

T. C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON BİLİM DALI

**AN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS AFFECTING BURNOUT IN THE
WORKPLACE**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

AİDA TUFEK

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DANIŞMAN: Doç. Dr. HANDE SİNEM ERGUN

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

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İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON
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ÖZET

Tükenmişlik sendromu küresel özelliğe sahip bir iş yeri sorunu haline gelmiştir. Çalışanların zihinsel ve fiziksel sağlığı üzerinde bıraktığı olumsuz etkilerden dolayı örgütün tamamında bir performans düşüşü sergilenmektedir. Bu nedenlerden dolayı tükenmişlik sendromu nelerin tetiklediğini ve aksine, oluşmasına karşı hangi faktörlerin etkili olduğunu öğrenmek oldukça önemlidir.

Literatürde tükenmişliği etkileyen faktörler incelenmiştir ve iş ile ilgili, örgütsel ve kişisel faktörler olarak sınıflandırılmıştır. Araştırma modelinde alt faktörü olan yüzeysel davranış, derinlemesine davranış ve doğal davranış ile duygusal emek, algılanan örgütsel destek ve duygusal zekâ faktörleri iş ile ilgili, örgütsel ve kişisel faktörler olarak seçilmiştir. Analizlerde tükenmişlik ve tükenmişliğin genellikle kabul edilen üç alt faktörü olan duygusal tükenme, duyarsızlaşma ve düşük kişisel başarı duygusu ile ilişkileri incelenmiştir. Çalışma verileri, Bosna Hersek'in iki farklı şehirdeki devlet hastanelerinden sağlık çalışanlara anket dağıtmak sureti ile toplanmıştır. Toplam 251 sağlık çalışanından toplanan veriler, SPSS 18 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Analiz sonuçları duygusal emeğin tükenmişliği olumlu bir şekilde etkilediğini işaret ederek algılanan örgütsel desteğin ve duygusal zekânın ise tükenmişliği olumsuz bir şekilde etkilediğini göstermiştir. Örgütsel faktörün açıklayıcılık gücü en yüksekti; bu sonuç yapılan araştırmalardan farklılık göstermemekle birlikte bulgular örgütsel faktörlerin tükenmişliği kişisel faktörlerden daha çok etkilediğini işaret etmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

The burnout syndrome has become a workplace concern with a global character. Its negative consequences on the employee's mental and physical health result with an erosion in the performance of the whole organization. It is therefore of detrimental importance to find out what triggers the development of this syndrome and what makes it less likely to be experienced.

Factors affecting burnout in the literature were discussed and classified into work-related, organizational and personal factors. For the research model the factors of emotional labor and its sub-factors of surface, deep and genuine acting, perceived organizational support, and emotional intelligence were employed as the work-related, organizational and personal factors affecting burnout. Their relation to burnout and its three most commonly accepted dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment was assessed. The sample was drawn from public hospitals in two cities in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The questionnaire was administered to health care employees and 251 usable surveys were gathered. The analyses were conducted by using SPSS 18.

The findings imply that emotional labor affected burnout while positively contributing to it, whereas perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence showed a negative contribution. The explanatory power of the organizational factor was highest in supporting the literature where it is found how organizational factors are more related to burnout than personal ones.

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ABBREVIATIONS

BM	Burnout Measure
CBI	Copenhagen Burnout Inventory
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
OLBI	Oldenburg Burnout Inventory
SPOS	Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

1. INTRODUCTION

In today's dynamic, technologically advanced society, coping with rapid changes and competition has become a hallmark of the fast-paced business environment. Workplaces characterized with enormous amounts of stress have become a preeminent base for the development of burnout as a result of continuous and unmanaged stress. Burnout affects highly motivated people, committed in their varying disciplines and occupations, from the health care sector, education, private and public enterprises, and non-governmental organizations to business managers and other.

Burnout is a specific condition characterized by enduring and overwhelming feelings of exhaustion that develops gradually as the person's creativity and their effectiveness erode into fatigue, skepticism and an inability to function effectively (Freudenberger, 1974). Their commitment fails to produce the results that are expected from them, and this may impose costs both to the organization and to the individual. Therefore, it is of detrimental importance to study this construct and its causes.

As a metaphor for the draining of energy, burnout refers to the diminishing of fire or the extinguishing of a candle (Schaufeli, Leiter and Maslach, 2008). It implies that once a fire was burning it cannot continue to burn unless resources are provided. Burnout occurs as a cumulative process of wearing down reserves, with little recharging of one's energies (Helliwell, 1981). In other words, employees' energy and capacity diminishes over time because of a lack of essentialities at the workplace, and their contributions become vague, without any impact. They accomplish less for the organization and for themselves. There is another metaphorical meaning of burnout stating that somebody could only burn out if he or she was "burning" before, meaning that engagement, enthusiasm and interest in someone's occupation are necessary precursor of burnout (Korunka, Tement, Zdrehus and Borza, 2005).

Stanley (2001) implies that there is a human need to derive meaning from work, and this is an ancient desire going back to the times when skilled crafts were looked upon with pride.

Burnout is not only about stress, about long working hours, work overload and decision making. It is about the exhaustion of human will due to unrealized hopes and aspirations at their workplace. Given that people in nowadays society spend the most of their time at work, it's become a natural concern to wonder what the reasons for experiencing burnout are. What causes burnout, and on the contrary, what makes burnout less likely to be experienced? These questions assisted for the identification of the purpose of this study. It is therefore decided to analyze the factors affecting burnout in the workplace.

Burnout strikes people of all ages, however men and women with a sense of purpose, high standards and high expectations in every single component of their life are at the forefront. The reason for choosing this topic is because organizations and the individuals of the new era are concerned with the prevalence and severity of this construct and its potential consequences on the mental, physical health of individuals, as well as on the overall success of the organizations, because despite all the available technologies, human skills and human labor are irreplaceable assets. The consequences of burnout such as reduced organizational efficacy, absenteeism and high turnover, low job involvement and job satisfaction highlight the importance of studying this construct.

1.1 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

At first glance, the following study thoroughly investigates the academic literature about burnout and the factors which have been found to be related to this concept. An important contribution is that the majority of factors in the literature is presented and classified into organizational, work-related and personal factors. This classification provides a broad overview of the research about burnout till nowadays. Moreover, the study's main distinction in relation to available research is that it incorporates all three aforementioned factor types and investigates their effect on burnout, what makes it one of the first burnout studies of this kind.

An additional contribution is that the study is conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The available literature did not reveal any comparable academic study from this country; therefore the current study will be one of the first of its kind within this cultural context, while adding knowledge to the global literature about burnout as well as to Bosnia Herzegovinian academic literature particularly. Bosnia Herzegovina is a country considered as the 'heart of Europe' due to its strategic position and natural resources. However, the economic situation deteriorated after the past war so that prosperity and integration into the European Union is hard to achieve making this country lack behind its well developed neighbors. It is therefore of particular interest to study how employees perceive burnout within this context. Being a Bosnia Herzegovinian I find this study to be of great necessity for Bosnia and Herzegovina. Lastly, the study contributes to the existing knowledge in enabling cross-cultural comparison of the factors affecting burnout.

1.2 ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

The organization of the study starts with the literature on burnout. The literature review is based on available academic studies up to date. Afterwards, the antecedents of burnout are discussed in detail within the same chapter while being classified into organizational, work-related and personal antecedents. Their relation to burnout is discussed in detail based on

existing empirical studies. At the end of the chapter, the theoretical research model of the study is presented, which is based on the literature discussed in the previous section. Within the fourth chapter the research design and methodology of the study is presented where research questions, hypotheses, sample, survey instruments and data analysis methods are highlighted. The research findings are examined and hypotheses are tested along the fifth chapter. In the sixth chapter, the findings, limitations, and recommendations for future research are discussed. Lastly, the dissertation is finalized with the conclusions inferred from the study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT OF BURNOUT

The concept of burnout was first expressed by Herbert J. Freudenberger, Christina Maslach and Ayala Pines in the early 1970's (Farber, 1983 as cited in Scott, 2002). Although the term "staff burnout" was first mentioned by Bradley (1969) in an article, Herbert Freudenberger (1974) is generally considered to be its founder since his influential paper on staff burn-out set the stage for the introduction of the concept (Schaufeli and Buunk, 2003). Freudenberger's (1974) description of burnout depicted idealistic young men and women who were sacrificing their own health in the process of meeting high standards and ideals while not being properly rewarded. Despite their enthusiasm and devoted energy to achieve common welfare they often failed to make a difference.

At the same time, Maslach and her colleagues came across the term while interviewing a variety of human services workers. Maslach noticed that these workers often felt emotionally exhausted, developed negative perceptions and feelings about their clients or patients, and experienced crises in professional competence as a result of the emotional distress (Maslach, 1976). Workers referred to this syndrome as "burnout". In a thorough process of interviews, observation, and psychometric development, Maslach and her colleagues developed a method for assessing burnout as a multidimensional construct that did not only base on mere exhaustion (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Schaufeli, Leiter and Maslach, 2008).

Burnout first emerged as a social problem, not as a scholarly construct. Thus, the initial conception of burnout was shaped by pragmatic rather than academic concerns (Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993). The simultaneous discovery of burnout by the clinician Freudenberger and by the researcher Maslach marks the beginning of two different traditions that approach burnout from a practical and from a scientific point of view.

In the initial phase of the conceptual development of burnout, the focus was on clinical descriptions of burnout, mainly on the assessment, prevention and treatment. Later on, there was a second, empirical phase, in which the emphasis shifted to systematic research on burnout and to the assessment of this phenomenon in particular. Throughout these two phases there has been increasing theoretical development in which the concern has been to integrate the evolving notion of burnout with other conceptual frameworks (Maslach and Schaufeli, 1993). Both traditions have developed relatively independent from each other; initially in the so-called pioneering phase the clinical approach prevailed, while in the empirical phase the accent shifted towards a more scientific approach (Schaufeli and Buunk, 2003).

According to Schaufeli et al. (2008), burnout has attracted the attention of researchers, practitioners and the general public almost everywhere around the globe since it evolved. Despite methodological problems, quantitative studies suggest that burnout is not exclusively a North American or Western phenomenon. After its initial emergence in the USA in the 1970s, the concept was introduced in the 1980s in Western Europe, mainly in the UK, then in Holland, Belgium, Germany, the Nordic countries, and in Israel. From the mid 1990s onwards burnout was also studied in the rest of Western and Eastern Europe, Asia, the Middle East, Latin America, Australia, and New Zealand. Since the turn of the century research on burnout spread to Africa, China, and to the Indian subcontinent. Maslach et al. (2008) highlights the interesting notion of the order in which the interest in burnout spread around the globe corresponding to the economic development of the countries involved.

2.2 DEFINITION OF BURNOUT

The concept of burnout was firstly examined in the context of human services, such as health care, social work, and teaching. One of the most prominent definitions of burnout is “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that

can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (Maslach, Jackson and Leiter, 1996, p. 4).

By the late 1980s, researchers and practitioners agreed that stressors leading to burnout in human services can also be found in other occupations (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001). Thus, the concept was extended from the intense requirements of client or patient service to other work requiring creativity, problem solving and mentoring (Korunka et al., 2005). In the general form attributing to occupations such as business managers, blue and white collar workers, sales people, accountants and other burnout was defined as “a state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one’s occupation and doubtful of one’s capacity to perform” (Maslach, Jackson and Leiter, 1996, p. 20).

Pines and Aronson (1981) stated that burnout is characterized by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain and development of negative self concept and negative attitude towards work, life and other people. Burnout, however, is specific to work context (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

As proposed by Cherniss (1980, p. 40) “Burnout is a process that begins with excessive and prolonged levels of job tension. This stress produces strain in the worker (feelings of tension, irritability and fatigue). The process is completed when the workers defensively cope with the job stress by psychologically detaching themselves from the job and becoming apathetic, cynical, and rigid” (as cited in Maslach and Schaufelli, 2003).

Eldewich and Brodsky (1980) defined burnout “as a progressive loss of idealism, energy, purpose, and concern as a result of conditions of work ” (as cited in Gold, 2001, p.271). According to Mattingly (1977), burnout is a subtle pattern of symptoms, behaviors, and attitudes that are unique for each person and it can be defined as a function of the many stresses felt by an individual that are both socially and work related (as cited in Gold, 2001).

Freudenberger and Riechelson (1980, p. 13) discussed burnout as a “state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward”. It is the result of chronic stress at the workplace which has not been

successfully dealt with (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). Still, burnout may be a greater problem in occupations where employees are more in interaction with other people, clients or customers rather than dealing with things and information (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

As a clinical or medical condition, burnout may be labeled as work-related neurasthenia which is described in the International Classification of Diseases ICD-101 as a burnout state of total exhaustion (Jaekel-Reinhard and Weber, 2000).

Burnout is also defined as a mental adjustment disorder as described in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders DSM-IV 2 (Schaufeli and Enzman, 1998). Mental adjustment disorders are characterized by the development of clinically significant emotional or behavioral symptoms in response to an identifiable psychosocial stressor or stressors.

One of the most radical definitions about the general nature of burnout is provided by Maslach and Leiter (1997): “Burnout is the index of the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do. It represents erosion in value, dignity, spirit, and will, an erosion of the human soul. It is a malady that spreads gradually and continuously over time, putting people into a downward spiral from which it’s hard to recover.” (as cited in Korunka et al., 2005, p.7)

Finally, a less well known but more precise definition of burnout is proposed by Brill (1984, p. 15): “Burnout is an exceptionally mediated, job- related, dysphoric and dysfunctional state in an individual without major psychopathology, who has (1) functioned for a time at adequate performance and affective levels in the same job situation and (2) who will not recover to previous levels without outside help or environmental rearrangement”.

To summarize, although definitions of burnout differ in scope, precision and dimensionality of the syndrome, they seem to share five common elements according to Schaufeli and Buunk (2003, p. 386) : 1) dysphoric symptoms, and most notably emotional exhaustion, are predominant; 2) the accent is on mental and behavioral symptoms, although atypical physical symptoms are sometimes mentioned as well; 3) burnout is generally considered to be work-related; 4) symptoms are observed in “normal” individuals; and 5) decreased effectiveness and poor work performance occur because of negative attitudes and behaviors.

2.3 DIMENSIONS OF BURNOUT

The measurement of burnout has been a controversial issue since its introduction in 1974 by Herbert Freudenberger. Scott (2002) indicates that during the first years after the term burnout was coined researchers were trapped in a vicious circle. The significance of the first few papers on the subject, by Freudenberger and Maslach, was that they provided an initial description of the burnout phenomenon, and showed that it could be a relatively common occurrence in human services work (Cox, Tisserand and Taris, 2005).

Burnout was not properly defined and therefore its measurement could not be assured. Scott (2002) points out that it is due to the absence of an adequate measurement instrument that the phenomenon could not be properly empirically described. This vicious circle was broken down by the increasing acceptance of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). Within a few years the MBI became the most popular instrument for the measurement of burnout. Cox, Tisserand and Taris (2005) underline that since then the concept and its study had been established in many areas and this measurement tool then came to dominate the expanding research of burnout.

The MBI defines burnout as a three-dimensional syndrome characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. It is important to note that these three dimensions were not theoretically deduced before the test construction of the MBI by Maslach and Schaufeli (1993). Therefore, the dimensions were labeled after factor analysis of empirical data from human services samples, and Schaufeli and Dierendonck (1993) highlight that an inductive rather than a deductive approach was employed.

Over the years there has been much debate as to what burnout actually is, and how it might be best measured. Central questions employ the dimensionality of the burnout concept, namely does it comprise one, two or three dimensions. Besides, the instrument was primarily tested within the human services professions. Thus, Demerouti and Bakker (2007) propose that

while studying burnout outside the human services, either the MBI should be adapted or an entirely new instrument needs to be developed.

Many researchers questioned whether it is necessary to use all of the three MBI components. Cox, Tisserand and Taris (2005) claim that some have omitted personal accomplishment, and retained emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while most agree that emotional exhaustion is the core component of burnout.

Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck (1993) imply that the factorial validity of the MBI is not only questioned on empirical grounds but also on a conceptual level since doubts have arisen in relation to the three-dimensional structure of burnout. Shirom (1989) for instance proposed a core definition of burnout in which only exhaustion plays a prominent role. To Shirom, the other burnout components are confounded with antecedent coping behaviors, namely depersonalization and with the consequences of burnout, which is reduced personal accomplishment. Similarly, Koeske and Koeske (1989) consider exhaustion as the essence of burnout, and regard depersonalization and accomplishment as different, although theoretically related variables.

Other researchers remained loyal to the original proposal, while some of them asked for an expansion or reframing of the three burnout components. According to Cox, Tisserand and Taris (2005), these various approaches led to the development of new measurement instruments.

The second most widely used burnout self-report questionnaire is the Burnout Measure (BM) developed by Pines and Aronson (1988). Three types of exhaustion are distinguished based on the authors' definition of burnout as a "state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long-term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding" (Pines and Aronson, 1988, as cited in Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck, 1993, p. 633).

However, the BM is conceived as a one-dimensional questionnaire of burnout. Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck (1993) claim that in contrast to the MBI, the BM is also appropriate to measure burnout outside the human services professions, but to date confirmatory factor-analytic studies of the BM are lacking.

Another instrument that assesses burnout is the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI) developed by Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, and Christensen (2005) which is designed to overcome problems arisen in relation to the MBI. Kristensen et al. (2005) argue that burnout primarily consists of fatigue/exhaustion, and that the depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment dimensions of the MBI are not part of the burnout concept. They investigate whether burnout only occurs in the human service professions and in relation to work, and they also provide separate scales for assessing personal burnout, work-related burnout, and client-related burnout to broaden the concept and observe its occurrence along different aspects.

A recently developed alternative to the MBI is the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI). The instrument measures two dimensions, namely exhaustion and disengagement. To Cox, Tisserand and Taris (2005), disengagement is the counterpart of depersonalization in the MBI. "Exhaustion is defined as a consequence of intense physical, affective and cognitive strain, i.e. as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands. Disengagement in the OLBI refers to distancing oneself from one's work in general, work object and work content." (Demerouti and Bakker, 2007 p. 4) In their conceptualization, depersonalization is only one form of disengagement.

The OLBI addresses criticism directed at the MBI which is the negative phrasing of the items by using both positive and negative wording. Cox, Tisserand and Taris (2005) also propose that it aims to capture a broader conceptualization of burnout by measuring both the cognitive and physical components of exhaustion.

However, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is the most widely used research instrument in the measurement of burnout. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) point out that the MBI has been used in over 90% of empirical research. The MBI is a short, easy to administer paper and pencil inventory, and it presents burnout as a syndrome with three factors or dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Scott, 2002).

Hons (2003) implies that the dimensions of burnout are conceptualized differently, depending on the nature of the job. In the human services professions and education three dimensions of burnout are defined: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. With the introduction of the MBI-General Survey by Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach and Jackson (1996) the instrument was extended to the measurement of burnout in other occupations (Cox, Tisserand and Taris, 2005).

In order to be able to apply the definition of burnout across all kinds of occupations, Maslach et al. (1996) redefined and standardized the concept on three dimensions: “exhaustion”, “cynicism”, and “inefficiency”. “Exhaustion”, operating at the emotional level, refers to the feeling of not being able to give any more of oneself to work. “Cynicism” is shown in distancing behaviours towards work, customers, and co-workers, and “inefficiency” refers to one’s feelings of inadequacy and incompetence when performing tasks at work. These three dimensions parallel the initial conceptualization of the dimensions of MBI. Nowadays, three versions of the MBI are in use, namely the MBI-GS (General Survey), MBI-ED (Educators) and MBI-HSS (Human Services Survey).

Although burnout syndrome seems to be prevalent in human services professions, it has been observed in other types of occupations as well. Nowadays, the popular conception of burnout is the MBI. Besides, Enzman, Schaufeli, Janssen, and Rozeman (1998) emphasize that this three-dimensional conception of burnout has proved most effective for analytical purposes. The conceptualization of the dimensions of burnout based on the initial MBI will therefore be discussed in detail in the following part, and will be used as the main definition of burnout throughout the dissertation.

2.3.1 Emotional Exhaustion Dimension

A key aspect of the burnout syndrome is increased feelings of emotional exhaustion according to Maslach and Jackson (1981). To Cordes and Dougherty (1993), emotional exhaustion is characterized by a lack of energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are

used up. It refers to feelings of being overextended emotionally, and drained by contact with people as stated by Lee and Ashforth (1990).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) claim that this state of fatigue may coexist with feelings of frustration and tension as workers realize they cannot continue to give of themselves or be as responsible for clients as they have been in the past. As their emotional resources are depleted, workers feel they are no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). They feel drained and lack the mental or physical energy to get on with whatever they need to do (Maslach, 2005). Maslach and Jackson (1986) believe that it prevents workers from engaging in their work at an emotional level due to their perceived lack of energy.

Lee and Ashforth (1990) point out that emotional exhaustion is the prototype of stress. It can be considered the core symptom of burnout according to Shirom (1989). As such, it is seen as the burnout component which is most responsive to the stressors in the work environment (Greenglass, Burke, and Konarski, 1998). Many researchers agree that emotional exhaustion is the first stage of the burnout process. Additionally, Korunka et al. (2005) propose that it occurs as a result of workers' own emotional demands.

2.3.2 Depersonalization Dimension

Maslach and Jackson (1981) have found three inter-related dimensions comprising the burnout syndrome. The first is labeled as exhaustion. Maslach (2005) points out that if exhaustion were the only symptom observed, there would be no reason to coin the term burnout with another name than exhaustion. Accordingly, burnout consists of another dimension labeled as 'depersonalization' in human services professions and 'cynicism' across other types of occupations.

Depersonalization refers to the development of negative feelings and behavior towards other people, and often involves blaming others for one's own problems according to Maslach and Jackson (1986). It is described as individuals who tend to distance self from others and who see people as things or objects (Scott, 2002).

Maslach and Jackson (1981) describe the aspect of depersonalization in referring it to the development of negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about one's clients or recipient. Such negative reactions to clients may be linked to the experience of emotional exhaustion, making these two aspects of burnout appear to be related.

Workers may display emotional indifference, and they become cynical towards clients/recipients, co-workers, and the organization. In describing depersonalization Maslach (2005) highlights that it often begins as a response to the work overload leading to exhaustion, so people start doing less and begin to think very negatively about the workplace and their colleagues. Accordingly, people may develop a strong negative, hostile, cynical, and dehumanized response towards their job, colleagues and the workplace in general. To Maslach, this has important implications for the quality of work performed since workers become less productive, and stop giving the best of them on their work, so that both the organization and the individual suffer.

2.3.3 Reduced Personal Accomplishment Dimension

A third aspect of the burnout syndrome according to Maslach and Jackson (1981), is the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to one's work with clients or recipients. Workers feel unhappy and dissatisfied with their accomplishments on the job.

Greenglass, Burke, and Konarski (1998) propose that reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and achievement at work. Maslach and Jackson (1986) again emphasize it as a tendency to assess one's own ability negatively resulting with feelings of dissatisfaction.

Maslach (2005) labels this third dimension of burnout as a 'negative self-evaluation', reflecting a decline in people's sense of their own professional effectiveness. People develop a negative sense of who they are and what they do rather than criticizing their co-workers and organization, and they don't like the person they have become.

To Leiter (1993), the lack of personal accomplishment may be a response to the gap between the realistic situation and the earlier high expectations about one's work (as cited in Greenglass, Burke, and Konarski, 1998). Additionally, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) imply that the perception of a lack of progress is frequent. This is surely due to the evolving belief that one can no longer work effectively with clients, recipients and co-workers. Lastly, an interesting notion is made by Koeske and Koeske (1989) in that reduced personal accomplishment may be considered a coping resource that allows an individual to deal with exhaustion.

2.4 THE PROCESS OF BURNOUT

In this section of the literature review, common approaches related to the burnout process are examined. Researchers agree that burnout is generally seen as a process that develops over time. In fact, the research conducted by Taris, Le Blanc, Schaufeli and Schreurs (2005) infers that burnout can be conceptualized as a developmental process. It is therefore clear that burnout does not occur overnight. To Hellesoy, Gronhaug and Kvitastein (2000) the extreme degree of burnout can be seen as the final stage of a process, often having developed over a considerable length of time. What is of interest to researchers is the relationship between the burnout dimensions that as a result of a causal process reflect the development of burnout. For instance, Houkes Winants, Twellaar and Verdonk (2011) believe that it is assumed that three burnout dimensions do not develop simultaneously, and that the knowledge about the causal order of the three burnout dimensions can be helpful for the early recognition of burnout.

Discussing burnout as a process is not a new feature in the burnout literature; however most of the proposed models differ as to the stage order in which burnout evolves. As pointed out by Burisch (2006), there is little agreement on how burnout develops and which stages are included (as cited in Korunka et al., 2005, p. 9). However, common ground is achieved as to the agreement that burnout follows a process of stages. Most of the process models focus on the MBI conceptualization of the burnout syndrome in discussing the sequencing of the three dimensions

(emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment) in which the burnout syndrome develops. Three models exist in theory that are most prominent for the causal development of burnout, namely: Golembiewski, Munzenrider, and Stevenson's (1986) phase model, Leiter and Maslach's (1988) process model, and Lee and Ashforth's (1993) model. Bussing and Glaser, 2000 state that these process models have commonalities in assuming that there are phases of burnout and that one can find a sequential order of development among its components. The process models of burnout are discussed as follows:

2.4.1 Leiter and Maslach's Process Model

The model is based on the authors' proposition that burnout occurs in response to chronic job stress. In relation to this proposition Taris et al. (2005) add that chronic and high job demands are assumed to cause emotional exhaustion as an individual stress response.

In the attempt to define the process of burnout Maslach (1982) describes emotional exhaustion as the first stage occurring as a response to chronic work-related stressors that drain the emotional resources of employees (as cited in Lewin and Sager, 2007). Maslach (1982) implies that in response to feeling emotionally exhausted, and perhaps as a coping strategy, individuals depersonalize their relationships with others and distance themselves psychologically. Once depersonalization occurs, individuals begin to recognize a discrepancy between their current attitude and original expectations about their potential contributions to clients, society, and organization (as cited in Cordes and Dougherty, 1993).

As a result Maslach (1982) concludes that individuals experience a sense of inadequacy, resulting in lower self-evaluations of personal accomplishment. Accordingly, Maslach models emotional exhaustion as antecedent to depersonalization, and depersonalization as antecedent to reduced personal accomplishment (as cited in Lewin and Sager, 2007). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) claim that this sequence is based on findings from initial interviews, surveys, and observations. According to the process model, emotional exhaustion will only lead to feelings of

reduced personal accomplishment through depersonalization, as the mediating variable (as cited in Lewin and Sager, 2007)

Leiter and Maslach (1988) argued that high levels of emotional exhaustion would lead to high levels of depersonalization, and in turn leading to low levels of personal accomplishment. Taris et al. (2005, p. 247) represented the sequencing of the burnout components in the process model is as follows:

+Emotional Exhaustion → + Depersonalization → - Personal Accomplishment

2.4.2 Golembiewski, Munzenrider and Stevenson's Phase Model

An alternative conceptualization of the burnout process is expressed by Golembiewski and his colleagues in the “phase model” (Golembiewski, Munzenrider, and Stevenson, 1986). The model splits the MBI dimensions into low and high levels. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) explain that by crossing these three dimensions, eight phases of burnout emerge. They further describe that by using the median to divide each subscale into high and low groups eight phases are generated. This is based on a rule of sequential potencies in that the effect of each component is hypothesized to depend upon its place in the sequence. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) conclude that “Each phase is characterized by some combination of either high or low emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment, and it correspond to a higher total burnout level or score than the preceding phase” (p. 624).

Golembiewski et al. (1986) propose that workers may pass through several ‘flight paths’ (i.e. sequences of phases) while becoming burnt out (as cited in Taris et al., 2005. p. 240). Taris underlines Golembieski's notion that the main path that is representative of this model starts with high levels of depersonalization in attempts to cope with the stresses of the job. More importantly, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) add that Golembiewski et al. (1986) hypothesized that depersonalization is a necessary prerequisite to reduce feelings of personal accomplishment, and

accordingly significant reductions in feelings of personal accomplishment are necessary to result in high levels of emotional exhaustion.

Taris et al. (2005) interestingly note that Golembiewski et al. (1986) distinguished between chronic and acute burnout, where chronic burnout is likely to be caused by factors in the work setting, whereas acute burnout may result due to some form of personal trauma. The 'flight path' refers to the development of chronic or work-related burnout where depersonalization occurs first, leading to a reduced sense of personal accomplishment, and as a final stage emotional exhaustion occurs in response to the increase in depersonalization and decrease in personal accomplishment.

Out of these two reviewed models of the burnout process it can be inferred that while Golembiewski et al. (1986) claims that depersonalization is experienced first and triggers emotional exhaustion, Leiter and Maslach (1988) stand for the opposite sequencing of the burnout components. Bussing and Glaser (2000) argue that the fundamental difference between the models is with respect to the sequential position of these two burnout components, depicted as follows: depersonalization→emotional exhaustion in Golembiewski et al. (1986), and emotional exhaustion→depersonalization in Leiter and Maslach (1988).

To conclude, Golembiewski et al. (1986) conceptualizes the burnout process as starting with elevated levels of depersonalization, leading to decreases in feelings of personal accomplishment and in turn, low levels of personal accomplishment lead to high levels of emotional exhaustion (Taris et al., 2005, p. 247). The sequencing of the burnout components is represented as follows:

+ Depersonalization→ - Personal Accomplishment→+ Emotional Exhaustion

2.4.3 Lee and Ashforth's Model

The final model presented is a variation on the previously described models of the burnout process developed by Lee and Ashforth (1993). It sets out an attempt to compare the models of Leiter and Maslach (1988) and Golembiewski et al. (1986). A short summary by Houkes et al. (2011) highlights that the model considers depersonalization to develop from emotional exhaustion, just as in the case of Leiter and Maslach's model (1988). Lee and Ashforth (1993) additionally propose that reduced personal accomplishment develops independently from depersonalization. Reduced personal accomplishment is directly evoked by emotional exhaustion.

Taris et al. (2005) point out that the exploratory analysis conducted by Lee and Ashforth resulted in a variation on the Leiter and Maslach model in which emotional exhaustion was positively related to depersonalization. These findings parallel the propositions of the Golembiewski et al., and Leiter and Maslach's model. However, in the case where personal accomplishment developed independently from depersonalization it is proposed that elevated levels of emotional exhaustion directly evoked decreases in personal accomplishment rather than indirectly through depersonalization (as cited in Taris et al., 2005).

Compared to the Leiter and Maslach model, the Lee and Ashforth model replaces the effect of depersonalization on personal accomplishment with a direct effect of emotional exhaustion on personal accomplishment (Taris et al., 2005, p. 247). The sequencing of the burnout components of this model is represented as follows:

+ Emotional Exhaustion → + Depersonalization → , and

+ Emotional Exhaustion → - Personal Accomplishment

After reviewing the most prominent models of the burnout process some final remarks are made that highlight the background of the research on this topic. To Taris et al. (2005), the Leiter

and Maslach, 1988 and Lee and Ashforth, 1993 approaches are similar in proposing that burnout starts with emotional exhaustion and ends with reduced personal accomplishment. On the contrary Golembiewski et al. (1986) argue that depersonalization marks the beginning of burnout and that emotional exhaustion reflects its completion.

In reflecting on Leiter and Maslach's (1988) sequential explanation of the process Hellesoy, Gronhaug, and Kvitastein (2000) mention that empirical studies have been conducted but the research findings are inconclusive. All three models have repeatedly been tested in previous research, frequently leading to the conclusion that one of these models fitted the data best and should therefore be accepted as reflecting the causal process that generated the associations among the three MBI dimensions, as claimed by Taris et al. (2005). The literature review conducted by Taris et al. (2005) identified major problems with these researches. For instance, previous research employed cross-sectional designs, meaning that causal claims are groundless, and the studies that did employ longitudinal designs failed to provide any longitudinal evidence for the causal models tested. Taris et al., also mention that often only one particular model was tested, so that a comparison with competing models was impossible in these cases. In addition it is interesting to note that only a short list of studies compared the process models of burnout developed by Golembiewski et al., and Leiter and Maslach directly (Cordes, and Dougherty, 1993; Cordes, Dougherty, and Blum, 1997; Lee, and Ashforth, 1999, as cited in Bussing and Glaser, 2000, p. 330). These results give some support to Leiter and Maslach's model.

As seen, there is no consensus about the process of burnout. Taris et al. (2005) conclude that previous research failed to provide convincing evidence for any of the three models for the development of burnout. Lastly, Tanner, Kalimo and Mutanen (2002) underline that the suggested models share a basic assumption of sequentiality, however additional knowledge about the process of burnout is necessary since it would help in the recognition of people in different phases of the process of burning out, and thus making it possible to intervene before burnout becomes severe.

2.5 ANTECEDENTS OF BURNOUT

The following section of the literature review highlights the most prominent antecedents to the burnout construct as discussed by a variety of authors gaining support for their propositions. After observing the intense literature on the antecedents of burnout, some commonalities have been found. While keeping in mind the important notion put forward by Maslach (2001) that burnout is a work-related aspect, researchers have mostly focused on the work-related attitudes, and work-related characteristics as antecedents of the burnout syndrome, however, personal characteristics have also gained valuable concern in relation to the development of burnout, although researchers agree that their effect is less important in comparison to the effects of work-related and organizational characteristics. This draws on the conclusion made by Maslach (1995) that it is empirically established that work-related and organizational factors are more strongly related to burnout than personal factors (as cited in Friedman, 2003).

In discussing the antecedents of burnout researchers often reflect on the intense work delivered by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) in their review and integration of research on job burnout, not to mention a few (Lewin and Sager, 2007; Lizano and Barack, 2012; Cordes, Dougherty and Blum, 1997; Zimmerman and Swider, 2010). Therefore, the classification of the antecedents as proposed by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) will be used as a base and orientation throughout this section while referring on to other author's propositions, suggestions and research findings in enlarging this aspect of the burnout literature. Here, it is important to note that the job demand-resources model developed by Demerouti et al. (2001) has also important implications in describing the antecedents to burnout, mainly because certain job resources are seen as coping mechanisms in the reduction or avoidance of burnout, while certain job demands are seen as triggers of burnout. The model will therefore be referred on as well. The classification of antecedents to work-related, organizational and personal antecedents is discussed as follows:

2.5.1 Work-related Antecedents

Keeping in mind that the burnout syndrome initially evolved through tests within the human-services professions, with a focus on the employee-recipient relationship, and was further examined over other occupations as to the employee-client relationship, these relationships may be found as the starting and the most profound antecedents to burnout.

2.5.1.1 Interpersonal Relations

The interpersonal approaches in the burnout literature focus on the demanding interpersonal relationships between the service provider and the client, while assuming that the strains due to this mostly asymmetric relationships result in a depletion of the emotional resources (Bussing and Glaser, 2000). To Cordes and Dougherty (1993), the “client interactions that are more direct, frequent, or of longer duration, or client problems that are chronic (versus acute) are associated with higher levels of burnout” (p. 628).

Burnout is believed to be frequently and intensely experienced because of the high level of aggravation due to direct, frequent, and intense interactions with clients, what is the reason why research has focused on the role of the client and the employee's caseload as contributing to burnout (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). A distinction into qualitative and quantitative dimensions is made in relation to employee's caseload. The quantitative dimensions presented by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) are frequency of contact, duration of contact, number of interactions, and percent of time spent with clients. The most commonly investigated dimensions are number of interactions and amount of time spent with clients, in that as the number of clients increases, the demands on the employee's resources increase, and if they become continuous the employee may become susceptible to burnout (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). Kozak, Kersten, Schillmoller and Nienhaus (2012) cite a number of studies that indicate that there is a consistent association with burnout, mainly with a strong emphasis on the dimension of emotional exhaustion. However, it is worth mentioning that Cordes, Dougherty and Blum (1997) and Morris and Feldman (1996) found that the frequency of interactions was not a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion. Additionally, Brotheridge, and Grandey (2002) found that frequency, intensity, variety and

duration of interactions, as representing interpersonal demands were not significantly related to either emotional exhaustion or depersonalization. In fact they were positively related to personal accomplishment. These results deserve further attention and additional knowledge may be required.

Turning on to the qualitative dimensions of client caseload it can be stated that this type of interpersonal relation involves interpersonal distance and client characteristics, both of them representing a sort of psychological/interpersonal intensity of contacts with clients as put forward by Cordes and Dougherty (1993). Intense or emotionally charged interactions, the ones that are face-to-face and last longer, as well as a high number of interactions will probably be more demanding and result in higher levels of emotional exhaustion, while less emotional exhaustion should be experienced by individuals who deal with more routine client issues, and those who have little face-to-face contact with people (Maslach, 1978; 1982 as cited in Cordes, Dougherty and Blum, 1997, p. 688) However, the interpersonal contact discussed here is not only restricted to clients/recipients but is also common in relationships with co-workers, and supervisors.

A study by Leiter and Maslach (1988) investigated different types of interpersonal contact and their effects. They studied contacts with co-workers and supervisor, and classified them into pleasant and unpleasant co-worker and supervisor contacts. Unpleasant supervisor contact was positively related to emotional exhaustion, while pleasant supervisor contact was negatively related to depersonalization. Pleasant co-worker contact on the other hand was positively related to personal accomplishment. In addition to this example, it is worth mentioning that Kain and Jex (2010) suggest that having a high amount of resources that help to make demands more predictable and more understandable, such as information and feedback from colleagues and supervisors, while having control over them reduces the effect of these qualitative demands on job burnout.

2.5.1.2 Emotional Labor

The variable of emotional labor is by theoretical definition and implication closely linked to the interpersonal relations antecedents of burnout. In response to the call for more research on

interpersonal factors and their effects on stress (Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore, 2007), and burnout, which is brought on by prolonged stress (Maslach and Leiter, 2008) the variable of emotional labor received weighty attention in the literature. Its relation to burnout has been discussed, however little empirical support exists in explaining its effect on burnout and its dimensions.

Emotional labor involves the expression of socially desirable emotions in interpersonal interactions (Ashfort and Humphrey, 1993). To Brotheridge and Lee (2003), 'employees perform emotional labor when they regulate their emotional display in an attempt to meet organizationally-based expectations specific to their roles' (p. 365), whereas Dieffendorf et al. (2005) highlights that organizations specify these display rules that serve as standards for the appropriate expression of emotions. Hochschild (1983) identified two main strategies by which individuals regulate their emotions in response to organizationally desired emotional behavior. The first strategy, named as 'surface acting' is used when workers express required emotions without actually feeling them by hiding their real feelings and displaying 'fake' emotions (Brotheridge, 2006, p. 139). The second strategy, 'deep acting' is when workers also express the emotions required by the organization but they try to feel them, so that they focus on bringing their external emotional display and internal feelings into alignment (Brotheridge, 2006). Another strategy that has also gained recognition is 'genuine acting' and it refers to spontaneously and genuinely experiencing, feeling, and displaying socially desired emotions (Zhang and Zu, 2008).

Few studies investigated the relationship between emotional labor and burnout, and the effects on burnout components. For example, Brotheridge and Lee (2003) found that surface acting was significantly associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in their study conducted among Canadian university students. Surface acting was negatively and deep acting was positively associated with the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) condemned that while surface acting is associated with increased emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, deep acting tends to generate feelings of personal accomplishment. In their study on Canadian employees Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) replicated Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) findings. Surface acting was again

positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and deep acting to personal accomplishment. Only personal accomplishment related negatively to surface acting. Likewise, Noor and Zainuddin (2011) found a significant, positive effect of surface acting on the two burnout dimensions in their study on Malaysian female teachers. Deep acting related to depersonalization, but the effect was not significant, and personal accomplishment was not included in the model.

Studies measuring only the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout found that it was positively influenced by surface acting, while this was not the case for deep acting. To exemplify, Grandey (2003) studied the effects of surface acting and deep acting on the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout in a study conducted among administrative assistants and found that employees who are frequently engaged in surface acting experience emotional exhaustion, while this does not hold true for deep acting. Dobson, Choi, Schnall, Israel, and Baker (2010) arrived at the same conclusion in their study on firefighters in the USA. Their results revealed how surface acting has a positive effect on emotional exhaustion, while the effect of deep acting was not significant. Likewise, Lazanyi (2010) also found that surface acting positively relates to emotional exhaustion in Hungarian health care practitioners.

Zhang and Zu (2008) studied the effect of surface, deep and genuine acting on the three burnout components among Chinese teachers. As they expected, surface acting had harmful effects on teacher burnout, while deep and genuine acting mitigated these negative effects and reduced burnout. Surface acting was related positively to the three dimensions of burnout, but deep and genuine acting related negatively to the dimensions of burnout. Zhang and Zu's (2008) findings corroborate the notion that emotional labor can have both positive and negative outcomes (Grandey, 2000; Morris and Feldman, 1996), such that when related to burnout its differing strategies can either increase or reduce levels of burnout. The reason probably comes from the notion that surface acting, as the act of suppressing emotions represents a burden for the individual and causes stress. Lazanyi (2010) states that surface acting causes an individual to feel ingenuine, by impairing one's sense of job satisfaction, hereby possibly leading to emotional dissonance and burnout. On the contrary, deep and genuine acting due to the alignment of

emotions and organizational expectancies help the individual to avoid negative side-effects and hereby reduce emotional dissonance and burnout.

As can be seen out of the discussed findings it seems to be less empirical support for emotional labor's relationship to all of the three burnout dimensions. Hereby, Grandey (2000) proposes that more studies should relate emotional labor to burnout dimensions. Grandey points out that it is expected that emotional labor will have a similarly detrimental relationship with depersonalization and personal accomplishment as was found in relation to emotional exhaustion, because the more employees need to express and suppress emotions at the workplace the more they may choose to depersonalize others. Consequently, the more the employee feels that emotional demands at the workplace require lots of effort and feels detached from customers/recipients/colleagues the more the employee is likely to feel a reduced sense of personal accomplishment. Besides, studies investigating the relationship between genuine acting and the burnout dimensions are also scant and deserve further attention as well.

2.5.1.3 Role Stressors

The following part discusses and exemplifies role stressors as antecedents to burnout. A standard definition of role stressors is the pressure experienced by an individual as a result of organizational and job-specific factors in the form of demands and constraints that have been placed upon him/her (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, and Snoek, 1964 as cited in Idris, 2011). To Kahn et al. (1964) job stress develops from role conflict and role ambiguity resulting out of competing and unclear expectations in the workplace. In addition to this, higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity result in higher levels of job burnout (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Lee and Ashforth, 1996). It is therefore important to study this concept as an antecedent to burnout. Role stressors are mainly grouped into three categories: role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload and are discussed in detail as follows:

2.5.1.3.1 Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Role conflicts occur when there is no adequate information about job performance and when conflicting demands at the job have to be met (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001). To

Hamwi, Rutherford and Boles (2011) role conflict arises when an employee receives two different, conflicting sets of directions from two different authorities in a work setting. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) underline Kahn's (1978) proposition in that role conflict occurs due to discordance in expectations communicated to a role incumbent by the role sender. Drawing on these definitions it is worth mentioning that Kozak et al. (2012) reported many studies where poor role clarity was associated with higher scores in emotional exhaustion. Leiter and Maslach (1988) also found that role conflict was significantly related to emotional exhaustion. Additionally, Jackson, Turner and Brief (1987) found that role conflict was significantly related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization as well.

Referring on to role ambiguity Glissmeyer, Bishop and Fass (2007) define the construct as "the ambiguity on the job that occurs due to lack of clear role expectations, requirements, methods, and information in situational experiences" (p. 459). To broaden the concept Cordes and Dougherty (1993) describe how role ambiguity is associated with employee's need for certainty and predictability, especially regarding one's goals and means of accomplishing them. To add, role ambiguity occurs when an employee is unclear on how to perform and/or behave in their particular job capacity (Rizzo et al. 2005 as cited in Hamwi., et al., 2011., p. 5).

As pointed out by Maslach, et al. (2001) being unable to manage conflicting demands of the job, and not knowing what the exact job responsibilities are can trigger burnout. In regarding role ambiguity as an antecedent to burnout Cordes and Dougherty (1993) cite the work of Brookings et al. (1985) where a significant relationship with all three burnout dimensions was found. They additionally mention Jackson et al.'s (1987) study where role ambiguity was found to be significantly related to personal accomplishment and Schwab and Iwanicki's study where this variable accounted for a significant amount of variance in the emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and the personal accomplishment dimension. Most of the mentioned studies are however conducted within the human services professions.

To conclude, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) point out that although a few studies investigated the effects of role ambiguity and role conflict on burnout, the findings across them are very consistent. Since these role variables are persistent over various occupations they expect

that the relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity and burnout be equivalent in the human services professions, the industrial and the corporate setting as well.

2.5.1.3.2 Role Overload

Role overload is experienced when role demands create a perception that the resources that are available are inadequate to deal with, accordingly resulting in distraction and stress (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, and Snoek, 1964 as cited in Brown, Jones and Leigh, 2005). This role stressor is defined as an individual's perception that there is insufficient time and resources available to accomplish work-related tasks (Maslach, 1982 as cited in Lewis and Sager, 2007, p. 1220).

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) highlight Maslach and Jackson's (1984) notion that burnout is believed to result partially from qualitative and quantitative overload. The distinction between qualitative and quantitative overload was discussed in the previous part in referring as to the employee's quantitative and qualitative caseload. To Cordes, Dougherty and Blum (1997) work overload is an important determinant of emotional exhaustion. They proposed that individuals with insufficient resources at work may expend excessive amount of emotional energy in order to maintain performance standards, and this leads to emotional exhaustion. Accordingly, a positive relationship between role overload and emotional exhaustion was found in their study with human resource professionals. In a study of salespeople Lewis and Sager (2007) also found a positive relationship between role overload and emotional exhaustion. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) conclude that the findings of the effects of role overload on the burnout dimensions are very consistent, however further studies in the industrial and corporate settings are also required in addition to studies assessing the effects on the other two burnout components.

2.5.2 Organizational Antecedents

Given the nature of burnout as a work-related phenomenon that does not only affect the individual, but also negatively influences the whole organization, it is important to study the

organizational features that serve as antecedents to the development of this syndrome, and conversely the ones that act as resources that assist in the reduction or avoidance of burnout. The following part discusses one of the most prominent organizational antecedents of burnout that have been empirically tested and verified. The literature review revealed a satisfactory amount of studies which investigated the effects of organizational antecedents on burnout. Besides, research suggests that organizational antecedents are more strongly related to burnout than personal antecedents (Leiter and Maslach, 1988). Therefore, the description and definition of the reviewed organizational antecedents will be provided accompanied with broader findings from diverse academic and practical backgrounds. Their relation to burnout will be discussed in detail.

2.5.2.1 Contingency of Organizational Outcomes

To Cordes and Dougherty (1993) the extent to which rewards and punishment are linked to performance presents the role of contingency of organizational outcomes. They emphasize two problematic conditions, namely: lack of contingent rewards and the presence of non-contingent punishment. Employees naturally believe that rewards follow recognition for their work by their peers and colleagues and reflect successful performance. As noted by Cordes, Dougherty and Blum (1997) employees expect their organizations to recognize good performance, so that in the absence of contingent rewards or in the presence of non-contingent punishment employees feel that their performance is of insufficient quality, or that their efforts aren't either appreciated or noticed. This aspect is closely linked to unmet expectations at work.

As in the absence of contingent rewards, unmet expectations reflect a state of insufficient performance in relation to employee's initial expectations. Cordes, Dougherty and Blum (1997) describe how employees enter the workplace with certain expectations regarding what the organization will offer to reward for their accomplishments. When these expectations are afterwards compared with the real situation then the size of the discrepancy between them, which represents the unmet expectations can have an impact on the perception of personal accomplishment. They proposed that if employees perceive these discrepancies as failures and attribute them to personal inadequacies, feelings of personal accomplishment will disappear. However, their findings did not result with a significant relationship in relation to personal

accomplishment. Unfortunately, contingency of organizational outcomes also received very little attention in the literature. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) only mention Jackson et al.'s (1986) study where insignificant relationships with burnout were found, therefore further investigation of this variable as a contributor to burnout is required.

2.5.2.2 Organizational Justice

A variable that is closely related to contingencies of organizational outcomes but that received increasing attention in the literature in relation to its effect on burnout is organizational justice. It refers to the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedures, interaction and outcomes to be fair in nature, and these perceptions can influence attitudes and behavior for good or ill, in turn having a positive or negative impact on employee performance and the organization's success (Baldwin, 2006, p.1) Greenberg (1990) notes that theorists distinguished between conceptualizations of justice focusing on the content, in representing the fairness of the ends achieved, and focusing on the process which is the fairness of the means used to achieve the ends. As originally conceptualized by Moorman, organizational justice is a multidimensional construct consisting of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice dimensions where the latter two can be combined and conceptualized as interactional justice (Moorman, 1991, as cited in Al-Zahrani, 2011, p. 628). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes that an individual receives from organization (Al Zu'bi, 2010, p. 103). It refers to the outcomes being distributed proportionally to inputs while procedural justice is the fairness of the decision process leading to a certain outcome (Baldwin, 2006). Lastly, interactional justice refers to the quality of the interpersonal treatment received by employees as part of formal decision making procedures (Baldwin, 2006) and it reflects 'concerns about the fairness of the non-procedurally dictated aspects of interaction' (Al Zu'Bi, 2010, p.3).

While indentifying some mismatches between employees and their job that might lead to burnout Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) emphasized the absence of fairness, in which trust, openness, and respect are not present. This statement surely refers to some aspects of organizational justice. Many authors were inspired by the importance of equity and fairness in the

workplace and started to investigate their relationship and effect on burnout. A variety of research studying the effects of organizational justice on burnout has been globally conducted and some of the findings within these studies are presented as follows:

A commonly cited study conducted by Liljegren and Ekberg (2009) on Swedish employment officers showed a negative association between organizational justice and job burnout. The results confirmed their previous findings in a study on Swedish civil servants (Liljegren and Ekberg, 2008). Focusing on the overall measure and the components of organizational justice Liljegren and Ekberg' (2009) results showed that associations between the three dimensions of perceived organizational justice and burnout were statistically significant where high organizational justice was associated with a low degree of burnout. Calling on these findings a study by Al-Zahrani (2011) on private hospital staff in Saudi Arabia showed that the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) were also negatively associated with burnout. The correlation results showed a significant relationship between organizational justice and burnout, while regression analysis results showed that (30.9%) of variation in job burnout was due to variation in organizational justice, (25.1%) of this variation due to distributive justice, (27.8%) due to procedural, and (26.3%) due to interactional justice (Al-Zahrani, 2011, p. 627). The results are consistent with previous findings and suggest that organizational justice is an important predictor of job burnout. The authors found procedural justice as the strongest predictor, followed by interactional and distributive justice, respectively.

Aghaei, Moshiri and Shahrbanian (2012) agree that the feeling of justice is one of the factors affecting employee burnout. They also found a significant negative association between organizational justice and burnout in their study on sport and youth head office employees in Iran. The findings are consistent with another study on university administrative employees in Iran by Safari, Far and Jannati (2012) who also found that an overall measure of organizational justice has a negative effect on burnout. Hereby, a commonality over findings within the same cultural background is observed. To Aghaei, Moshiri and Shahrbanian (2012), 'the results imply that if employees perceive higher rates of organizational justice their burnout will reduce' (p. 2442). The procedural justice subscale showed significant negative relationship with burnout,

while there was no significant relationship between distributive, interactional justice and burnout which is in this case inconsistent with Liljegren and Ekberg's (2009) findings due to cultural and occupational differences as announced by the authors. However, regression analysis showed that the distributive justice subscale can be considered as a predictor of burnout.

Another study by Lambert, Hogan, Jiang, Elechi, Benjamin, Morris, Laux and Dupuy (2010) on private prison employees in USA found that both distributive and procedural justice had a statistically significant inverse association with burnout. Lambert et al. (2010, p. 12) claim that 'increase in perceptions of fairness of outcomes was associated with decrease in the level of self-reported burnout, and an increase in the perceptions of the fairness of processes for arriving at employee outcomes was associated with a reduction in the level of burnout'. Based on the standardized regression coefficients procedural justice had a larger association with burnout than distributive justice which is consistent with the already discussed findings of Al-Zahrani (2011). Depending on the context and cultural background results may show differences, however organizational justice is commonly seen as one of the main predictors of burnout. For instance, Frenkel, Li and Restubog (2012) found that only low levels in distributive justice lead to emotional exhaustion. They describe the underlying reason for this as the cultural and institutional context in their study on Chinese migrant workers. In addition to this Yeniceri, Demirel and Seckin's (2009) results of the regression analysis showed that both distributional and interactional justice had a negative effect on emotional exhaustion, while procedural justice had a positive effect on emotional exhaustion. This leads us to the conclusion that context does matter, since employees from different cultural and occupational backgrounds perceive organizational justice dimensions differently and dependently pay more or less attention to it, as previously discussed through the results and statements by Aghaei, Moshiri and Shahrbanian (2012).

Studies conducted in Turkey reveal some interesting implications as well. The study by Yeniceri, Demirel and Seckin (2009) on employees from the manufacturing industry showed a negative correlation between the employees' conception of distributional, interactional justice and their emotional exhaustion, and a positive correlation between procedural justice and

emotional exhaustion conversely to Liljegren and Ekber's (2009) findings. Yildirim, Ekinci and Oter (2012) found a negative relationship between distributional, procedural, interactional justice and the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while no significant relationship was observed in relation to reduced personal accomplishment. They also found how only distributive justice had a significant negative effect on emotional exhaustion through regression analyses conducted on a sample of education supervisor assistants. Another study by Sesen (2011) also found a significant relationship between organizational justice and job burnout in teachers of a technical high school. Distributive and interactional justice showed a negative effect on burnout, while no effect of procedural justice over burnout was observed. Lastly, Meydan, Basim and Cetin's (2011) study reveals that distributive and procedural justices are important factors in predicting burnout. In their study distributive and procedural justice had a direct effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions, while an indirect effect of interactional and distributive justice on emotional exhaustion was also observed. To Metin, Basim and Cetin (2011) organizational justice is inversely related to individual's burnout levels. Although there are inconsistencies over findings and different implications as to which organizational justice components affect which burnout component, all of the findings imply that justice in the organization is an important predictor of employee burnout and organizations should consider developing policies that can assure compliance and balance with justice principles while keeping an eye on the context and the cultural background.

2.5.2.3 Job Context

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) characterize job context by a variety of factors, such as subsystem, psychological environment, and type of interaction with clients that have been shown to contribute to burnout. They claim that if job context differs significantly by the types of interactions that characterize it, for example by frequency, intensity, duration and number of interactions, the context would be differentially related to burnout. In addition to the job context Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) proposes that the whole organizational context should be considered while examining conditions triggering burnout because it shapes the relationship employees develop to their job. This is linked to the psychological contract, a contract

comprising of the perceived mutual obligations between employee and employer (Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1998). Guest (1998) defines the psychological contract in a broad sense as consisting of implicit and explicit promises together with expectations from the employer. In the case that the psychological contract is breached employees are more likely to develop burnout (Maslach, et al., 2001).

Another conceptualization of the job context in itself is rather seen in the forms of job demands. Demerouti et al. (2001) created the job demands resource model based on the demand-control model by Karasek (1979). In this model job demands “refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker and Demerouti, 2006, p. 312). Examples are high work pressure, unfavorable physical environment, and emotionally demanding interactions with clients, being similar to the job context factors proposed by Cordes and Dougherty (1993). These job demands are associated with burnout (Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard and Metzger, 2007). On the contrary the resources of the job-demand resource model present physical, psychological and social characteristics that help people achieve work goals, decrease job demands (Kain and Jex, 2010) and hereby avoid or reduce burnout. To conclude, Kain and Jex (2010) point out that high job demands are associated with components of burnout and that most of the research found a positive association between job demands and emotional exhaustion.

2.5.2.4 Empowerment

An organizational antecedent that is related to the job context propositions by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) and Demerouti et al. (2001) and which has been extensively studied in relation to burnout is empowerment. This variable can be termed as a process of raising decision-making rights and as a form of help for employees to self-develop by means of solidarity, sharing, and team work (Koçel, 2007 as cited in Cavus and Demir, 2010, p. 65). Cavus and Demirel describe how empowerment is viewed in two ways; as management applications and as the way in which these applications are understood by the workers. Therefore the structural and the psychological

approach to empowerment have been applied by theorists. In the first view employee's behavior is a response to structural conditions within the work setting. Employees may become empowered and become efficient in their work if the following structural empowerment dimensions are present: 'Opportunity (the presence of an environment for learning and development); Access to knowledge (permanence of access to knowledge needed for the employee to do his job effectively); Access to sources (the time, source and equipment that the employee needs in order to do his job in the best way; and Support (termed as the positive feedback that the employee gets from his managers and from the ones that he commands) ' (Cavus and Demirel, 2010, p. 65).

Hochwalder (2008) claims that since the term has been defined by various scholars from various disciplines it is viewed as a fuzzy concept. To Hochwalder (2008) the second approach called psychological empowerment has most properly been defined by Spreitzer (1995). Spreitzer (1995) defines psychological empowerment at the workplace as a four dimensional concept consisting of; 'Meaning (a fit between the requirements of the job tasks and the employee's own values); Competence (the employee's belief that he or she possesses the skills and abilities necessary to perform a job or task well); Self-determination (the employee's feeling of having control over his or her own work); and Impact (the belief that the employee has a significant influence over strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes at work)'(as cited in Hochwalder, 2008, p. 343). O'Brien (2011) emphasized Spreitzer's (1995) notion in that psychological empowerment can be seen as the underlying mechanism mediating the relationship between structural empowerment and worker outcomes, such as burnout. O'Brien (2011) sees that the basic proposition lies in the fact that when individuals view their work environment as providing opportunities rather than constraint, they feel psychologically empowered; thus leading to positive worker outcomes, and consequently low burnout levels. Researchers started investigating the effects of empowerment on burnout, by applying the two or single approaches in relation to all or single burnout dimensions. Many studies viewed psychological empowerment as the mediator variable in the structural empowerment-burnout models, while others focused on the direct and indirect effects of the dimensions of the empowerment constructs on employee burnout. Some of the interesting findings are presented as follows:

Sarmiento, Laschinger and Iwasiw (2003) found that higher levels of empowerment were associated with lower levels of burnout in their study on Canadian college nurse educators. Workplace empowerment that refers to structural empowerment in their study was significantly related to all burnout dimensions, most strongly to exhaustion, followed by depersonalization and personal accomplishment respectively. Empowerment was significantly negatively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and positively related to personal accomplishment. Within the same cultural and occupational setting another study by Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian and Wilk (2003, p. 4) proposed that 'psychological empowerment is a logical response to structural empowerment'. They posited a model in their longitudinal study on Canadian nurses and proposed that structural empowerment has an indirect effect on burnout that is being mediated by psychological empowerment. The results revealed a statistically significant negative indirect effect of structural empowerment on burnout through psychological empowerment, and a negative, direct effect of psychological empowerment on burnout. However, Laschinger, et al. (2003) used only the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory, so that these results strictly relate to the first dimension of the burnout concept. The authors applied the Conditions of Work Effectiveness Questionnaire which is based on Kanter's (1979) concept of structural empowerment and consists of formal power, informal power and perceived access to the work empowerment structures of opportunity, information, support and resources subscale and Spreitzer's (1995) scale to measure psychological empowerment which consists of meaningful work, competence, autonomy and impact subscales.

Another study by Boudrias, Morin and Brodeur (2012) from the same cultural background within the healthcare organizations studied the effect of psychological empowerment facets on the dimensions of burnout. They found that the meaning and competence dimensions were significantly related to emotional exhaustion, having a negative effect on this burnout dimension. Meaning significantly predicted depersonalization, also with a negative effect, and three empowerment dimensions (meaning, competence, impact) were significantly associated with reduced personal accomplishment with a negative effect as well. In addition to psychological empowerment, a study by Harwood, Ridley, Wilson and Laschinger (2010) also from the same cultural background and work setting investigated the relation between structural

empowerment and emotional exhaustion and found a significant negative association between these two constructs. The authors concluded that nurses who perceived their workplace more empowering had less emotional exhaustion, and accordingly less experiences of burnout.

Another study on nurses from a different cultural background, Sweden found that psychological empowerment had a negative effect on emotional exhaustion (Hochwalder, 2007). The regression results revealed that the main effect of empowerment on depersonalization was negative and statistically significant, and the effect on personal accomplishment was positive and statistically significant as was originally expected. Hochwalder (2007) concluded that registered nurses with high empowerment were less emotionally exhausted, had lower levels of depersonalization and higher personal accomplishment what implies that empowerment is a protective factor against burnout. Although Hochwalder's preceding study in 2008 again supported the notion that higher levels of empowerment are associated with lower levels of burnout in cross sectional data, longitudinal data have shown contrary to expectations that higher prior levels of empowerment are associated with higher later levels of burnout. Hochwalder (2008) suggested that since psychological empowerment and burnout are proved to be stable constructs a theoretical explanation arises that if psychological empowerment is not backed up with structural empowerment then this state may in the long run lead to burnout. This is an important implication in relation to the empowerment construct and burnout. Both structural and psychological empowerment should be addressed and paid attention to within the organizations if burnout is aimed to be reduced or avoided.

One additional study on nurses from a different cultural background, USA by O'Brien's (2011) explored relationships among structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and burnout using the same scales as the study by Laschinger, et al. (2003). Structural and psychological empowerment was inversely related to burnout. Results indicated that all dimensions of structural empowerment were significantly related to burnout. Regression analysis results revealed that structural empowerment was a significant predictor of burnout. The resources and formal power dimensions of structural empowerment significantly predicted burnout having a negative effect on the construct. Contrary to Laschinger et al.'s (2003) findings,

psychological empowerment was not a significant independent predictor of burnout and did not mediate the relationship between structural empowerment and burnout, while structural empowerment remained a significant predictor of burnout also with the mediator psychological empowerment in the model.

Studies within different work settings such as Ben-Zur and Yagil's (2005) study on service providers in Israel investigated empowerment's effect on burnout dimensions. The authors posited that empowerment is an important factor that may affect burnout, and the results supported their propositions. Empowerment was negatively related to exhaustion and depersonalization and positively related to personal accomplishment, although only the psychological type of empowerment was used in this study. Another study by Schermuly, Schermuly and Meyer's (2010) on vice principals in primary schools in Germany investigated the effect of psychological empowerment on emotional exhaustion including job satisfaction as the mediator variable. An indirect negative effect of psychological empowerment on emotional exhaustion via job satisfaction was observed, while a direct effect was not statistically significant.

Lastly, a study from Turkey reveals interesting findings as well. Cavus and Demir (2010) studied the effect of structural and psychological empowerment on burnout dimensions of state hospital nurses. Results revealed that dimensions of structural empowerment and psychological empowerment were negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to personal accomplishment. No significant effect was observed in relation to depersonalization. Cavus and Demir (2010) suggest that the findings impose how structurally and psychologically empowered health professionals experience less burnout. This adds to the knowledge that has arisen from the results of previously discussed findings in concluding that empowerment indeed is a significant factor in predicting employee burnout, and organizations should become aware of the impact and importance of these constructs since their prevalence both in the form of structural settings and employee's psychological perception of empowerment may reduce their burnout levels, and accordingly increase worker effectiveness resulting in overall welfare of the individual and the organization.

2.5.2.5 Job Satisfaction

Another organizational antecedent that has been intensively investigated in relation to burnout is job satisfaction. The definition of job satisfaction according to Danish and Usman (2010) is the enjoyable and emotional state resulting from the evaluation of one's job or job experiences; the employee feels fulfillment and pride in achieving the business's goals (as cited in Al Jenaibi, 2010, p. 60). Clark and Oswald (1994) assert that job satisfaction is the sum of relations and interactions between workers' desires, expectations, and the value of what their jobs offer. In their view it can be induced that job satisfaction is the sum of social, physiological, and environmental circumstances that make an individual pleased about their work.

Job satisfaction consists of multiple dimensions being influenced by a variety of factors, such as factors related to the work itself, the peer work group and the surrounding work environment (Al Jenaibi, 2010). To Al Jenaibi, it is wrong to believe that increased satisfaction in one aspect of a job results in satisfaction in other dimensions. To exemplify he states that while some employees are satisfied with their relations with their colleagues, they may not be satisfied with the salary or with work conditions. Clark and Oswald (1994) argue as well that job satisfaction has multiple dimensions that represent the overall satisfaction the individual gets from the work itself, as well as from work groups, superiors and the whole work environment, and individuals may become highly satisfied with one dimension while remaining dissatisfied with others. Green, 2002 claims that the determination of factors creating job satisfaction in the work environment relies on seven dimensions: the work itself, supervision, the organization and its management, promotion opportunities, pay and other financial benefits, coworkers, and working conditions, as cited in Al Jenaibi (2010). Moreover, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) regard satisfaction as the accumulation of five facets: work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and co-workers as cited in Skibba (2002).

In order to measure the job satisfaction variables a variety of questionnaires have been developed and tested. There is no golden rule in using one or the other instrument to assess aspects of job satisfaction; however the most commonly used measure is the Minnesota

Satisfaction Questionnaire followed by the Job Descriptive Index developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), the Job Satisfaction Survey by Spector (1985) and many more.

Numerous studies investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout. Consistent findings prevail with significant effects of the job satisfaction construct and its facets on the dimensions of burnout. For instance, Dolan (1987) based on the proposition that individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work has an effect on the development of burnout, found that job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire is a reliable indicator of burnout as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory. In her study on nurses, burnout was negatively associated with job satisfaction. The results parallel initial findings by Pines et al. (1982), Maslach and Pines (1979), and Pines and Kanner (1982) who also found burnout to be negatively correlated with job satisfaction (as cited in Dolan, 1987, p. 4).

Another study by Orgestra, Rusac and Zorec (2008) proved job satisfaction to be a relevant predictor of burnout. A negative correlation between job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, and a positive correlation between job satisfaction and personal accomplishment was confirmed. Through regression analyses out of the four dimensions as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey, rewards and work climate facets had a negative effect on emotional exhaustion, advancement opportunities and benefit had a positive, while superiors and colleagues' satisfaction had no significant effect. In relation to the depersonalization dimension only the rewards satisfaction facet had a significant effect, whereas only the dimension of work climate satisfaction proved to be a significant predictor of reduced personal accomplishment.

In a study on nursing academicians in Turkey conducted by Cam (2000) job satisfaction highly contributed to the emotional exhaustion dimension and was the most significant predictor of personal accomplishment. Cam (2000) claims that the majority of studies confirmed that job dissatisfaction is one of the most significant factors contributing to the burnout syndrome by citing the studies by Cam (1991) and Ergin (1992) where job satisfaction was the most prominent factor giving rise to emotional exhaustion.

In relation to previously mentioned studies Einsentat and Felner's (1984) study on human services workers in the USA also demonstrates that job dissatisfaction is a significant contributor to burnout. A study on mid-wives in Senegal conducted by Rouleau, Fournier, Philibert, Mbengue and Dumont (2012) found a negative contribution of job satisfaction to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while no effect was observed in relation to reduced personal accomplishment. Additionally, less doctor burnout was significantly correlated with higher job satisfaction in a study by Weng, Hung, Liu, Cheng, Yen, Chan and Huang (2011) in Taiwan. Another study on emergency services personnel in Turkey conducted by Akpınar and Tas (2011) found a negative relationship between job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a positive relation between job satisfaction and personal accomplishment. Lastly, Kalliath and Morris's (2002) study on nurses confirmed job satisfaction as a significant predictor of burnout. As seen the empirical findings are countless when regarding the effect of job satisfaction on burnout. Although most of the studies were conducted within human services professions, interestingly similar results prevail along different occupational backgrounds and countries. Similar findings are also present both in previous and recent research. To conclude, job satisfaction is one of the major factors affecting burnout in the workplace as shown throughout the findings in the literature.

2.5.2.6 Organizational Commitment

Despite an insufficient amount of research investigating the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout, findings call for plausible benefits of this organizational antecedent for the reduction of burnout. The commonly cited definition of organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, as cited in Harrison and Hubbard, 1998, p.610). It is the psychological link between an employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997, as cited in Gautam, 2010). There are many other definitions of organizational commitment but Kumar and Bakshi (2010) summarize that almost all the definitions describe the construct in

terms of a psychological state that characterizes an employee's relationship with his or her organization and has implications for that employee continuing membership in the organization.

Allen and Meyer (1991) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment that has been widely accepted throughout the literature. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) claim that the three commitment components are a psychological state that either characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization or has the implications to affect whether the employee will continue with the organization. The definition of the components according to Meyer and Allen (1991, p.67) is as follows:

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the cost associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

Despite the existence of plenty of research on organizational commitment and burnout separately, the research in the literature investigating the direct relationship between the two constructs is rather scant (Gunes, Bayraktaroglu and Kunis, 2009). As claimed by Kalliath, O'Driscoll and Gillespie (1998) the studies done to date have considered burnout as the predictor and organizational commitment as the criterion variable. In fact, studies have condemned that burnout reduces employee's organizational commitment (Jackson, Turner and Brief, 1987; Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Gemlik, Sisman and Sigri, 2010) but on the other hand a few studies investigating the inverse association, namely the effect of organizational commitment facets on the burnout dimensions have come to light, and received attention as to its important implications which are discussed as follows:

Kalliath et al. (1998) investigated whether commitment may function as a predictor of burnout levels. Their data provided support for the converse hypothesis in relation to previous research, namely that low commitment contributes to the experience of burnout. Organizational commitment showed a direct effect on burnout. In their sample on nurses greater commitment to the organization had a direct effect on reduced levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and similar findings prevailed in their second sample consisting of technicians. To Kalliath et al., these findings support the notion that organization commitment might be seen as a significant predictor of burnout.

A study by Marmaya, Zawawi, Hitam and Jody (2010) investigated the influence of organizational commitment (affective, continuous and normative commitment) on burnout among Malaysian employees. The study revealed that only affective commitment influences burnout, but they imply that the results might have occurred due to a small sample size. Another study by Tan and Akhtar (1998) on Chinese bank employees revealed that normative commitment had a significant positive effect on experienced burnout, whereas affective commitment had no significant impact. Continuous commitment was not included. It is worth mentioning that their study was based on theoretical perspectives by Keenoy (1992) and Hochschild (1983) which prompted that different facets of organizational commitment are possible sources of psychological strain. It is therefore seen that the underlying relationship between organizational commitment and burnout was lanced in previous literature although not constructed and discussed in detail.

In Meydan, Basim and Cetin's (2011) study on public sector managers in Turkey it was found that affective and normative commitment had a significant effect on the emotional exhaustion dimension. Their study concluded that commitment has a negative contribution to the development of individual's emotional exhaustion, implying that organizational commitment reduces emotional exhaustion.

Another study by Cetin, Basim and Aydogan (2011) on primary school teachers revealed how especially affective commitment had an effect on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment, causing a reduction in these components. Continuance

commitment also predicted a reduction in the three burnout components, while normative commitment only affected emotional exhaustion as the results of the regression analysis condemned. The authors claim that the findings have important implications when considering the effects of organizational commitment facets on the components of burnout, and that organizational commitment plays an important role in explaining burnout throughout the organizational context.

In addition to the insufficiently studied effect of organizational commitment on burnout Gunes, Bayraktaroglu and Kunis (2009) bring about a contention in stating that the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout has not been verified as to its direction and causes. In their study on administrative staff Gunes, et al. (2009) found an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and burnout levels. A negative relationship between emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and affective and normative commitment types was observed at first. They found a negative relationship between depersonalization, personal accomplishment and normative commitment, a negative relationship between personal accomplishment and continuance commitment, and a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and affective commitment. Lastly, a negative relationship between emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and normative commitment was found as well. In addition, Cetin, Basim and Aydogan (2011) also observed significant correlations between organizational commitment and burnout dimensions.

Although the literature on the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout is scant, it can be inferred out of the presented findings that there is an inverse relationship between these two constructs. Certainly, high levels in organizational commitment result with low levels in the components of burnout. More systematic research on the effects of organizational commitment on burnout is required among different occupations, context, as well as among countries, in order to be able to account for cultural differences as well.

2.5.2.7 Perceived Organizational Support

Another prominent organizational antecedent of burnout that has not received sufficient research attention is perceived organizational support. This variable relates to social support which conversely is extensively investigated in relation to burnout (Kozak et al., 2012). The underlying reason for investigating social support might be due to the fact that interrelationships in the workplace are seen as critical determinants of burnout as claimed by Leiter and Maslach (1988). Bakker and Demerouti (2006) describe social support as a resource which is functional in achieving goals at work. For instance, they depict how a high quality relationship between employee and supervisor may reduce the impact of different job demands, such as workload and emotional demands on strain, because support puts demands in another perspective. It is therefore helpful in managing various work-related demands and Cordes and Dougherty (1993) see it as a buffer between work-related stress and the influences of stressful events, and also as a resource having direct effects on experienced stress.

Based on the theoretical and empirical social support literature Lizano and Barack (2012) indicate different forms of social support based on the source of the support. The mostly examined forms of social support in the work place are support from supervisors and coworkers. In relation to the sources of support Cordes and Dougherty (1993) exemplify how greater perceived social support from co-workers or supervisors is associated with lower reported levels of the burnout components through citing studies performed within hospitals, schools, day-care centers and legal agencies. In addition to the initial description of social support sources it is important to mention Leiter's (1988) study where a distinction between professional and personal sources of support is made (as cited in Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). Leiter depicts three categories that emerged, namely: personal, professional and informal support. Informal and professional support was positively related to feelings of personal accomplishment. However, professional support had also a triggering effect on burnout in that it related positively to emotional exhaustion.

In relation to Leiter's findings, Cordes and Dougherty (1993) suggest that professional and personal sources of support are largely independent of one another, and they emphasize the

importance of studying and identifying different aspects of support that either contribute to or reduce burnout. Most studies focused on either supervisor or coworker support, but not on organizational support although it can deter burnout, since research suggests that perceived organizational support is an important resource that helps employees to cope with stress and role demands (Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore, 2007).

Perceived organizational support can be defined as 'the general belief held by an employee that the organisation values his or her continued membership and is generally concerned about his or her well-being' (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa, 1986 as cited in Worley, Fuqua and Hellman, 2009, p. 112). It is assumed that perceived organizational support develops over time through multiple interactions between employers and employees, and that it reflects the degree to which employees perceive that their organization is committed to them (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

In relation to burnout Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) suggest that employees who perceive that their organization cares about them and is concerned about their well-being are likely to experience lower levels of burnout. Although perceived organizational support seems to be a reasonable coping mechanism having potential benefits in the reduction or avoidance of burnout, only a few studies investigated the underlying relationship. For instance, Twigg and Kang (2011) studied the effects of perceived organizational support on burnout levels of restaurant workers in the USA. They posited that there will be an inverse relationship between the two constructs. Results revealed that an inverse relationship was present and also showed that perceived organizational support had a negative effect on the overall measure of burnout. Twigg and Kang's (2011) results corroborate previous findings by Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth (1997) who also found that perceived organizational support was negatively related to an overall measure of burnout in a sample of part-time employees.

Reviewing the literature only few studies investigating the effect of perceived organizational support on the burnout dimensions emerged. Out of these studies, Armstrong-Stassen (2004) reported that perceived organizational support was negatively related to burnout, however only the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout was used. Conversely, Hamwi,

Rutherford and Boles (2011) did not find a significant relationship between perceived organizational support and emotional exhaustion. Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) claim that their study is the first to their knowledge to relate perceived organizational support to all three burnout dimensions. In their study conducted among employees from USA it was found that perceived organizational support related to lower emotional exhaustion and less depersonalization but not to reduced personal accomplishment. Regression results revealed a significant negative effect of perceived organizational support over the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout, whereas the effect over reduced personal accomplishment was not significant. Due to the potential benefits of perceived organizational support in the reduction of burnout, it seems essential to conduct additional studies that would investigate the effect of this construct on burnout and its dimensions. Additionally, these studies should be conducted within various occupational and cultural backgrounds in order to enlarge the existing knowledge about the underlying relationship of this two constructs.

2.5.2.8 Leader-Member Exchange

The leader-member exchange variable also received scant research attention in relation to burnout; however findings revealed that it is an important antecedent with potential benefits in the reduction of burnout. Among the leadership theories the leader member exchange theory is unique in that it focuses on the twofold relationship between leader and employee (Krishnan, 2005). Leader member exchange theory assumes that leaders form different relationships with each of their employees (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995 as cited in Graham and Witteloostuijn, 2010, p. 6). Huang, Chan, Lam and Nan (2010) describe how employees who establish high quality exchanges with their leaders receive several advantages such as a high level of trust and respect as well as emotional support, more resources, more formal and informal rewards, and greater access to information, that as a consequence result with positive outcomes for the employee such as better performance and higher organizational commitment. On the other hand Huang et al. (2010) point out that low-quality exchanges develop out of terms and conditions of formal employment contracts, so that employees with this sort of relationship with their leader receive

less attention, less empowerment, fewer resources and restricted information, that as a consequence may lead to job dissatisfaction and lower organizational commitment.

An interesting notion is that employees in high-quality leader member exchanges feel obligated to contribute to leader's requirements, hereby undertaking difficult and demanding jobs and tasks by investing more time, effort and energy than their counterparts in low-quality exchanges (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995 as cited in Graham and Witteloostuijn, 2010). Although leader member exchange has been linked to a variety of constructs in the literature it is important to note that the role of leader member exchange in the burnout process has received scant research attention (Thomas and Lankau, 2009). However, studies that emphasize the importance of the existence of high levels of leader member exchanges and their impact on the reduction of burnout levels among employees are discussed and presented as follows:

A study conducted within the hospitality sector in Turkey by Bolat (2011a) found that employees, who have high leader-member exchanges, have low burnout levels. Regression results revealed that leader member exchange had a negative, direct effect on burnout. In her proceeding study from the same work setting Bolat (2011b) again found that the quality of the leader-member exchange influences the level of employees' burnout. Correlation results revealed a significant negative relationship between leader member exchange and burnout, whereas regression results supported previous findings in that leader member exchange showed a significant and negative effect on burnout. An additional study from Turkey which is conducted within the hospitality sector by Kasli and Seymen (2010) again supported previously discussed findings. In their study on employees working at five star hotels in Istanbul, Kasli and Seymen (2010) found a negative and significant relationship between leader member exchange and burnout as was initially proposed. Leader member exchange showed a significant and negative effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout, and a significant, positive effect on the personal accomplishment dimension.

Studies from the USA reveal similar findings as well. A study conducted among psychiatric rehabilitation workers in the USA by Larson and Gouwens (2008) found that leader member exchange scores are significantly and negatively correlated with burnout scores. In

regressing burnout on the four leader member exchange dimensions of loyalty, affect, contribution, and professional respect based on the operational definition and scale by Liden and Maslyn (1998) the authors found that contribution and loyalty had a significant negative effect on burnout. 64% of variance in burnout was explained by these two dimensions, what represented a remarkable result. Another study from the USA by Thomas and Lankau (2009) among employees from a health care setting proposed that the quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and subordinate can impact burnout levels. Leader member exchange showed a significant and negative indirect effect on burnout through role stressors as the mediating variable and the authors concluded that organizations can avoid burnout by developing environments with high leader member exchange practices. One additional study from the USA, conducted among employees from the federal fire department investigated the effect of leader member exchange on burnout, although their model employed leader member exchange as a mediator between defensive communication and burnout constructs (Becker, Halbesleben and O'Hair, 2005). However, regression results revealed that leader member exchange has a significant negative effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while personal accomplishment was not included in the model.

Another study supporting previously discussed findings is conducted among service workers in China by Huang et al. (2010) who also found that leader member exchange was strongly and negatively related to burnout. Regression results showed that leader member exchange was negatively related to burnout implying that leader member exchange quality can reduce burnout experienced by service workers.

Lastly, in a study among middle managers from the public sector in United Kingdom, Graham and Witteloostuijn (2010) found that the quality of their leader-member exchange was negatively related to three burnout dimensions. Regression results indicated that the relationship between leader member exchange and emotional exhaustion is linear and negative. As was initially predicted leader member exchange was also found to be negatively related to depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout. These findings also highlight the importance of the social context at the workplace in preventing burnout and

Graham and Witteloostuijn (2010) add how employees in high-quality leader member exchange relationships had lower levels of emotional exhaustion than employees in low-quality leader member exchange relationships providing evidence for the benefit of a high-leader member exchange relationship for employee well-being.

2.5.2.9 Leadership

Leadership, as the finally discussed organizational antecedent of burnout has interesting implications in relation to burnout which are discussed in detail in the following parts. This organizational variable is described as the ability to enlist, mobilize, and motivate others to apply their abilities and resources to a given cause (Eyal and Roth, 2010, p. 256). Eyal and Roth (2010) stress how empirical research on leadership extensively compared styles and models of leadership. However, Bass (1985) proposed a leadership model that became the mainstream in leadership research (Stordeur, D'hoore and Vandenberghe, 2001). The model proposed by Bass (1985) is based on the distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Eyal and Roth (2010) describe transformational leadership in stating that it motivates followers to identify with the leader and to seek for common goals and visions. To Eyal and Roth (2010) transformational leaders are influent and serve as a role model since they consider their followers' needs while acting according to the organization's values. Hereby, followers commit themselves to common purposes and are encouraged to achieve organizational goals. On the other hand, the focus under a transactional leadership style is on maintaining efficient management and complying with organizational rules and policies (Bass and Avolio, 1994 as cited in Eyal and Roth, 2010, p. 257). In short, it does not allow excess space for individual considerations and Eyal and Roth (2010) explain how transactional or monitoring leadership is especially based on rewards for compliance.

Reflecting on to Bass's proposed model, this so called 'new leadership' theory dominating the scientific literature on leadership is also known as the multifactor leadership theory. To Kanste, Kyngas, and Nikkila (2007) it presents the probably most widely used comprehensive theory of leadership encompassing a variety of leader behaviors. It represents nine leadership dimensions consisting of five transformational leadership dimensions (attributed

and behavioral idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration), three transactional leadership dimensions (contingent reward, active and passive management-by-exception) and one non-transactional laissez-faire leadership dimension (passive/avoidance) (Kanste, Kyngas, and Nikkila, 2007, p. 731)

Researcher haven't agreed as to a common measure of leadership and a certain distinction between leadership, leadership styles and behaviors although the 'new leadership' theory is increasingly being accepted. The scientific literature reveals a number of studies that focused on the relationship and effect of leadership on burnout and its dimensions. The research conducted in relation to the factor of leadership and its effect on burnout has interesting implications. Some of the related studies are considered in detail, and their findings are presented and discussed as follows:

In their study among students, Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1989) reported burnout to be inversely related to all transformational facets and to one transactional leadership dimension (contingent reward). Conversely, burnout was found to be positively and significantly associated with management-by-exception. In another study among nurses in Belgium, Stordeur, D'hoore and Vandenberghe (2001) only measured emotional exhaustion but again found similar results in that transformational leadership dimensions and contingent reward were negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion. Interestingly the remaining two dimensions of transactional leadership (active and passive management-by-exception) appeared to increase emotional exhaustion among nursing staff just as in the previously discussed study by Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1989). Stordeur, D'hoore and Vandenberghe (2001) concluded that when head nurses were viewed as transformational leaders and as rewarding their staff on a contingent basis, the follower nurses reported less emotional exhaustion.

Another study conducted among nurses by Kanste, Kyngas, and Nikkila (2007) in Finland, found that out of the leadership subscales only passive laissez-faire leadership was a statistically significant predictor of emotional exhaustion. It seemingly functioned as a trigger. Regression results also revealed that rewarding transformational leadership and active management-by exception were statistically significant predictors of depersonalization. They

functioned as protecting factors from depersonalization. Active management-by-exception and passive laissez-faire leadership were statistically significant predictors of personal accomplishment. While active management-by-exception increased the personal accomplishment of nursing staff, passive laissez-faire leadership reduced it.

A study conducted among managers from the hospitality industry in Cyprus by Zopiatis and Constanti (2009) found a negative effect of transformational leadership traits on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and a positive effect on personal accomplishment. Conversely, passive/avoidance leadership had a positive effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in partially supporting previously mentioned findings by Kanste, Kyngas, and Nikkila (2007). The authors found how individuals with a passive/avoidance leadership style exhibited higher levels of burnout. Their results were supported by previous findings. Moreover, Zopiatis and Constanti (2009) found how transformational leaders are not just more effective in their leadership role, but are also less prone to burnout than their colleagues who exhibit passive/avoidance leadership behaviors. Whether leader's or follower's levels of burnout are the subject of the study scientific evidence as seen through the discussed research suggests that transactional and laissez-faire leadership is more prone to burnout than transformational leadership.

Another study adding to this evidence is conducted among principals and teachers in Israel by Eyal and Roth (2010) who found that transformational leadership was negatively associated with teachers' burnout, while transactional leadership was positively associated with teachers' burnout. Transformational leadership had a significant negative effect on burnout, whereas transactional leadership's effect was positive. Lastly, a study from Turkey which is conducted among mid-level managers from five star hotels by Guzel and Akgunduz (2011) revealed that transformational leadership facets reduced emotional exhaustion and increased personal accomplishment, while transactional leadership reduced depersonalization. Despite the growing evidence that applying transformational leadership would be beneficial in the reduction of burnout and the evidence of the possible pitfalls of transactional and laissez-faire leadership, further research is required to account for the impact of the various facets of leadership and its

measures on the dimensions of burnout. Therefore, more studies from different occupational and cultural context are required.

2.5.3 Personal Antecedents

Although burnout is believed to be more prone to work-related and organizational aspects, investigating some of the individual antecedents to burnout seems essential in completing the broad overview of its triggers. Among the individual variables, demographics, personality dimensions, expectations, self-efficacy, work-family conflict and emotional intelligence will be presented, since these factors are found to be related to burnout. The personal antecedents of burnout are discussed as follows:

2.5.3.1 Demographic Variables

It is worth mentioning that some of the demographic characteristics contributed to the explanation why some individuals experience burnout and why others remain unaffected by it (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). Starting with the gender variable it is important to highlight that the existing empirical results regarding the prevalence of burnout among men and women are inconsistent. The underlying reason might be that sex differences in fact reflect differences in occupation (Schaufeli and Greenglass, 2001; Maslach and Jackson, 1981). Another assumption reached by Taris et al., 2005 is that when studies report gender differences it is difficult to interpret the results due to an unequal distribution of men and women along the samples. They provide an overview of burnout studies reporting about burnout prevalence among men and women, and conclude that women score higher on emotional exhaustion, while men score higher on depersonalization and personal accomplishment what is consistent with the findings of Maslach and Jackson (1981).

In addition to the gender variable it is valuable to note that burnout varies among different age groups. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) cite examples where younger individuals consistently report higher levels of burnout components than elderly ones. Maslach and Jackson's (1981) findings coincide these results. Since age is confounded with work-experience, the experience of burnout may be riskier in the early phases of one's career (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Rakovec-

Felser, 2001). In addition to the mentioned demographic variables evidence is present in that married individuals report lower levels of the burnout components than those that are single or divorced (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; 1985). Lastly, individuals with children also report lower levels of burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1985).

2.5.3.2 Personal Expectations

People have varying expectations in relation to their job. Depending on the individual characteristics of a person people often put high expectations over them in relation to performance, targets, promotion, increase in rewards, relations with co-workers and supervisors, and many more. Rakovec-Felser (2011) suggests that whether these expectations are considered to be idealistic or unrealistic, they present a risk factor for the development of burnout. The reason for it is that high expectations lead people to work too hard and too long, eventually resulting with exhaustion and depersonalization when the high effort does not yield the expected results. Korunka et al.'s (2005) statements are similar. They describe how people differ in their attitudes toward job. Those with higher expectations towards the nature of work and towards success at work have a higher likelihood of developing burnout because they tend to work too much. These implications are in close relation with the work overload and unmet expectations of individuals discussed in previous sections. However, to Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) the findings regarding individual expectations and burnout are mixed.

Another expectation variable contributing to burnout is proposed by Cordes and Dougherty (1993) and presents shifts in expectations. It is seen out of the previous section of demographic variables effect on burnout that research proved how more experienced employees tend to experience lower levels of burnout than do younger employees, and that burnout is likely to be experienced in the first years of someone's career. In relation to these findings Cordes and Dougherty (1993) see the reason for this discrepancy in that older employees shifted their expectations to fit reality based on their experiences. A study conducted by Stevens and O'Neill (1983) examined the relation between expectation shifts and burnout and found that higher levels of burnout were associated with negative expectation shifts (as cited in Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). The results implied that organizational realities were worse than initially expected and less

experienced employees maintained client-focused expectations reporting higher levels of burnout, while more experienced employees shifted their expectations from client progress to their own competencies.

2.5.3.3 Personality Traits

Research has shown that personality traits are significant predictors of burnout. However, this individual-level antecedent of job burnout has not been systematically reviewed to date (Zimmerman and Swider, 2010). The big five personality dimensions that represent the common model for personality traits have lately received much attention in the burnout literature. The big five dimensions are named as neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (Goldberg, 1990).

The most extensively investigated dimension having an impact on burnout is neuroticism. Neurotic individuals are prone to anxiety, depression, hostility, and vulnerability (Rakovec-Felser, 2001). These individuals are fearful, anxious and have a predisposition to negative feelings. Since characteristics of neurotics align well with the components of burnout, Zimmerman and Swider (2010) claim that it should be of no surprise that neuroticism is the personality trait that has received most of the attention from burnout researchers. Kim, Shin and Swanger (2008) list a large number of studies that focused on the effect of neuroticism on burnout. Most of the findings resulted with a significant relationship between burnout and neuroticism. To give another example, Zimmerman and Swider (2010) and Zellars, Perrewe and Hochwarter (2000) observed the effect of all personality traits on burnout. The results indicated that individuals who are higher in neuroticism and lower in extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness are more prone to experience job burnout. Zimmerman and Swider's (2010) results supported previous findings and proclaimed the notion that neuroticism is the personality trait being most susceptible to the development of burnout.

2.5.3.4 Self-Efficacy

A personal antecedent which has been extensively researched in relation to burnout is self-efficacy. The variable can be conceptualized as individual's beliefs in their own ability to

plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given goals (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2009). The term and its definition derived from the social cognitive theory by Bandura (1977). Self-efficacy is not concerned with the skills one possesses, but rather the judgment of what one can do with these skills, so that it essentially refers to a sense of mastery and control over one's environment (Perrewe, Hochwarter, Rossi, Wallace, Maignan, Castro, Ralston, Westman, Vollmer, Tang, Wan and Van Deusen, 2002, p. 166). In describing the difference between self efficacy and related constructs Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) imply that the distinction lies in the following aspects: 'self-efficacy implies an internal attribution; it is prospective, referring to future behaviors, and it is an operative construct, which means that the cognition is quite proximal to the critical behavior, thus being a good predictor of actual behavior' (p. 154).

In surveying the literature on the link between self efficacy and burnout, it is seen that measures of self efficacy are either regarded as a single facet concept or a multi facet concept based on the different operational definitions of the term (Friedman, 2003). The commonly studied professional group in relation to the self efficacy-burnout relationship and effect is teachers. Most of the authors investigated the effects of general self efficacy, specific self efficacy and other self efficacy constructs on teacher's burnout dimensions because this specific profession reflects the prevalence of both constructs due to the specification of tasks, relationships with students, psychological and work-related demands that make this relationship plausible and worth studying. Some of the findings are discussed as follows:

In a study among elementary school teachers in Greece Tzioti, Mantelou, Degleris, Solias, Karamberi, and Romanou (2009) found that self-efficacy was negatively correlated with the three job burnout dimensions. Friedman's (2003) study on primary school teachers from Israel also revealed that self efficacy is inversely related to burnout, implying that the lower the sense of self-efficacy, the higher the perceived burnout and vice versa. Friedman (2003) found that self efficacy predicted 14% of variance in burnout in the regression equation. In a sample of German and Syrian teachers Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) again found burnout dimensions to be significantly and negatively related to self efficacy. The authors also studied the effect of self

efficacy on burnout through job stress as the mediator. For both samples an indirect, negative effect of self efficacy on emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment was observed and Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) concluded that teachers who are self efficacious suffer less from burnout than their counterparts. An additional study on Norwegian primary school teachers by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) also found self efficacy to be negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while personal accomplishment dimension was not included in the model.

Studies among secondary school teachers reveal similar results. In a cross-sectional study in the Netherlands Evers, Brouwers and Tomic's (2002) found that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are related to their burnout levels. Regression analyses showed that the self-efficacy beliefs were significantly and negatively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and significantly positively related to the personal accomplishment dimension. The study results indicated that individuals with strong self-efficacy beliefs are less susceptible to burnout than individuals with weak self-efficacy beliefs. The results are supported by previous findings from the same setting where it was also demonstrated that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are significantly related to burnout levels (Brouwers and Tomic, 1999). Contrary to cross-sectional data, a longitudinal research performed by Brouwers and Tomic (2000) showed that the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were only related to the depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout, and not to emotional exhaustion. In fact, an inverse effect of emotional exhaustion on self efficacy was observed. Explanations from others studies are lacking, however in the authors' view emotional exhaustion, as a response to prolonged stress might reduce self efficacy in the long run.

Findings supporting the notion that self efficacy affects burnout levels are also found within a different professional group. The study by Perrewe, et al. (2002) used a sample of managers across nine countries. The authors predicted that self-efficacy will mediate the relationships between role stressors and burnout. Although mediation was not consistent along all countries it is important to note that all nine countries had a statistically significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and burnout. Out of the samples from USA, Germany, France,

Japan, China, Israel, Hong Kong, Brazil and Fiji it was found that self efficacy has a negative effect on burnout. The findings impose that individuals from various cultural backgrounds, almost globally that have high levels of self efficacy are reluctant to burnout. Self efficacy is an important factor affecting burnout and should be further considered as to its strength, presence and policies for evoking it among employees due to its large benefits in the reduction of burnout.

2.5.3.5 Work-Family Conflict

The personal antecedent referred to as 'work-family conflict' has been empirically tested and verified in relation to burnout, and posits important implications that deserve to be discussed. Work-family conflict occurs when job requirements become incompatible with family responsibilities (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985 as cited in Hamwi, Rutherford and Boles, 2011). Work family conflict, or also referred to as 'work-home conflict' (Langballe, Innstrand, Aasland and Falkum, 2010) represents a form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities, whereas 'family-work conflict', a distinct but conceptually related construct refers to a form of inter-role conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities" (Netemeyer et al., 1996, as cited in Yavas, Babakus and Karatepe, 2008, p. 10). The resulting imbalance has been linked to a variety of outcomes for the employee and the organization. Among the consequences of work family conflict burnout holds a prominent place, and the literature review reveals a variety of studies investigating the link between these two constructs, whereby researchers most commonly agreed that work family conflict mitigates burnout. Some of the representative findings are discussed as follows:

In a study among nursing staff in Canada Burke and Greenglass (2001) found how work-family conflict accounted for a significant increase in the variance on all three burnout components. Regression analysis results revealed a significant and positive effect of work-family conflict on all burnout dimensions, however the strongest effect was observed in relation to the emotional exhaustion dimension. The effect of family-work conflict was inferior in relation to the work-family conflict effect on burnout, where only one significant and negative relationship was

observed in relation to the personal accomplishment dimension. It was reported that nurses with higher family-work conflict reported lower levels of personal accomplishment. Another study by Tayfur and Aslan (2012) on banking sector employees from Turkey found that as employees experienced more work-family conflict they were more likely to feel emotionally exhausted, cynical and indifferent towards their work. The results revealed a significant and positive effect of work-family conflict on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout, while the effect over personal accomplishment was lacking.

Noor and Zainnudin (2011) found that work-family conflict positively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among a sample of Malaysian teachers. Regression results revealed that work-family conflict had a positive and significant effect on these two burnout components. Similar results are found in Derks and Bakker's (2012) study among employees in Netherlands where work-family conflict was again found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Likewise, Montgomery, Panagopolou and Benos (2006) found a positive and significant effect of work-family conflict on the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among a sample of Greek doctors. Although these authors suggested that work-family conflict triggers burnout, the common limitation lies in not assessing the burnout dimension of personal accomplishment in their study.

Additional studies from Norway reveal similar results as well. Langballe et al's. (2011) study among male and female physicians found that 'work-home conflict' as referring to work-family conflict had a significant, positive effect on emotional exhaustion both in the male and female samples. The effect on disengagement, which represents a measure similar to the measure of depersonalization, assessed through the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory developed by Demerouti, Mostert and Bakker (2010) was only significant and positive in the female sample. On the other hand, home-work conflict was significantly and positively related only to disengagement among both samples. The authors condemned that work-home conflict was a stronger predictor of burnout for female rather than male physicians. The reason probably lies in the fact that due to the demanding requirements of balancing family and career life it is the women who due to their nature are being more dedicated to family matters and therefore face

more obstacles in achieving goals at the workplace resulting with work-family conflicts and burnout. Langballe et al.'s results replicate Innstrand, Langballe and Falkum's (2009) findings within a longitudinal study on church ministers where again a significant and positive effect of work-family conflict on the two burnout components (emotional exhaustion, disengagement) was found. Contrary to Langballe et al. (2011) no significant effect of home-family conflict on any burnout dimension was observed. Another study by Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum and Aasland's (2008) among a sample of employees from eight different occupational groups reveals similar results as Langballe, et al. (2011). Work-home conflict significantly and positively related to emotional exhaustion and disengagement. The sample size was much bigger than in the previously mentioned studies, what might be the reason why a positive and significant effect of family-work conflict on the two burnout dimensions was observed this time, what is contrary to Langballe et al.'s findings where only the effect on disengagement was significant. The results seem promising in revealing similar results, however once again the pitfall lies in that the dimension of personal accomplishment was not assessed in these studies.

Another study from Turkey revealed that both work-family conflict and family-work conflict have detrimental impacts on emotional exhaustion. In their study conducted among front line employees from five star hotels in Turkey Yavas, et al. (2009) found that work-family conflict and family-work conflict both have significant positive impacts on emotional exhaustion. In measuring only emotional exhaustion, a longitudinal study conducted among Australian frontline police officers also found a significant positive impact of work-family conflict on this burnout dimension (Hall, Dollard, Tuckey, Winefield and Thompson, 2010). These findings replicated Lingard and Francis's (2006) results from their study that was conducted among a sample of Australian construction professionals and managers. Bacharach, Bamberger and Conley's (1991) study among nurses and civil engineers from USA again reveals the same results in that work-home conflict was significantly and positively related to emotional exhaustion. Lastly, in verifying previous research Hamwi et al.'s. (2011) study among salespeople from USA found that work-family conflict was positively related to emotional exhaustion. As seen out of the previously discussed findings researchers agree that work-family conflict has a positive effect on burnout. This means that work-family conflict although not being a work-related and

organizational, but rather a personal factor represents an important trigger of burnout. Unfortunately, authors haven't quite focused on the dimension of personal accomplishment and how work-family conflict relates to it, but what is clear is that employees and their organizations should find common solutions in order to balance work and family and to make individual's well-being less vulnerable to work-family conflict and accordingly to the development of burnout.

2.5.3.6 Emotional Intelligence

As the finally discussed personal antecedent of burnout, emotional intelligence has recently received increasing attention in the literature as to its relation to burnout. Scholars commonly agreed that this personal variable is inversely related to burnout, so that it can be seen as a protective factor against the development and experience of this syndrome. The definition for emotional intelligence is "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 10). This conceptualization focuses on emotional skills consisting of four central abilities; perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions, and these skills are developed through learning and experience (Siu, 2009).

In relation to burnout Gulluce and Iscan (2010) point out that many researchers agree how emotional intelligence affects burnout. Gulluce and Iscan (2010) claim that it was found how emotional intelligence protects individuals from developing burnout, since managing one's own emotions facilitates in avoiding stress and burnout. In fact, the literature review reveals that there is an inverse relationship between burnout levels and emotional intelligence. For instance, Gulluce and Iscan's (2010) results revealed a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout levels among a sample of managers from Turkey. Gorgens-Ekermans and Brand (2012) also found a negative association between emotional intelligence and burnout. Emotional intelligence was significantly negatively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout, and positively related to personal accomplishment in

their sample of nurses from South Africa. Similar results were found by Aslan and Ozata (2008) in their study among health care employees from Turkey. Again, a significant negative relationship was found between emotional intelligence and the two burnout components, whereas the relationship with personal accomplishment was positive.

Other studies from diverse cultural and occupational backgrounds reveal similar findings as well. In a study conducted among secondary school teachers from Nigeria, Jude and Grace (2011) found that emotional intelligence significantly predicted burnout. Regression results revealed a significant negative effect of emotional intelligence on burnout. These results corroborate findings from the same occupational group from Hong Kong conducted by Chan (2006) where a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout was also found. A further study by Alavinia and Ahmadzadeh (2012) also found an inverse association between emotional intelligence and burnout among teachers from Azerbaijan, and the authors condemned that emotional intelligence could be a potent predictor of burnout.

Another study conducted among Australian surgeons and surgical trainees found that emotional intelligence was inversely related to burnout, whereas regression result revealed that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of burnout (Benson, Truskett and Findlay, 2007). Likewise, Weng, Hung, Liu, Cheng, Yen, Chang and Huang (2011) found that higher emotional intelligence was significantly associated with less burnout in a sample of doctors from Taiwan. All burnout components (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment) were significantly and negatively associated with emotional intelligence. Lastly, Huang, Chan, Lam and Nam (2010) found that emotional intelligence had a negative effect on burnout in a sample of Chinese call-center employees supporting the previous findings that highlighted how emotional intelligence can be seen as a predictor of burnout, and that it has important implications in the reduction of burnout as well as in its avoidance. To summarize, it is seen out of the discussed findings that the commonly found inverse relationship between these two constructs highlights that the presence of emotional intelligence can significantly reduce employee's burnout levels.

2.6 CONSEQUENCES OF BURNOUT

The last part of the literature review on the concept of burnout explores some of the common consequences of the syndrome that have been theoretically discussed and tested. Although managers and supervisors initially believed that if employees are affected by burnout that represents their individual concern (Maslach and Leiter, 1997 as cited in Korunka et al., 2005) research has evidenced the opposite in that burnout has a negative implication of almost same amplitude on the whole work environment and organization. Starting with the individual consequences of physical and psychological nature, interpersonal and organizational consequences are discussed hand in hand in the following part of the dissertation.

2.6.1 Individual Consequences

In reflecting on the individual consequences of burnout Weber and Jaekel-Reinhard (2000) depict how individuals with diagnosed burnout have many psychiatric, psychosomatic, somatic and social disorders. When it comes to affective manifestations individuals suffering from burnout pertain in a gloomy, tearful and depressed mood (Schaufeli and Buunk, 2003; Schaufeli and Enzman, 1998). On the cognitive level they feel helpless and hopeless. A sense of failure, poor self esteem and guilt is also present (Schaufeli and Enzman, 1998). Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) imply that exhaustion, being a common characteristic of burnt-out individuals is associated with health problems and reduced well-being. Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) list some physical manifestations such as headaches, sleep disturbances, dizziness, muscle pain and ulcer. Weber and Jaekel-Reinhard (2000) list some of the common somatic symptoms as gastro-intestinal disorders, or cardio-vascular disturbances such as tachycardia, arrhythmia, and hypertonia. The common psychiatric symptoms are referred to as a mental dysfunction characterized by a loss of concentration and memory disturbances, lack of interest, cynicism, and aggressiveness. Weber and Jaekel-Reinhard (2000) also highlight that development of addictions

has been associated with burnout, and in severe cases anxiety and depressive disturbances occur that can result with suicide.

Schaufeli and Buunk (2002) claim how few studies found a consistent positive correlation between psychosomatic disorders and burnout; most commonly with the dimension of emotional exhaustion. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) cite a study by Burke and Deszca (1986) where it was assessed how often respondents experienced bad physical conditions such as poor appetite, headaches, and chest pains, and results showed a positive relation to the burnout components. With regards to psychiatric disorders Jackson and Maslach's (1982) study reported that police workers who experienced significant levels of the burnout components returned home from work aroused and anxious.

2.6.2 Interpersonal Consequences

Burnout does not only have negative psychological and physical consequences on the individual but also plenty of social consequences when it comes to relationships in the work-environment as well as relationships in private life. Weber and Jaekel-Reinhard (2000) see this in the form of inner resignation or a withdrawal at the workplace, and social isolation in private life. Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) describe individuals with experienced burnout to be oversensitive, full of anger, irritable and with a low sense of empathy in relation to their clients. These manifestations are present in the relationships with co-workers and supervisors as well. Maslach and Jackson's (1985) study found a positive relationship between the burnout components and poor co-worker relations aside of a positive relation between burnout and the desire to spend less time with others. Individuals become cynical and dehumanizing with frequent violent outbursts, and they show indifference and respond to clients in a mechanical manner (Schaufeli and Enzman, 1998). This decreased involvement with clients is seen as the most obvious characteristic of burnout, as pointed out by Schaufeli and Buunk (2002). If these type of behavior is taken home then Jackson and Maslach (1982) state that the problems are likely to dominate family life and might increase family conflicts with spouse and children. Thus, the resulting

work-family conflicts worsen the situation of the affected individual in that problems are obtained in all aspects of employee's life, the occupational and the private one.

In their study on police officer couples Jackson and Maslach (1982) found that burnt-out individuals tended to withdraw from their friends, and merely continued socializing. An interesting finding was that police officers reported an inability to let of their professional role outside the work-place, and their spouses claimed that they retained professional attitudes in relation to their own children. As an example from the work-setting Cordes and Dougherty (1993) notice studies conducted at day-care centers where child care workers experiencing higher levels of the burnout components also experienced greater impatience and less tolerance. Whether the background be a work-setting or a home, it is obvious that the negative consequences of burnout are pertained over all kinds of interpersonal relationships, mainly relationships with clients, co-workers, family and friends.

2.6.3 Organizational Consequences

Beside the individual and interpersonal consequences throughout the work-setting and the social environment burnout has also severe consequences on the whole organization. To Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) the most negative organizational consequence of burnout is reduced job performance. This implies that burnt-out individuals are less productive and deliver inefficient results. Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) also agree that burnout results with reduced effectiveness and poor work performance at the organizational level. They depict how individuals experience job dissatisfaction and distrust in management and supervisors. A loss of morale, motivation to work and resistance to go to work is also present. This connotes Korunka et al.'s (2005) implications that burnout is associated with lower job satisfaction, a reduction in organizational commitment and that burnt-out individuals have a likelihood to start conflicts with colleagues and abrupt team-work what further worsens organizational outcomes and expectations.

On the other hand, Schaufeli and Buunk (2002) claim how the most prominent organizational consequences are absenteeism and job turnover. Based on available studies, Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) concluded that the most consistent relationship is found between the dimension of emotional exhaustion and absenteeism. Consistent, however very few studies found a relationship between absenteeism and reduced personal accomplishment. However, while regarding job turnover a weak relationship was found between actual turnover and two components of burnout, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while no relationship was found between the third dimension of reduced personal accomplishment and actual turnover. In Maslach and Jackson's (1985) study burnout components were associated with turnover intentions. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) cite Jackson et al.'s (1986) study where turnover intentions were significantly associated with their reported levels of all three burnout dimensions, although actual turnover was only significantly associated with emotional exhaustion. This leads us to the conclusion that turnover intentions and actual turnover as organizational consequences of burnout need to be separated as differing constructs. In distinguishing turnover intentions from actual turnover Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) highlight that the weak relationship might result due to the fact that plenty of burn-out individuals stay in their jobs involuntarily. However, one conclusion that can be drawn out of all the discussed consequences is that burnout has a domino effect. Being stipulated at the work-setting it affects primarily the individual's physical and mental health. The effects start reflecting on to clients, colleagues, friends, family and the social environment while deteriorating all forms of relationships. At the final step, absenteeism, turnover and a loss in organizational performance result as representing potential, severe financial losses for the whole organization. The burnout construct therefore needs further attention and dedication as to its causes, diagnosis, consequences, possible avoidance and policies designed to cope with it and cure it.

3. THE THEORETICAL RESEARCH MODEL

After reviewing the intensive literature on burnout with a broad overview of its most prominent antecedents it was seen how work-related, organizational and personal antecedents each act as either a protector against burnout, or conversely as a stimulant that lead to the development of this syndrome. This complies with Demerouti et al's. (2001) statement in relation to the job demand-resource model of burnout in that different factors act as either demands that trigger burnout, or as resources that help individual employees cope with it or possibly avoid it. It is worth mentioning that the studies which are discussed in the antecedent of burnout section of this dissertation have mostly solely focused on work-related, organizational or personal factors of burnout separately. Although few of the studies incorporated for instance both an organizational and a personal factor, they either studied the effects on the overall measure of burnout, or over one of its three dimensions (e.g. Weng et al., 2011; Hamwsi, Rutherford and Boles, 2011). In fact, Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) claim that their study is to their knowledge the first to examine the direct effects of an individual and organizational variable on burnout and its dimensions in a single study. Given this important implication, it was decided to incorporate a work-related, an organizational and a personal factor all together into a model and to study their direct effect on the overall measure of burnout, as well as over it's theoretically widely accepted three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. This would add to the knowledge about this concept in being the first study to examine the direct effects of a work-related, organizational and personal variable on burnout and its dimensions, and to discuss which of the factor's influence is higher. Besides, the effects of these variables on the burnout dimensions will also be examined.

It is decided to study the effect of emotional labor, being a representative work-related antecedent, perceived organizational support, as the organizational antecedent and emotional intelligence, as the personal antecedent of burnout as the independent variables of the theoretical research model. The independent variables are defined and discussed in the detail, together with the provision of the reasoning of choosing these variables for the research model. Burnout, being

the dependent variable is also shortly discussed together with its three dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Lastly, the suggested theoretical research model is provided.

3.1 EMOTIONAL LABOR

The term emotional labor was described for the first time by Hochschild (1983) in her book 'The managed heart'. Hochschild posited that employees often get paid for controlling their feelings and emotional expressions, particularly when interacting with customers and named this phenomenon emotional labor (Dieffendorf, Richard and Young, 2008). The definition of emotional labor as proposed by Hochschild (1983) is "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" for a wage (as cited in Diffendorf, Croyle and Grosserand, 2005, p. 339). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) describe how emotional labor involves the expression of socially desirable emotions in interpersonal interactions. Moreover, to Brotheridge and Lee (2003) 'employees perform emotional labor when they regulate their emotional display in an attempt to meet organizationally-based expectations specific to their roles' (p. 365), and Dieffendorf et al. (2005) point out that organizations specify these display rules that serve as standards for the appropriate expression of emotions.

Emotional labor is derived from the emotion regulation theory which is defined as "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998 as cited in Grandey, 2000, p. 90); thus the theory provides a guiding framework for emotional labor. Hochschild (1983) identified two main strategies by which individuals regulate their emotions in response to organizationally desired emotional behavior. These are surface acting and deep acting. It is worth mentioning that these two strategies are generally associated with service work, because of frequent interactions with customers that require workers to display a variety of emotions and with varying degrees of intensity (Morris and Feldman, 1996).

In performing surface acting, workers express required emotions without actually feeling them by hiding their real feelings and displaying ‘fake’ emotions (Brotheridge, 2006, p. 139). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) explain how surface actors put on a mask and fake the emotions that they do not actually feel and experience while hiding their actual emotions. In fact, the workers express only the organizationally-desired emotions and hide the undesired ones (Dieffendorf, et al., 2008).

In performing deep acting, workers also express the required emotions but they try to feel them, so that they focus on bringing their external emotional display and internal feelings into alignment (Brotheridge, 2006). Deep acting refers to the attempts to invoke and actually feel the displayed emotions (Hochschild, 2003 as cited in Zhang and Zu, 2008) and workers force themselves into experiencing the emotions they wish to display (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). Grandey (2000) claims that while deep acting involves changing one’s felt emotion so that the emotional expressions naturally match display requirements separating surface and deep acting as two distinct methods of regulating emotions, it is possible for emotional labor to have both positive and negative outcomes.

Although researchers agreed that surface and deep acting are the main elements constituting emotional labor an important implication was put forth by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) in that they argued that focusing on only surface and deep acting ignores the possibility that employees can spontaneously experience and display appropriate and natural emotions. Hereby, a third emotional labor strategy named as ‘authenticity’ (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993), ‘expression of naturally felt emotions’ (Dieffendorf, et al., 2005), or for abbreviating the term also commonly referred to as ‘genuine acting’ (Glomb and Tews, 2002; Gursoy, Boylu and Avci, 2011; Chu and Murrmann, 2006) was introduced. While performing genuine acting workers spontaneously and genuinely experience, feel, and display socially desired emotions (Zhang and Zu, 2008). In performing genuine acting individual’s emotional response to a situation meets the requirements of emotional behavior of an organization, but since workers still have to put effort to make sure that their emotions match organizational expectations Ashforth and Humphrey

(1993) consider genuine acting to constitute emotional labor. Glomb and Tews (2002) add that expressing genuinely felt emotions might be taxing to an individual.

The literature review on emotional labor reveals different perspectives on the construct. While Hochschild (1983) investigated the strategies of surface and deep acting as the main constitutors of emotional labor in focusing on occupational differences, Morris and Feldman (1993) focused on job characteristics in studying the frequency, intensity, variety of emotions and emotional dissonance. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) conceptualized emotional labor as consisting of job-focused emotional labor denoting the level of emotional demands in an occupation and employee-focused emotional labor as the employee process of managing emotions and expressions in meeting work demands. However, the genuine emotions that have also been previously defined by Hochschild (1983) as passive deep acting had previously been overlooked by researchers, but nowadays surface, deep and genuine acting represent the most commonly used terms of emotional labor (Gursoy, Boylu and Avci, 2011). The underlying reason might be also that the previous conceptualizations and dimensions are rather seen as antecedents to emotional labor (Grandey, 2000). It is therefore decided to use the components of surface, deep and genuine acting throughout the dissertation.

Out of the literature review part of antecedents of burnout it was seen through the discussed findings that it seems to be less empirical support for emotional labor's relationship to burnout dimensions. Grandey (2000) hereby proposes that more studies should relate emotional labor to burnout dimensions. Besides, it was seen that studies investigating the relationship between the third emotional labor dimension, genuine acting, which has recently gained more theoretical and empirical focus, and the burnout dimensions are also scant. It is therefore decided to apply the three emotional labor strategies named as surface, deep, and genuine acting and to study their effects on burnout and its three dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment). This will hopefully add to the existing knowledge in explaining the relationship of emotional labor to the burnout components. Additionally, the not yet properly investigated effect of genuine acting on the burnout dimensions will be investigated as well.

3.2 PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

Perceived organizational support is derived from the organizational support theory which 'involves the organization's propensity to meet employees' socio-emotional needs' (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986 as cited in Dawley, Andrews, and Bucklew, 2007, p.237). To Eisenberger et al. (1986) organizational support theory assumes that in order to determine the organization's propensity to reward employee's effort and to meet their socio-emotional needs, employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (as cited in Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Consequently, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) describe how perceived organizational support is seen in the form of assurance that help will be available from the organization when it is needed, in order to perform effectively and to deal with stressful and demanding situations. When employees feel that their organization cares about their well-being and supports them, they develop trust in the organization and respond with increased commitment and performance (Eisenberger et al. 1986 as cited in Chullan, Dunford, Angermeier, Boss and Boss, 2010). Hereby, in defining the construct organizational support theory implies that when employees perceive that they are supported by the organization they will respond with positive cooperative behavior aimed at meeting organizational goals, whereas when employees perceive a lack of support from their employer, they will be more likely to engage in counterproductive behavior being harmful to the organization (Chullan, et al., 2010).

According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), one important implication of the organizational support theory is the 'personification' of the organization. It is seen in the organization's moral, financial and legal responsibility for its employees as well as in the organizational policies, norms, and culture that prescribe role behaviors, and the power that the organization exerts over its employees. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) point out that that with the personification of the organization employees view the way in which they are treated as an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them, or in other words employees believe

that the organization has a general positive or negative orientation toward them including both their contributions and their welfare.

The explanation of perceived organizational support is also partly aided with social exchange theory. There are two core implications of the social exchange theory that add to the understanding of the concept. The first is the 'norm of reciprocity' which 'obligates people to respond positively to favorable treatment received from others' (Blau, 1964 as cited in Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch, 1997, p. 812). In other words, if both the employee and the employer apply the norm of reciprocity in their relationship, favorable treatment received by either party is reciprocated, thus resulting with beneficial outcomes for both (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). To exemplify, if favorable treatment from the organizations in the form of organizational rewards and favorable job conditions such as pay and promotion contribute to perceived organizational support then on the basis of the reciprocity norm perceived organizational support should also produce a felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization reach its objectives (Kinnunen, Feldt and Makikangas, 2008). Shortly stated, perceived organizational support demands that both the employer and the employee fulfill their obligations in relation to one another.

The second important implication of the social exchange theory relates to discretionary organizational behavior. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) claim that received resources are more highly valued if they are based on discretionary choice by the organization rather than by external conditions. To exemplify, organizational rewards and favorable job conditions such as pay, promotions, and job enrichment contribute more to perceived organizational support if the employee believes that they result from the organization's voluntary actions, as opposed to external circumstances and influence that result from union negotiation, or for instance governmental health and safety regulations (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Employees perceive these voluntary rewards that come directly from the organization as an indication that the organization values their well-being (Dawley, Andrews, and Bucklew, 2007).

After the overview of the theories from which the concept of perceived organizational support is derived the generally accepted definition for perceived organization support is

provided as "the general belief concerning the extent to which the organization values employee's contributions and cares about their well-being." (Eisenberger et al., 1986 as cited in Colakoglu, Culha and Atay, 2010, p. 127).

Based on the definition Worley, Fuqua and Hellman (2009) assumed that this operationalization denotes the possibility of two theoretically distinct components of perceived organizational support. To Worley, Fuqua and Hellma (2009) the first component of organizational support is a global belief that the organization recognizes and values employee contribution as reflected in tangible resources such as organizational rewards and favorable job conditions, and it suggests that perceived support would raise an employee's expectancy that the organization is going to reward greater effort in meeting organizationally desired goals. The second component concerns the belief that the organization is concerned about the socio-emotional well-being of employees. Hereby, organizational support reflects employee perceptions with regard to organizational policies and practices relating to time away from work due to personal reasons, family care and so on. However, scholars commonly agreed that perceived organizational support is rather seen as a unidimensional construct. The widely accepted measure of perceived organizational support named as the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support by Eisenberger, et al. (1986) has provided evidence for the unidimensionality of the construct. Subsequent exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses with employees from diverse occupations and organizations also provided evidence for the high internal reliability and unidimensionality of Eisenberger et al. (1986) scale both in its original, 36-item form and subsequent, shorter versions of 8 and 16 items (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Worley, Fuqua and Hellman, 2009).

Given the importance of the construct of perceived organizational support as stress and demands coping resource with potential, plausible effects on the reduction of burnout, as seen through the limited amounts of studies that were discussed in the antecedents part of the dissertation, it is of detrimental importance to also study its particular effect on the three burnout dimensions. Additional studies from various occupations and backgrounds need to be conducted in order to add to the knowledge where perceived organizational support reduces overall burnout.

Besides, studies investigating perceived organizational support's effect on the three burnout components would also enrich the existing literature as only one study by Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) investigated this relationship so far. These are the main reasons for choosing this variable as the organizational factor affecting burnout in the research model.

3.3. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The construct of emotional intelligence is partly derived from Thorndike's (1920) concept of 'social intelligence' which refers to the ability to understand and manage people and to act wisely in human relations. The conceptualization of emotional intelligence is also partly rooted in Gardner's (1983) 'multiple intelligence theory'. Gardner used the concepts of intrapersonal intelligence (the ability to understand personal emotions) and interpersonal intelligence (the ability to understand other's emotions) which provided a foundation for the future conceptualizations of emotional intelligence (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim, 1998).

Emotional intelligence is defined as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 10). Another definition of emotional intelligence is 'the competency of managing yourself and your relationships with others, making effective teamwork, leading others, and forecasting the future, all of what has positive effects in terms of efficacy and performance' (Goleman, 1995 as cited in Moon and Huur, 2011, p. 1088).

It was not until Salovey and Mayer (1990) provided a theoretical model and formal definition of the construct when emotional intelligence started to gain increasing interest and became a subject of debate among academics. The subsequent conceptualizations were mostly

influenced with Goleman's (1995) book 'Emotional Intelligence', but due to criticism as to the shallowness of his model seen by scholars as a popular psychology element that is not scientifically respected (Mayer, Roberts and Barsade, 2008) other conceptualization took place ever since.

To date, the most commonly accepted conceptualization is Salovey and Mayer's (1990) conceptualization of emotional intelligence which focuses on emotional skills consisting of four central abilities; perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions, and these skills are developed through learning and experience (Siu, 2009). Alternative conceptualizations rapidly followed by Goleman (1995), Bar-On (1997), Petrides and Furnham (2000) and many more. Because the early conceptualizations were vague and did not focus on the cognitive characteristics which Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially proposed in their theoretical model, a revised model named as the 'ability model' was put forth by Mayer and Salovey (1997). Previous models referred to as 'mixed models' incorporate a wide range of personality variables as opposed to Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability model, which is a strongly cognitive definition of emotional intelligence (Petrides and Furnham, 2000). To date, generally two approaches to conceptualizing and measuring emotional intelligence exist in the literature, namely the aforementioned 'ability' and the 'mixed' approach, but since Meyer et al. (2008) highlighted that the 'mixed' approach which is based on self-judgment measures is not only conceptually invalid, but also lacks empirical validity in comparison with the 'ability' approach it is decided to apply ability based test measures in this dissertation. Moreover, since the original model of Salovey and Mayer (1990) and the Mayer and Salovey (1997) revised model present the most cohesive and comprehensive models of emotional intelligence (Schutte, et al., 1998) these conceptualizations will be used and discussed as follows:

Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed that emotional intelligence consists of three categories: appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion and utilization of emotions in solving problems.

Schutte, et al. (1998, p. 168) summarized these categories as follows:

The first category consists of the components of appraisal and expression of emotion in the self and appraisal of emotion in others; The second category of emotional intelligence consists of components of regulation of emotions in the self and regulation of emotions in others; The third category, utilization of emotion, includes the components of flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention and motivation, so that even though emotions are at the core of this model, it also encompasses social and cognitive functions related to the expression, regulation and utilization of emotions.

However, Schutte et al. (1998) underline that in order to provide more emphasis to cognitive components of emotional intelligence the revised model was proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) which conceptualizes emotional intelligence in terms of potential for intellectual and emotional growth. The 'revised model' consists of four branches of emotional intelligence and Brotheridge (2006, p. 140) summarize it as follows:

The first branch named as 'perception of emotions' serves as the foundation for other branches and it presents the ability to accurately perceive emotions generated internally or externally by other individuals; The second branch named as 'emotional facilitation of thought' is the ability to use emotions to facilitate mental processes and communicate emotions; The third branch named as 'understanding emotion' involves the ability to understand the nature and meaning of emotions and to use this information in reasoning processes; and the fourth branch named as 'managing emotion' consists of managing or regulating emotions in others and self in a manner that facilitates understanding and well-being.

Out of the previously discussed findings in the antecedents of burnout part of the dissertation it was seen how researchers agreed that emotional intelligence can be seen as a predictor of burnout, and that it has important implications in its reduction, as well as in its avoidance. The inverse relationship between these two constructs highlights that the presence of emotional intelligence can significantly reduce employee's burnout levels. It is therefore of particular interest to study the effect of emotional intelligence on burnout within this dissertation in order to see whether existing knowledge could be enriched with additional findings as to the

benefits of enhancing employee's emotional intelligence, as a personal variable in order to better cope with work-related, organizational and personal demands to avoid the development and experience of burnout.

3.4 BURNOUT

For the dependent variable of the theoretical research model the most commonly accepted definitions are provided as follows:

Burnout is a "state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward" (Freudenberger and Riechelson, 1980, p.13) It is the result of chronic stress which has not been successfully dealt with, and it is specific to the work context (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001) Burnout is characterized by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain and development of negative self concept and negative attitude towards work, life and other people (Pines and Aronson, 1981).

The most prominent definition of burnout is "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity" (Maslach, Jackson and Leiter, 1996, p. 4). The theoretically and empirically widely accepted dimensions of burnout in the literature are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment, and are described as follows:

Emotional exhaustion is the key aspect of the burnout syndrome (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). It is characterized by a lack of energy and a feeling that one's emotional resources are used up (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993). To Lee and Ashforth (1990) emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being overextended emotionally, and drained by contact with people.

Depersonalization refers to the development of negative feelings and behavior towards other people, and often involves blaming others for one's own problems (Maslach and Jackson, 1986). It is described as individuals who tend to distance self from others and who see people as things or objects (Scott, 2002). Maslach and Jackson (1981) describe depersonalization in referring it to the development of negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about one's clients/recipient and other.

Reduced personal accomplishment is the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to one's work with clients or recipients (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). It refers to a decline in one's feelings of competence and achievement at work (Greenglass, Burke, and Konarski, 1998). To Maslach (2005) this 'negative self-evaluation', reflecting a decline in people's sense of their own professional effectiveness makes employees feel unhappy and dissatisfied with their accomplishments on the job.

3.5 THE THEORETICAL RESEARCH MODEL

After reviewing the independent and dependent variables and its dimensions the theoretical research model is provided as follows:

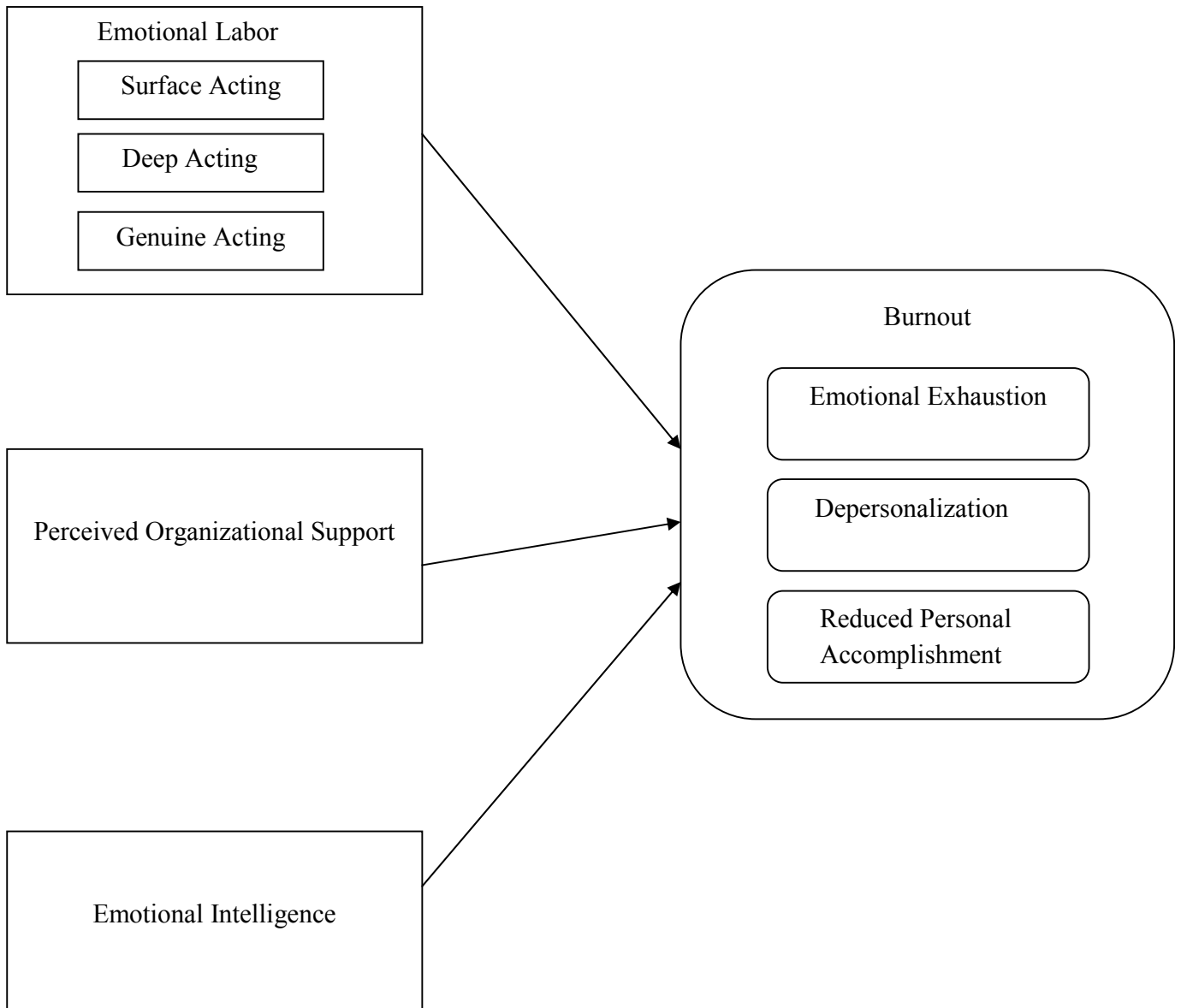


Figure 1: The Theoretical Research Model

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Throughout the following section, the aim of the research, the research questions and the developed hypotheses are presented. In addition to this, the characteristics of the sample, the data collection procedure, the survey instruments and list of variables are discussed. Finally, the data analysis methods are defined.

4.1 THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

Burnout has become a casualty in today's high-demanding, stressful and rapidly changing workplace. A variety of factors discussed happens to affect burnout, or one of its diverse components, altogether or rather particularly. After reviewing the literature about the antecedents of burnout and its components, a model was theorized where three different independent variables were selected to be analyzed regarding their effects on burnout and its three dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Due to the large number of factors affecting burnout, emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence were selected on convenience as a best representation of work-related, organizational and personal variables having distinct effects on the overall measure of burnout, and more importantly its dimensions.

4.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The effects of the independent variables on burnout constitute the main research questions. The research questions based on the literature survey are listed below:

Q1: do emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence affect burnout?

Q2: Which factors of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence affect burnout and its dimensions?

Q3: In what way do factors of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence affect burnout and its dimensions?

4.3 THE SUGGESTED HYPOTHESES

The previous researches and the study's intention help to indicate the hypotheses for this study. They are developed based on the following independent and dependent variables.

- Emotional labor (surface acting, deep acting, expression of naturally felt emotions or genuine acting)
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Emotional intelligence
- Burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment)

First, a hypothesis testing the relationship between an overall measure of burnout and emotional labor is developed.

Ho: Emotional labor strategy does not affect burnout.

Ha: Emotional labor strategy affects burnout.

Then, in order to test which variables of emotional labor affect burnout and its dimensions the following hypotheses are developed.

Ha1: Surface acting affects burnout.

Ha2: Deep acting affects burnout.

Ha3: Genuine acting affects burnout.

Ha4: Surface acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha5: Surface acting affects depersonalization.

Ha6: Surface acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Ha7: Deep acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha8: Deep acting affects depersonalization.

Ha9: Deep acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Ha10: Genuine acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha11: Genuine acting affects depersonalization.

Ha12: Genuine acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

A hypothesis testing the relationship between perceived organizational support and burnout is developed as follows:

Ho: Perceived organizational support does not affect burnout.

Hb: Perceived organizational support affects burnout.

Then, in order to test the effects on the dimensions of burnout the following hypotheses are developed.

Hb1: Perceived organizational support affects emotional exhaustion.

Hb2: Perceived organizational support affects depersonalization.

Hb3: Perceived organizational support affects reduced personal accomplishment.

A hypothesis testing the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout is developed as follows:

Ho: Emotional intelligence does not affect burnout.

Hc: Emotional intelligence affects burnout.

Then, in order to test the effects on the dimensions of burnout the following hypotheses are developed.

Hc1: Emotional Intelligence affects emotional exhaustion.

Hc2: Emotional Intelligence affects depersonalization.

Hc3: Emotional Intelligence affects reduced personal accomplishment.

4.4 THE SAMPLE

As mentioned in the introductory part of the dissertation the study is conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina because of a lack of empirical studies within this cultural context. Additionally, it is of particular interest to assess employee burnout in a war affected country, and contribute to future studies for cross-cultural comparison. The questionnaires are distributed to public hospitals since these institutions are well known for the level of stress, workload, and other challenges in

daily operations. Besides, high levels of burnout are prevalent in the medical sector, and many researchers have focused on measuring burnout in the health care sector. Moreover, the well-studied measurement of burnout in the literature which is the Maslach Burnout Inventory was originally designed for professionals in the human services (Demerouti et al., 2007), mainly in hospitals. Public hospitals in Bosnia and Herzegovina were chosen due to the bad working conditions, low salaries and high amount of workload that are a reality in this post-war country, so that accordingly high levels of burnout are expected. Since burnout is an occurrence with a global character and since its presence has been identified almost everywhere similar results are expected to prevail in Bosnia and Herzegovina as well. In other words, identifying burnout and the factors causing it in Bosnia and Herzegovina would contribute to the existing knowledge about the global presence of this construct.

The questionnaires were distributed to three public hospitals after the official approval of the directors of the hospital. Two of the hospitals are located in the capital city of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sarajevo and one in the neighboring city Visoko. The names of the hospitals are Health Centre of Sarajevo Canton, Clinical Center University of Sarajevo, and Health Centre and Polyclinic Visoko. A total of 320 questionnaires were distributed and 285 were returned resulting with a response rate of 89 %. 34 of them were excluded due to missing data, answers left blank and other, so that the analysis is conducted with 251 respondents. A survey in Bosnian and English is provided in the appendix.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

In order to study the factors affecting burnout in the workplace, questionnaires were personally administered to three public hospitals in Sarajevo and Visoko, Bosnia and Herzegovina. Doctors, nurses, technicians and other medical staff were asked to fill in the questionnaires.

A brief introduction explaining the purpose of the study was given by the researcher to the participants. Also, the assurance of the confidentiality of the study was provided by mentioning the academic purposes of the study.

The participants were asked to evaluate burnout on 19 items, and emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence on 14, 8 and 33 items respectively. There were 9 demographic questions to be analyzed for comparing groups in the questionnaire. The fulfillment of the questionnaires took approximately 10 minutes, and the completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher. The whole process lasted about three months, starting from April to June, 2012. Appendix 1 includes the copy of the questionnaire in Bosnian and in English language.

4.6 INSTRUMENTS

Survey, generally used in social sciences is the method used for the data collection. Data was collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire survey. The survey was prepared in English and then translated to Bosnian through the back-translation method as suggested by McGorry (2000). In order to ensure that the content of the items was cross-linguistically comparable and that it generated the same meaning it was further revised and checked by a professor of English language from Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The survey starts with a cover letter mentioning the importance of the issue and guaranteeing the privacy of the data collected from the employees with a short brief about mentoring. The questions are grouped into two categories, first starting by the demographic variables and then questions related to the measurement of the dependent and independent variables. Items were measured on a 6-point scale ranging from “I totally disagree” to “I totally agree” in the questionnaire. The survey consists of 5 parts and a total of 83 items. The first part consists of 9 demographic questions. The second part consists of 19 items that are related to the

dependent variable. The third, fourth and fifth parts of the questionnaire relate to the three independent variables which are emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence consisting of 14, 8, and 33 items respectively. Participants are asked to rate his or her agreement with each of the statements.

A total of four instruments are used in this study in order to measure the dependent variable burnout, and the independent variables, being emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence. The instruments are discussed in the following part.

4.6.1 Burnout Scale

The original Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981); (1986) is the most popular instrument to assess burnout (Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck, 1993). It consists of 22 items, however Boles, Dean, Ricks, Short and Wang (2000) revised the MBI by using structural equation modeling techniques, and reduced it to 19 items. Items 2, 12, and 16 from MBI were dropped. Similarly, Schaufeli and Van Dierendonck (1993) also identified a few weak and ambiguous items in testing the construct validity of the MBI.

According to Boles et al. (2000) the post hoc elimination of the three items from the original MBI was based on previous research, the content validity of the items, and cross-sample measurement problems associated with these items. The analyses made by Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) suggest that the reduced-item MBI fit the data better and did not substantially alter the relationships between the dimensions as evidenced in their samples. Although further cross-validation is called for, Boles, et al. (2000) conclude that the reduced-item MBI has better psychometric measurement properties than the original scale. Also, due to the costly nature of the original Maslach Burnout Inventory it is decided to measure burnout with the 19-item revised MBI by Boles et al. (2000). The scale was slightly adapted to fit the human services profession so that the originally used term 'students' was replaced with the term 'others', since many of the work characteristics that have been linked to burnout involve contact with other people, whether

they be clients/recipients or coworkers (Leiter and Maslach, 1988). Likewise, Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) also applied the term 'others' instead of 'students' in their analysis.

19 items cover three aspects of the burnout construct: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional Exhaustion is assessed with 7 items. A sample item used to measure emotional exhaustion is "I feel emotionally drained from my work". Depersonalization is assessed with 5 items. A sample item used to measure depersonalization is "I've become more callous toward people since I took this job." Reduced personal accomplishment is assessed with 7 items. A sample item used to measure reduced personal accomplishment is "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job". Items 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 are reverse questions and are therefore recoded in the analysis.

4.6.2 Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Subsequent exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses with employees from diverse occupations and organizations provide evidence for the high internal reliability and unidimensionality of Eisenberger et al. (1986) scale named the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support; SPOS, both in its original, 36-item form and subsequent, shorter versions of 8 and 16 items according to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002, p.699).

The 8-item scale used in this study follows the recommendation of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) in which the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, so that the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic. Worley, Fuqua and Hellman (2009) claim that the correlation between the 8-item and 16-item versions of SPOS ($r = 0.98$) indicates that these two scales can be used almost interchangeably. They also reproduce the 36-item version extremely well with strong positive correlations between the 36-item version and the eight-item ($r = 0.94$) and 16-item versions ($r = 0.97$), respectively, so that they recommend the 8-item version because of its efficiency.

Sample items used to measure perceived organizational support are “The organization values my contribution to its well-being” and “The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work”. Items 2, 3, 5, 7 are reverse questions and are recoded in the analysis.

4.6.3 Emotional Labor Scale

There are various scales that aim to measure emotional labor. Not to name a few, many scales measure emotional labor based on distinct constructs and aspects such as the scale developed by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), the DEELS scale by Glomb and Tews (2002), and the Frankfurt Emotional Work Scale developed by Zapf, Mertini, Seifert, Vogt and Isic (1999).

Since it is searched for an appropriate scale that has already validated it is decided to use the Emotional Labor Strategy Scale developed by Diefendorff, Croyle and Grosserand (2005) who adapted most of the items from Grandey (2003) and Kruml and Geddes (2000) and found that the three-factor model of emotional labor was supported. 14 items cover three aspects of emotional labor that represent three distinct strategies people usually pursue in the light of this construct and Diefendorff, et al. (2005); Chu and Murrmann (2006); Basim and Begenirbas (2012) empirically found that the three factor model was supported. These factors are: surface acting, deep acting, and expression of naturally felt emotions that can also be referred to as authenticity or genuine acting (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Glomb and Tews, 2002; Gursoy, Boylu and Avci, 2011; Chu and Murrmann, 2006) for the sake of abbreviating the term. The term ‘genuine’ acting will be used throughout the dissertation. The items were slightly adapted to fit the context of human services profession so that the term ‘customers’ was replaced with ‘others’ in referring on to clients/recipients and coworkers, just as in the case of the revised Maslach Burnout Inventory by Boles et al. (2000). Surface acting is assessed with 7 items. A sample item is “I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job. Deep acting is assessed with 4 items. A sample item is “I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display towards others”. Genuine acting is assessed with 3 items. A sample item is “The emotions I show to others match what I spontaneously feel”.

4.6.4 Emotional Intelligence Scale

The most commonly applied scale in research which is developed by Schutte et al. (1998) is used to measure emotional intelligence. Due to the complexity of the construct, the differing operationalizations, and the amount of questions used in other instruments, Schutte Scale with 33 items seems to be more efficient. Besides, the scale has proven internal reliability and group differences in scores and correlations with other measures are in accordance with theoretical expectations (Saklofske, Austin, and Minski, 2003; Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Austin, Saklofske, Huang and McKenney, 2004)

The scale was derived using a three-component model of emotional intelligence namely: appraisal or expression of emotions, regulation of emotions and utilization of emotions based on the Mayer-Salovey (1990) model of emotional intelligence. While Schutte et al. (1998) proposed that their scale was a unidimensional emotional intelligence measure, two separate studies have suggested that there are four sub-factors called optimism or mood regulation, social skills, appraisal of emotions, and utilization of emotions in addition to an overall emotional intelligence factor as claimed by Petrides and Furnham (2000); Saklofske et al. (2003).

Chan (2004; 2006) however called these sub-factors as positive utilization of emotions, positive regulation of emotions, emotional appraisal and empathic sensitivity. The factor analysis method will highlight whether a unidimensional or a multi-dimensional construct is developed throughout the sample used in this study.

Sample items include: “I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on”, “I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice” and “I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them”. Items 5, 28 and 33 are reverse questions and are recoded in the analysis.

4.6.5 Demographic Questions

9 questions are developed to evaluate the possible differences between groups in relation to burnout. The demographic variables of the study such as gender, age, marital status, number of children, education level, occupation, tenure in occupation, tenure at the hospital, and current position at the hospital are examined respectively from questions 1 through 9 in the questionnaire.

4.7 LIST OF VARIABLES

List of the variables is presented below with the related items of the questionnaire.

4.7.1 Dependent Variable

Burnout

Factors:

Items:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| • Emotional Exhaustion | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 |
| • Depersonalization | 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, |
| • Reduced Personal Accomplishment | 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 |

4.7.2 Independent Variables

Emotional Labor

Factors:

- Surface Acting
- Deep Acting
- Expression of naturally felt emotions

Items:

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

8, 9, 10, 11

12, 13, 14

Perceived Organizational Support

Factors:

- Perceived Organizational Support

Items:

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8

Emotional Intelligence

Factors:

- Emotional Intelligence

Items:

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12,
13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23
24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33

4.7.3 Demographic Variables

(D1-D9)

- Gender (D1)
- Age (D2)
- Marital Status (D3)
- Number of Children (D4)
- Education (D5)
- Occupation (D6)
- Tenure in Occupation (D7)
- Tenure at the Hospital (D8)
- Current Position at the Hospital (D9)

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

In the study, first of all, frequency distributions are used to evaluate the features of the sample based on the demographic items of the questionnaire. Secondly, various statistical methods such as exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, and independent sample t-test are conducted through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 18) software. After recoding the reverse-scored items, the questionnaire was analyzed to ensure its reliability. Besides, the significance level of 0.5 is determined for the analyses.

Exploratory factor analysis is, first, conducted to examine the factors of burnout and factors of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence. After deciding on the factors related with these variables, reliability analysis is conducted where Cronbach's α is calculated separately for both dependent and independent variables.

Simple regression tests are conducted to test the significance of the research model. Regression tests are also used for testing the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. To test the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable of the research model (burnout), independent t- tests are conducted many times. Moreover, One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests are utilized to determine whether there would be differences between the examined demographics.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter aims to investigate the findings of the research. The analyses start by examining the demographic characteristics of the study sample. Then, factor and reliability analyses are conducted. After revising our research model according to factor and reliability analyses, the hypotheses based on the research model are tested. To examine the differences between demographic groups, independent t-tests are conducted. On the other hand, simple regression analysis is used to test the research model. First, the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable is examined. Secondly, the effect of each factor of the independent variable on the dependent variable is tested. Finally, the effects of the independent variable factors on the dimensions of the dependent variable are analyzed.

5.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES OF THE RESPONDENTS

Descriptive information about the sample is displayed in the following tables. The tables provide details about the demographic characteristics of the respondents such as gender, age, marital status, number of children, education level, occupation, tenure in occupation, tenure at the hospital, and current position at the hospital.

As shown in the following table, there are 195 female and 60 male subjects in the sample. Females constitute 76.5%, males constitute 23.5% of the overall sample. The high percentage of female respondents in the frequency distribution of gender complies with the fact that the male population in Bosnia and Herzegovina has drastically decreased due to the loss of lives of many male soldiers during the recent war in Bosnia and Herzegovina that lasted from 1992-1995. Additionally, the sample is mainly constituted of nurses, which is seen in the proceeding parts. Gender differences can in fact reflect differences in occupation (Schaufeli and Greenglass, 2001; Maslach and Jackson, 1981), and since nursing as a type of occupation is

generally more prevalent across the female population it does not seem surprising that it exceeded the male population in this sample.

Table 5.1.1
Gender Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid male	60	23.5	23.5	23.5
female	195	76.5	76.5	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.1.2 shows the age distribution of the respondents. As it is seen from the table, the majority of the respondents are aged 50 and over. This is in compliance with the facts that Bosnia and Herzegovina has a high percentage of elderly population, and that the birth rate is low. This majority constitutes 37.6 % of the respondents. 29.4 % of the respondents are aged between 40 and 49, 22.0 % of the respondents are aged between 30 and 39, and 11.0 % of the respondents are aged between 19 and 29.

Table 5.1.2
Age Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 19-29	28	11.0	11.0	11.0
30-39	56	22.0	22.0	32.9
40-49	75	29.4	29.4	62.4
50 & over	96	37.6	37.6	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 5.1.3, majority of the respondents are married and constitute 74.5 % of the respondents. There are 190 married subjects in the sample. Single respondents are 45 and constitute 17.6 % of the respondents. There are 14 divorced respondents constituting 5.5 % of the respondents and 6 widowed respondents in the sample constituting 2.4 % of the respondents.

Table 5.1.3
Marital Status Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid married	190	74.5	74.5	74.5
single	45	17.6	17.6	92.2
divorced	14	5.5	5.5	97.6
widowed	6	2.4	2.4	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 5.1.4, the majority of the respondents has two children and constitutes 47.1 % of the respondents. There are 120 subjects with two children in the sample. There are 66 subjects in the sample that do not have children constituting 25.9 % of respondents, 52 subjects with one child constituting 20.4 %, 15 subjects with three children constituting 5.9 %, and 2 subjects with four children constituting 0.8 % of the respondents in the sample.

Table 5.1.4
Number of children

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid .00	66	25.9	25.9	25.9
1	52	20.4	20.4	46.3
2	120	47.1	47.1	93.3
3	15	5.9	5.9	99.2
4	2	.8	.8	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 5.1.5, the majority of respondents have a high school degree, constituting 47.1 % of the respondents. 23.9 % of the respondents in the sample hold a specialization degree in different medical branches. 14.1 % of the respondents hold a university degree, 11.4 % hold a university degree of two years, 2.7 % of the respondents hold a master's degree, and 0.8 % of the respondents hold a doctorate's degree.

Table 5.1.5
Education Level Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid High School	120	47.1	47.1	47.1
University Degree two years	29	11.4	11.4	58.4
University Degree	36	14.1	14.1	72.5
Specialization	61	23.9	23.9	96.5
Master's degree	7	2.7	2.7	99.2
Doctorate's degree	2	.8	.8	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

As shown in table 5.1.6, the majority of the respondents are nurses. There are 70 nurses in the sample constituting 27.5 % of the respondents. 65 of the subjects in the sample are specialist doctors constituting 25.5 % of the respondents, followed by 20.8 % technicians, 10.2% higher technicians, and 6.3 % higher nurses. Other occupation types constitute 5.1 % of the respondents and 4.7% of the respondents in the sample are doctors-general practitioners.

Table 5.1.6
Occupation Type Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid doctor specialist	65	25.5	25.5	25.5
doctor	12	4.7	4.7	30.2
nurse	70	27.5	27.5	57.6
higher nurse	16	6.3	6.3	63.9
technician	53	20.8	20.8	84.7
higher technician	26	10.2	10.2	94.9
other	13	5.1	5.1	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.1.7 shows the tenure in occupation of the respondents. The majority of the respondents have tenure in occupation between 20 and 29 years constituting 30.2 % of the respondents. Subjects with tenure in occupation of 30 and over years constitute 26.7 % of the respondents. 25.9% of respondents have tenure in occupation between 0 and 9 years, followed by 17.3 % with tenure between 10 and 19 years.

Table 5.1.7
Tenure in Occupation Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0-9	66	25.9	25.9	25.9
10-19	44	17.3	17.3	43.1
20-29	77	30.2	30.2	73.3
30 & over	68	26.7	26.7	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.1.8 shows the tenure at the hospitals where the questionnaires were administered. The majority of the respondents have been working at the hospital between 1 and 9 years constituting 45.9 % of the respondents. Subjects working between 10 and 19 years at the same hospital constitute 33.3 % of the respondents. 14.5 % of respondents work between 20 and 29 years, and 6.3% work 30 and over years at the hospital.

Table 5.1.8
Tenure at the Hospital Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1-9	117	45.9	45.9	45.9
10-19	85	33.3	33.3	79.2
20-29	37	14.5	14.5	93.7
30 & over	16	6.3	6.3	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

As shown in table 5.1.9, the majority of the respondents hold the position of a nurse at the hospital constituting 30.6 % of the respondents. 21.2 % of the subjects in the sample are at a technician position, 18.8 % at specialist doctors, and 10.2 % at a higher technician position. Department chiefs constitute 6.7 % of the respondents. Doctor positions constitute 4.7 %, and other positions constitute 3.1 % of the respondents. There is one director of hospital position constituting 0.4 % of the respondents.

Table 5.1.9
Current Position at the Hospital Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid doctor specialist	48	18.8	18.8	18.8
doctor	12	4.7	4.7	23.5
department chief	17	6.7	6.7	30.2
nurse	78	30.6	30.6	60.8
higher nurse	11	4.3	4.3	65.1
technician	54	21.2	21.2	86.3
higher technician	26	10.2	10.2	96.5
director	1	.4	.4	96.9
other	8	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	255	100.0	100.0	

5.2 FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

In order to find out the levels of burnout, emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence of the respondents in the study, factor analysis is conducted. The aim is to find out the relevant factors of the variables that influence the respondents' level of burnout. In order to examine the correlation between the variables, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's test are conducted. The KMO has to be 0, 50 of minimum and Bartlett's Test should be meaningful only through values lower than 0, 05 to demonstrate the acceptability of the variables for factor analysis.

Depending on the rule that the Eigen value to be greater than or equal to one, exploratory principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted since it maximizes high loadings and minimizes low loadings. Factor loadings less than 0, 60 were selected to be excluded from the analysis since 0.60 is considered as the significant factor loading. Additionally, items having value less than 0.500 in the anti image correlation table were deleted.

After finding out the relevant factors of the variables, reliability analysis is conducted by Cronbach's Alpha model for testing the consistency between the items of a factor. In order to have reliability, a factor's items should be higher than 0,70.

5.2.1 Factor and Reliability Analyses of Burnout

The Burnout scale developed by Boles, et al. 2000 has 19 items. KMO was found to be 0.806. The value points out that there is correlation between the variables and they are suitable for factor analysis. As the value of KMO is bigger than 0,80; it can be stated that there's a perfect correlation between the items. The result of Barlett's test is 0,000 and $0,000 < 0,05$ confirms the conclusion that the variables are suitable for factor analysis.

The analysis is continued with varimax rotations. Through the analysis, factor loadings less than 0,6 are selected to be extracted since 0,6 is considered as the significant factor loading. Factor analysis is performed repeatedly deleting the items with lower loadings and items that remain single under the same factor. The items 12, and 8 were extracted respectively.

As a result of the factor analysis 4 factors with 17 items are found. Then reliability analysis for each factor is conducted to see if there is any factor with Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0,7. Reliability analysis points out that item 11 should be deleted from factor 2, depersonalization, as the cronbach alpha would be higher if the item is deleted. The factor 4, consisting of items 13 and 14, which could be labeled as empathy is also deleted since it's Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient is 0.602 which is below our accepted level. After deleting items 11, 13 and 14 factor analysis is repeated for the remaining questions. Then reliability analysis is re-conducted.

It's seen that all factors have higher Cronbach alpha of the reliability coefficient, thus; once again factor analysis is done for these final factors. Final KMO result turns out to be 0,818 $> 0,50$ approving the adequacy of the sampling. The Bartlett's test for the variables, has also indicated significant value of $0,000 < 0,50$. It is also worth mentioning here that three factors of the dependent variable totally explain 61,409 % of the total variance. For a detailed

description of the burnout scale, the factor loadings, percent of the variance for each factor and the reliability coefficients of the items loaded on each factor can be best seen in the factor and reliability analysis summary table below:

Table 5.2.1.1
Summary of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Burnout

		Factor Loading	% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion		29, 012	0, 855
4	I feel burned out from my work.	0, 824		
7	I feel like I am at the end of my rope.	0, 774		
2	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0, 752		
3	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	0, 731		
5	I feel frustrated by my job.	0, 701		
1	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0, 661		
6	I feel I am working too hard on my job.	0, 619		
	Factor 2: Depersonalization		10, 585	0, 827
9	I've become more callous toward people. since I took this job.	0, 914		
10	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	0, 905		
	Factor 3: Reduced Personal Accomplishment		21, 813	0, 817
16	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with others.	0, 822		
18	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	0, 794		
17	I feel exhilarated after working closely with others.	0, 784		
15	I feel I am positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	0, 754		
19	In my work I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	0, 685		
	KMO=0, 818 Chi-Square Bar. T.= 1336, 484 P= 0,000		61, 409	

5.2.2 Factor and Reliability Analyses of Emotional Labor

The Emotional Labor Strategy scale developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005) has 14 items, and at the beginning of the analysis, KMO is found to be $0.845 > 0.5$. The value points out that there is correlation between the variables and they are suitable for factor analysis. Since the value of KMO is bigger than 0, 80; it can be stated that there's a perfect correlation between the items. The result of Bartlett's test is 0,000 and $0,000 < 0, 05$ confirm the conclusion that the variables are suitable for factor analysis. The analysis is continued with varimax rotations with the rule that items having factor loadings lower than 0, 60 are eliminated. None of the items had a factor loading less than 0.6, so that all items are retained for further analysis.

Then reliability analysis for each factor is conducted to see if there is any factor with Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0, 7. It's seen that all factors have higher Cronbach alpha of the reliability coefficient, thus; once again factor analysis is done for these final factors.

Final KMO result of $0,845 > 0.5$ approves the adequacy of the sampling, and Bartlett's test for the three factors found in the analysis indicates the significance value of $0,000 < 0, 50$. Three factors of Emotional Labor Strategy account for 73, 034 % of the total variance explained in the study.

Table 5.2.2.1
Summary of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Emotional Labor

		Factor Loading	% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1: Surface Acting		39, 535	0, 908
4	I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	0, 822		
5	I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job.	0, 816		
6	I show feelings to others that are different from what I feel inside.	0, 813		
3	I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with others.	0, 781		
2	I fake a good mood when interacting with others.	0, 765		
1	I put on an act in order to deal with others in an appropriate way.	0, 760		
7	I fake the emotions I show when dealing with others.	0, 742		
	Factor 2: Deep Acting		21, 718	0, 911
10	I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to others.	0, 914		
11	I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to others.	0, 881		
9	I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.	0, 875		
8	I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to others.	0, 816		
	Factor 3: Expression of Naturally Felt Emotions		11, 781	0, 889
14	The emotions I show to others match what I spontaneously feel.	0, 913		
13	The emotions I show to others come naturally.	0, 898		
12	The emotions I express to others are genuine.	0, 859		
	KMO=0, 845 Chi-Square Bar. T.= 2444, 812 P= 0,000		73, 034	

5.2.3 Factor and Reliability Analyses of Perceived Organizational Support

The Perceived Organizational Support Survey developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) has 8 items and at the beginning of the analysis KMO was found to be 0,901 > 0.5. The value points out that there is correlation between the variables and they are suitable for factor analysis. Since the value of KMO is bigger than 0,80; it can be stated that there's a perfect correlation between the items. The result of Bartlett's test is 0,000 < 0,05. Factor analysis extracted only one component. This means that all items are well grouped and have common mean. Then reliability analysis was performed to see if the factor has a value of Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0,7. Cronbach alpha was found to be 0,891 what is higher than our accepted value, thus; once again factor analysis is performed.

Final KMO was found to be 0,901 > 0,5 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity significance is 0,000. It is not possible to write factor loadings because rotated component matrix extracted only one component so that the solution cannot be rotated.

Table 5.2.3.1
Summary of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support

		% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1: Perceived Organizational Support	56, 089	0, 891
1	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.		
2	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.		
3	The organization would ignore any complaint from me.		
4	The organization really cares about my well-being.		
5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.		
6	The organization cares about my general Satisfaction at work.		
7	The organization shows very little concern for me.		
8	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.		
	KMO=0, 901		
	Chi-Square Bar. T.= 989, 271		
	P= 0,000		

5.2.4 Factor and Reliability Analyses of Emotional Intelligence

The Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Schutte et al. (1998) has 33 items, and at the beginning of the analysis KMO was found to be 0,855. The value points out that there is correlation between the variables and they are suitable for factor analysis. As the value of KMO is bigger than 0,80; it can be stated that there's a perfect correlation between the items. The result of Bartlett's test is 0,000 and $0,000 < 0,05$ confirms the conclusion that the variables are suitable for factor analysis. The analysis is continued with varimax rotations. Through the analysis, factor loadings less than 0,6 are selected to be extracted since 0,6 is considered as the significant factor loading. Factor analysis is performed repeatedly deleting the items with lower loadings. The items 3, 14, 16, 23, 27, 26, 19, 15, 31, 4, 13 were extracted respectively. Afterwards, item 28 was extracted since its value in the anti image correlation table was less than 0.500. Factor analysis was conducted again, following with varimax rotations where the items 18, 25, 5, and 33 having factor loadings less than 0,6 were respectively extracted. Item 17, with a factor loading of 0,585 is retained due to its value being close to the accepted level.

As a result of the factor analysis 5 factors with 17 items are found. Then reliability analysis for each factor is conducted to see if there is any factor with Cronbach alpha of reliability coefficient less than 0,7. The first, second, and fourth factors have higher Cronbach alpha of the reliability coefficient. Factor 3 had Cronbach alpha of 0,673 $< 0,7$ but since the value is close to the accepted value this factor was retained. Factor 5 however, had Cronbach alpha of 0,598 which is far below our accepted value, so the items 1 and 2 belonging to factor 5 were deleted, and factor analysis and reliability test are repeated. Consequently, all factors have higher Cronbach alpha of the reliability coefficient, except for factor 3 with a value of 0,673 and this is accepted as it's close to 0,70, the accepted level.

As a final step, all the items are analyzed through factor analysis. The final KMO result is $0,830 > 0,50$, so the adequacy of the sampling is still proved, and Bartlett's test for the variables indicates the significance value of $0,000 < 0,50$. The four factors of emotional intelligence account for 58,104 % of the total variance explained in the study.

Table 5.2.4.1
Summary of Factor and Reliability Analysis of Emotional Intelligence

		Factor Loading	% Variance Explained	Cronbach α
Item No.	Factor 1		31, 176	0, 746
8	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.	0, 731		
10	I expect good things to happen.	0, 697		
11	I like to share my emotions with others.	0, 656		
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	0, 645		
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	0, 603		
	Factor 2		10, 635	0, 711
30	I help other people feel better when they are down.	0, 769		
24	I compliment others when they have done something well.	0, 735		
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	0, 672		
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.	0, 624		
	Factor 3		8, 257	0, 673
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	0, 709		
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	0, 708		
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not.	0, 708		
17	When I am in a positive mood solving problems is easy for me.	0, 585		
	Factor 4		8, 036	0, 741
21	I have control over my emotions.	0, 831		
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	0, 772		
	KMO=0, 830 Chi-Square Bar. T.= 1053, 115 P= 0,000		58, 104	

5.3 MODIFIED RESEARCH MODEL AFTER FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Factor and reliability analysis of the perceived organizational support and emotional labor independent variables as well as of the dependent variable, burnout comply with the literature review in which it was posited that perceived organizational support is a unidimensional construct (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002); emotional labor consists of three distinct dimensions, namely surface, deep and genuine acting (Dieffendorf et al., 2005) and that burnout consists of three dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Boles et al. 2000). Results for emotional intelligence are however misleading since no unidimensional construct was observed as was originally proposed by Schutte et al. (1998). Two separate studies suggested that there are four sub-factors called optimism or mood regulation, social skills, appraisal of emotions, and utilization of emotions in addition to an overall emotional intelligence factor as claimed by Petrides and Furnham (2000); Saklofske et al. (2003).

Chan (2004; 2006) has also found four factors in applying the Schutte et al. (1998) measure of emotional intelligence in his study and called these sub-factors as positive utilization of emotions, positive regulation of emotions, emotional appraisal and emphatic sensitivity. The factor analysis method highlighted the existence of a multi-dimensional rather than a unidimensional construct of emotional intelligence. Since many of the items that were grouped into the four factors throughout the factor and reliability analyses comply with the four factor item loading as found by Chan it is decided to label these factors according to Chan (2004; 2006). The first factor coincided mainly with the items of Chan's (2006) positive regulation sub-factor of emotional intelligence, and is therefore labeled as 'positive regulation of emotions'. The second factor's items coincided mainly with the emphatic sensitivity sub-factor's items (Chan, 2006), and this factor is therefore labeled as 'emphatic sensitivity'. The third factor's items coincided with some of the positive utilization sub-factor's items (Chan, 2006), so this factor is labeled as 'positive utilization of emotions'. Lastly, the items of the fourth factor coincided with items from the emotional appraisal sub-factor by Chan (2006) what for this factor is labeled as

‘emotional appraisal’ in the light of the literature. After incorporating the four dimensions of emotional intelligence that were found through factor and reliability analyses the modified research model and the modified hypothesis are provided as follows:

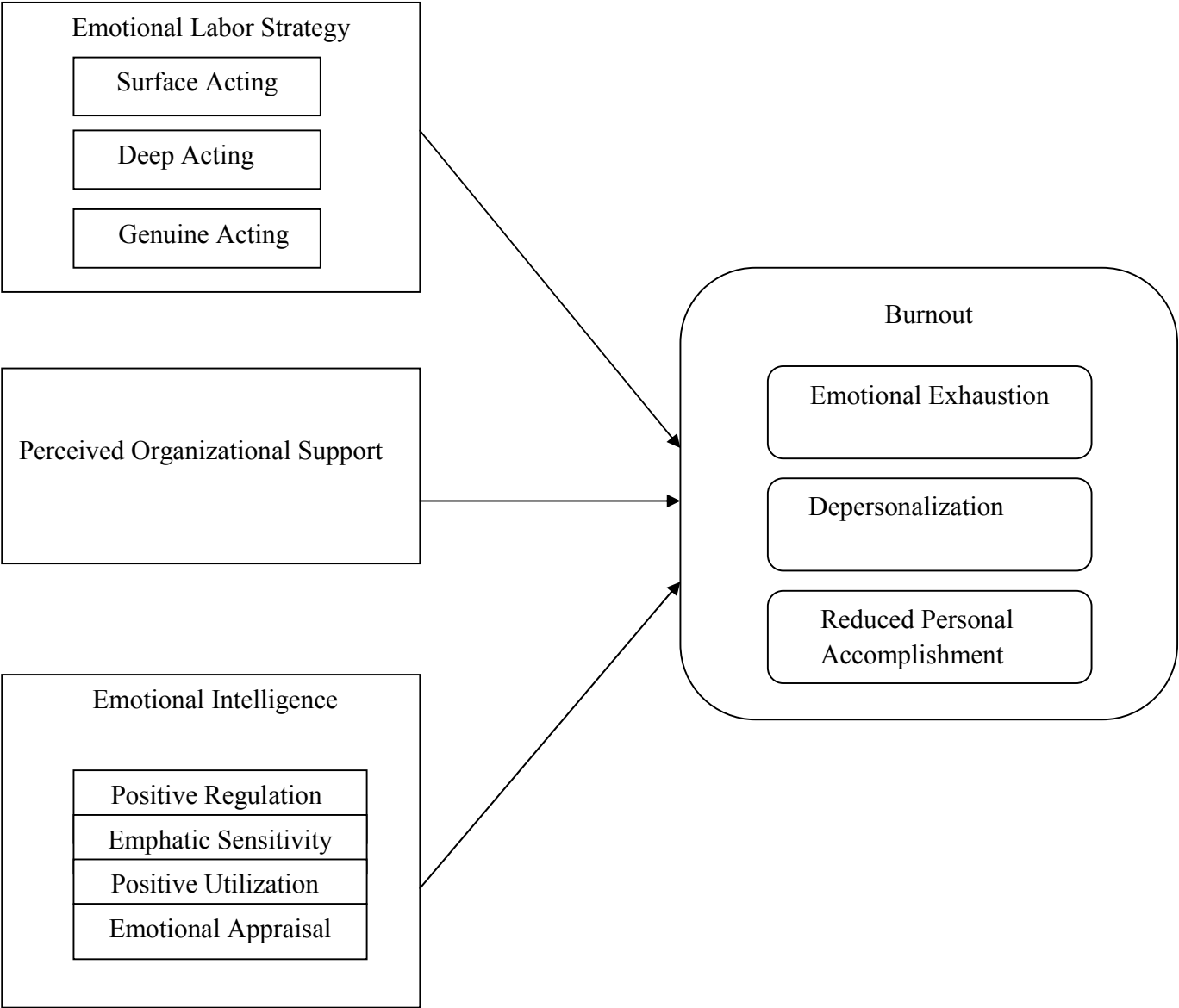


Figure 2: Modified Research Model after Factor and Reliability Analyses

5.4 MODIFIED HYPOTHESES AFTER FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES

Ha: Emotional labor strategy affects burnout.

Ha1: Surface acting affects burnout.

Ha2: Deep acting affects burnout.

Ha3: Genuine acting affects burnout.

Ha4: Surface acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha5: Surface acting affects depersonalization.

Ha6: Surface acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Ha7: Deep acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha8: Deep acting affects depersonalization.

Ha9: Deep acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Ha10: Genuine acting affects emotional exhaustion.

Ha11: Genuine acting affects depersonalization.

Ha12: Genuine acting affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Hb: Perceived organizational support affects burnout.

Hb1: Perceived organizational support affects emotional exhaustion.

Hb2: Perceived organizational support affects depersonalization.

Hb3: Perceived organizational support affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Hc: Emotional intelligence affects burnout.

Hc1: Positive regulation of emotions affects burnout.

Hc2: Emphatic Sensitivity affects burnout.

Hc3: Positive utilization of emotions affects burnout.

Hc4: Emotional appraisal affects burnout.

Hc5: Positive regulation of emotions affects emotional exhaustion.

Hc6: Positive regulation of emotions affects depersonalization.

Hc7: Positive regulation of emotions affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Hc8: Emphatic sensitivity affects emotional exhaustion.

Hc9: Emphatic sensitivity affects depersonalization.

Hc10: Emphatic sensitivity affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Hc11: Positive utilization of emotions affects emotional exhaustion.

Hc12: Positive utilization of emotions affects depersonalization.

Hc13: Positive utilization of emotions affects reduced personal accomplishment.

Hc14: Emotional appraisal affects emotional exhaustion.

Hc15: Emotional appraisal affects depersonalization.

Hc16: Emotional appraisal affects reduced personal accomplishment.

5.5 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

In order to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable, burnout and the independent variables, emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence, Simple Regression Analysis has been applied. The data is suitable to make a regression analysis since all variables are coded in interval scale and there are several independent variables. Since it is aimed to understand how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained when several independent variables are theorized to simultaneously influence it, it is meaningful to investigate the relationships by conducting a regression test. Since each of the independent variables representing work-related, organizational and personal factors each separately affect burnout and its dimensions it is meaningful to conduct simple regression tests, which are applied hereafter and presented as follows:

Ho: Emotional Labor Strategy does not affect Burnout.

Ha: Emotional Labor Strategy affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.1 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emotional Labor Strategy and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.136	.018	.014	.71517

a. Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalLabor

b. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.2 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Labor and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.872	.185		10.130	.000
EmotionalLabor	.109	.051	.136	2.139	.033

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

From the model summary table, it can be assumed that R value is 0, 136 and R square contributes to 1, 8 % of the variance of burnout which is significant at $p=0,033 \leq 0,05$. Since $p=0,033 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0,05 significance level (α) and the alternate hypothesis is confirmed. That implies that emotional labor affects burnout. Since Beta coefficient is 0, 136 we can state that emotional labor has a positive contribution to burnout. As the model summary of the model is confirmed, the factors of the independent variable's (emotional labor) effect on the dependent variable are examined respectively in the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1:

H₀₁: Surface Acting does not affect Burnout.

H_{a1}: Surface Acting affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.3 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Surface Acting and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.396	.157	.153	.66278

a: Predictors: (Constant), SurfaceActing

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.4 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Surface Acting and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.771	.083		21.259	.000
SurfaceActing	.215	.032	.396	6.740	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

R value is 0, 396 and R square explains 15, 7 % of the variance of burnout. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Surface acting affects burnout by explaining 15, 7% of the variance of burnout. Since Beta coefficient is 0, 396 we can state that surface acting has a positive contribution to burnout.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho2: Deep Acting does not affect Burnout.

Ha2: Deep Acting affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.5 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Deep Acting and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.075	.006	.001	.71848

a: Predictors: (Constant, DeepActing)

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.6 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Deep Acting and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.153	.098		21.888	.000
DeepActing	.031	.026	.075	1.170	.243

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

The independent variable of deep acting has a significance of $p=0,243 > 0,05$. As $p=0,243 > 0,05$ the null hypothesis is accepted this time. It can be inferred that deep acting does not affect the overall measure of burnout.

Hypothesis 3:

Ho3: Genuine Acting does not affect Burnout.

Ha3: Genuine Acting affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.7 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Genuine Acting and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.227	.051	.048	.70170

a: Predictors: (Constant), GenuineActing

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.8 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Genuine Acting and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.894	.181		16.014	.000
GenuineActing	-.128	.035	-.227	-3.646	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

For genuine acting, it can be inferred from the table above that the R value is 0, 227 and R square explains 5, 1 % of the variance of burnout. Also, the significance of genuine acting is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,001 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0, 05 significance level (α) and the alternate hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, it can be inferred that genuine acting explains 5, 1% of the variance in burnout. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 227 it can be stated that genuine acting has a negative contribution to burnout.

Hypothesis 4:

Ho4: Surface Acting does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Ha4: Surface Acting affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.9 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.294	.087	.083	1.19797

a: Predictors: (Constant), SurfaceActing

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.10 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.495	.150		16.581	.000
SurfaceActing	.277	.057	.294	4.827	.000

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

R value is 0, 294 and R square explains 8, 7% of the variance of emotional exhaustion. The significance of surface acting is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,001 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0, 05 significance level (α) and the alternate hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, it can be inferred that surface acting explains 8, 7% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. Since Beta coefficient is 0, 294 it can be stated that surface acting has a positive contribution to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 5:

Ho5: Surface Acting does not affect Depersonalization.

Ha5: Surface Acting affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.11 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Surface Acting and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.364	.133	.129	1.09546

a: Predictors: (Constant), SurfaceActing

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.12 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Surface Acting and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.906	.136		6.638	.000
SurfaceActing	.322	.052	.364	6.209	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

R value is 0,364 and R square explains 13,3 % of the variance in depersonalization. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Surface acting affects depersonalization by explaining 13,3% of the variance in depersonalization. Since Beta coefficient is 0,364 we can state that surface acting has a positive contribution to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 6:

Ho6: Surface Acting does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Ha6: Surface Acting affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.13 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Surface Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.071	.005	.001	.92715

a: Predictors: (Constant), SurfaceActing

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.14 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Surface Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.920	.116		16.613	.000
SurfaceActing	.049	.044	.071	1.123	.262

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

The independent variable of surface acting has a significance of $p=0,262 > 0,05$. As $p=0,262 > 0,05$ the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be inferred that surface acting does not affect reduced personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 7:

Ho7: Deep Acting does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Ha7: Deep Acting affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.15 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Deep Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.147	.022	.018	1.23733

a: Predictors: (Constant), DeepActing

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.16 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Deep Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.772	.169		16.372	.000
DeepActing	.106	.045	.147	2.335	.020

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

From the model summary table, it can be assumed that R value is 0, 147 and R square explains 2, 2 % of the variance in emotional exhaustion. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,020 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,020 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Deep acting affects emotional exhaustion by explaining 2, 2% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. Since Beta coefficient is 0, 147 it can be inferred that deep acting has a positive contribution to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 8:

Ho8: Deep Acting does not affect Depersonalization.

Ha8: Deep Acting affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.17 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Deep Acting and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.121	.015	.011	1.16651

a: Predictors: (Constant), DeepActing

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.18 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Deep Acting and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.366	.159		8.593	.000
DeepActing	.082	.042	.121	1.945	.053

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable of deep acting has a significance of $p=0,053 > 0,05$. As $p=0,262 > 0,05$, which is slightly above the accepted value it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be inferred that deep acting does not affect depersonalization.

Hypothesis 9:

Ho9: Deep Acting does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Ha9: Deep Acting affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.19 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Deep Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.180	.032	.029	.91288

a: Predictors: (Constant), DeepActing

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.20 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Deep Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.350	.125		18.871	.000
DeepActing	-.096	.033	-.180	-2.898	.004

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

It is seen from the model summary table, that R value is 0, 180 and R square explains 3, 2 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,004 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,004 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Deep acting affects reduced personal accomplishment by explaining 3, 2% of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 180 it can be inferred that deep acting has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 10:

Ho10: Genuine Acting does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Ha10: Genuine Acting affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.21 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Genuine Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.030	.001	-.003	1.25036

a: Predictors: (Constant), GenuineActing

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.22 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Genuine Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.976	.322		9.251	.000
GenuineActing	.029	.062	.030	.470	.639

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable of genuine acting has a significance of $p=0,639 > 0,05$. As $p=0,639 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that genuine acting does not affect emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 11:

Ho11: Genuine Acting does not affect Depersonalization.

Ha11: Genuine Acting affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.23 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Genuine Acting and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.175	.031	.027	1.15697

a: Predictors: (Constant), GenuineActing

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.24 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Genuine Acting and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.458	.297		8.272	.000
GenuineActing	-.163	.057	-.175	-2.835	.005

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It is seen from the model summary table, that R value is 0, 175 and R square explains 3, 1 % of the variance in depersonalization. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,005 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,005 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Genuine acting affects depersonalization by explaining 3, 1% of the variance in depersonalization. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 175 it can be inferred that genuine acting has a negative contribution to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 13:

Ho13: Genuine Acting does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Ha13: Genuine Acting affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.25 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Genuine Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.342	.117	.113	.87221

a: Predictors: (Constant), GenuineActing

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.26 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Genuine Acting and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.282	.224		14.635	.000
GenuineActing	-.250	.043	-.342	-5.758	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

R value is 0, 342 and R square explains 11, 7 % of variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Genuine acting affects reduced personal accomplishment by explaining 11, 7 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 342 it can be inferred that genuine acting has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

Ho: Perceived Organizational Support does not affect Burnout.

Hb: Perceived Organizational Support affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.27 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Organizational Support and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.346	.120	.116	.67715

a: Predictors: (Constant), PerceivedOrgSupport

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.28 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Perceived Organizational Support and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.903	.120		24.150	.000
PerceivedOrgSupport	-.179	.031	-.346	-5.768	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

From the model summary table, it can be assumed that R value is 0,346 and R square contributes to 12,0 % of the variance in burnout which is significant at $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. Since $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0,05 significance level (α) and the alternate hypothesis is confirmed. That implies that perceived organizational support affects burnout. Since Beta coefficient is -0,346 it can be inferred that perceived organizational support has a negative contribution to burnout. As the model summary of the model is confirmed, the independent variable's (perceived organizational support) effect on the factors of the dependent variable (burnout) is examined respectively in the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1:

Ho1: Perceived Organizational Support does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Hb1: Perceived Organizational Support affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.29 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Organizational Support and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.363	.132	.128	1.16653

a: Predictors: (Constant), PerceivedOrgSupport

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.30 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Perceived Organizational Support and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4.296	.207		20.789	.000
PerceivedOrgSupport	-.325	.053	-.363	-6.104	.000

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

It is seen from the model summary table, that R value is 0, 363 and R square explains 13, 2 % of the variance in emotional exhaustion. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Perceived organizational support affects emotional exhaustion by explaining 13, 2 % of the variance in emotional exhaustion. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 363 it can be inferred that perceived organizational support has a negative contribution to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho2: Perceived Organizational Support does not affect Depersonalization.

Hb2: Perceived Organizational Support affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.31 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Organizational Support and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.161	.026	.022	1.16155

a: Predictors: (Constant), PerceivedOrgSupport

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.32 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Perceived Organizational Support and Depersonalization

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.137	.204		10.458	.000
	PerceivedOrgSupport	-.136	.053	-.161	-2.583	.010

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It is seen from the model summary table, that R value is 0, 161 and R square explains 2, 6 % of the variance in depersonalization. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,010 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,010 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Perceived organizational support affects depersonalization by explaining 2, 6 % of the variance in depersonalization. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 161 it can be inferred that perceived organizational support has a negative contribution to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 3:

Ho3: Perceived Organizational Support does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Hb3: Perceived Organizational Support affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.33 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Organizational Support and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.121	.015	.011	.92082

a: Predictors: (Constant), PerceivedOrgSupport

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.34 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Perceived Organizational Support and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.325	.162		14.323	.000
PerceivedOrgSupport	-.081	.042	-.121	-1.921	.056

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable of perceived organizational support has a significance of $p=0,056 > 0,05$. As $p=0,056 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that perceived organizational support does not affect reduced personal accomplishment.

Ho: Emotional Intelligence does not affect Burnout.

Hc: Emotional Intelligence affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.35 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emotional Intelligence and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.131	.017	.013	.71512

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalIntelligence

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.36 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Intelligence and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.106	.414		7.508	.000
EmotionalIntelligence	-.163	.079	-.131	-2.051	.041

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

From the model summary table, it can be assumed that R value is 0,131 and R square contributes to 1, 7 % of the variance in burnout which is significant at $p=0,041 \leq 0,05$. Since $p=0,041 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0,05 significance level (α) and the alternate hypothesis is confirmed. That implies that emotional intelligence affects burnout. Since Beta coefficient is -0,131 it can be inferred that emotional intelligence has a negative contribution to burnout. As the model summary of the model is confirmed, the factors of the independent variable's (emotional intelligence) effect on the dependent variable (burnout) and its factors is examined respectively in the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1:

Ho1: Positive Regulation of Emotions does not affect Burnout.

Hc1: Positive Regulation of Emotions affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.37 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.100	.010	.006	.71685

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveRegulation

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.38 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.757	.321		8.591	.000
PositiveRegulation	-.096	.061	-.100	-1.579	.116

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, positive regulation of emotions has a significance of $p=0,116 > 0,05$. As $p=0,116 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that positive regulation of emotions does not affect the overall measure of burnout.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho2: Emphatic Sensitivity does not affect Burnout.

Hc2: Emphatic Sensitivity affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.39 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emphatic Sensitivity and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.097	.009	.005	.71706

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmphaticSensitivity

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.40 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emphatic Sensitivity and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.738	.318		8.603	.000
EmphaticSensitivity	-.093	.061	-.097	-1.532	.127

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, emphatic sensitivity has a significance of $p=0,127 > 0,05$. As $p=0,127 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that emphatic sensitivity does not affect the overall measure of burnout.

Hypothesis 3:

Ho3: Positive Utilization of Emotions does not affect Burnout.

Hc3: Positive Utilization of Emotions affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.41 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.004	.000	-.004	.72045

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveUtilization

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.42 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.283	.342		6.670	.000
PositiveUtilization	-.004	.065	-.004	-.065	.948

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, positive utilization of emotions has a significance of $p=0,948 > 0,05$. As $p=0,948 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be inferred that positive utilization of emotions does not affect the overall measure of burnout.

Hypothesis 4:

Ho4: Emotional Appraisal does not affect Burnout.

Hc4: Emotional Appraisal affects Burnout.

Table 5.5.43 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.135	.018	.014	.71479

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalAppraisal

b: Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5.5.44 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Appraisal and Burnout

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.767	.244		11.321	.000
EmotionalAppraisal	-.101	.048	-.135	-2.121	.035

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

It is seen from the model summary table, that R value is 0, 135 and R square explains 1, 8 % of the variance in burnout. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,035 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,035 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Emotional Appraisal affects burnout by explaining 1, 8 % of the variance in burnout. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 135 it can be inferred that emotional appraisal has a negative contribution to burnout.

Hypothesis 5:

Ho5: Positive Regulation of Emotions does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Hc5: Positive Regulation of Emotions affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.45 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Burnout

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.046	.002	-.002	1.24959

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveRegulation

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.46 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.721	.559		4.865	.000
PositiveRegulation	.077	.106	.046	.724	.470

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

It can be seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, positive regulation of emotions has a significance of $p=0,470 > 0,05$. As $p=0,470 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be inferred that positive regulation of emotions does not affect emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 6:

Ho6: Positive Regulation of Emotions does not affect Depersonalization.

Hc6: Positive Regulation of Emotions affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.47 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.055	.003	-.001	1.17340

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveRegulation

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.48 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.096	.521		4.024	.000
PositiveRegulation	-.087	.099	-.055	-.881	.379

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It is seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, positive regulation of emotions has a significance of $p=0,379 > 0,05$. As $p=0,379 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that positive regulation of emotions does not affect depersonalization.

Hypothesis 7:

Ho7: Positive Regulation of Emotions does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Hc7: Positive Regulation of Emotions affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.49 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Reduce Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.224	.050	.046	.90452

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveRegulation

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.50 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Regulation of Emotions and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.475	.401		8.656	.000
PositiveRegulation	-.278	.076	-.224	-3.636	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

R value is 0, 224 and R square explains 5, 0 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Positive regulation of emotions affects reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 224 it can be inferred that positive regulation of emotions has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 8:

Ho8: Emphatic Sensitivity does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Hc8: Emphatic Sensitivity affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.51 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emphatic Sensitivity and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.051	.003	-.001	1.24931

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmphaticSensitivity

b: Dependent Variable: Emotional Exhaustion

Table 5.5.52 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emphatic Sensitivity and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.710	.521		5.199	.000
EmphaticSensitivity	.080	.100	.051	.799	.425

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

It is seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, emphatic sensitivity has a significance of $p=0,051 > 0,05$. As $p=0,051 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that emphatic sensitivity does not affect emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 9:

Ho9: Emphatic Sensitivity does not affect Depersonalization.

Hc9: Emphatic Sensitivity affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.53 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emphatic Sensitivity and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.028	.001	-.003	1.17473

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmphaticSensitivity

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.54 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emphatic Sensitivity and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.859	.486		3.823	.000
EmphaticSensitivity	-.042	.093	-.028	-.453	.651

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It is seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, emphatic sensitivity has a significance of $p=0,651 > 0,05$. As $p=0,651 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that emphatic sensitivity does not affect depersonalization.

Hypothesis 10:

Ho10: Emphatic Sensitivity does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Hc10: Emphatic Sensitivity affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.55 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emphatic Sensitivity and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.284	.081	.077	.88976

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmphaticSensitivity

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.56 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emphatic Sensitivity and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.849	.391		9.836	.000
EmphaticSensitivity	-.352	.075	-.284	-4.697	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

R value is 0, 284 and R square explains 8, 1 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Emphatic sensitivity affects reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 284 it can be inferred that emphatic sensitivity has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 11:

Ho11: Positive Utilization of Emotions does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Hc11: Positive Utilization of Emotions affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.57 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.130	.017	.013	1.24114

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveUtilization

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.58 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.929	.589		3.274	.001
PositiveUtilization	.228	.111	.130	2.056	.041

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

R value is 0, 130 and R square explains 1, 7 % of the variance in emotional exhaustion. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,041 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,041 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Positive utilization of emotions affects emotional exhaustion. Since Beta coefficient is 0, 130 it can be inferred that positive utilization of emotions has a positive contribution to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 12:

Ho12: Positive Utilization of Emotions does not affect Depersonalization.

Hc12: Positive Utilization of Emotions affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.59 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.063	.004	.000	1.17681

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveUtilization

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.60 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.097	.554		1.981	.049
PositiveUtilization	.104	.105	.063	.997	.320

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

It is seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, positive utilization of emotions has a significance of $p=0,320 > 0,05$. As $p=0,320 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that positive utilization of emotions does not affect depersonalization.

Hypothesis 13:

Ho13: Positive Utilization of Emotions does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Hc13: Positive Utilization of Emotions affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.61 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.251	.063	.059	.89923

a: Predictors: (Constant), PositiveUtilization

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.62 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Positive Utilization of Emotions and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.755	.423		8.868	.000
PositiveUtilization	-.328	.080	-.251	-4.097	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

It is seen from the model summary table that R value is 0, 251 and R square explains 6, 3 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Positive utilization of emotions affects reduced personal accomplishment by explaining 6, 3% of variance in reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 251 it can be inferred that positive utilization of emotions has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

Hypothesis 14:

Ho14: Emotional Appraisal does not affect Emotional Exhaustion.

Hc14: Emotional Appraisal affects Emotional Exhaustion.

Table 5.5.63 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emotional Appraisal and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.033	.001	-.003	1.25230

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalAppraisal

b: Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

Table 5.5.64 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Appraisal and Emotional Exhaustion

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.911	.425		6.850	.000
EmotionalAppraisal	.042	.083	.033	.512	.609

a. Dependent Variable: EmotionalExhaustion

It is seen out of the coefficients (a) table that the independent variable, emotional appraisal has a significance of $p=0,609 > 0,05$. As $p=0,609 > 0,05$, it can be inferred that the null hypothesis is accepted this time. Therefore, it can be stated that emotional appraisal does not affect emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 15:

Ho15: Emotional Appraisal does not affect Depersonalization.

Hc15: Emotional Appraisal affects Depersonalization.

Table 5.5.65 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emotional Appraisal and Depersonalization

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.136	.018	.014	1.16598

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalAppraisal

b: Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

Table 5.5.66 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Appraisal and Depersonalization

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.483	.393		6.312	.000
EmotionalAppraisal	-.166	.077	-.136	-2.172	.031

a. Dependent Variable: Depersonalization

R value is 0, 136 and R square explains 1, 8 % of the variance in depersonalization. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,031 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,031 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Emotional appraisal affects depersonalization by explaining 1, 8 % of variance in depersonalization. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 136 it can be inferred that emotional appraisal has a negative contribution to depersonalization.

Hypothesis 16:

Ho16: Emotional Appraisal does not affect Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Hc16: Emotional Appraisal affects Reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Table 5.5.67 Simple Regression Analysis Model Summary for Emotional Appraisal and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.219	.048	.044	.90719

a: Predictors: (Constant), EmotionalAppraisal

b: Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

Table 5.5.68 Simple Regression Analysis Coefficients (a) for Emotional Appraisal and Reduced Personal Accomplishment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.106	.308		10.075	.000
EmotionalAppraisal	-.213	.060	-.219	-3.549	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PersonalAccomplishment

R value is 0, 219 and R square explains 4, 8 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. The independent variable's significance is $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$. As $p=0,000 \leq 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected. Emotional appraisal affects reduced personal accomplishment by explaining 4, 8 % of variance in reduced personal accomplishment. Since Beta coefficient is -0, 219 it can be inferred that emotional appraisal has a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment.

5.6 INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TESTS AND ANOVA ANALYSES

Further analyses are conducted in order to examine the possible significant differences between demographic variables in relation to the respondent's perception of the dependent variable, burnout. Hereby, independent samples t-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests are applied.

5.6.1 Independent Samples T-Tests

Independent samples t-test is used for the variables such as 'gender', 'age', 'marital status', and 'education' to notice the perception differences of these demographic grouping variables. For the sake of obtaining statistically meaningful and representative data which meets the criteria for the conduction of independent samples t-tests the variables 'age', 'marital status, and 'education' were adjusted during analyses and the results are discussed in detail as follows:

Hypothesis 1:

Ho1: There is no difference between male and female respondents in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between male and female respondents in terms of burnout.

In the first hypothesis the demographic variable ‘gender’ is selected as the grouping variable whereas the dependent variable ‘burnout’ is selected as the test variable. Before deciding on the correct t-test to be used, Levene’s test for equality of variances is examined. If the significance level of Levene’s test is $> 0, 05$ then equal variances are assumed. On the contrary, if the significance level is $< 0, 05$ equal variances are not assumed. The results are presented and discussed as follows:

Table 5.6.1.1 Independent Samples T-Test for Gender and Burnout

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differenc e	Std. Error Differenc e	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Burn out	Equal variances assumed	12.830	.000	1.532	245	.127	.16490	.10764	-.04711	.37691
	Equal variances not assumed			1.296	76.25 1	.199	.16490	.12726	-.08855	.41835

Table 5.6.1.2 T-Test Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Burnout	male	58	2.3815	.89942	.11810
	female	189	2.2166	.65177	.04741

Levene's test reveals that F value is 12, 830 and $p = 0,000$ ($0,00 < 0,05$) implying that equal variances are not assumed so that the second row of t-test for equality of means will be taken into consideration. According to group statistics the mean score for male is 2, 3815 and 2, 2166 for female respondents. Within the second row the value of $r = 0,199 > 0,05$, whereby the null hypothesis is accepted at 0,05 significance level (α). The analysis points out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between the mean score of male and female respondents.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho1: There is no difference between the ages of the respondents in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between the ages of the respondents in terms of burnout.

In order to meet the criteria of having a sample size of at least 30 respondents for each group in conducting independent samples t-tests, the ages of the respondents were classified into '19-39 years old' and '39 & over' groups during the analyses. At first iteration in order to decide on the correct t-test to be used, Levene's test for equality of variances is examined and the results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.1.3 Independent Samples T-Test for Age and Burnout

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differenc e	Std. Error Differenc e	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Burn out	Equal variances assumed	.108	.743	-2.183	245	.030	-.20986	.09612	-.39920	-.02053
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.210	170.2 76	.028	-.20986	.09496	-.39732	-.02241

Table 5.6.1.4 T-Test Group Statistics

Age		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Burnout	19-39	83	2.1160	.69605	.07640
	39 &	164	2.3259	.72224	.05640
	over				

F value is 0,108 and $p = 0,743$; ($0,743 > 0,05$). Therefore, the “Equal Variances Assumed” row is taken into consideration. According to group statistics, the mean score for age group '19-39' is 2,1160 and 2,3259 for age group '39 and over'. Since $r = 0,030$ $< 0,05$, the null hypothesis is rejected at 0,05 significance level (α). This analysis points out that there is a significant difference in terms of burnout among the respondents' age groups.

Hypothesis 3:

Ho1: There is no difference between single and married respondents in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between single and married respondents in terms of burnout.

In order to meet the criteria of having a sample size of at least 30 respondents for each group in conducting independent samples t-tests, the initially grouped marital status variable which consisted of 'single', 'married', 'divorced' and 'widowed' groups was rearranged into two groups, namely 'married' and 'single'. Since divorced and widowed groups are relevant to the single group, merging them seemed meaningful for the sake of obtaining statistically appropriate data. Further, to decide on the correct t-test to be used, Levene's test for equality of variances is examined and the results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.1.5 Independent Samples T-Test for Marital Status and Burnout

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Burn out	Equal variances assumed	.020	.886	.777	245	.438	.08123	.10450	-.12460	.28707
	Equal variances not assumed			.785	111.991	.434	.08123	.10354	-.12391	.28638

Table 5.6.1.6 T-Test Group Statistics

MaritalStatus		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Burnout	married	183	2.2764	.72311	.05345
	single	64	2.1952	.70937	.08867

F value is 0, 020 and $p = 0,886$; ($0,886 > 0,05$). Therefore, the “Equal Variances Assumed” row is taken into consideration. According to group statistics, the mean score for ‘married’ is 2, 2764 and 2, 1952 for ‘single’. Since $r = 0,438 > 0,05$, the null hypothesis is accepted at 0, 05 significance level (α). This analysis points out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between married and single respondents.

Hypothesis 4:

Ho1: There is no difference between respondents’ education levels in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between respondents’ education levels in terms of burnout.

In order to meet the criteria of having a sample size of at least 30 respondents for each group in conducting independent samples t-tests, the initially grouped education level variable which consisted of 'high school', 'university degree two years', 'university degree', 'specialization', 'master's degree' and 'doctorate's degree' was rearranged into two groups, namely 'high school' and 'university and higher' based on relevance since it is aimed to obtain statistically meaningful data. Further, to decide on the correct t-test to be used, Levene's test for equality of variances is examined and the results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.1.7 Independent Samples T-Test for Education Level and Burnout

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Burnout	Equal variances assumed	.002	.963	1.150	245	.251	.10540	.09161	-.07505	.28584
	Equal variances not assumed			1.146	236.755	.253	.10540	.09197	-.07579	.28658

Table 5.6.1.8 T-Test Group Statistics

Education		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Burnout	Highsch	116	2.3112	.74295	.06898
	Uni&Hi	131	2.2059	.69626	.06083

F value is 0,002 and $p = 0,963$; ($0,963 > 0,05$). Therefore, the “Equal Variances Assumed” row is taken into consideration. According to group statistics, the mean score for the group ‘high school’ educated respondents is 2,3112 and 2,2059 for the group ‘university and higher’. Since $r = 0,251 > 0,05$, the null hypothesis is accepted at 0,05 significance level (α). This analysis points out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between respondents’ education levels.

5.6.2 ANOVA Analyses

One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test helps to determine whether there are significant mean differences in a dependent variable among more than two groups. The ‘occupation’, ‘tenure in occupation’ and ‘tenure at the hospital’ demographic variables consist of more than two groups and since it is aimed to determine whether there are significant mean differences in burnout among these groups, ANOVA test is conducted.

In order to meet the criteria of having a sample size of at least 30 respondents for each group to be able to conduct ANOVA tests, some of the aforementioned variables which were initially grouped during descriptive analyses were rearranged. Out of the demographic variables ‘number of children’ and ‘current position at the hospital’ variables were taken out of the analysis because they were not statistically meaningful for the conduction of ANOVA tests.

Hypothesis 1:

Ho1: There is no difference between respondents’ occupations in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between respondents’ occupations in terms of burnout.

The initially grouped variable, ‘occupation’ in the descriptive analysis section was rearranged into three groups, namely: ‘doctor’, ‘nurse’ and ‘technician and other’ in order to meet the criteria for the sample size in conducting ANOVA test. The results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.2.1 One Way ANOVA Results for Occupation and Burnout

Burnout

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
doctor	76	2.2846	.70336	.08068	2.1239	2.4453	1.07	4.08
nurse	82	2.2476	.73108	.08073	2.0869	2.4082	1.00	4.36
techn& other	89	2.2376	.72838	.07721	2.0841	2.3910	1.13	5.10
Total	247	2.2553	.71902	.04575	2.1652	2.3455	1.00	5.10

ANOVA

Burnout

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.098	2	.049	.094	.910
Within Groups	127.083	244	.521		
Total	127.181	246			

Since p value is 0, 910 which is higher than 0, 05 significance level (α), the null hypothesis is accepted. The results imply that there are no significant differences in terms of burnout among different occupations.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho1: There is no difference in respondents' tenure in occupation in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference in respondents' tenure in occupation in terms of burnout.

Tenure in occupation variable consists of four groups, namely: '0-9', '10-19', '20-29', and '30 & over' years. The aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences in burnout among these groups, and the results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.2.2 One Way ANOVA Results for Tenure in Occupation and Burnout

Burnout

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0-9	64	2.0899	.73861	.09233	1.9054	2.2744	1.00	5.10
10-19	43	2.2126	.77786	.11862	1.9732	2.4520	1.10	4.04
20-29	73	2.4418	.71894	.08415	2.2741	2.6096	1.27	4.36
30 & over	67	2.2377	.62516	.07637	2.0852	2.3902	1.24	3.97
Total	247	2.2553	.71902	.04575	2.1652	2.3455	1.00	5.10

ANOVA

Burnout

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.390	3	1.463	2.896	.036
Within Groups	122.791	243	.505		
Total	127.181	246			

Since p value is 0, 036 which is below the 0, 05 significance level (α), the null hypothesis is accepted this time. The results imply that there is difference in terms of burnout among different tenure in occupation groups. In order to see which tenure in occupation groups are different in terms of burnout, hypotheses for each group are provided and Scheffe test is applied. The results are provided as follows:

Ho1: There is no difference between 0-9 and 10-19 tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ho1: There is no difference between 0-9 and 20-29 tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ho1: There is no difference between 0-9 and 30 & over tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ho1: There is no difference between 10-19 and 20-29 tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ho1: There is no difference between 10-19 and 30 & over tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ho1: There is no difference between 20-29 and 30 & over tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference between the tenure in occupation groups in terms of burnout.

Table 5.6.2.3 Scheffe Test for Tenure in Occupation and Burnout

Burnout Scheffe

(I) Tenure_in_occupati on	(J) Tenure_in_occupatio n	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-9	10-19	-.12274	.14017	.857	-.5173	.2719
	20-29	-.35193*	.12173	.041	-.6946	-.0092
	30 & over	-.14779	.12425	.702	-.4976	.2020
10-19	0-9	.12274	.14017	.857	-.2719	.5173
	20-29	-.22919	.13665	.423	-.6139	.1555
	30 & over	-.02504	.13890	.998	-.4161	.3660
20-29	0-9	.35193*	.12173	.041	.0092	.6946
	10-19	.22919	.13665	.423	-.1555	.6139
	30 & over	.20414	.12027	.412	-.1344	.5427
30 & over	0-9	.14779	.12425	.702	-.2020	.4976
	10-19	.02504	.13890	.998	-.3660	.4161
	20-29	-.20414	.12027	.412	-.5427	.1344

It is seen out of the Scheffe test that p value for the '0-9' and '20-29' tenure in occupation groups is below the 0, 05 significance level (α), whereby the null hypothesis is rejected. It can therefore be inferred that there is difference in terms of burnout between the '0-9' and '20-29' years tenure in occupation groups.

Hypothesis 3:

Ho1: There is no difference in respondents' tenure at the hospital in terms of burnout.

Ha1: There is difference in respondents' tenure at the hospital in terms of burnout.

The initially grouped variable, 'tenure at the hospital' in the descriptive analysis section was rearranged into three groups, namely: '1-9', '10-19' and '20 & over' years in order to meet the criteria for the sample size in conducting ANOVA test. The results are provided as follows:

Table 5.6.2.4 One Way ANOVA Results for Tenure at the Hospital and Burnout

Burnout

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1-9	113	2.1428	.70015	.06587	2.0123	2.2733	1.00	5.10
10-19	82	2.3767	.76520	.08450	2.2086	2.5448	1.10	4.04
20 & over	52	2.3085	.65772	.09121	2.1254	2.4916	1.24	4.36
Total	247	2.2553	.71902	.04575	2.1652	2.3455	1.00	5.10

ANOVA

Burnout

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.786	2	1.393	2.732	.067
Within Groups	124.395	244	.510		
Total	127.181	246			

Since p value is 0, 067 which is higher than 0, 05 significance level (α), the null hypothesis is accepted this time. It can therefore be inferred that there are no significant differences in terms of burnout among different tenure at the hospital groups.

6. DISCUSSION

The following part discusses the findings of the study. Afterwards, limitations which were experienced during analyses are presented together with some recommendations for future research.

6.1 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The main purpose of the study was to examine factors affecting burnout in the workplace. After reviewing the literature the factors of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence were selected on convenience as representative work-related, organizational and personal variables that have distinct effects on burnout. After incorporating these factors a research model was composed. The study was conducted in three public hospitals in Sarajevo and Visoko, Bosnia and Herzegovina and the findings were presented which are discussed in detail as follows:

The analyses of the study began with factor and reliability analyses in order to find out the relevant factors of variables considering the suggested theoretical research model. Through these analyses, it's found out that dimensions of the first independent variable, emotional labor, appear as the same as Dieffendorf, et al.'s (2005) three factor model in the way it was originally proposed. Factor and reliability analyses resulted with three factors, namely: 'surface acting', 'deep acting' and 'genuine acting'.

The analyses of the second independent variable, perceived organizational support resulted with one factor and supported the unidimensionality, and reliability of Eisenberger et al.' (1985) scale.

Factor and reliability analyses of the third independent variable, emotional intelligence resulted with four factors which is contrary to Schutte et al.'s (1998) proposition of the existence of a single factor for this variable. As already anticipated by many researchers these results comply with the findings of a four factor measure of emotional intelligence (e.g. Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003, Chan 2004; 2006). Since many of the items that were grouped into the four factors throughout the analyses comply with the four factor item loading as found by Chan it was decided to label these factors according to Chan (2004; 2006). The factors were named as: 'positive regulation of emotions', 'emphatic sensitivity', 'positive utilization of emotions' and 'emotional appraisal'.

For the dependent variable part of the research model, burnout, three factors, namely: 'emotional exhaustion', 'depersonalization', and 'reduced personal accomplishment' came out as final factors as was originally proposed. This outcome is in line with Boles et al.'s (2000) revision of the MBI, and once again proves that this measure is a valid and reliable three factor measure of burnout.

After defining the factors of the variables, regression analyses were conducted in order to test the hypotheses of the research. In the study, the starting hypothesis is supported and the analyses reveal that emotional labor affects burnout. The analyses of the study show that emotional labor affects burnout but only with slight effects. It's revealed that overall emotional labor explains 1, 8 % of the variance in burnout, and that it has a positive contribution to it. This slight influence possibly results because three of the emotional labor factors represent distinct strategies, and when they are employed Grandey (2000) and Morris and Feldman (1996) suggest that they can have both positive and negative outcomes. Therefore when related to burnout emotional labor's differing strategies can either increase or reduce levels of burnout, so that studying an overall measure of emotional labor in relation to burnout might have a weak exploratory power because one of its factors' effects may outreach the effect of others. Besides, available studies investigated particular effects of emotional labor factors on one or some of the burnout dimensions. To gain a better insight into the relation of factors of emotional labor to burnout, and its dimensions further analyses were conducted.

Analyses revealed that the factor of surface acting affects overall burnout with explaining 15, 7 % of variance in burnout. The effect of deep acting was not significant, while genuine acting explained 5, 1 % of the variance in burnout. Surface acting positively contributed to burnout, while on the contrary genuine acting negatively contributed to burnout. These findings support the aforementioned notion that emotional labor's differing strategies can either increase or reduce levels of burnout, as well as the implication that an overall measure of emotional labor only slightly affects burnout due to its distinct components which can outreach one another.

When the relationship between the dimensions of emotional labor and burnout is examined it is seen that surface acting affects emotional exhaustion. Surface acting positively contributed to emotional exhaustion with explaining 8, 7 % of its variance. The results confirm previous findings about this relationship (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Noor and Zainuddin, 2011; Grandey, 2003; Dobson et al., 2010; Lazanyi, 2010 and Zhang and Zu, 2008). Findings also revealed that surface acting affects the depersonalization dimension of burnout positively with explaining 13, 3 % in its variance in supporting previous findings as well (Brotheridge and Lee, 2003; Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Noor and Zainuddin, 2011 and Zhang and Zu, 2008). However, the effect of surface acting on reduced personal accomplishment was not significant, which is contrary to the findings of Brotheridge and Lee (2003), Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) and Zhang and Zu (2008) who investigated this relationship and found that individuals who employed the strategy of surface acting at the workplace as a form of emotional labor experienced a reduction in personal accomplishment.

It is also found that deep acting affects emotional exhaustion. Deep acting positively contributed to emotional exhaustion by explaining 2,2 % of its variance, what is contrary to the findings of Zhang and Zu (2008) who found that deep acting negatively contributed to emotional exhaustion. This difference might have resulted due to cultural and occupational differences, since Zhang and Zu's (2008) sample consists of Chinese college instructors as opposed to this study's sample which consists of Bosnia Herzegovinian healthcare employees. There is no other comparison study available; what for investigating the effect of deep acting on emotional exhaustion is strongly recommended in future studies.

The effect of deep acting on depersonalization was not significant hereby confirming the findings of Noor and Zainuddin (2011) whose findings were also insignificant. Regarding the third burnout dimension it is found that deep acting affects reduced personal accomplishment while negatively contributing to it, and explaining 3, 2 % in its variance. These results support previous findings by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) and Zhang and Zu (2008) who studied this relationship.

Lastly, genuine acting did not affect emotional exhaustion. A negative effect on depersonalization was observed while explaining 3,1 % in its variance. However, a much higher negative effect was observed in relation to reduced personal accomplishment where genuine acting explained 11, 7 % of the variance in reduced personal accomplishment. No comparison studies exist which regressed the factor of genuine acting with all of the burnout dimensions. The results have therefore important implications.

First of all, surface and deep acting positively affect emotional exhaustion whereby the influence of surface acting is higher. This suggests that these strategies of emotional labor which require an individual to suppress their emotions represent a burden for the employee by leading to the experience of emotional exhaustion, while on the contrary when there is no impairment between the actions and the emotions employees feel than emotional exhaustion is less likely to be experienced. In relation to the depersonalization dimension of burnout, surface acting had a positive and genuine acting a negative effect, while the effect of deep acting was not significant. This implies that faking emotions and suppressing those leads employees to depersonalize clients, recipients or co-workers while acting genuine reduces this occurrence. Lastly, reduced personal accomplishment was negatively affected by genuine acting, followed by deep acting, whereas surface acting had no significant effect on this burnout dimension. These results imply that if employees act genuinely, or at least try to align their true emotions with the organizationally desired ones, then feelings of reduced personal accomplishment will diminish.

Regarding the second independent variable, perceived organizational support, regression analyses show that there is a significant relationship with burnout. Perceived organizational support explained 12 % of variance in overall burnout and contributed negatively to it. These

results support the findings of a limited amount of studies which investigated this relationship by highlighting that this organizational variable has potential effects on the reduction of burnout. Cropanzano et al. (1997) and Twigg and Kang (2011) arrived at this conclusion since their results revealed how perceived organizational support negatively affected overall burnout.

In relation to the burnout dimensions, regression results revealed that perceived organizational support has a significant and negative effect on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while explaining 13, 2 % and 2, 6 % in their variance respectively. However, no significant effect on reduced personal accomplishment was observed. These results confirm the findings of the only available study which investigated the relationship between perceived organizational support and the three burnout dimensions by Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007). Hereby, the currently available findings are supported and the literature is enriched with this study which highlights the importance of perceived organizational support for the reduction of burnout. Although a negative effect over the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimension of burnout was present, the insignificant effect on reduced personal accomplishment deserves further attention and investigation, since neither this nor the only other available study could find a significant relationship between these variables.

Regarding the third independent variable, emotional intelligence, regression analyses show that there is a significant relationship with burnout. Emotional intelligence negatively contributed to burnout, however its effect is weak since only 1, 7 % of its variance was explained. This negative relationship confirms the results of many previous studies which emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence in the reduction or avoidance of burnout. These results corroborate previous findings where a negative effect of emotional intelligence on overall burnout was also observed through regression analyses (Chan, 2006; Benson, et al., 2007, Jude and Grace, 2011; Weng, et al., 2011; Huang, et al., 2011 and Alavinia and Ahmadzadeh, 2012).

When the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and overall burnout is examined it is seen that only the factor of emotional appraisal has a significant effect on burnout. Emotional appraisal negatively contributes to the overall measure of burnout while having a slight effect in only explaining 1, 8 % in its variance. Although the effect of the other

emotional intelligence factors is insignificant, the effect of emotional appraisal complies with previous notions of a negative relationship between the variables of overall emotional intelligence and burnout.

Regarding the regression analyses which were conducted in relation to the burnout dimensions, it was found that only the positive utilization of emotions factor had a significant but weak effect on the first burnout dimension of emotional exhaustion. This factor positively contributed to emotional exhaustion, while explaining only 0, 130 % in its variance. For the depersonalization dimension of burnout, only the emotional appraisal factor showed a significant, weak effect, while explaining 1, 8 % of the variance in this factor. Emotional appraisal negatively contributed to depersonalization. Interestingly, all four emotional intelligence factors had a significant effect on the reduced personal accomplishment dimension of burnout. Regression results revealed that all factors have a negative contribution to reduced personal accomplishment, whereby emphatic sensitivity explained 8, 1%, positive utilization of emotions 6,3 %, positive regulation of emotions 5, 0 % and emotional appraisal 4,8 % of variance in reduced personal accomplishment. No comparison study exists which examines the relationship of these four emotional intelligence factors and burnout dimensions, so that some interesting implications may be drawn. Although the overall emotional intelligence measure supported previous findings in confirming that this personal variable reduces overall burnout, it is interesting to note that the dimension of reduced personal accomplishment which was not significantly affected by the surface acting factor of emotional labor and perceived organizational support factor in this study happened to be negatively affected by all of the emotional intelligence factors. This may imply that emotional intelligence is an important personal factor helping to cope with employee's feelings of reduced personal accomplishment. Besides, the weak effect of overall emotional intelligence over burnout may result due to the fact that this variable has only a meaningful effect on the reduced personal accomplishment dimension, while remembering that burnout dimensions represent distinct but related components. However, further analyses studying the relationship of emotional intelligence and the burnout dimensions are required.

Although it is not the central concern of the study, it was further on decided to conduct Independent samples t-test and ANOVA analyses in order to analyze the differences between demographic groups of the participants. The independent t-test for gender and burnout pointed out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between the mean score of male and female respondents. This result is not surprising due to the sample size composition where females constitute 76, 5 %, while males constitute 23, 5 % of the overall sample, which might have hindered the effect of gender. In fact, the existing empirical results regarding the prevalence of burnout among men and women are inconsistent and Taris et al., 2005 highlights that when studies report gender differences it is difficult to interpret the results due to an unequal distribution of men and women along the samples. Another reason might be that gender differences in fact reflect differences in occupation (Schaufeli and Greenglass, 2001; Maslach and Jackson, 1981).

The independent t-test for age and burnout point out that there is a significant difference in terms of burnout between the age group '19-39' and '39 and over'. The mean score for the age group '39 and over' is higher, which contradicts Cordes and Dougherty (1993) who cite examples where younger individuals consistently reported higher levels of burnout than elderly ones. Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Rakovec-Felser (2001) claim that since age is confounded with work-experience, the experience of burnout may be riskier in the early phases of one's career. However, the results of this study have different implications which may have resulted due to the sample size composition. The age group '19-39' constitutes 32, 9 % and '39 and over' group constitutes 67, 1 % of the overall sample, which might have hindered the effect of age.

Analyses for marital status and burnout point out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between married and single respondents, what again contradicts present evidence in that married individuals report lower levels of burnout than those that are single (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; 1985). Again, the results of this study report differences which may have resulted due to the sample size composition. Married respondents constitute 74, 5 % and single respondents constitute 25, 5 % of the overall sample, which might have hindered the effect

of marital status. Additionally, Independent t-test analyses for education level and burnout also pointed out that there is no significant difference in terms of burnout between respondents' education levels.

Further on, ANOVA analyses were conducted for the 'occupation' demographic variable and burnout. Results implied that there are no significant differences in terms of burnout among different occupations. However, for the 'tenure in occupation' variable and burnout, ANOVA analyses implied that there is difference in terms of burnout among different tenure in occupation groups. Then, in order to see which tenure in occupation groups showed difference in terms of burnout, Scheffe test was applied. The results revealed that there is difference in terms of burnout between the '0-9' and '20-29' years tenure in occupation groups in this study. The mean score for '20-29' years group is higher what implies that employees who have longer tenure in their occupation are more prone to burnout. Lastly, for the 'tenure at the hospital' variable and burnout ANOVA analyses revealed that there are no significant differences in terms of burnout among different tenure at the hospital groups within this study.

6.2 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Several limitations were observed in conducting the research of this dissertation. At first, as is usually known, a larger sample is more representative of the population. The sample consisted of 251 respondents, and making generalizations with this sample size surely does impose a limitation. Therefore, a bigger sample size would be preferable.

Another limitation regarding the sample is gender, since it is seen that the percentage of male respondents is proportionally less than that of females. It is advisable for further research to be conducted with proportional data.

The conduction of research within the health care sector is another limitation, because the findings cannot be generalized over other sectors. Although research about burnout was firstly

and mainly conducted within the health care sector, testing this research model over other sectors would be beneficial, so that the differences in the perception of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence as distinct work-related, organizational and personal variables by respondents of various occupations would highlight whether some commonalities can be found over different sectors, or whether the findings regarding the factors affecting employee burnout are particular and meaningful for only health care organizations. Testing this model over other sectors is therefore highly recommended.

Geographic boundaries of the collected data also present a limitation, due to the fact that this research is conducted in hospitals in two different cities in Bosnia and Herzegovina. First and foremost, there is no comparison study from Bosnia and Herzegovina so that the findings cannot be generalized. Further on, this data is not comprehensive to other countries and cultures, and might on its own have many implications that result from this specific cultural identity. Therefore, conducting research in other countries and cultural settings would be strongly advisable. Additionally, conducting longitudinal data would highlight whether the results are consistent over time.

One final limitation is seen in the use of the Schutte et al. (1986) emotional intelligence scale. Due to the complexity of the construct and the differing operationalizations, many researchers strived to measure this construct with different scales. Although Schutte et al.'s. (1986) scale has proven internal reliability, no single factor was observed just as in the case of Petrides and Furnham (2000), Saklofske et al. (2003), and Chan's (2004; 2006) studies. Validation, reframing of the scale or the use of another scale for the assessment of emotional intelligence would be advisable, by bearing in mind that for the efficiency of the survey instruments with less item numbers are more suitable and promising of better results.

7. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to analyze factors affecting burnout in the workplace. A research model was employed after three different factors were selected in order to test their effect on burnout and its components. The existing literature reveals plenty of studies that have focused on the relationship between organizational, work-related variables and burnout. However, a more limited amount of studies exists that focuses on personal variables' relation to burnout. The underlying reason is that research suggests that organizational factors are more strongly related to burnout than personal factors (Leiter and Maslach, 1988). After reviewing the intensive burnout literature it was decided to employ the factors of emotional labor, perceived organizational support and emotional intelligence as representative work-related, organizational and personal variables and to study their effect on burnout and its dimensions, namely: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

The study contributes to the existing knowledge in being the only available study which incorporates work-related, organizational and personal variables into a model and investigates their effect on burnout and its dimensions particularly. Available research either focused on studying one type of variable in relation to burnout, or to its dimensions. To Jawahar, Stone and Kisamore (2007) their research is the only available which studied both a personal and an organizational variable in relation to burnout dimensions. Therefore, it is hoped that the existing research will be enriched with a study about burnout that incorporates work-related, organizational and personal factors into a model.

Given the results of the study, it is seen that the most leading factor which affects overall employee burnout is perceived organizational support. This organizational variable has been overlooked in the literature in relation to burnout although its importance for the reduction of this syndrome is high. Further academic research from different occupational and cultural background should assess this relationship as it has provided fruitful results. Organizations should understand how their employees perceive support and how they value it, since organizational support defines

the path for employees whether to be engaged into their work or to be burnt-out, and this holds true either in the short, medium or long run. Since burnout is specific to the work context as Maslach et al. (2001) already stated, then it can be concluded that organizations are the place where this phenomenon evolves and where it is defined. Although emotional labor, as the work-related and emotional intelligence as the personal variable have also proven to affect burnout, the organizational variable is still the one which mostly defines it. This goes in line with the aforementioned notion that organizational factors are more strongly related to burnout than personal factors (Leiter and Maslach, 1988).

Regarding emotional labor, it is seen that this variable increases burnout. In fact, surface acting or the act of faking emotions and suppressing them positively affected burnout, while this was not the case for deep and genuine acting. Although this is a controversial issue, since organizations in different sectors sometimes demand the performance of surface acting whether as a part of job requirements or organizational culture, having employees who at least align their emotions with the desired ones or who express genuine emotions is far less taxing for them, and reduces or avoids the development of burnout. Organizations, employers and managers should be aware that the human asset is the most valuable asset and that a tradeoff between the well-being of employees and the provision of a certain corporate image is a hard decision to be made, however having healthy and pleased employees definitely results with greater welfare and gains in the future.

At last, it was seen that emotional intelligence reduces burnout, and that all of its components help in the reduction of feelings of reduced personal accomplishment. Given this implication it would be beneficial to study this variable in relation to burnout and its components over other occupational and cultural backgrounds, and possibly with the use of an adjusted or different scale. Organizations could arrange courses for their employees in order to learn how to manage their emotions, how to better deal with stress and respond to varying emotions of others for the sake of their well-being and contribution to the organization. Lastly, policymakers should highlight the presence and the importance of avoiding burnout. They should encourage organizations to provide proper medical or rehabilitation treatment for the individuals who are

diagnosed with this syndrome. Developed countries have already established methods for diagnosing and treating burnout. Cooperation with organizations to monitor the psychological state of employees and to act on time when necessary, as well as the option to provide employees with enough time and space to recover and return to their job is something workers in developing countries take advantage of. However, this is not the case elsewhere. The underlying reason is that in this dynamic and competitive world, employees are basically and mainly the work-force which is replaced upon demand and the meaning of the term 'human asset' is unfortunately forgotten many times.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to the knowledge about which work-related, organizational and personal factors affects burnout and its components. It is believed that this research highlights which factors help in the reduction and which factors happen to increase burnout. Additionally, the study is the first of this kind to be conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina; therefore further research is called on regionally and elsewhere. As the final word, it is hoped that the academic research, organizations and policymakers will focus on the presence of burnout, and find solutions to overcome it for the betterment of the most valuable existing asset, the 'human'.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Survey in Bosnian

Poštovani učesnici,

Anketa koja slijedi je pripremljena u sklopu istraživačkog rada za Magistarsku tezu studentice Aide Tufek na Institutu za društvene nauke, programa Organizacija i Manadžment, Univerziteta Marmara u Istanbulu, Republici Turskoj. Cilj ankete je dobiti uvid u faktore koji utiču na pregorijevanje zaposlenika na radnom mjestu u zdravstvenom sektoru. Anketa je anonimna. Sve pružene informacije biti će sačuvane i iskorištene samo u akademsku svrhu. Ispunjavanje ankete traje oko 10 minuta. Uspjeh ovog istraživačkog rada zavisi od vaše dobre volje, učešća i objektivnog odgovaranja na pitanja koja slijede. Zahvaljujemo vam se na strpljenju i interesu da pomognete da se ovo istraživanje realizuje.

Student Magistarskog Programa
Aida Tufek

Mentor:
Ass. Prof. Sinem Ergun

Molimo vas da zaokružite i upišete odgovore na sljedeća demografska pitanja:

1. Pol: muški / ženski
2. Koliko imate godina: _____
3. Bračni status: Udata/Oženjen Neudata/Neoženjen Razvedena/Razveden Udovica/Udovac
4. Broj djece, ukoliko imate: _____
5. Obrazovanje: srednja škola / viša škola / fakultet / specijalizacija / magisterij / doktorat
6. Koje je vaše zanimanje: _____
7. Godine radnog iskustva koje imate u vašem zanimanju: _____
8. Koliko godina radite na sadašnjem radnom mjestu: _____
9. Na kojoj se poziciji trenutno nalazite: _____

Sljedeća pitanja se odnose na (BURNOUT)-pregorijevanje na radnom mjestu i emocionalni napor (EMOTIONAL LABOR). U pitanjima se termin 'ostali' odnosi na **pacijente i ostale zaposlenike**.

Molimo vas da zaokružite jedan od 6 ponuđenih odgovora gdje brojevi od 1 do 6 predstavljaju sljedeće:

- 1= Nikako se ne slažem
- 2= Djelimično se ne slažem
- 3=Pomalo se ne slažem
- 4=Pomalo se slažem
- 5=Djelimično se slažem
- 6=Slažem se u potpunosti

1. Posao me emotivno iscrpljuje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Kada se probudim ujutro i znam da se moram suočiti sa još jednim radnim danom osjećam se umorno.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Raditi s ljudima čitav dan za mene stvarno predstavlja napor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Osjećam se istrošeno od posla.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Moj me posao frustrira.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Mislim da na poslu radim previše.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Osjećam se kao da sam na kraju svojih snaga.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Osjećam da se odnosim prema 'ostalima' kao da su bezlični objekti.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Od kako radim ovaj posao postao/la sam bezosjećajani/-ja prema ljudima.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Brinem se da me ovaj posao čini emotivno hladnijom osobom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Zapravo me nije briga šta se dešava sa 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Imam osjećaj da me 'ostali' krive za neke svoje probleme.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Mogu s lakoćom razumjeti kako se 'ostali' osjećaju u vezi nečega.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Veoma se učinkovito nosim sa problemima koje imaju 'ostali'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Osjećam da pozitivno utičem na živote drugih ljudi kroz svoj posao.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Mogu s lakoćom stvoriti ugodnu atmosferu sa 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Osjećam se raspoložen/a nakon bliskog surađivanja sa 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Ostvario/-la sam mnogo vrijednih stvari u ovom poslu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Na svom poslu se sa emotivnim problemima nosim veoma smireno.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Kad sam na poslu glumim odgovarajuće ponašanje kako bih se prema 'ostalima' ophodio/-la na adekvatan način.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. U interakciji sa 'ostalima' glumim da sam dobro raspoložen/-a.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Kada surađujem sa 'ostalima' ja zapravo izvodim predstavu ponašanja kakvo se od mene očekuje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Jednostavno se samo pretvaram da imam osjećaje koje trebam prikazati na poslu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Stavljam 'masku' na lice kako bih prikazao/-la osjećaje potrebne za ovaj posao.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Pred 'ostalima' prikazujem osjećaje koji se razlikuju od onoga kako se uistinu osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Kada surađujem sa 'ostalima' ja glumim emocije koje pokazujem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Pokušavam zaista osjetiti emocije koje moram pokazati prema 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Ulažem trud da stvarno osjetim emocije koje trebam pokazati prema 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Radim puno na tome da unutar sebe zbilja osjećam osjećaje koje trebam pokazati 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Radim na tome da unutar sebe razvijem osjećaje koje trebam pokazati 'ostalima'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Osjećaji koje ispoljavam prema 'ostalima' su oni koje osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Osjećaji koje pokazujem 'ostalima' dolaze prirodno.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Osjećaji koje 'ostalima' pokazujem su u skladu s onim što spontano osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Izjave koje slijede predstavljaju mišljenja koja možete imati u vezi rada u organizaciji u kojoj ste zaposleni. Molimo vas da naznačite stepen vašega slaganja ili neslaganja sa svakom od navedenih izjava tako što zaokružite jedan od 6 ponuđenih odgovora za svako pitanje kao u prethodnom dijelu ankete.

1. Organizacija u kojoj radim cijeni moj doprinos njenom blagostanju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Organizacija ne cijeni nijedan moj dodatni trud.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Organizacija bi ignorisala bilo koji prigovor s moje strane.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Mojoj organizaciji je zaista stalo do mog blagostanja.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Čak i kada bih uradio/-la najbolji mogući posao, moja organizacija to ne bi primjetila.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Organizacija vodi računa o mom općem zadovoljstvu na poslu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Organizacija pokazuje jako malo zanimanja za mene.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Organizacija je ponosna na moje uspjehe na poslu.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sljedeća pitanja se odnose na emocionalnu inteligenciju. Riječ 'drugi', u ovom slučaju, se odnosi na generalno **SVE** osobe u vašem životu. Molimo vas da zaokružite stepen vašeg slaganja ili neslaganja sa izjavama koje slijede na isti način kao i u prethodnim dijelovima ankete.

1. Znam kada o svojim privatnim problemima mogu pričati sa drugima.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Kada se suočavam sa preprekama, sjetim se vremena kada sam se suočavao/la sa sličnim preprekama i kako sam ih riješio/-la.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Očekujem da ću uspjeti u većini stvari u kojima se okušam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Drugim osobama je lako da mi se povjere.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Teško mi je razumjeti neverbalne poruke drugih ljudi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Neke bitne situacije i događaji u u mom životu su me natjerali da ponovno procijenim šta je bitno a šta ne.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Vidim nove mogućnosti kada mi se promijeni raspoloženje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Emocije su jedna od stvari koje čine život vrijednim življenja.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Svjestan/-na sam svojih emocija dok ih doživljavam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Očekujem da će se dogoditi dobre stvari.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Volim dijeliti svoje emocije sa drugima.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Kada doživim pozitivnu emociju znam kako učiniti da to potraje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Organizujem događaje u kojima drugi uživaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Tragam za aktivnostima koje me usređuju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Svjestan/-na sam neverbalnih poruka koje odašiljam prema drugima.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Predstavljam se tako da ostavim dobar utisak na druge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Kada sam dobro raspoložen/-a probleme rješavam s lakoćom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Iz izraza lica ljudi mogu prepoznati koje emocije doživljavaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Znam zašto se moje emocije mijenjaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Kada sam dobro raspoložen/-a mogu smisliti neke nove ideje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Imam kontrolu nad svojim emocijama.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. S lakoćom prepoznajem emocije koje doživljavam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Motivisem se tako što zamišljam pozitivan ishod zadataka koje sam preuzeo/-la na sebe.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Pohvalim druge kada urade nešto dobro.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Svjestan/-na sam neverbalnih poruka koje šalju drugi ljudi.	1	2	3	4	5	6

26. Kada mi neka osoba ispriča neki bitan događaj u svome životu, osjećam se skoro kao da sam i sam/a doživjela isti.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Kada osjetim promjenu u emocijama nastojim da stvorim nove ideje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Suočen/-a sa izazovom, odustajem jer mislim da neću uspjeti.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Dovoljno je da pogledam drugu osobu pa da znam kako se osjeća.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Pokušavam pomoći ljudima da se bolje osjećaju kada se osjećaju loše.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Koristim dobro raspoloženje da pomognem sebi da istrajem u borbi protiv poteškoća.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Mogu znati kako se ljudi osjećaju slušajući ton njihovog glasa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Teško mi je razumjeti zašto se ljudi osjećaju onako kako se osjećaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 2: Survey in English

Dear participant,

This survey is designed as a part of research for the master thesis of Aida Tufek, student of Marmara University, Istanbul, Republic of Turkey, Social Sciences institute, Management and Organization program.

The following questionnaire is designed in order to find out the factors affecting employee burnout in the workplace. The questionnaire is anonymous. All results would be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes. The completion of the questionnaire takes about 10 minutes. Your good will, your participation and the objective information that you would give for the questionnaire, has big importance for the effectiveness of this academic research.

Thank you for your patience and support for the realization of this academic research.

Student:
Aida Tufek

Mentor:
Ass. Prof. Sinem Ergun

Please circle or write down your answers for the following demographic questions:

1. Gender: male / female

2. Age: _____

3. Marital status: Married Single Divorced Widowed

4. Number of children: _____

5. Education: high school / university degree two years/university degree / specialization / master's degree / doctorate's degree

6. Occupation: _____

7. Tenure in occupation: _____

8. Tenure at the hospital: _____

9. Current position: _____

The following questions are related to burnout at the workplace and to emotional labor. The term 'others' in the questions refers to recipients and other employees.

Please circle down one out of 6 possible answers. The answers from 1 to 6 have the following meaning:

- 1= Strongly Disagree
- 2= Moderately Disagree
- 3=Slightly Disagree
- 4=Slightly Agree
- 5=Moderately Agree
- 6=Strongly Agree

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I feel burned out from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I feel frustrated by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel I am working too hard on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I feel like I am at the end of my rope.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel I treat 'others' as if they were impersonal objects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I don't really care what happens to 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I feel 'others' blame me for some of their problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I can easily understand how 'others' feel about things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I deal very effectively with the problems of 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I feel I am positively influencing other peoples lives through my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I feel exhilarated after working closely with 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. In my work I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I put an act in order to deal with 'others' in an appropriate way.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I fake a good modd when interacting with 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I put on a show or performance when interacting with 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I put on a 'mask' in order to display the emotions I need for the job .	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I make an effort to acrually feel the emotions that I need to display towards 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to 'others'.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. The emotions I express to 'others' are genuine.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The emotions I show 'others' come naturally.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. The emotions I show 'others' match what I spontaneously feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The following statements represent opinions which you might have about the organization where you work. Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by circling down one of the 6 possible answers for each question just as you did in the previous part of the questionnaire.

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. The organization shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

The following questions are related to emotional intelligence. The term 'others' in this case refers to all people in your life. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements in the same manner as you did in the previous parts of the questionnaire.

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. When my mood changes I see new possibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I expect good things to happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I like to share my emotions with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I arrange events others enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I seek out activities that make me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I know why my emotions change.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have control over my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I compliment others when they have done something well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.	1	2	3	4	5	6

26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I help other people feel better when they are down.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.	1	2	3	4	5	6