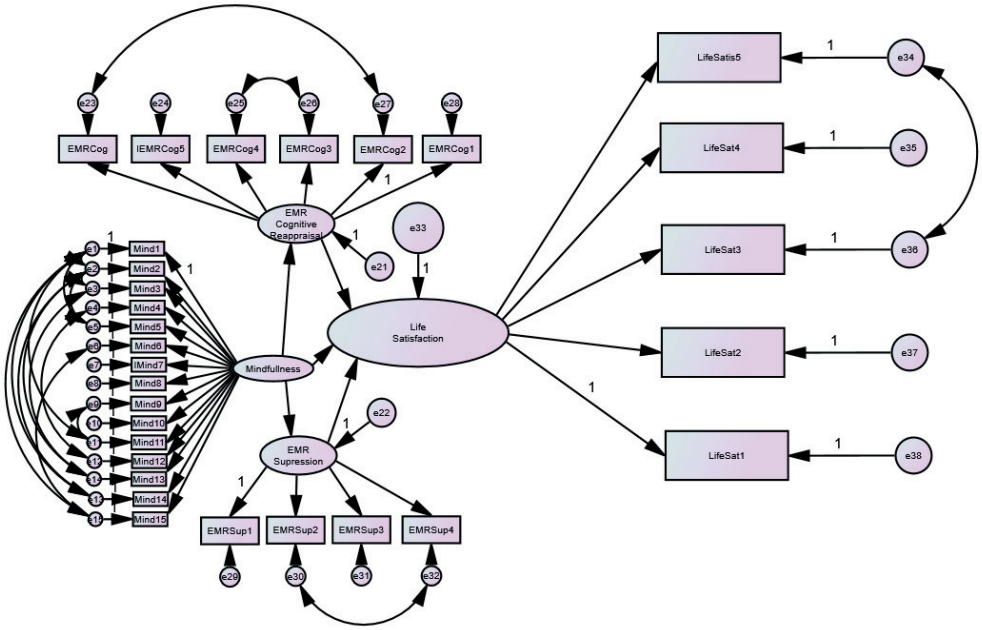
Table 20

Path Coefficients for EMR Mediation of Mindfulness and Life Satisfaction

Path	Estimate	S.E	p	Mediator
Life Satisfaction < Mindfulness	.353	.168	.036	none
Life Satisfaction < Mindfulness	.078	.172	.455	EMR
EMR Cog < Mindfulness	.478	.100	<.001	EMR
EMR Sup < Mindfulness	-.234	.127	.064	EMR
Life Satisfaction < EMR Cog	.445	.137	.001	EMR
Life Satisfaction < EMR Sup	-.264	.094	.005	EMR

Figure 8

Path diagram for the mediating effect of EMR between life satisfaction and trait mindfulness



The relationship between SWB (positive and negative) and trait mindfulness, without the mediator, was found to be significant. Thus, the first condition was met (well-being positive: b = .519, p <.001; well-being negative: b = -.702, p, < 001). Therefore, H1: Trait mindfulness positively predicts subjective well-being (positive and negative well-being) was supported. Next, the relationship between the mediator EMR cognitive reappraisal and trait mindfulness was significant (b = .486, p < .001) but not with EMR suppressive (b = -.234, p = .064). Thus, the second criteria were supported for EMR cognitive reappraisal. Therefore H2a: Cognitive reappraisal positively predicts trait mindfulness was supported. However, H2b: expressive suppression negatively predicts trait mindfulness was not supported. Third, the mediator EMR cognitive reappraisal was significantly related with well-being positive (b = .448, p < .001), but not negative well-being (b =.046, p= .324). Therefore, H3a: cognitive reappraisal positively

predicts SWB (positive well-being) was supported. However, H3b: Expressive suppression negatively predicts SWB was not supported (b = .046, p < .324). With EMR cognitive reappraisal, the coefficients of mindfulness were reduced: 0.519 to 0.299 for positive well-being -.702 to -.689 for negative well-being.

After accounting for the results of satisfaction with life and positive and negative well-being, there is partial support for H4: Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and SWB (satisfaction with life, positive and negative well-being). Partial mediation occurred because cognitive reappraisal mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and all components of SWB (positive well-being, negative well-being, and life satisfaction). However expressive suppression only mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction (a component of SWB). Expressive suppression did not significantly relate to trait mindfulness or SWB (positive and negative affect), while cognitive reappraisal significantly related to trait mindfulness and all components of SWB. Therefore, cognitive reappraisal was found to lead in mediation occurring to the Baron and Kenny Method (1986).

The path coefficients are shown in Table 21 and the path diagram in Figure 9. The model showed good fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.990, CFI = .912, TLI = .903, and RMSEA = .063.

Table 21

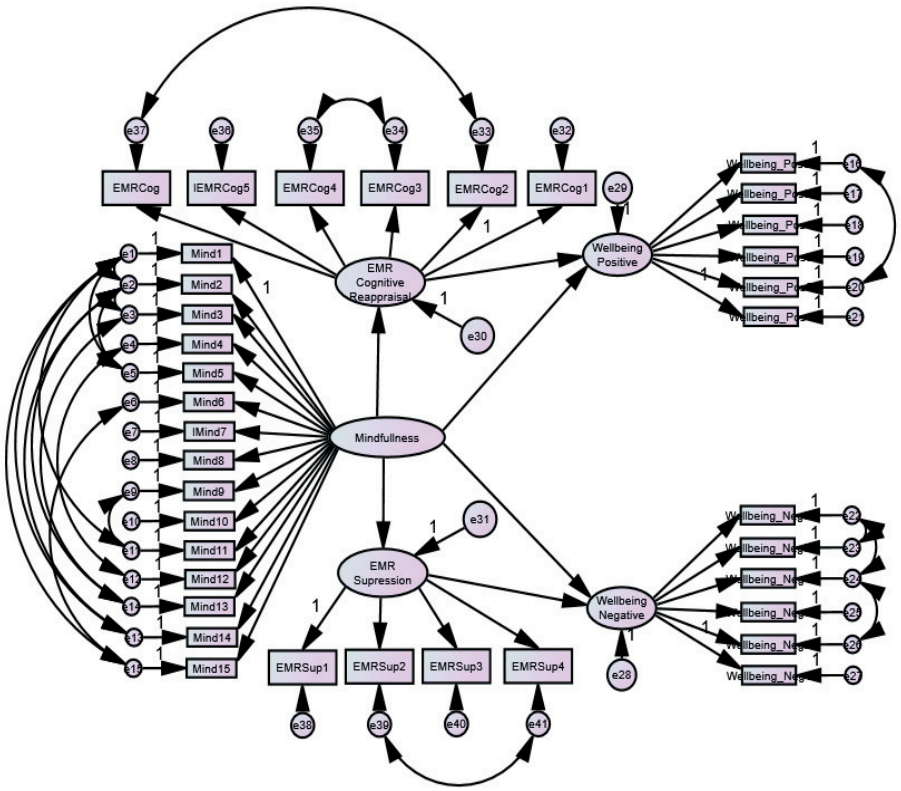
Path Coefficients for EMR Mediation of Mindfulness and Wellbeing

Path	Estimate	S.E	p	Mediator
Wellbeing Positive < Mindfulness	.519	.092	<.001	none
Wellbeing Negative < Mindfulness	-.702	.104	<.001	none
Wellbeing Positive < Mindfulness	.299	.080	<.001	EMR
Wellbeing Negative < Mindfulness	-.689	.103	<.001	EMR
EMR Cog Rep <--- Mindfulness	.486	.100	<.001	EMR
EMR Sup <--- Mindfulness	-.234	.126	.064	EMR
Wellbeing Positive <--- EMR Cog Rep	.448	.067	<.001	EMR

Wellbeing Negative <--- EMR Sup	.046	.046	.324	EMR

Figure 9

Path diagram for the mediating effect of EMR between well-being and trait mindfulness



Hypothesis 5, 6a, 6b ,7. The relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout was significant for all three factors (Emotional exhaustion: $b = -.776$, $p < .001$; Depersonalization: b = -.969, p < .001; Personal accomplishment: b = .514, p < .001). Therefore, supporting Hypothesis 5: Burnout (depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment, and emotional exhaustion) is negatively related to trait mindfulness. Trait mindfulness was significantly associated EMR cognitive reappraisal ($b = .472$, $p < .001$) but not with EMR suppressive (b = -

.233, p = .065) thus supporting H2a, and negating H2b. EMR cognitive reappraisal is significantly associated with burnout (Emotional exhaustion: b = -.349, p < .001; Depersonalization: b = -.675, p < .001; Personal accomplishment: b = .340, p < .001 but not EMR suppressive (Emotional exhaustion: b = -.027, p =.715; Depersonalization: b = .106, p =.290; Personal accomplishment: b = -.042, p =.363). Therefore H6a: Cognitive reappraisal predicts burnout (depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and reduced personal accomplishment) was supported. H6b: Expressive suppression (a component of emotion regulation) positively relates to burnout (depersonalization, emotional exhaustion) was not supported. The effect of mindfulness on burnout was reduced for each of three factors of burnout suggesting partial mediation. Thus, partial mediation is supported for EMR cognitive reappraisal in the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout. H7: Emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced accomplishment) was partially supported. Cognitive reappraisal acted as mediator and expressive suppression did not. Expressive suppression did not significantly relate to trait mindfulness or burnout, while cognitive reappraisal did significantly relate to trait mindfulness and burnout. This indicates that cognitive reappraisal led in mediation according to Baron and Kenny (1986) as a reduction in the coefficient was seen once the mediator was added. Table 22 depicts this information. The path model tested is represented in Figure 10. The model showed good fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.936, CFI = .897, TLI = .886, and RMSEA = .062.

Table 22

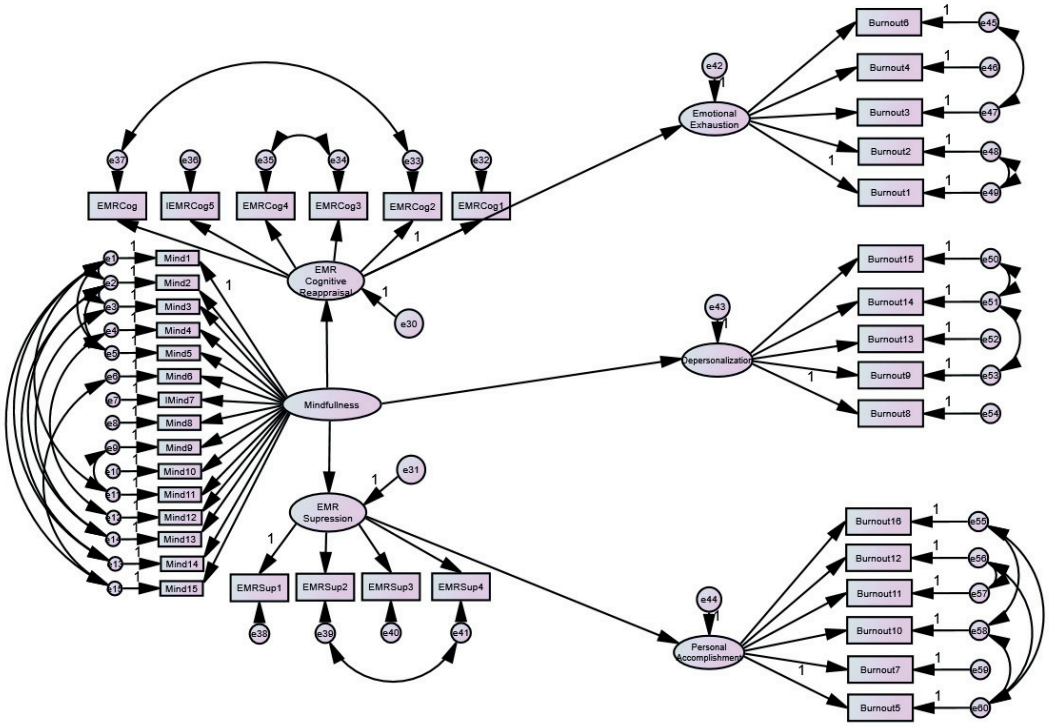
Path Coefficients for EMR Mediation of Mindfulness and Burnout

Path	Estimate	SE	p	Mediator
Emotional Exhaustion < Mindfulness	-.776	.151	<.001	none

Depersonalization < Mindfulness	-.969	.201	<.001	none
Personal Accomplishment < Mindfulness	.514	.105	<.001	none
Emotional Exhaustion < Mindfulness	-.592	.150	<.001	EMR
Depersonalization < Mindfulness	-.604	.194	.002	EMR
Personal Accomplishment < Mindfulness	.359	.096	<.001	EMR
EMR Cog < Mindfulness	.472	.099	<.001	EMR
EMR Sup < Mindfulness	-.233	.126	.065	EMR
Emotional Exhaustion < EMR Cog	-.349	.110	.001	EMR
Depersonalization < EMR Cog	-.675	.152	<.001	EMR
Personal Accomplishment < EMR Cog	.340	.076	<.001	EMR
Emotional Exhaustion < EMR Sup	.027	.074	.715	EMR
Depersonalization < EMR Sup	.106	.100	.290	EMR
Personal Accomplishment < Sup	-.042	.046	.363	EMR

Figure 10

Path diagram for the mediating effect of EMR between burnout and trait mindfulness



Exploratory analysis. Does EMR mediate the relationship between job stress and trait mindfulness? While not originally hypothesized, job stress was added to the study to assess the mediation between trait mindfulness and EMR. The relationship between trait mindfulness and

job stress was significant (b = .568, p < .001). The relationship between trait mindfulness and EMR cognitive reappraisal was significant (b = .476, p < .001) but not with EMR suppressive (b = -.232, p = .064). The relationship between EMR cognitive reappraisal and job stress was marginally significant (b = .108, p = .058) but not EMR suppressive (b = .045, p = .248). The effect of trait mindfulness on job stress was reduced but remained significant (.568 to .507), thus suggesting partial mediation of EMR cognitive reappraisal on the relationship between mindfulness and job stress. Table 23 depicts this information. The path model tested is represented in Figure 11. The model showed good fit as assessed by CMIN = 1.532, CFI = .938, TLI = .931, and RMSEA = .046

Table 23

Path Coefficients for EMR Mediation of Mindfulness and Job Stress

Path	Estimate	S.E	p	Mediator
Job Stress < Mindfulness	.568	.098	<.001	none
Job Stress < Mindfulness	.507	.096	<.001	EMR
EMR Cog < Mindfulness	.476	.099	<.001	EMR
EMR Sup < Mindfulness	-.232	.125	.064	EMR
Job Stress < EMR Cog	.108	.057	.058	EMR
Job Stress < EMR Sup	-.045	.039	.248	EMR

Figure 11

Path diagram for the mediating effect of EMR between job stress and trait mindfulness

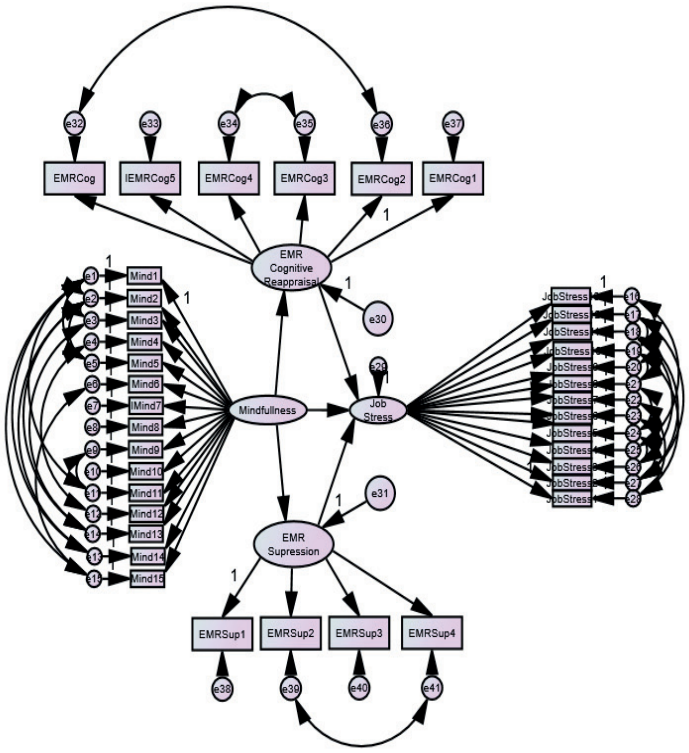


Table 24 provides a summary of the mediation conducted in this study. There was partial mediation supported by EMR on the relationships between trait mindfulness and positive wellbeing, mindfulness and negative wellbeing, trait mindfulness and burnout, and trait mindfulness and job stress. Complete mediation was demonstrated between mindfulness and life satisfaction. Table 25 provides a summary of supported and non-supported hypothesis.

Table 24

Summary of Mediation Analysis

Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Direct effect without a mediator	Direct effect with the mediator	Indirect effect	Degree of mediation
Mindfulness	EMR	Positive wellbeing	.519(p < .001)	.299 (p < .001)	-.008	partial

Mindfulness	EMR	Negative wellbeing	-.702 (p < .001)	-.689 (p < .001)	.175	partial
Mindfulness	EMR	Emotional Exhaustion	-.776 (p <.001)	-.592	-.171	partial
Mindfulness	EMR	Depersonalization	-.969 (p < .001)	-.604	-.343	partial
Mindfulness	EMR	Personal accomplishments	.514 (p< .001)	.359	.170	partial
Mindfulness	EMR	Life satisfaction	.321(p = .056)	.046 (p = .790)	.276	complete
Mindfulness	EMR	Job stress	.568(p < .001)	.507(p < .001)	.056	partial

Table 25

Supported and Non-Supported Hypothesis

Hypothesis	Supported	Partially	Non-supported
H1: Trait mindfulness positively predicts SWB (positive and negative well-being).	X		
H2a: Cognitive reappraisal is positively related to trait mindfulness.	X		
H2b: Expressive suppression is negatively related to trait mindfulness.			X
H3a: Cognitive reappraisal positively predicts SWB.	X		
H3b: Expressive suppression negatively predicts SWB.			X
H4: Emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and SWB.		X	
H5: Trait mindfulness negatively predicts burnout (depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion).	X		
H6a: Cognitive reappraisal negatively predicts burnout (depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and reduced personal accomplishment).	X		

H6b: Expressive suppression positively predicts burnout (depersonalization and emotional exhaustion.)		X
H7: Emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) mediates the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced accomplishment.)	X	

Exploratory analyses. Does job stress affect the relationship between trait mindfulness and positive well-being? In this section, this the moderating effects of job stress on the relationship between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being, as well as burnout, are explored. First this study tested job stress as a moderator between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (positive and negative), examining this relationship at high and low job stress levels. Next the study investigated job stress as a moderator between trait mindfulness and burnout, at high and low job stress levels. Lastly this study examined the impact of the trait mindfulness – subjective well-being relationship and the trait-mindfulness – burnout relationship while controlling for age, gender, and race. A summary is presented to conclude the main findings.

Trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (positive). A moderated multiple regression was performed, which also included a hierarchical multiple regression. It is a two-way moderated multiple regression and tested the following model:

Well Being_Pos = bo + b1mindfullness + b2 job stress + b3 job stressXmindfullness

There were two independent variables (mindfulness and job stress). Therefore, only one possible interaction effect (job stress x mindfulness), one variable combined with the other to yield a product term, represents a two-way interaction. To conduct the analysis, well-being

positive was placed in the dependent variable box. Independent variables mindfulness and job stress were entered in block 1. The interaction mindfulness x job stress was entered into block 2.

The first regression model was statistically significant, $F(2, 245) = 44.194$, $p < .001$. The second model included the interaction term which resulted in a significant change in F, $F(1, 244) = 4.128$, $p = .043$.The R square change was equal to .012, which is statistically significant. This is suggesting by adding mindfulness x job stress, a statistically significant interaction was observed. It minimally influenced the percentage accounting for the positive well-being variance, as it was .012 or 1%. Without the interaction, job stress and mindfulness accounted for .259 or 25.9%. Adding the product term increased the variance by 1.2% for a total of 27.7%. This information is provided in table 26.

Table 26

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.515[a]	.265	.259	.82862	.265	44.194	2	245	.000	
2	.527[b]	.277	.268	.82338	.012	4.128	1	244	.043	1.937

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobSress, Mindfullness
b. Predictors: (Constant), JobSress, Mindfullness, JobStress_X_Mindfulness
c. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Pos

According to Abramis (1994), the combination theory should be taken into account when studying job stress. This theory suggests that at low to moderate levels, job stress can be beneficial to performance. At higher levels job stress can interfere or demotivate employees. In order to further analyze this moderation effect, job stress was classified as high (> 3.64) or low (≤ 3.64). These values were assigned based on the overall mean job stress of the sample (M =

3.64, *SD* = 1.03). Thus, two regression models were run on cases in which there were high stress and low stress. Regarding high stress, the relationship between mindfulness and wellbeing (positive) was significant. A one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in a significant mean increase in wellbeing (positive) by 0.453 ($b = 0.453$, $p < .001$). Table 27 provides this information.

Table 27

Coefficients (High Stress)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.767	.414		4.271	.000		
	Mindfulness	.453	.087	.414	5.193	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Pos

Regarding low stress, the relationship between trait mindfulness and wellbeing (positive) was not significant ($b = 0.040$, $p = .695$). Table 28 provides this information.

Table 28

Coefficients (Low Stress)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.022	.392		7.715	.000		
	Mindfulness	.040	.103	.037	.393	.695	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Pos

Regarding low stress, the relationship between trait mindfulness and wellbeing (positive) was not significant (b = 0.040, p = .695). Table 30 provides this information.

Table 29

Coefficients (Low Stress)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.022	.392		7.715	.000		
	Mindfulness	.040	.103	.037	.393	.695	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Pos

Trait mindfulness and Subjective Well-being (negative). Does job stress affect the relationship between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (negative)? A moderated multiple regression was performed, which also included a hierarchical multiple regression This test was performed with SPSS and utilized the following model:

Well Being_Neg = bo + b1mindfullness + b2 job stress + b3 job stressXmindfulnes

In the first regression model, only the terms mindfulness and job stress were entered. In the second model, the interaction term stressXmindfulness was added. The first regression model was statistically significant, $F(2, 245) = 64.834$, $p < .001$. The second model included the interaction term which resulted in a non-significant change in F, $F(1, 244) = 2.579$, $p = .110$. Thus, there is no significant moderation effect of job stress on the relationship between trait mindfulness and wellbeing (negative). Table 30 depicts this information.

Table 30

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.588[a]	.346	.341	.76898	.346	64.834	2	245	.000	
2	.594[b]	.353	.345	.76651	.007	2.579	1	244	.110	1.857

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress, Mindfulness
b. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress, Mindfullness, JobStress_X_Mindfulness
c. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Neg

Trait mindfulness and burnout. Does job stress affect the relationship between burnout and trait mindfulness? A moderated multiple regression was performed in SPSS, which also included a hierarchical multiple regression. The equation below was utilized.

Burnout = bo + b1mindfullness + b2 job stress + b3 job stressXmindfullness

In the first regression model, only the terms mindfulness and job stress were entered. In the second model, the interaction term stressXmindfullness was added. The first regression model was statistically significant, $F(2, 245) = 47.273$, $p < .001$. The second model included the interaction term which resulted in a significant change in F, $F(1, 244) = 4.147$, $p = .043$. Thus there is a significant moderator effect of job stress on the relationship between burnout and trait mindfulness. The R square change value was .012, indicating that the job stress x mindfulness interaction adds 1.2% variance of burnout for a total of 29.1 %. Table 31 provides this information,

Table 31

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	Change Statistics

		R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.528[a]	.278	.273	.79717	.278	47.273	2	245	.000	
2	.539[b]	.291	.282	.79210	.012	4.147	1	244	.043	1.836

a. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress, Mindfullness
b. Predictors: (Constant), JobStress, Mindfullness, JobStress_X_Mindfulness
c. Dependent Variable: Burnout

To further analyze the moderation effect, job stress was divided into low and high as described earlier. Selecting only those cases that were classified as high stress, the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout was significant (b = -.185, p = .016). A one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in an average decrease in burnout by 0.185 (Table 32).

Table 32

Coefficients (High stress)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.923	.361		13.620	.000		
	Mindfullness	-.185	.076	-.209	-2.436	.016	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Selecting only those classified with low stress, the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout was also significant (b = 0.227, p = .043). However, a one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in an average increase in burnout by 0.227 (Table 33). In low stress individuals, trait mindfulness minimally and positively predicts burnout.

Table 33

Coefficients (Low stress)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.955	.423		9.351	.000		
	Mindfulness	.227	.111	.188	2.043	.043	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Controlling for race, gender and age. What is the relationship between trait mindfulness and wellbeing (negative) after controlling for race, gender, and age? The following model was tested by performing hierarchical multiple regression:

Wellbeing_Negative = bo + b1Age + b2Gender + b3Race + b4 Mindfulness

The demographics of age, gender, and race were entered in the first model which was not significant, $F(6, 241) = 1.237$, $p = .288$. The next model added trait mindfulness which resulted in a significant change in F, $F(1, 240) = 89.205$, $p < .001$. See Table 34. A one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in an average decrease in wellbeing (negative) by 0.531, after controlling for the demographics of age, gender, and race ($b = -.531$, $p < .001$). Thus, the results show that those higher in mindfulness experience lower negative well-being, when controlling for age, gender, and race.

Table 34

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.173[a]	.030	.006	.94437	.030	1.237	6	241	.288	
2	.541[b]	.293	.272	.80801	.263	89.205	1	240	.000	1.944

a. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34
b. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34, Mindfullness
c. Dependent Variable: WellBeing_Neg

What is the relationship between trait mindfulness and wellbeing (positive) after controlling for race, gender, and age*?* The following model was tested by performing a hierarchical multiple regression:

Wellbeing_Positive = bo + b1Age + b2Gender + b3Race + b4 Mindfulnes

The demographics of age, gender, and race were entered in the first model which was not significant, $F(6, 241) = 1.499$, $p = .179$. The next model added trait mindfulness which resulted in a significant change in F, $F(1, 240) = 43.129$, $p < .001$. See Table 35. A one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in an average increase in wellbeing (positive) by 0.403, after controlling for the demographics of age, gender, and race ($b = .403$, $p < .001$).

Table 35

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.190[a]	.036	.012	.95690	.036	1.499	6	241	.179	
2	.428[b]	.183	.159	.88284	.147	43.129	1	240	.000	1.803

a. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34
b. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34, Mindfulness
c. Dependent variable: Wellbeing_Pos

What is the relationship between burnout and trait mindfulness after controlling for race, gender, and age? The following model was tested by performing hierarchical multiple regression:

$$\text{Burnout} = bo + b1\text{Age} + b2\text{Gender} + b3\text{Race} + b4\ \text{Mindfulness}$$

The demographics of age, gender, and race were entered in the first model which was not significant, $F(6, 241) = 0.936$, $p = .470$. The next model added trait mindfulness which resulted in a significant change in F, $F(1, 240) = 13.739$, $p < .001$. See Table 36. A one unit increase in trait mindfulness results in an average decrease in burnout by 0.235, after controlling for the demographics of age, gender, and race ($b = -.235$, $p < .001$).

Table 36

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.151[a]	.023	-.002	.93538	.023	.936	6	241	.470	
2	.275[b]	.076	.049	.91160	.053	13.739	1	240	.000	1.841

a. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34
b. Predictors: (Constant), White, Age_35_44, Age18_24, Gender_Recode, Age_45_54, Age_25_34, Mindfullness
c. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Summary

This study examined trait mindfulness and its effect on dependent variables subjective well-being, burnout, life satisfaction, and job stress (exploratory) through the mediating variable emotion regulation. CFA confirmed good fit among all variable's structures, as assessed through

CMIN, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA indexes. The mediation analysis results showed partial mediation of EMR cognitive reappraisal on the relationships between the independent variable trait mindfulness and the dependent variables subjective well-being, burnout, and job stress. There was complete mediation of EMR expressive suppression between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction.

Various exploratory analyses were performed to investigate possible moderation effects of job stress and control for demographic variables. There was a significant moderator effect of job stress on the relationship between trait mindfulness and positive wellbeing. However, there was no significant moderation effect of job stress on the relationship between trait mindfulness and negative wellbeing. Additionally, there was a significant moderator effect of job stress on the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout.

After controlling for demographics of age, gender, and race, an inverse relationship was found between trait mindfulness and negative wellbeing, as well as trait mindfulness and burnout. A positive relationship was found between trait mindfulness and positive well-being after controlling for age, gender, and race. Overall, demographic variables of age, race, and gender were not significant predictors of subjective well-being or burnout.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

Introduction

Does one simply jump from having trait mindfulness to experiencing reduced burnout and increased subjective well-being? The purpose of this study was to bridge the gap between the independent variable trait mindfulness and dependent variables: burnout and subjective well-being by considering emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) as a mediating variable. Overall, many of the hypotheses of the study were supported partially or fully. Partial mediation infers that the path from the independent variable (trait mindfulness) to the dependent variables (SWB and burnout) was reduced or influenced by the mediating variable. This concept was seen mainly with the mediator cognitive reappraisal, but not expressive suppression. Why did this happen? In this chapter, this study will help explain this phenomenon. The study's findings help support the notion that trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal have a beneficial impact on well-being in the workplace.

Trait mindfulness and subjective well-being. Results indicated that trait mindfulness positively predicts subjective well-being, thus supporting hypothesis 1. These results are similar to previous research conducted on trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (Bajaj & Pande, 2016; Weinstein et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2014). Bajaj & Pande (2016) and Weinstein et al. (2009) ran their study on undergraduate students. Kong et al. (2014) conducted their research on participants in China. The results gathered in the present study are advantageous because it was conducted on U.S. participants actively working within organizations. Therefore, this study adds distinct value to existing literature.

Ryan and Deci (2001) refer to subjective well-being as the cultivation of positive emotions to ensure individuals' peak performance and effectiveness. Mohammadkhani et al. (2015) define trait mindfulness as a nonjudgmental, purposeful awareness and attention. Trait mindfulness doubles as a personality trait, meaning that certain people have higher levels of daily mindfulness and something that can be developed over time due to extensive training and life experiences (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). The results indicate that trait mindfulness plays a crucial role in how people think and feel about their lives. In other words, the ability to be still and have nonjudgmental observations of oneself predicts one's ability to generate positive thoughts and feelings about one's life to attain peak performance and effectiveness.

Trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal. Results indicated that cognitive reappraisal positively predicts trait mindfulness, thus supporting hypothesis 2a. The findings of this study are similar to those found by previous research linking the concept of mindfulness to emotionality and trait mindfulness having an impact on emotion regulation and executive functioning (Chambers et al., 2009; Lyvers et al., 2013; Coates, 2018; Hill & Updegraff, 2012; Huang et al. 2018; Troy et al., 2013; Goldin & Gross, 2010; Lalot et al., 2014). Many of the previously mentioned researchers focused on state mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies that did not include cognitive reappraisal. State mindfulness was positively connected to higher levels of cognitive reappraisal (Troy et al., 2013; Lalot et al., 2014).

What about trait mindfulness? According to (Wilkins 2014, p. 286), "Cognitive reappraisal is a form of emotion regulation that involves cognitively construing a negative situation in a way that alleviates its emotional impact." The results indicate that those who are more naturally disposed to higher levels of awareness and presence are more likely to regulate their emotions through conscious reinterpretation and de-escalation of a negative situation. This

study's empirical evidence supports the relationship between trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal, thus adding valuable information to existing literature.

Cognitive reappraisal and subjective well-being. Limited research has been completed on the relationship between cognitive reappraisal and subjective well-being, but the research that was conducted supported the hypothesis that cognitive reappraisal is linked to higher subjective well-being (Balzarotti et al., 2016; Pratisti & Rini, 2016; Buruck, 2016; Katana, 2019). This study found similar results as positive affect was linked to subjective well-being and not negative affect, thus supporting hypothesis 3a. According to Krompinger et al. (2008), cognitive reappraisal doubles as an up-regulating emotional strategy and down regulating emotional strategy, meaning that it can deepen and broaden a positive emotional experience, or decrease the impact of negative emotions. Emotional strategies, like cognitive reappraisal, positively impacts how people feel and think about their lives. An example of this would be if an employee, Emily, argued with her co-worker. Emily decides to reinterpret and reevaluate the negative situation from her co-worker's perspective to decrease the emotional impact. After utilizing cognitive reappraisal, Emily can generate more positive emotions versus negative emotions about the argument, therefore impacting her satisfaction with work.

Mediating between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being. Cognitive reappraisal completely mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (satisfaction with life), thus partially supporting hypothesis 4. Life satisfaction, in SWB, refers to the satisfaction in general and specific areas of one's life (Diener, Scollon, & Lucas, 1999). Therefore, those who have high daily mindfulness can positively utilize cognitive reappraisal to impact satisfaction in general and specific areas of life positively. These results are consistent

with the results found in the study completed by Mandal et al., (2017), who discovered that cognitive reappraisal mediated the relationship between state mindfulness and SWB to a small extent (.05, $p<.05$). This empirical evidence builds on existing literature by the discovery of complete mediation.

In previous research, Mandal et al., (2017) tested whether emotion regulation (expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal) mediated the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being (positive and negative). Their research discovered that expressive suppression (7.539, $p <.01$) and, to some extent, cognitive reappraisal (.05, $p<.05$) mediates the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction, but not positive and negative affect.

The current study intended to provide clarity and more empirical support on whether EMR mediates mindfulness and SWB, with a specific look at trait mindfulness. This study discovered partial mediation of the relationship between trait mindfulness and SWB (negative and positive) through EMR, specifically cognitive reappraisal, thus partially supporting hypothesis 4. This study's results differed from previous research (Mandal et al., 2017) because it expanded on the depth of EMR's role as a mediator between trait mindfulness and SWB. This study demonstrated that cognitive reappraisal had a significant role when mediating trait mindfulness and all measures of SWB (positive well-being, negative well-being, and satisfaction with life). In contrast, expressive suppression only mediated the relationship between trait mindfulness and satisfaction with life.

Burnout and trait mindfulness. A growing body of research has discovered that mindfulness is a useful tool to combat burnout, but what about trait mindfulness? Burnout can be viewed as the opposite of engagement and highlights an employee's experience with emotional exhaustion, a sense of failure, and depersonalization (Jackson & Schuler). Previous research has

found an inverse relationship between mindfulness and burnout, meaning that a mindful employee can more quickly combat burnout. The higher the employee's mindfulness levels, the lower risk of burnout (Krasner et al., 2009; Goodman & Schorling, 2012; Abenavoli et al., 2013; Flook et al., 2013). Trait mindfulness was explicitly found to be inversely related to burnout (Charoensukmongkol & Suthatorn, 2018; Taylor & Millear, 2016). The current study results are congruent with previous research, as trait mindfulness was found to be inversely related to burnout, thus supporting hypothesis 5.

Cognitive reappraisal and burnout. In this study, cognitive reappraisal was found to predict burnout, thus supporting hypothesis 6a negatively. This is congruent with previous research completed by Ghanizadeh et al. (2015), who discovered an inverse relationship between burnout and cognitive reappraisal in teachers. According to the empirical results in this study, the ability to reinterpret and reevaluate a negative situation can help combat burnout.

Cognitive reappraisal as a mediator. Cognitive reappraisal, an emotion regulation strategy, was found to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout. These results are similar to the study completed by Gerzina and Porfeli (2012), who discovered that positive reappraisal mediated the relationship between state mindfulness and burnout.

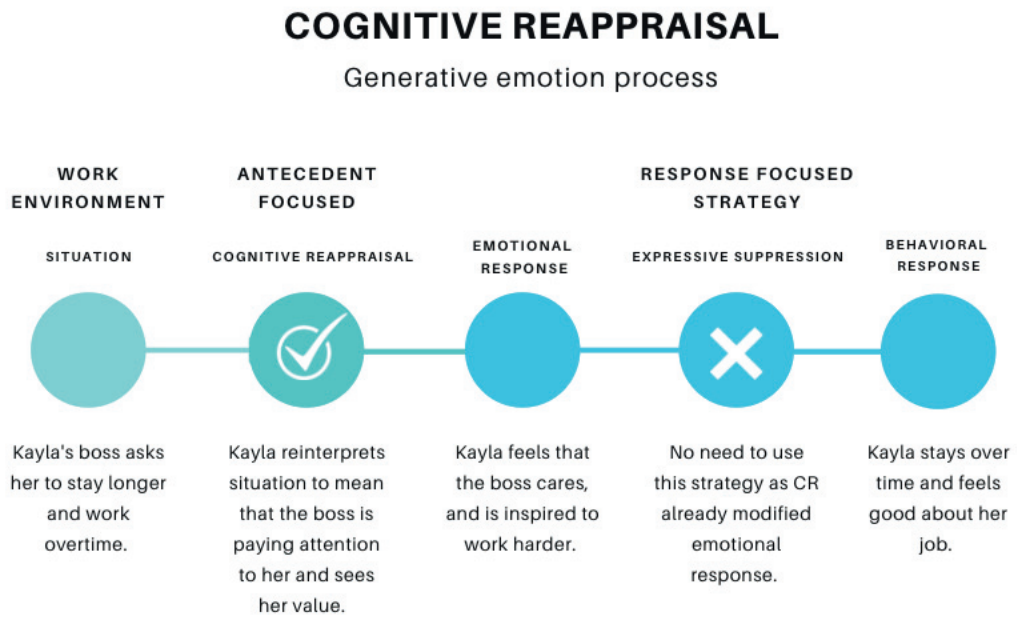
Expressive suppression and unsupported findings. Expressive suppression did not relate to trait mindfulness (H2b not supported), burnout (H6b), or SWB (positive and negative well-being), thus not supporting hypothesis 3b. Expressive suppression did not mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout and did not mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being (positive and negative well-being).

Mediation effects explained. To understand the mediation effects in this study, it is essential to compare and contrast the two factors in emotion regulation, expressive suppression,

and cognitive reappraisal. As previously mentioned, cognitive reappraisal was found to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and the dependent variables subjective well-being and burnout. It is important to note that cognitive reappraisal has positively impacted well-being in previous research. Haga et al., (2007) found that an increase in cognitive reappraisal use predicted higher levels of positive well-being outcomes. Cognitive reappraisal is an antecedent-focused strategy, thus occurring early in the generative emotion process. If an individual chooses cognitive reappraisal, she or he wouldn't also choose expressive suppression, as the emotion would have been regulated before it would get to expressive suppression. An example of this is seen in Figure 12.

Figure 12.

Cognitive reappraisal generative process



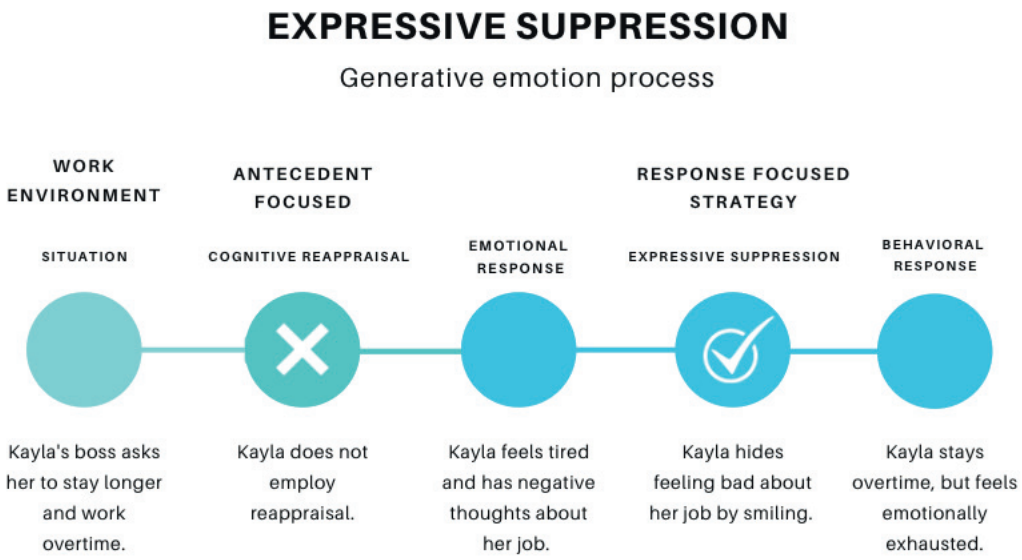
Note. The generative emotion process with a focus on cognitive reappraisal was adapted from Cutili (2014).

Expressive suppression has been linked to lower levels of well-being and an increase in negative emotions. Haga et al., (2007) found that expressive suppression was linked to higher negative well-being levels. Butler et al., (2003) completed a study on the social consequences of expression and found that expressive suppression disrupts communication, increases blood pressure, and decreases relationship formation. Gross & John (2003) found expressive suppression to be linked to low self-esteem and psychological adjustment.

Expressive suppression is a response-focused emotion regulation strategy, meaning that it happens late in the emotion regulation process and modifies that expression of the emotion (John & Gross, 2004). The process of putting aside or suppressing feelings to pay attention to the task at hand is costly when it comes to cognitive resources. According to Chang (2020), expressive suppression involves continuous self-corrective and self-monitoring actions for as long as the emotion is being processed, therefore burning through a large number of cognitive resources. Emotion regulation strategies such as surface acting or hiding emotions have been consistently found to lead to emotional exhaustion, a factor of burnout (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Lee et al., 2015). Figure 13 below is an example of the generative emotion process using expressive suppression instead of cognitive reappraisal.

Figure 13

The expressive suppression generative emotion process



Note. The generative emotion process with a focus on expressive suppression was adapted from Cutili (2004).

Past researchers (Gross & John, 2004) have suggested the timing of emotion regulation impacts whether or not the EMR strategies are beneficial or detrimental to well-being. Due to expressive suppression being a response focused strategy, it has been inferred to be a less effective EMR strategy than cognitive reappraisal, and linked to social dysfunction, psychopathology, anxiety disorders, and depressed mood (Forkmann et al., 2014).

Both expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal are common emotion regulation strategies that people use to down-regulate. Expressive suppression focuses on down-regulating emotional expressive and allows the negative feeling to remain, therefore leaving people with more physiological reactivity than before the generative emotion process began. In contrast, cognitive reappraisal allows for reinterpretation and can alter and reduce the emotion before it has been entirely generated (Haga et al., 2009). As mentioned previously, cognitive reappraisal

can up-regulate or emphasize positive emotions, or down regulate or reduce negative emotions (Krompinger et al., 2008).

Cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression? Researchers Multz et al., (2017) performed a study on whether cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression mediate the relationship between mental toughness and symptoms of depression. Expressive suppression was found to mediate the relationship between mental toughness and depressive symptoms in controllable situations (the degree to which a person can change or influence the situation's outcome). Cognitive reappraisal was not found to mediate the same phenomenon. In the present study, cognitive reappraisal was a mediator between trait mindfulness and subjective well-being and burnout instead of expressive suppression. Why did this happen? It's important to note that this study was completed among employees or those in a working environment. The workplace is a problem-solving environment filled with uncontrollable situations, meaning employees have to regulate and change emotions regularly because they may not change a situation's outcome. In a workplace environment, the consequences of hiding and allowing negative emotions to persist compared to reinterpreting a situation to diffuse a hostile situation are high. For example, if Jack, an employee, wanted a raise and did not receive it, he would begin the emotional generative process. This situation would be considered uncontrollable because Jack cannot currently change the outcome.

A consequence of refusing to defuse and reinterpret this situation would be that Jack could lose his job, supporting his lifestyle and family. Therefore, Jack will be motivated more to use cognitive reappraisal compared to expressive suppression. When assessing why an individual chooses expressive suppression or cognitive reappraisal, it is essential to consider the environment, context, and motivation.

To understand how and why expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal work as mediators in the present study, it is essential to account for previous research. Troy et al., (2013) investigated a person-by-person situation approach to emotion regulation. According to the researchers, the adaptiveness of emotion regulation strategies depends on the context and environment in which it is used. For example, losing a loved one would be an uncontrollable situation. Therefore, the emotion regulation strategy of cognitive reappraisal would be more beneficial because one cannot change that another has passed away. Cognitive reappraisal is more effective and highly adaptive in uncontrollable situations. Troy, Shallcross, & Mauss (2013) found that cognitive reappraisal is associated with increased well-being and less depression in uncontrollable situations. Their findings support the theory that emotion regulation strategies' success depends on the context and environment in which they are used. In situations where little can be done to change what has or is happening, cognitive reappraisal can be a way to build resilience and adaptive technique to protect oneself against adverse outcomes (Cheng, 2001; Troy et al., 2013).

Aldwin (2007) complete research on cognitive reappraisal as problem-focused coping on students. Aldwin (2007) found that when a student received a low grade, it was essential to use cognitive reappraisal to lower the situation's stress levels. This would help the student keep the motivation to study for the next exam. With school and work, there are deadlines and expectations. Therefore, problem-focused emotion regulation strategies would benefit employees more than expressive suppression, which was consistent with the current study's mediation results.

Why did cognitive reappraisal lead to mediation between trait mindfulness and burnout? According to Gross and John (2003), the reappraisal would be the more effective strategy due to

the work environment being a problem-focused environment. Therefore, there would be less need for expressive suppression, a less effective strategy in the workplace. As previously mentioned, the reappraisal process occurs earlier in the emotion-generative process than expressive suppression. Therefore, employees have modified their behavior by reinterpreting the situation positively, so there would be less use or need for expressive suppression. This explains why expressive suppression was not linked with reduced burnout. To experience burnout, one would have to be in a problem-solving environment; therefore, hiding emotions wouldn't be as useful as reinterpreting an event to find a better solution.

This would also explain why expressive suppression was found to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction. Life satisfaction covers satisfaction with work as well as with family, health, and relationships. Therefore, there is more range of expressive suppression ability to lead on mediation, as those domains can include controllable situations and happen in unique and more relaxed environments. In personal environments, individuals have more control over who is around them and who will judge their emotions and actions. Also, there are minimal consequences to allowing negative emotions to persist. Therefore, in unique environments or non-performance environments, it is possible for expressive to lead to an effective EMR strategy. However, in work or school settings where problem-solving and positive outcomes are significant to their success, cognitive reappraisal may be more adaptive.

Zhu et al., (2020) researched whether emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression) mediated the relationship between cognitive malleability belief and well-being among migrant youth. Migrant youth (13-17 years old) include those who have moved from their hometown to a different city, a new environment. Malleability beliefs refer to one's

believes about the changeability of human characteristics. The emotion regulation strategy of cognitive reappraisal was found to be an effective mediator, not expressive suppression. Those who believe in cognitive malleability or that characteristics can be developed or improved are more likely to use cognitive reappraisal to impact well-being. The researchers discovered that those who have high motivation to regulate their motivation might engage their effort in reappraising their thoughts or suppressing emotional expression.

Table 37 depicts scenarios in which an individual would choose cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression.

Table 37

Cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression scenarios

Situation	**Environment**	**Controllable vs. Uncontrollable**	**What will happen if the negative emotion persists?**	**Motivation to reinterpret**	**Reappraise or Suppress**
Jack loves his job but didn't get the raise he wanted.	Problem-solving	Uncontrollable Jack cannot change his boss's mind or quit work without major consequences.	Jack could lose his job.	High, Jack loves his job.	Reappraise to reduce stress.
Amy loses her best friend.	Personal	Uncontrollable Amy cannot bring her friend back.	Amy could be trapped in sadness and pain.	High, Amy is heartbroken over losing her best friend, and wants to feel better.	Reappraise to reduce stress.
Max wants to get into an ivy league school and gets a bad grade.	Problem-solving	Uncontrollable Max cannot change grade or drop out of school without	Max could get more bad grades, and not get into college.	High, Max needs good grades to get into the school of his dreams.	Reappraise to reduce stress.

		large consequences.			
Lilly is fighting with her boyfriend who she wants to dump.	Personal	Controllable Amy could leave the relationship and be ok with the consequences.	Lilly loses her relationship.	Low, Lilly doesn't want to be in the relationship anymore.	Expressive suppression.
Adam does not like his roommate, who hasn't been cleaning after himself.	Personal	Controllable Adam could find a new roommate and be ok with the consequences.	Adam becomes more annoyed with his roommate.	Low, Adam doesn't like his roommate anyways.	Expressive suppression.

As seen above, expressive suppression is useful in situations that are personal, controllable, or temporary. According to researchers (Gross & John, 2003), the utilization of expressive suppression has different consequences depending on the length that it is used. Maintaining composure in relationships is important especially in the workplace. However, if used habitually in long term situations, it has been linked to depression and anxiety disorders (Gross & John, 2003). On the other hand, If the consequences of behavior are high in a long-term scenario, cognitive reappraisal reduces stress and promotes positivity.

It is significant to mention that this study was completed on those in Western culture, and that East-Asian cultures have been found to promote expressive suppression. Expressive suppression been discovered to be less psychologically damaging to well-being and leads to fewer negative relationship outcomes. Therefore, environment plays a part in whether expressive suppression is useful or not. However, suicide rates amongst those in Eastern cultures is higher than those in Western cultures according to the American Psychological Association. This information presents the question of whether expressive suppression is actually useful to those in

Eastern culture or is it just acceptable as the norm and therefore promoted? According to (Forkmann et al., 2014) the use of expressive suppression has been linked to suicidal ideation.

Environment impacts an individual's choice of whether to use expressive suppression or cognitive reappraisal to adapt. Research has shown that the environment can impact motivation. For example, Phillipe & Vallerand (2008) researched whether environments impact motivation among the elderly. The results indicated that environments could either help or hurt one's motivational process. If one is motivated, one may be apt to using cognitive reappraisal more than expressive suppression because it is a problem-solving strategy and leads to healthier outcomes and solutions.

Another possible variable that could be influencing the impact of mediation is emotional intelligence. Researchers Megías-Robles et al., (2019) completed a study on whether emotionally intelligent people use cognitive reappraisal or expressive suppression. Results indicate a positive association between emotional intelligence and cognitive reappraisal. Emotional intelligence was negatively related to expressive suppression. These results confirm that emotionally intelligent people use cognitive reappraisal as an adaptive strategy as compared to expressive suppression.

Emotional intelligence has been linked to subjective well-being, mindfulness, and trait mindfulness (Miao et al., 2018). This implies that those who have high levels of mindfulness also have high levels of emotional intelligence. Both trait mindfulness and emotional intelligence are linked to higher levels of subjective well-being and life outcomes. According to Schutte & Malouff (2011), emotional intelligence was found to mediate the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being.

The relationship between trait mindfulness and emotional intelligence regarding emotion regulation was not covered in this study. However, it could potentially explain why cognitive

reappraisal was a mediator, thus pointing to future research opportunities. A fruitful research question could be: Is emotional intelligence a mediator between trait mindfulness and emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression)?

Exploratory Analysis

Cognitive reappraisal was found to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and job stress, which is not surprising as job stress and burnout are highly correlated. To further understand the role job stress plays, job stress was analyzed as a moderating variable between trait mindfulness and dependent variables well-being and burnout. Although significant, job stress only accounted for a small amount of variance for trait mindfulness and well-being, as well as the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout. This means that job stress provided minimal strength when influencing the relationships. This could be because long-term and high job stress are positively correlated with burnout (Chou et al., 2014). The exploratory results discovered that trait mindfulness was minimally, yet positively related to burnout in those with low job stress. It's possible that those who are high in awareness are more aware of the feelings associated with burnout. Too much awareness of thoughts can increase burnout in low stress individuals. Those who are high in mindfulness may overcomplicate work by over thinking and processing, therefore increasing feelings of burnout, when they are not actually under high stress. Demographic variables of age, race, and gender were not significant predictors of subjective well-being or burnout. This indicates that demographic variables did not impact the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout or, trait mindfulness and subjective well-being.

Theoretical Implications

Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory. According to Garland et al. (2015), the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory proposes that mindfulness creates a metacognitive state that transforms how

one attends to experience, thus stimulating positive reappraisals that inspire positive affect and adaptative behavior. Initially, the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory referred to eudaimonic well-being, which focuses on a "sense of purpose, meaningful, positive engagement with life that arises when one's life activities are congruent with deeply held values even under conditions of adversity" (Garland et al., 2015, p.2). This paper focused on the hedonic approach to happiness which is about avoiding pain and obtaining pleasure. With the empirical support in mind, this paper suggests that the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory applies to eudaimonic well-being and hedonic well-being (SWB). Does one jump from trait mindfulness to having high levels of subjective well-being? In uncontrollable environments and situations, the answer is no. Discovering cognitive reappraisal as a mediator helps answer the central question of this study.

There are reappraisal processes that help explain the relationship. Mindfulness is a non-judgmental awareness; without reappraisal, there would be no mulling around situations and events because mindfulness is all about being still. For example, if an employee (Emily) experiences conflict at work (uncontrollable environment) and attends a meditation that places all of her attention on breath and nothing else, how would Emily jump to feeling better about the conflict troubling her before the meditation? The non-discursive, nonelaborative nature of mindfulness often seen in the Eastern culture is not treated the same in the Western culture. According to Hanley et al., (2014) Westerners maintain a consistent autobiographical narrative in their minds to help understand and find meaning in life. This would explain Emily's motivation to revisit the conflict after her formal mindfulness training has come to an end. The ongoing autobiography in her mind wants answers. With the new calm and broadened mindset that has been decentered from her stressor, she can view the conflict from different angles and possibly come to new solutions and manage her emotions appropriately. This process may not be

considered mindfulness entirely to find stillness and nonjudgmental awareness of thought, but more as mindful reappraisal. Mindful reappraisal is a new concept researched by Hanley, Garland, and Black (2014). The researchers discovered that trait mindfulness is predictive of mindful reappraisal as well as greater levels of well-being.

Job-Demands Resource Theory. The theories surrounding burnout, COR model, and the Job-Demands Resource theory suggest that burnout occurs when a person's job demands or outweighs the quality and quantity of an employee's resources. An initial question to this study was whether trait mindfulness and emotion regulation act as resources to combat burnout. To stop an employee's flame from burning out, the employee would need particular resources for the flame to flourish. This study does provide empirical evidence in support of cognitive reappraisal and trait mindfulness acting as resources for employees and organizations to reduce burnout. These findings support the research completed by Bus (2016, pg. 27), who suggested that "highly mindful people utilize mindfulness as a resource or an aspect of oneself which allows them to control and impact their environment successfully, which is in line with the definition of a personal resource." This study also points to cognitive reappraisal acting as a personal resource to combat burnout.

Practical Implications

Mindfulness in organizations. According to the empirical support found in this study, the case for trait mindfulness and emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal) in the workplace is vital. It increases subjective well-being and combats burnout — a severe threat in the workplace. The question is no longer, "Should mindfulness be implemented into the workplace?" instead, "How should trait mindfulness be implemented into the workplace?" Previous research has focused mainly on introducing 6-week to 8-week mindfulness training programs such as MBSR

(Kabat-Zinn, 1990; Chin, Slutsky, Raye, & Creswell, 2019; Reb & Choi, 2014). According to Kabat-Zinn (1990) and Kiken et al. (2015), mindfulness training programs were successful in increasing state mindfulness and, as a result, contributed to building higher trait mindfulness. This indicates that the trait-like propensity to be mindful in everyday life may be adaptable depending on the amount of mindfulness practice one participates in. If one regularly participates in mindfulness activities, then more likely trait mindfulness levels will be achieved even when not actively meditating.

According to Kiken et al. (2015), each individual's trajectory from state mindfulness to trait mindfulness is highly personalized, meaning that some may reach higher mindfulness levels at faster or slower rates than others. This presents an obstacle to organizations, depending on which goal they would like to achieve. An eight-week program may help reduce stress during the program, but are the employees able to participate long enough to build trait mindfulness? If the company's primary goal is to ensure that their employees have high levels of mindfulness or trait mindfulness throughout their workdays, how can this be achieved? This leads to other important questions: should daily mindfulness training be offered or required for employees? For how many minutes should employees meditate, and for how many months or weeks can the program last before employees realistically lose motivation?

According to Reb & Choi (2014), these are essential questions that corporate mindfulness trainers need to assess. Reb and Choi (2014) decided to offer an 8-week program to engineers where mindfulness was offered but not required. The program began with a half-day intensive introductory session explaining the scientific benefits of mindfulness to create buy-in. After the introductory session, participants met once a week to learn how to apply mindfulness to the workplace. Examples of the meeting topics included: mindful breaks, mindful communication,

and mindful e-mailing. They also met daily for 15-min meditation emphasizing formal techniques such as breath awareness. According to Reb and Choi (2014), participants were able to work more efficiently and effectively. The benefits of the program were tested a year after the program ended. “The results showed that 88% of the employees who participated in the mindfulness training reported some or a high degree of an increased ability for focused attention; 82% reported a decrease in distraction; and 59% reported an increase in their ability to handle stress and pressure (Reb and Choi, 2014, pg. 21).” Unfortunately, participants found it challenging to meditate daily for 8-weeks and beyond the program. Participation dropped as the course continued. It was also challenging to create buy-in from the organizational leaders to “waste” 15-min a day when making the company money. These are real challenges when introducing mindfulness into the workplace.

It would be essential for corporate mindfulness trainers to analyze each company individually and assess the readiness and existing motivation for a mindfulness program. They should ask important and relevant questions such as: “What is the main goal of the organization?” “How can mindfulness programs be implemented into each company to achieve the best results?” “What mindfulness program can effectively develop trait mindfulness in employees, a form of mindfulness that is less likely to dissipate once the training is removed?”

Based on this study’s findings that trait mindfulness positively impacts subjective well-being and combats burnout, it would be valuable to study companies that already include daily mindfulness training as a part of their organizational culture. Such companies give intentional breaks for employees to meditate, weekly mindfulness classes, and meditation spaces. Companies such as Apple, Prentice Hall Publishing, Google, Nike, HBO, and Yahoo have incorporated mindfulness as a daily option for their employees (Hyland, Lee & Mills, 2015). It

would be interesting to measure the trait mindfulness of employees who work at companies incorporating mindfulness as a daily option and how this impacts their subjective well-being, burnout rates, and overall performance. Is mindfulness a significant factor playing in the success of these companies or are the companies successful because of other factors which allows them to offer such programs? It would be advantageous to see how many employees engage in daily mindfulness training and measure their trait mindfulness levels vs. those who only participate in a 6-week to 8-week program (or even shorter programs). This would ideally be accomplished as an experimental study so that the researcher could attain a high level of control over the variables and support that the change in the desired outcome is based solely on the manipulated variable, which in this case would be mindfulness.

Is there a reason why the top-performing companies are incorporating daily mindfulness programs into their organizational culture? Significant and consistent academic research findings could motivate initially skeptical companies to create positive change for their workplaces and their employees.

Cognitive reappraisal in organizations. To utilize cognitive reappraisal as a tool in organizations, it is recommended that training and development programs be implemented that teach employees how to reinterpret or reevaluate stressful situations. Stressful situations at work happen often. It is valuable for employees to learn how to slow down and choose conscious reactions. With the added empirical evidence from the current study supporting cognitive reappraisal and trait mindfulness as helpful resources to combat burnout and increase subjective well-being, it is recommended that organizations and coaches begin crafting strategic and well-thought-out training materials, classes, and action plans surrounding these topics.

Testing for trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal. Should trait mindfulness and cognitive reappraisal be assessed during the hiring process? To be seriously considered as a job requirement or an essential hiring trait, legal and ethical standards in selection would require evidence showing that trait mindfulness predicts performance. According to Reb et., (2014), trait mindfulness has been linked to higher job performance and work-life balance. However, there is room for more empirical research to support this relationship. Organizations should weigh the pros and cons of hiring for trait mindfulness to see if the return is worth the investment. Therefore, the company will dictate whether testing is important enough to incorporate. Companies could choose to make it a preferred trait to hire rather than essential. To make it an essential hiring trait, companies would have to show that it is indeed a strong differentiator for performance, however researchers are still gathering data on whether this is a definitive claim.

There are a few cons to consider when testing traits and abilities during the hiring process. It is essential to note that applicants could fake responses to portray a particular façade that the company would like to hire (Hough & Oswald, 2008). Also, personality and cognitive ability tests have been known to be biased towards specific cultural groups (Ford, 2004). Therefore, personality testing should be combined with other resources, information, and testing when hiring if the organization would opt to include them.

Future Research

Reappraisal strategies. There is more research to be completed on the mindful reappraisal process. This study found that trait mindfulness is predictive of cognitive reappraisal as well as greater levels of well-being. More research should be completed on different reappraisal strategies such as mindful reappraisal. Cognitive reappraisal and mindful reappraisal differ because cognitive reappraisal focuses on cognitively construing a negative situation to

reduce emotional impact, while mindful reappraisal focuses on decentering from the stressful event into a non-evaluative state to broaden attention and reevaluate a situation to find meaning and promote positive emotions (Hanley et al., 2014). Mindful reappraisal is a novel emotion regulation strategy that does not have an existing validated scale. However, researchers Hanley et al., (2014, pg. 297) created three questions that had good validity and reliability to measure mindful reappraisal in their study. The questions include: "How often does mindfulness help you notice pleasant things in the face of difficult circumstances? How often does mindfulness help you realize that you can grow stronger from difficult circumstances? How often does mindfulness help you see the positive side of challenging situations? Researchers, practitioners and organizations in general would benefit from the creation of a validated scale that effectively measures mindful reappraisal. Organizations are already turning to mindfulness within the workplace. The next step would be to coach employees on mindful reappraisal. Future research could then take a more in-depth look at mindful reappraisal and assess how it impacts variables such as job performance, conflict resolution, and productivity. Research that provides empirical support on the positive consequences of mindful reappraisal on employee and organizational outcomes would also benefit practitioners when attempting to gain buy-in from organizations.

Emotion regulation is a vast construct with many strategies. Existing research on emotion regulation in the workplace mainly focuses on emotional labor (a facet of emotion regulation), including surface acting and deep acting. According to Grandey and Gordon (2019), when employees try to change their feelings to appear sincere (deep acting), performance can be enhanced; however, employees often "fake it" or surface act, which is detrimental to their well-being. According to the results in this study, expressive suppression was not found to mediate the relationship between trait mindfulness and burnout and was not predictive of burnout in any

fashion. It would appear that an attempt to act or hide emotions in the workplace is not beneficial in reducing burnout or helpful with well-being. However, it could be helpful in job performance (Grandey and Gordon, 2019). Therefore, it would be useful for future research to narrow in on specific emotion regulation strategies that could be more useful in the workplace. One place to start would be to tease out the concepts of positive reappraisal, mindful reappraisal, and cognitive reappraisal.

Positive reappraisal, mindful reappraisal, cognitive reappraisal all fall under the reappraisal family. They all refer to an individual's ability to reconstruct and re-evaluate stressful events in a way that deescalates the conflict and enables one to change the meaning of the event and emotional valence. Positive reappraisal focuses mainly on reinterpreting the event in a positive, benign, or beneficial way. Cognitive reappraisal focuses on detaching attitude toward a conflict to recognize negative emotions and reduce the emotional response. Mindful reappraisal focuses on utilizing stillness and nonjudgmental awareness to take a step back and reconstruct an ongoing narrative. After researching existing literature, it is unclear if these are considered the same processes or used interchangeably. Cognitive reappraisal is measured by the ERQ (Gross and John, 2003), and positive reappraisal is measured by the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2007). Mindful reappraisal does not have a validated scale. It would be advantageous to examine these scales to understand whether the constructs are distinct or positively correlated. The CERQ asks participants more pointed questions about reframing situations in a positive light, such as "I think that the situation also has positive sides" and "I think I can learn something from the situation." The ERQ asks questions such as "I control my emotions by changing the way I think about a situation." or "I control my emotions by not expressing them." An example of mindful reappraisal questions used in the study by Hanley,

Garland, and Black (2014) is, “How often does mindfulness help you realize that you can grow stronger from difficult circumstances?” Although these questions all highlight the reconstruction of thoughts and emotions, they seem to address different aspects of emotion regulation. Discovering the nuances among these three, and how each of them operate s would be beneficial to advancing our understanding of emotion regulation. This would help practitioners better translate the research into helpful coaching and leadership techniques.

Not only is there space for future research on the reappraisal family, an adaptive emotion regulation strategy, but there are also other emotional regulation strategies (adaptive and mal-adaptive) that can be further investigated. Future researchers can focus adaptive strategies such as acceptance and problem-solving, and mal-adaptive strategies such as avoidance, denial, and rumination (Aldao et al., 2014). Why do employees select particular emotion regulation strategies to cope and how do they impact employee well-being and performance? Are those who are high on mindfulness lean towards choosing adaptive strategies or mal-adaptive strategies?

How does environment impact motivation and the use of emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression? What drives a participant to choose one method of reappraisal over another? There is room for future research surrounding these questions. The results of this study pointed to cognitive reappraisal as a mediator between trait mindfulness and positive outcomes in a workplace setting. Previous research indicated that cognitive reappraisal tends to be used more in a school setting, while expressive suppression is utilized more in personal and controllable settings. Are people more motivated in workplace/school environments vs. personal environments, and is this motivation impacting the choice of which emotion regulation strategies to use? It is possible that the underlying driver for the use of different emotional regulation strategies is not whether a situation is controllable or

uncontrollable, but whether an individual is motivated or unmotivated towards a particular outcome. These are interesting questions for future research.

This study has discovered that cognitive reappraisal led in mediation in working individuals in the United States (Western culture), but what about Eastern culture? Are there cultural level differences when it comes to employees choosing emotion regulation strategies? After discovering that suicide rates are higher amongst those in Eastern cultures, that expressive suppression is also promoted in Eastern cultures (Schouten et al., 2020), and that expressive suppression used over long period of times leads to suicide ideation (Forkmann et al., 2014), it would be advantageous for future researchers to investigate how the choice of EMR strategies plays into well-being across all cultures.

Limitations

The present study contained a number of limitations that could have impacted its overall findings. It is essential to discuss these limitations to inform future researchers and provide full disclosure to readers.

Demographics. As previously mentioned, this study used MTurk, an online crowdsourcing platform, to attract participants and gather data. Research has shown there are benefits to using Mturks. According to Buhrmester et al. (2011), the reliability of data collected from Mturk has not been significantly different from data collected by other traditional means such as in-person. High test-retest reliability rates have shown that participants answer consistently and reliably. However, research has also shown some drawbacks in using Mturks. The diversity of age, status, race/ethnicity and other demographic variables could be more restricted than that of the general population. This limitation could be seen in this study as Caucasians (Non-Hispanic) accounted for 67% of participants, and the percentages of other

ethnicities such as African American (9.7%) and Hispanic (4.4%) were not synonymous with the general population. Also, it was noted that many of the participants had a bachelor's degree (40.3%) and could afford the technology to access Mturk. Participants from lower socioeconomic groups were most likely less represented. Thus, this study's findings cannot be generalized to the US working population.

The present study included those of Western culture and did not account for different cultures. Different cultures have their own norms around what type of emotion regulation strategies are promoted and acceptable. For example, many Asian cultures do not promote showing emotion, however they do promote expressive suppression (Schouten et al., 2020). Therefore, if this study was completed with a different culture, the results could have been quite different.

Timing of the study. It is essential to note the study's timing, as it was conducted during a COVID-19 worldwide pandemic, specifically from August 10th, 2020 to September 3rd, 2020. In the United States, lockdown and the stay-at-home order began at different times, but in major cities around March 15th 2020. The study was meant for participants who were currently employed and had maintained their job for at least six consecutive months. Although the specific requirements to take the survey were listed, it is possible not all who participated fully met the criteria. Unfortunately, the pandemic caused many individuals across the world to lose their jobs or pause their regular work schedules. Employees also had to get used to working virtually. It is highly likely that the pandemic impacted participants' work environment though the extent of its impact was not assessed in the study. Given the unusual circumstances during which the study took place, it would be difficult to generalize the results. As a result, this study encourages future researchers to take the timing of the study into account when continuing further investigation.

Self–rater bias. The study surveys allowed participants to rate themselves on their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. In self-rater surveys, it is expected that bias will affect people's ratings such that they may rate themselves too high or too low. According to Pronin et al., (2002) people have blind spots when viewing themselves or answering surveys based on what they want to be versus who they are. This study did not survey those who know the participants to gather additional clarity or account for data outside of the participant's view of themselves. Therefore, a limitation of the present study includes self-rater bias. Future studies would do well to incorporate other rating sources, such as peer or manager ratings.

Causality. It's important to note that the analysis and results in this study do not indicate causality. To establish causality, three things must be accomplished: temporal sequencing, non-spurious relationship, eliminate alternate causes (Pearl, 2013). Establishing true causation is challenging for researchers and typically requires careful manipulative experiments. According to (Pearl, 2013), SEM methods do not support causation, however, can yield results that allow for claims and theories about causation.

Conclusion

The present study is particularly important given the current high burnout rates among working people. Furthermore, the research sought to bridge a gap in the literature about the effects of trait mindfulness on important work-related outcomes. Much of past organizational research focused on state mindfulness instead of trait mindfulness. The present study investigated the relationships between trait mindfulness and dependent variables subjective well-being and burnout, and tested the mediating roles of emotion regulation strategies, namely cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. The findings of this study contribute to the

knowledge and importance of trait mindfulness in organizations. Trait mindfulness was successfully demonstrated to be a resource that helps combat burnout and increases well-being among employees. With these results in mind, organizations can implement various strategies such as providing mindfulness training for employees, promoting mindfulness-supporting cultures and activities, or even selecting individuals who have high trait mindfulness levels, particularly in jobs and settings involving stress.

This study also points to the importance of understanding emotion regulation strategies, as these can act as a tool to combat stress and burnout. In particular, cognitive reappraisal significantly accounted for the relationships between trait mindfulness and subject well-being, as well as burnout. Expressive suppression played a mediating role only in the relationship between trait mindfulness and life satisfaction. Future researchers are invited to explore additional questions such as why employees utilize particular emotion regulation strategies over others. If specific emotion regulation strategies are useful resources to the workplace, it is crucial to figure out in which environments or situations employees would use them effectively.

The concept of mindfulness is becoming more accepted as a helpful tool in organizations. This research suggests that the next step would be to introduce emotion regulation strategies alongside mindfulness exercises. A novel concept called mindful reappraisal is just beginning to gain attention from researchers. It is possible that the western culture has been steering away from traditional mindfulness techniques such as focusing on the breath, and instead of using mindful reappraisal, a technique to bring awareness to thoughts and look at conflicts and situations from different angles to gain clarity and strategy. This process of bringing mindfulness to meaning may have a powerful impact on employee's ability to bounce back from hardship and contribute effectively towards organizational success.

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Appendix A

Demographic Questions

Please respond to the below questions.

1. Gender
____ Male
____ Female
____ Other (please specify)
_____

2. Age Group
____ 18 – 24 years
____ 25 – 34 years
____ 35 – 44 years
____ 45 – 54 years
____ 55 – 64 years
____ 65 years and older

3. Race/Ethnicity:
____Asian or Pacific Islander
____Black or African American
____Hispanic
____Native American
____White (Non-Hispanic)
____ Multi-Racial
____Other (please specify)

4. Highest education level completed:
____ High School/GED
____ Some College
____ Associates Degree
____ Bachelors Degree
____ Graduate Degree
____ Post-graduate Degree

5. Workforce Classification
    a) Service
        a. Personal Care and Service Occupations
        b. Healthcare Support Occupations
        c. Arts, Design, Entertainment, Spirts, and Media Occupations
        d. Office and Administrative Support Occupations
        e. Protective Service Occupations
        f. Computer and Mathematical Occupations
        g. Education, Training, and Library Occupations
        h. Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations
        i. Community and Social Service Occupations
        j. Architecture and Engineering Occupations
        k. Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations
        l. Management Occupations
        m. Business and Financial Operations Occupations
        n. Life, Physical, and Social Science Occupations
        o. Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations
        p. Construction and Extraction Occupations
        q. Legal Occupations
        r. Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations
        s. Production Occupations

t. Sales and Related Occupations
u. Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance Occupations
v. Transportation and Material Moving Occupation
w. Other

1. How many hours a week do you work (approximately) each week?
    a. 10-20 hours
    b. 20-30 hours
    c. 40-50 hours
    d. More than 60 hours

_____

Appendix B

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Instructions and Items:

We would like to ask you some questions about your emotional life, in particular, how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions. The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your emotional experience, or what you feel like inside. The other is your emotional expression, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture, or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another. They differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly disagree			Neutral			Strongly agree

1. ____ When I want to feel more positive emotion (such mas joy or amusement), I can change what I'm thinking about.
2. ____ I keep my emotions to myself.
3. ____When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger). I can change what I'm thinking about.
4. ____When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them.
5. ____When I'm faced with stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm.
6. ____I can control my emotions by not expressing them.
7. ____When I want to feel more positive emotion, I can change the way I'm thinking about the situation.
8. ____I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.
9. ____When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them.
10. ____When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.

Scoring:
Items: 1,3,5,7,8,10 make up for the cognitive reappraisal facet.
Items 2,4,6,9 make up the Expressive Suppression facet.

Scoring is kept continuous.
Each facet's scoring is kept separate.

Appendix C

Subjective Well-Being (SPANE & SWLS)

Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE)

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Please think about what you have been doing and experiencing during the past four weeks. Then report how much you experienced each of the following feelings, using the scale below. For each item, select number from 1-5, and indicate the number on your response sheet.

1. Very Rarely or Never
2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Often
5. Very Often or Always

1.Positive
2.Negative
3.Good
4.Bad
5.Pleasant
6.Unpleasant
7.Happy
8.Sad
9.Afraid
10.Joyful
11.Angry
12.Contented

Scoring:

The measure can be used to derive an overall affect balance score but can also be divided into the positive and negative feelings scales.

Positive Feelings (SPANE-P): Add the scores, varying from 1 to 5 for the six items: positive, good, pleasant, happy, joyful, and contended. The score can vary from 6 (lowest possible) to 30 (highest positive feelings score).

Negative Feelings (SPANE-N): Add the scores, varying from 1 to 5, for the six items: negative, bad, unpleasant, sad, afraid, angry. The score can vary from 6 (lowest possible) to 30 (highest negative feelings score).

Affect Balance (SPANE-B): The negative feelings score is subtracted from the positive feelings score, and the resultant difference score can vary from -24 (unhappiest possible) to 24 (highest affect balance possible). A respondent with a very high score of 24 reports that she or he rarely or never experiences any of the negative feelings, and very often or alays has all of the positive feelings.

Appendix D

Satisfaction with Life Scale

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

- 7 - Strongly agree
- 6 - Agree
- 5 - Slightly agree
- 4 - Neither agree nor disagree
- 3 - Slightly disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly disagree

____ In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

____ The conditions of my life are excellent.

____ I am satisfied with my life.

____ So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

____ If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

- 31 - 35 Extremely satisfied
- 26 - 30 Satisfied
- 21 - 25 Slightly satisfied
- 20 Neutral
- 15 - 19 Slightly dissatisfied
- 10 - 14 Dissatisfied
- 5 - 9 Extremely dissatisfied

Appendix E

Mindfulness Awareness Scale (MAAS)

Day-to-Day Experiences Instructions: Below is a collection of statements about your everyday experience. Using the 1-6 scale below, please indicate how frequently or infrequently you currently have each experience. Please answer according to what really reflects your experience rather than what you think your experience should be. Please treat each item separately from every other item.

1. Almost Always
2. Very Frequently
3. Somewhat Frequently
4. Somewhat Frequently
5. Very Infrequently

1. I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until sometime later. _____
2. I break or spill things because of carelessness, not paying attention or thinking of something else. _____
3. I find it difficult to stay focused on what's happening in the present. ____
4. I tend to walk quickly to get where I'm going without paying attention to what I experience along the way. ____
5. I tend to not notice feelings of physical tension or discomfort until the really grab my attention. _____
6. I forget a person's name almost as soon as I've been told it for the first time. _____
7. It seems I am "running on automatic," without much awareness of what I'm doing. ____
8. I rush through activities without being really attentive to them. ____
9. I get so focused on the goal I want to achieve that I lose touch with what I'm doing right now to get there. ____
10. I do jobs or tasks automatically, without being aware of what I'm doing. _____
11. I find myself listening to someone with one ear, doing something else at the same time. _____
12. I drive places on 'automatic pilot' and then wonder why I went there. _____
13. I find myself preoccupied with the future or the past. _____
14. I find myself doing thing without paying attention. _____
15. I snack without being aware that I'm eating. _____

Appendix F

The Maslach Burnout Inventory

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) Survey

How Often:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday

How Often
0-6

Statements:

1. _____ I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. _____ I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. _____I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to another day on the job.
4. _____Working all day is really a strain for me.
5. _____I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.
6. _____I feel burned out from my work.
7. _____I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does.
8. _____ I've become less interested in my work since I started this job.
9. _____ I've become less enthusiastic about my work.
10. _____ In my opinion, I am good at my job.
11. _____I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.
12. _____I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
13. _____I just want to do my job and not be bothered.
14. _____I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.
15. _____I doubt the significance of my work.
16. _____At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.

Appendix G- Job Stress Scale (Exploratory Scale)

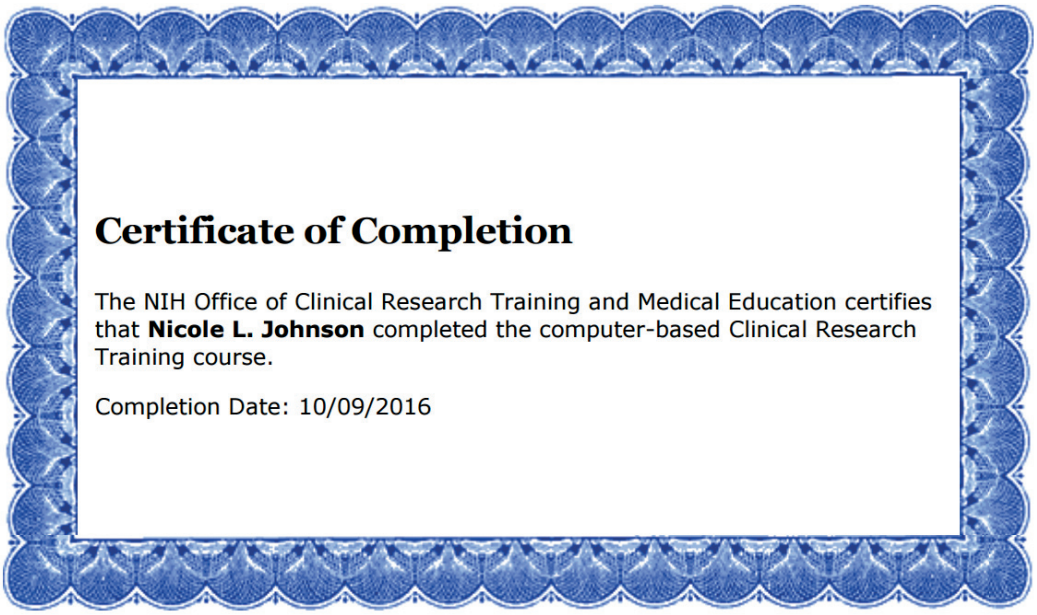
The following questionnaire contains statements concerning job stress.

Instructions: Read each item carefully and indicate on a scale with 1-5 response options, “1” indicating a strong agreement and “5” indicating a strong disagreement with the item.

1. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job. _____
2. Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family. _____
3. My job gets to me more than it should. _____
4. I spend so much time at work, I can’t see the forest for the trees. _____
5. There are lots of times when my job drives me right up the wall. _____
6. Working here leaves little time for other activities. _____
7. Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest. ____
8. I frequently get the feeling that I am married to my job. _____
9. I have too much work and too little time to do it in. _____
10. I feel guilty when I take time off from the job. _____
11. I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related. _____
12. I feel like I never had the day off. _____
13. Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands. _____

Appendix H

Certificate of Completion



Certificate of Completion

The NIH Office of Clinical Research Training and Medical Education certifies that **Nicole L. Johnson** completed the computer-based Clinical Research Training course.

Completion Date: 10/09/2016

Appendix I

Permission to use MAAS

Dear Colleague,

The trait Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) is in the public domain and special permission is not required to use it for research or clinical purposes. The trait MAAS has been validated for use with college student and community adults (Brown & Ryan, 2003), and for individuals with cancer (Carlson & Brown, 2005). A detailed description of the trait MAAS, along with normative score information, is found below, as is the scale and its scoring. A validated state version of the MAAS is also available in Brown and Ryan (2003) or upon request.

Feel free to e-mail me with any questions about the use or interpretation of the MAAS. I would appreciate hearing about any clinical or research results you obtain using the scale.

Yours,

Kirk Warren Brown, PhD
Department of Psychology
Virginia Commonwealth University
806 West Franklin St.
Richmond, VA 23284-2018
e-mail kwbrown@vcu.edu

Appendix J

Permission to use Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Legal stuff

The paper very clearly states that the items are under the copyright of the authors of the paper (Gross & John, 2003). The test and other resources are on his website. It seems that when properly acknowledging the authors and paper, the ERQ can be used for research.

EMOTION REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE (ERQ)

Reference:

Gross, J.J., & John, O.P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85,* 348-362.

Description of Measure:

A 10-item scale designed to measure respondents' tendency to regulate their emotions in two ways: (1) Cognitive Reappraisal and (2) Expressive Suppression. Respondents answer each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Appendix K

Permission to use Subjective Well-Being Scale

Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)

Permission to Use

The scale is copyrighted but you are free to use it without permission or charge by all professionals (researchers and practitioners) as long as you give credit to the authors of the scale: Ed Diener, Robert A. Emmons, Randy J. Larsen and Sharon Griffin as noted in the 1985 article in the *Journal of Personality Assessment*.

About SWLS

The SWLS is a short 5-item instrument designed to measure global cognitive judgments of satisfaction with one's life. The scale usually requires only about one minute of a respondent's time.

SWLS_English.doc

In order to better understand the scores of the SWLS, please read the document below.

Understanding the SWLS scores (.pdf)

If you would like to use SWLS on a 5-point scale, please refer to the following paper for norms.

Kobau, R., Sniezek, J., Zack, M. M., Lucas, R. E., & Burns, A. (2010). Well-being assessment: An evaluation of well-being scales for public health and population estimates of well-being among US adults. Applied Psychology: Health and Well-being, 2(3), 272-297. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2010.01035.x

Appendix L

Permission to use SPANE

Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE)

Permission to Use

The scale is copyrighted but you are free to use it without permission or charge by all professionals (researchers and practitioners) as long as you give credit to the authors of the scale:

Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi. D., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2009). New measures of well-being: Flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research, 39,* 247-266.

About SPANE

The SPANE is a 12-item questionnaire includes six items to assess positive feelings and six items to assess negative feelings. For both the positive and negative items, three of the items are general (e.g., positive, negative) and three per subscale are more specific (e.g., joyful, sad).

SPANE & Scoring (.pdf)

Appendix M

Permission to use MBI

Maslach Burnout Inventory™ (MBI)

Remote Online Survey License

Purchase MBI Remote Online Survey License if you plan to administer the MBI as an online survey via a non-Mind Garden survey system. You will be required to agree to **Mind Garden's Online Use Policy** by completing the Remote Online Use Application Form that you will receive with your license purchase. Upon Mind Garden's review/approval of your Remote Online Use Application, you will be provided permission to administer the MBI. You re-type, re-format, administer, and score the MBI via the non-Mind Garden survey system.

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Appendix N

Permission to use Job Stress Scale

Nicole Lunan
Permission to use
To: xpchen@uw.edu

Hello,

I am writing to ask for permission to use the Job Stress Scale by Parker and Decotiis (1983) found in this article
http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.466.1087&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Parker, D. F., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1983). Organizational determinants of job stress. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, *32*(2), 160-177.

Thank you,
-Nicole

Xiao-Ping Chen
RE: Permission to use
To: Nicole Lunan

Yes, go ahead. You don't need permission as long as you cite it. thanks,

Xiao-Ping

See More from Nicole Johnson

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