Introduction
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Modern day organizations are very dynamic in terms of its products, processes and human resources. Organizations have realized the importance of understanding the dynamics and interaction between the inside stakeholders such as employees, distributors, retail chain participants and outside stakeholders such as shareholders of the company, customers and governments and society at large.

Therefore every individual in the society is either an internal or external member of an organization. As an internal member, belonging to the and working for the organization becomes an integrated part of life. As internal members employees establish their identity and are trained in several positions, they work, produce and become a contributor to the society. As internal customers human resources are so important and need to be satisfied with the role in the organization; therefore it becomes challenging or difficult to satisfy external customers simultaneously. On the other hand, if human resource has no value for its organization and is not aligned for achieving organization goals. the entire human resource component will negatively impact the organization and all other technological innovations or practices cannot remedy this lacune. Positive human capital is the greatest asset of an organization.

Thus one of the primary goals of the organization lies in the efficient use of HR practices to ensure satisfaction, commitment, engagement of the employee to the organization. This would provide a vibrant and dynamic organization maximizing production quality and employee satisfaction. Hence organizations constantly endeavor to improve the quality of human resources for betterment of the organization. This ensures both growth of the company and quality of the human resource in terms of quality of life and standard of living.

Loyal, satisfied and contented human resources with high degrees of organization commitment, engagement aligning to the organization are primary assets of the organization. Committed and loyal work force with high engagement levels promotes organizational
prosperity along with individual progress. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IS THE CORNER STONE BY WHICH HUMAN RESOURCE IS BENCHMARKED.

Such a loyal employee can result in increasing performance level, decreasing absence, employee attrition and enhance the social reputation of the organization, thus paving the ground for organization excellence.

Several researches in organizational psychology have been pointing out the factors of job satisfaction and how it needs to be improved. An endless list of factors and its combinations have been evolved. But still researches on this topic continue unabated because the concept of job satisfaction has been undergoing multitude changes in terms of time and context perspectives. The concept of job satisfaction involves different meanings to the individual and the organization. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, job satisfaction brings a whole lot of benefits to the organization, from the employee perspective it is an important factor in defining and measuring an individual’s career success that will increase economic prosperity and social status. Research works in job satisfaction have long been assessing whether, job satisfaction is a personality related construct. Job satisfaction is seen as an interdependent cluster of psychological factors which includes a kind of emotional adoption with job and job conditions (Shafi Abadi, 2005). Therefore understanding the balance of personality related psychological factors would enable an organization to make the employees more satisfied with the job which would lead to benefit both the organization and the employee himself. However, this also has a limitation as every organization’s personality involves a different set of psychological constructs. The goals, values and the mission of the organization are to be matched with the employees’ personality construct so as to align the organizational goals and individuals personality makeup for a proper fit. This would be mutually beneficial to both. This requires customized understanding and planned HR policies to recruit, train, develop human resource for the organization.

Organization and coordination between personality and environment result in more compatibility with job and career which, in turn, results in more job satisfaction,
acceptable career development, emotional and psychological stability, more activity and creativity and development of personal factors.

Incompatibility between environment and personality results in dissatisfaction, job change, failures, emotional and psychological instability. This has been the proposition for some of the earlier theorists such as Holland and Annaro. Both the theorists have argued whether personality fits the job or personality manifests as a result of job respectively through rigorous research works. While Holland insisted that every one selects a career that can manifest his/her personality in a best way, Annaro insisted on the importance and role of personality in job selection. He believes that each person has a group of job and career preferences for himself and justifies the differences between people in job selection in two ways, people who are interested in people in job selection and people who are interested in objects in job selection. In either way, the personality factor and organizational factors have been established to be interlinked. The present research work has tried to understand four personality-based psychological constructs and how an intervention can bring about improvement in the existing personality related psychological dispositions. The concepts that have been chosen for the present research work are Trait Emotional Intelligence, Burnout, Hardiness and Organizational Commitment. These constructs have personality underpinnings and have been found to have greater role in job performance and job satisfaction. It must also be noted that the constructs that have been researched in the study have evolved over time as a result of one’s personality development and changing organizational environment.

**Emotional Intelligence (EI)**

Emotional Intelligence and EQ were selected as the most useful new words or phrases of 1995 by American Dialect Society. The impetus for this sustained interest in emotional intelligence began with two 1990 articles by Mayer and Salovey, and the follow up work, much of which was popularized in a best selling book entitled “Emotional Intelligence” by Daniel Goleman in 1995.

“According to Salovey and Mayer (1997), EI is the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action”.

3
• Emotional intelligence commonly called EQ or Emotional Quotient but really is EIQ or Emotional Intelligence Quotient.

• A person’s emotional disposition (power) is emotional intelligence, sometimes called emotional health, is a quality, and it’s measures EQ.

• Good EQ is all about being able to identify all one’s emotions, and being able to express them.

In short EI / EQ can be said to be:

• Knowing how one-self and others, feelings and what to do about it.

• Knowing what feels good and feels bad and how to move from the bad to the good.

• The emotional awareness, empathy, sensitivity and emotional management skills help us to maximize our long-term happiness and survival.

• Being aware of one’s own emotions as they are occurring (self awareness).

• Being emotionally literate, that is being able to identify and label various emotions, to communicate clearly and directly to others what oneself feels and be able to read emotions of others and act appropriately to manage the situations.

• The ability to make intelligent decisions using a healthy balance of emotion and reason. Being neither too emotional nor too rational.

• The ability to manage and take responsibility for one’s own emotions, especially the responsibility for self – motivation and personal happiness and have self control along with ability to distinguish harmful and helpful feelings.

The Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence has recently emerged in both academic and popular literature as a concept with the potential to provide new insights into the effect of human interaction. One type of interaction frequently found in the organizational context is team interaction and between team members. Numbers of organizations are in the process of converting over to a long term based approach, therefore emotional intelligence is needed
to aid the transition. Team members must have high emotional intelligence in order to deal with interpersonal and intrapersonal conflicts, raise communication and commitment, and to accomplish team goals.

**History of Emotional Intelligence**

There exists little empirical research in the literature concerning the construct of Emotional Intelligence due to lack of objective measures. Regardless of the construct’s slow evolution, numerous researchers do insist that emotional intelligence is real and should be valuable and necessary component of human resource capital.

When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on the cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem solving. However there were researchers who recognized early that the non-cognitive aspects were also important. For instance, David Wechsler defined intelligence as “the aggregate of global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment”. As early as 1940, he referred to “non-intellective” as well as “intellective” elements, by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors. Furthermore, as early as 1943, Wechsler was proposing that the non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one’s ability to succeed in life.

Wechsler was not the only researcher who saw non cognitive aspects of intelligence to be more important for adaptation and success. Robert Thorndike, wrote about “Social Intelligence” in the late thirties. Unfortunately, the work of these early pioneers were largely forgotten or overlooked until 1983, when Gardner began to write about “Multiple Intelligence”. Gardner proposed that “intrapersonal” and “interpersonal” intelligences are as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by intelligence Quotient and related tests.

By early 1990, there was a long tradition of research on the role of non-cognitive factors in helping people to succeed in both life and the workplace. The current work on Emotional Intelligence builds on this foundation.

The merging of emotion and intelligence as a cognitive ability under the caption of Emotional Intelligence was proposed by a Yale psychologist, Salovey and Mayer (1990) of University of New Hampshire. It was defined as the “ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to
guide one’s thinking and actions”. When Mayer and Salovey coined the term Emotional Intelligence in 1990, they were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence. They described Emotional Intelligence as the accurate appraisal and expressions of emotion in the self and others, the adaptive regulation of emotion in the self and others, and the utilization of emotion to facilitate performance.

In the early 1990s Daniel Goleman became aware of Salovey and Mayer’s work, and this eventually led to his book, Emotional intelligence. Goleman became familiar with a wealth of research pointing to the importance of social and emotional abilities for personal success. Some of the research came from Personality and social Psychology, and some came from the field of Neuropsychology.

**Trait Emotional Intelligence**

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been well researched topic in psychology of organizations. Organizations have recognized the importance of EI towards work productivity and have been offering programs designed to increase EI, that have been implemented in numerous settings to develop EI competencies. However, the concept of EI has been undergoing several changes. One such change is the measurement method used to operationalize emotional intelligence in the personality. According to Petrides, Pita & Kokkonaki, (2007), “Trait emotional Intelligence is a constellation of Emotional self perceptions located at the lower level of Personality hierarchies”. The distinction between trait EI and ability EI concerns constructs, not models. Trait EI is measured via trait EI Questionnaire (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). Trait EI is the only operational definition in the field that recognizes the inherent subjectivity of Emotional experience. Trait EI concerns Emotion-related self perceptions measured via a self report while ability EI (or cognition Emotional ability) concerns an Emotion related cognitive abilities that have to be measured via Maximum performance tests. The distinction between trait EI and ability EI is now standard in the scientific literature, which helps to organize its development and accumulation of knowledge. It is now generally acknowledged that trait EI and ability EI are different constructs. Their literatures are developing independently and it is accepted that the operationalisation of one does not have implications for the operationalization of the other.
Trait EI theory enjoys wide spread empirical support and consistently replicated findings from numerous studies that are theoretically driven, methodological sophisticated and independently conducted. The construct provides a comprehensive operationalisation of the affect-related aspects of personality and lies wholly outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability (Carroll, 1993). Trait EI operationalized the potential for an individual in terms of 4 main factors and 15 distinct facets: Well-Being Factor, Self-Control Factor, Emotionality Factor and Sociability Factor besides an Independent Facet. Factors represent a level of measurement that is broader than that of the Facets, but more detailed than that of global Trait Emotional Intelligence. The trade-off between the various levels of measurement (Facet - Factor - Global) concerns breadth versus depth. At the Facet level, descriptions are detailed and focused, whereas at the global level, descriptions give a broad overview. The Factor level provides a useful level of intermediate measurement and description. The following figure 1 presents the comprehensive Trait EI factors and facets.

Figure 1

Trait EI Factors and the facets
The following table gives a description of how a high scorer in the trait EI factors perceives themselves.

**Table 1**

**Description of the perception of a high scorer in the trait EI factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wellbeing</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>successful and self-confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait happiness</td>
<td>cheerful and satisfied with their lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait optimism</td>
<td>Confident and likely to ‘‘look on the bright side’’ of life.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-control</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion control</td>
<td>capable of controlling their emotions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress management</td>
<td>capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulsiveness (low)</td>
<td>reflective and less likely to give into their urges.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotionality</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion perception (self and others)</td>
<td>clear about their own and other people’s feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion expression</td>
<td>capable of communicating their feelings to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>capable of having fulfilling personal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait empathy</td>
<td>capable of taking someone else’s perspective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sociability</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social awareness</td>
<td>accomplished networkers with excellent social skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion management (others)</td>
<td>capable of influencing other people’s feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The concept of trait EI research have been significantly growing over the past years on several lines of research such as affective decision making (Sevdalis, Petrides, & Harvey, 2007), emotion regulation (Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne, & Quoidbach, 2008), peer-ratings of behavior (Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006; Smith, Heaven, & Ciarrochi, 2008), performance in laboratory tasks (Austin, 2009), psychopathology (Malterer, Glass, & Newman, 2008), and relationship satisfaction (Smith, Ciarrochi, & Heaven, 2008).

**The value of Emotional Intelligence at Work**

According to Goleman, an integrated concept of emotional intelligence offers more than a convenient framework for describing human dispositions; it offers a theoretical structure for the organization of personality and linking it to a theory of action and job performance.

If one works in a large organization, even now he or she is probably being evaluated in terms of these capabilities, though they may not be aware of it. If an individual is applying for a job, he is likely to be scrutinized through this lens, though, again, no one will tell it so explicitly. Whatever one’s job, understanding how to cultivate these capabilities can be essential for success in one’s career and eventually to the organization to which one belongs. An organization fosters these competencies or discourages them if an individual is part of their management team. To the degree the organizational climate nourishes these competencies; an organization will be more effective and productive. Individuals will maximize their group’s intelligence, the synergetic interaction of every person’s best talents.

If one works for a small organization or for oneself, the ability to perform at the peak depends to a very great extent on one’s having these abilities – though almost certainly he or she was never taught them in school. Even so, one’s career will depend, to a greater or lesser extent, on how well one has mastered these capacities.

**Burnout**

Burnout is a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job, and is defined by the three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and
inefficacy. Burnout has been defined as a syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitudes and loss of concern for clients (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Burnout is defined as a Psychological response to job stress. Changes in what an individual wants and what he/she should do or, in other words, significant disharmonies between job nature and job owner’s nature lead into burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2005). Some of the common elements that are found in the explanation for burnout in most theories are 1) predominance of fatigue symptoms, 2) various atypical symptoms occur, 3) symptoms are work-related, 4) symptoms manifest in normal persons without major psychopathology, and 5) decreased effectiveness and impaired work performance occurs because of negative attitudes and behaviours. Burnout is experienced in many occupations where the work pace has increased and the demands of work have rapidly grown. In general, burnout is linked to overburdening work experiences, which are chronic in nature, as well as constant conflict between different roles or between important values and personal expectations.

Burnout syndrome is a subject of the interdisciplinary area of occupational stress research. It is defined as a sustained response to chronic work stress and includes emotional exhaustion, negative attitudes and feelings toward the recipients of the service (depersonalization), and a feeling of low accomplishment and professional failure. Now, many authors have achieved a relative concurrence on burnout aspects. These aspects include:

- Emotional exhaustion which means energy discharge and consumption of emotional resources. This dimension can be considered as the cornerstone of job burnout. Emotional exhaustion involves feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work, resulting in a loss of energy and general weakness.

- Depersonalization which separates workers from others and causes pessimism to colleagues, customers and organization. This dimension of the job burnout is prevalent among those staffs who regularly communicate to other persons (such as teachers, students, customers, patients). Depersonalization refers to the
development of impersonal and disconnected attitudes toward work and loss of idealism at work.

- Diminished personal accomplishment by which the person comes to negative self-assessment (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). The feeling of reduced personal accomplishment refers to a feeling of lack of competence and personal achievement.

Maslach and Leiter (2008) identified two groups of factors which dominate the person before burnout. The first group called situational predictors which include six antecedents: (1) workload, (2) control, (3) award, (4) social network, (5) job fairness, and (6) values. The second group includes individual antecedents such as age, gender, marital status and experience. Cordes et al. (1997) categorized burnout-related factors into three groups: (1) job and role characteristics, (2) organizational characteristics and (3) personal characteristics.

Burnout is usually defined as a syndrome of exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy (Maslach, 1993). Exhaustion refers to feelings of strain, particularly chronic fatigue resulting from overtaxing work. The second dimension, cynicism refers to an indifferent or a distant attitude towards work in general and the people with whom one works, losing one’s interest in work and feeling for work which has lost its meaning. Finally, lack of professional efficiency refers to reduced feelings of competence, successful achievement, and accomplishment both in one’s job and the organization. However, during the past decade, evidence has accumulated that lack of professional efficacy plays a divergent role as compared to exhaustion and cynicism (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Leiter, 1993). More specifically, it seems that exhaustion and cynicism constitute the essence or core of the burnout syndrome (Green, Walkey, & Taylor, 1991; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003).

Models of Burnout

Several models on burnout have been developed. For example, the process model (Leiter, 1993) has similarities with the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner,& Schaufeli, 2001). According to the process model, exhaustion and depersonalization form a sequential process, and lack of accomplishment develops separately as a consequence of poor organizational environment. According to the job
demands-resources model, job demands are primarily related to the exhaustion component of burnout, whereas (lack of) job resources are primarily related to disengagement, and lack of accomplishment is not included (Demerouti et al., 2001). Some other theories based on social exchange theories (Schaufeli, 2006) focuses on social comparisons people make when they evaluate the work environment, such as fairness at work and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) stresses the importance of loss of resources and studies reciprocal relationships and ‘loss spirals’ in relation to burnout.

**Figure 2**

Process of burnout

Conflict/Misfit
- Loss of professional efficacy and self-esteem
- Stress
- Inability to change the situation or to adjust
- Exhaustion
- Diminishing capacity
- Loss of joy at work
- Loss of mastery
- Cynicism
- Burnout
  (Depression)
The process model of burnout follows the theory of Maslach and others (1996), which is also based on the P-E-fit theory (Edwards, 1996). According to this model, the process starts from the mismatch between the employee and his/her work, which it is assumed causes stress. If the stressful situation is not solved, adjustment is not possible, or the situation remains unchanged, this will then lead to burnout symptoms, beginning with exhaustion and diminished capacity, through cynicism, and eventually to loss of professional efficacy. Finally, if not treated, burnout may lead to depression or other illness (Ahola & Hakanen, 2007; Greenglass & Burke, 1990; Häťinen et al., 2009). The model also assumes that burnout has reciprocal relationships with work characteristics and the perception of one’s resources and performance, which can be described as a loss spiral.

Therefore it is very essential to study the possibility of finding initial signs of burnout syndrome. This would help the organization to recognize the early phases of burnout syndrome in people, identify risk groups and to prevent it or at least mitigate the more severe symptoms (Diestel & Schmidt, 2010; Lee & Ashforth, 1993b; Taris et al., 2005). Several models have depicted the relationship between the three constructs of depersonalization, diminished personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion based on consequences and high and low uses of the different combinations.

**Antecedents of burnout**

Antecedents of burnout are usually divided into individual, organizational, and occupational (Maslach et al., 2001). Researchers have found that there are individual-level antecedents on the relationship between personality and burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman & Bowling, 2009; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). However, the importance of personal factors compared to occupational factors as predictors of burnout were found to be contradictory.

In terms of the organizational antecedents or work characteristics, the Job Strain Model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), the Effort-Reward -Imbalance Theory (Siegrist, 1996), and the Social Exchange Theory of burnout (Schaufeli, 2006) discuss in length about various work demand related factors, particularly the Job Strain Model suggests that demand factors at work are related to exhaustion, while lack of resource
factors at work is related to cynicism or lack of professional efficacy, high job demands combined with low job control (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004). The results of the empirical analysis of the models conclude that burnout symptoms are a multi-causal syndrome, in which different characteristics of work lead to the development of the different burnout components.

The occupational antecedents of burnout were more prevalent in blue-collar jobs or in low socioeconomic status groups (Ahola et al., 2006, 2005; Norlund et al., 2010), compared to the other groups of employees. Although the syndrome of burnout may be similar for different groups of people, the etiology of burnout may differ according to the organizational group, i.e., the stressors are different probably because of the differences both in perceived job stressors and in goals and expectations regarding one’s work between individuals, as well as between occupational groups and organizations (Winnubst, 1993).

**Consequences of burnout**

The consequences of burnout is a longitudinal chain, a continuum from poor working conditions through (stress and) burnout to withdrawal behaviours, such as sickness absenteeism, and to physical illnesses or to chronic work disability. According to burnout theories, burnout is assumed to lead to poor health and physiological illness psychologically mediated through impairment of the immunological system (Mohren et al., 2003) or changes in health behaviour (Melamed, Shirom, Berliner & Shapira, 2006) such as alcohol consumption (Ahola et al., 2006) or impaired sleep (Grossi, Perski, Evengård, Blomkvist & Orth-Gomér, 2003).

Burnout as a chronic stress syndrome also affects cognitive, autonomic, and neuroendocrine functioning which is termed as “allostasis”. Allostatic overload refers to a process where allostasis is chronically increased or dysregulated (McEwen, 2008). Researchers have also shown indirect evidence on the relationship between burnout and health such as several cardiovascular risk factors, the metabolic syndrome, change in levels of stress hormones, low-grade inflammation, impairment of the immune system, and blood coagulation (Melamed et al., 2006). Psychological disorders such as depressive disorders, cardiovascular disorders, anxiety, and alcohol-related disorders
(Bonde, 2008; Netterström et al., 2008; Ahola, 2006c). This process is affected by individual life experiences and personality. Major depressive disorders were especially related to an increased risk of burnout (Ahola et al., 2005).

**Theoretical Aspects:** The burn-out metaphor implies not only that somebody had to be burning (i.e. is strongly liked his/her job, was strongly committed, etc.) before he or she would be able to burn-out, but also that once a fire is burning, it cannot continue to burn unless resources are provided to keep it going. In other words, employees’ energy or capacity to work can diminish over time when the work environment does not provide resources and is especially demanding. In the terminal stage a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion will occur from which it is hard to recover (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001). There is another metaphorical meaning of burnout: Somebody could only burn out if he or she was burning before. Thus, engagement, enthusiasm and interest in someone’s job are a necessary precursor of burnout.

**The Interpersonal Aspect of Burnout:** The burnout concept was first described in the 1970s and originally referred to a reaction on interpersonal stressors on the job (e.g., Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli, Leiter & Maslach, 2008). The concept was traditionally examined in the context of human services, such as health care, social work, psychotherapy and teaching. One of the most prominent definitions describes burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). Exhaustion occurs as a result of one’s emotional demands. Depersonalization refers to a cynical, negative or detached response to care recipients / patients. The reduced personal accomplishment refers to a belief that one can no longer work effectively with clients / patients / care recipients.

In the late 1980s burnout was more and more noticed also outside the work with patients and care recipients (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). In a more general way burnout can be seen 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 & Leiter, 1996). Researchers agree that stressors leading to burnout in human services can also be found in other occupations (Burisch, 2006; Demerouti, Bakker,
Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). One of the most radical definitions representing 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.

**The process Aspect of Burnout:** Researchers agree that burnout does not occur overnight. It is rather a result of a prolonged and slow process that may last even for years. According to several authors (e.g., Burisch, 2006) the triggers are excessive job demands and the employee’s inability to continuously invest energy when meeting the demands. The development of burnout usually begins at an early stage of emotional exhaustion. High levels of emotional exhaustion consequently lead to a withdrawal from the people / clients / patients / customers the employees work with and also from their job in general. Such withdrawals result in depersonalized reactions to people / clients / patients / customers and in a cynical attitude towards the job (e.g., Taris, Le Blanc, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2005). In other words, emotional exhaustion may lead to the depersonalization stage of burnout (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). However, several authors claim that exhaustion and depersonalization develop rather in parallel and have different antecedents (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001).

According to Demerouti *et al.* (2001, p. 502) the development of burnout follows two processes. The first process is related to job demands which lead to frequent overtaxing and consequently to exhaustion. A lack of job resources (e.g., lack of social support), on the other hand, represents a second process which the end leads to disengagement from work. If resources are not functional in meeting job demands, withdrawal behavior from work will occur. Withdrawal behavior consequently leads to disengagement which refers to distancing oneself from one's work, and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work object, work content, and one's work in general (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001, p. 501). The third component of burnout, reduced personal accomplishment, is rather incidental in that process and is not seen as a core dimension of burnout. In general, there is little agreement on how the burnout develops and which stages are included (Bursich, 2006). Although most researchers agree that burnout
follows a process of stages, almost every author presumes a different stage order. However, the basic aspects of the burnout process can be summed up to the following stages (adapted from Burisch, 2006):

**Stage 1**

High workload, high level of job stress, high job expectations

- Job demands exceed job resources.
- The job does not fulfill one’s expectations.

**Stage 2**

Physical / emotional exhaustion

- Chronic exhaustion even higher energy investment in order to execute all job tasks
  - sleep disturbances, susceptibility to headaches and other physical pain.
- Emotional exhaustion; fatigue even when work comes only back to mind.

**Stage 3**

Depersonalization / Cynicism / Indifference

- Apathy, depression, boredom
- A negative attitude toward the job, the colleagues and clients / service recipients/patients
- Withdrawal from the job, the problems; a reduced work effort

**Stage 4**

Despair / Helplessness / Aversion

- Aversion to oneself, to other people, to everything
- Feelings of guilt and insufficiency

Job characteristics, such as excessive workload and time pressure, are consistently related to burnout (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). Similar findings were found for the subjective experience of work demands as well as for the actual number of work hours / clients / customers etc. Other characteristics such as role conflict and role ambiguity may be
perceived as particularly demanding. Being unable to meet the conflicting demands of the job or not knowing the exact job responsibilities can also trigger burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). The physical environment (e.g., noise, heat) and shift work may play an important role as well (Demerouti et al., 2001). These general job stressors can be found – at least to some extent - in every job. Therefore, burnout may be found in almost every occupation. However, the impact, specific emotional demands of the people work, such as requirement of being emphatic, severe client problems (even confrontation with death / diseases, for instance, in hospitals), high customer demands etc., should not be underestimated (Maslach et al., 2001).

Furthermore, a lack of resources may as well lead to burnout. Especially, not having enough support from supervisors and co-workers increases the possibility of having burnout. The absence of job autonomy / control (i.e., overall decision freedom in a job) also leads to more burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 42) presume that when people do not have control over important dimension of their job, it prevents them from addressing problems that they identify without control, they cannot balance their interest with those of the organization. Demerouti et al. (2001) found also that a lack of feedback on the work performance, meaningful rewards and a lack of job security are also work conditions that have burnout potential. In addition, Maslach et al. (2001) presumes that the whole organizational context should be considered when examining burnout favoring conditions. The organizational context shapes the relationship that employee’s develop to their job. If the organization expects the employees to give more in terms of time, effort, skills, and flexibility, whereas they receive less in terms of career opportunities, lifetime employment, job security, and so on (p. 409) the psychological contract between employee and organization is broken. In such a condition employees are more likely to develop burnout.

**Occupational Characteristics:** Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) report that the most frequently studied occupational groups are nurses, teachers and social workers. What these occupations have in common is their focus on people work. Burisch (2006), on the other hand, reports studies where the focus was on students, athletes, reporters, judges, librarians and even unemployed people. Therefore, burnout can occur in almost every occupation. Nevertheless, more recent research examines occupations that include the
contact with people but for which the contact fell short of the demands of this more extensive relationships (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 408). In the line of this research mostly managers have been the center of attention.

Lee and Ashforth (1993) focused particularly on managers / supervisors in the human service sector. They found that emotional exhaustion is also a central dimension in managerial burnout. In addition, they argue that human service managers spent a considerable amount of time on supporting the subordinates and on problems intervention. Since they work in the human service field, they might be spending a lot of time also on the work with clients / service recipients. Therefore, the total amount of time spent with client and subordinates may particularly accelerate the development of managerial burnout in human services.

Some other studies examined specific characteristics of different occupations and their effect on the development of burnout as well (Burisch, 2006, for review). Such research found that employees with more socially committed jobs (e.g., new public professionals) may be more prone to burnout. These employees may have very idealistic expectations toward the job and may even somehow believe that they could save the world. Therefore, they are likely to experience job disappointments which may consequently lead to burnout. However, there has been only scant research on such occupations. For several other occupations, their specific characteristics and their possible effect on burnout remain under-examined as well (e.g., entrepreneurs).

Burnout Signals / Signs: Burnout has mostly been referred to a syndrome meaning a set of signs / symptoms / signals indicative of a particular state / disease. Authors could identify several signals at individual, interpersonal and organizational level (e.g., Schaufeli & Enzman, 1998). Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) report of 5 types of individual level signals: affective, cognitive, physical, behavioral and motivational.

1. Affective Signals

Depressed mood / changing moods, Tearfulness, Emotional exhaustion and increased tension / anxiety
2. Cognitive Signals

Helplessness / loss of meaning and hope, Feelings of powerlessness / feelings of being trapped, Sense of failure, Poor self-esteem.

Guilt, Suicidal ideas, Inability to concentrate / forgetfulness / difficulty with complex tasks.

3. Physical Signals

Headaches, Nausea, Dizziness, Muscle pain, Sleep disturbances, Ulcer / gastrointestinal disorders and Chronic fatigue

4. Behavioral Signals

Hyperactivity / impulsivity Increased consumption of: caffeine, tobacco, alcohol, illicit drugs, Abandonment of recreational activities and compulsive complaining / denial

5. Motivational Signals

Loss of zeal / loss of idealism, and Disappointment Boredom

Maslach et al. (2001) add that at individual level of signals one must pay attention especially on mental or emotional exhaustion, mental and behavioural signals (rather than physical) and decreased self-efficiency. In addition, one should keep in mind that burnout signals are always work-related and manifest themselves in normal persons who did not suffer from psychopathology before.

Signals at Interpersonal Level: Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) describe also a long list of signals at interpersonal level. They again categorize them into affective, cognitive, behavioral and motivational signals. Since physical signals can be observed only on individual level, they are left out.

1. Affective Signals

Irritability, Being oversensitive, Lessened emotional empathy with clients / service recipients / patients Increased anger.
2. Cognitive Signals

Cynical and dehumanizing perceptions of clients / service recipients / patients, Negativism / pessimism with respect to clients / service recipients / patients, Labeling recipients in derogatory ways

3. Behavioral Signals

Violent outbursts, Propensity for violent and aggressive behavior, Aggressiveness toward clients / service recipients / patients, Interpersonal, marital and family conflicts, Social isolation and withdrawal, responding to clients / service recipients / patients in a mechanical manner.

4. Motivational Signals

Loss of interest and Indifference with respect to clients / service recipients / patients

At the interpersonal level a burned-out employee may, on the one hand, exhibit violent behavior. On the other hand, in most cases social isolation and withdrawal will occur. Another thing salient at interpersonal level. Clients, or service recipients or patients being treated as objects.

Signals at organizational level

At organizational level, burnout is first and foremost characterized by reduced effectiveness, poor work performance and minimal productivity. (Schaufeli & Enzman, 1998, p. 36). Other signals are:

1. Affective Signals: Job dissatisfaction

2. Cognitive Signals: Cynicism about work role and Distrust in management, peers and supervisors

3. Behavioral Signals: Reduced effectiveness / poor work performance / declined productivity, Turnover, Increased sick leave / absenteeism, Being over-dependent on supervisors and Increased accidents

4. Motivational Signals: Loss of work motivation, Resistance to go to work and Low morale.
**Prevention**

There are several approaches and training programs regarding prevention, early recognition and the management of burnout situations. Prevention is the concept refers to the principal burnout characteristics exhaustion, depersonalization, decreasing work efficiency and productivity. These characteristics are derived from the main stress factors identified on work place. Prevention should be based on the factors that generate and promote health and mental health at the work place and also reduce stressors.

**Health Resources**

The available resources at individual level are, mainly: internal resources – those of the individual, and external resources such as those developed in the work environment.

**Internal Resources**

Active coping strategies focused on the problem, Positive evaluation and self-evaluation of personality, rational attitudes, Involvement, Intrinsic motivation and Co-operation with clients. Active coping strategies have as goal transformations of the situation and act indirectly on emotions sustain the development of plans and involvement in actions to answer directly to stress factors.

A response tailored to the problem and a positive evaluation of personality may be efficient in increasing personal achievements (Marian, Drugaş & Roşeanu, 2005). Opportunity to collaborate with clients, to solve their problems and to fulfill their wishes is resources for employers in areas, which provide such possibilities. Cooperation with clients may lead to an increase of the social satisfaction. Solving clients problems may increase the perceived competence and self-efficacy. In addition, grateful clients may increase self-esteem.

**External Resources**

Social support obtained through different sources, Opportunities to improve work conditions Gaining control, participating in decision making and Autonomy, etc. Reinforcement received in different situations and Time management, set and prioritize goals, plan actions and assess progress.
Job satisfaction has a protective effect against the negative consequences of work stress. Organizational factors and personal factors are important in managing both, stress and satisfaction (Visser, Smets, Oort & DeHaes, 2003).

In general, research identifies a negative relation between time management and burnout and a positive one between time management and health related variables. Studies focused in the effect of annual leave started with measuring the level of stress and burnout before, during and after the annual leave. Several conclusions could be determined. Decrease of burnout during the vacation, Three days after the annual leave, the level of exhaustion was almost identical to leave before it, and After three weeks, it was the same (Westman & Eden, 1997).

A prevention program can focus on eliminating, reducing or counteracting stress factors of working environment, development of values in organizational culture, development of attitudes and rewarding relationships, development of effective social support, modeling, programming and resource planning, consultation with employees, employee participation in decisions making concerning changes, custom fitting and comfortable workplace.

The effectiveness of burnout prevention at work depends on some management measures. In our program preventive measures are implemented on managerial level. Managers can observe early signs of burnout in employees and or existence of specific stressors of burnout in workplace environment. Therefore, they can prevent the development of burnout among organization’s employees. Much of early intervention strategies generate also preventive and protective effects. Finally, since the manager can recognize the signs in the stages of burnout, intervention may depend on his knowledge and ability to involve the experts.

**Current Intervention Approaches:** Most intervention programs are aimed at the individual professionals to use coping skills such as relaxation techniques, cognitive restructuring, social skills training, didactical stress management, and attitude change (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Those who suffer from burnout show overly high commitment to, a personal investment in, their work (Lee & Ashforth, 1993). Therefore, they become vulnerable to stress and feelings
of exhaustion at work. In addition, excessive work commitment in terms of many work-related goals are burnout correlated (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi, 2004).

The intervention program proposed by Walster, Berscheid & Walster (1973) included cognitive restructuring exercises, most based on equity theory. Research has shown that in organizational contexts inequity can have important motivational effects and may lead to resentment, absenteeism, and turnover (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Geurts, Buunk & Schaufeli, 1994). The program directly focused on three ways in which people generally restore equity (Walster Berscheid & Walster, 1973). The program describes three steps. First, professionals can re-establish actual equity by adjusting their actual contributions or outcomes. The aim is to stimulate participants to describe ways to start changing work situation in plan they will write. Second, participants could change their perceptions of investments and outcomes. The program includes elements aiming to make expectation (of the organization) more realistic. The third way to re-establish is to leave the situation and to pursue another career if equity could not been attained in their present job. In conclusion, the participants were encouraged to look at their situation in a different way and see opportunities for personal growth (cited in Pines & Aronson, 1988).

Person / Organizational Approaches Prevention / intervention programs on burnout can either be: person directed or organization directed or combined: also organization directed. Person directed intervention programs are usually cognitive-behavioral measures such as: Psychotherapy, counseling, adaptive skill training, communication skill training, social support, exercises for relaxation

Organization directed interventions are usually a change in the work procedures. For example, task restructuring, work evaluation and supervision aimed at decreasing job demands, increasing job control or the level of participation on making decisions. Some of the interventions to promote mental health in the workplace are Organizational, changing organizational practices, Training supervisors & managers, Change shift work systems & introduce vacations, Support or training to improve skills or job roles, Training for better coping stress management intervention, Counseling & therapy and Exercise & relaxation (Marine, Ruotsalainen, Serra, Verbeck, 2006).
Psychotherapeutic Approaches

Group Therapies, Other intervention program suggested the usage of two kinds of psychotherapeutic methods experiential group therapy and psychoanalytic group therapy. Both program focused on changing the ways in which an individual perceives and deals with unfavourable working situations (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004).

The Experiential Group Therapy

The experiential group therapy is based on active therapeutic interventions, such as psycho and socio-dramatic techniques (Blatner, 1996; Leutz, 1986). Other therapeutic methods used in these groups include creative methods, such as drawing, music, telling stories, body expression and relaxing (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004).

The Group Analytic Therapy

The group analytic therapy is based on free association within the group (Ashbach & Shermer, 1987). The main theoretical idea behind this working model is by which participants assume to transfer their previous emotional experiences to the therapists and other group participants. The projective level consisted of the most difficult and feared aspects of the experience. More often feelings evoked by conflicts at work. The collective level provided shared new identifications for the group, for example feeling that one is not alone with problems, and that progress is possible with the help of others (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004). One focus of the intervention was to enhance participants’ interpersonal relationships, which has shown to be a key element of burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 2000). The results suggest that the relaxation and practice-based approach, as well as reflective discussion about the work-situation, were beneficial for individuals suffering from severe burnout symptoms (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004) Interventions that focused on decreasing negative affects related to major individual goals, help the recovery from burnout (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004). Those, whose emotions in connection with their projects become less negative, seemed to show a decrease in burnout during the intervention compared with other participants. During intervention, the number of work related projects decreased, indicating less preoccupation with problems at work (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004). The therapeutic interventions are typically successful in
decreasing the emotional component of burnout (emotional exhaustion). However, therapies have been less successful in increasing feelings of personal accomplishment (Salmela-Aro et al., 2004).

**Symptomatic intervention vs. etiological intervention**

Intervention can focus on two areas of burnout characteristics: etiological and/or symptomatic.

**Symptomatic Intervention**

To interfere with the symptoms using particular behavioral methods to achieve objectives like: Physical relaxation, simple solutions for fatigue, Life program reorganization highlighting one’s favourite activities, Search and use external resource: Social support, Task reorganization, Tasks/roles simple and clear, Especially emotional reward systems (and with self-administration) .Identify areas of interest/motivation of the person, the behavior training to frustration Developing the role skills role solving training.

**Intervention to the Cause Level (etiological)**

Intervention to the cause level is using mainly cognitive methods, through the following can be achieved,

- Distinguishing and developing the rational ideas about self-requests, to the others, to the world/job (cognitive restructuring)
- Management of emotions related to exhaustion/fatigue and irrational ideas
- System values reorganization/reappraise/al
- Self-control training
- Rational training
- The training of active coping
- The training of role playing simulation/scenarios and role playing
Coping strategies, customarily being defined as specific methods, directed to specific situations.

- Coping oriented to the problem (by responding directly to the stressful situation)
- Coping oriented to the emotion (to moderate the emotional response to stressful events) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986; Edwards, 1988; Begley, 1998, cited in Plana et al., 2002).

It was identified three categories of coping methods:

- Active-cognitive coping (the management of assessing potentially stressful events);
- Active-behavioural coping (the observable efforts managing a stressful situation);
- Coping by avoidance to face a problematic or stressful situation (Billings and Moos, 1981).

Relevance of coping style in preventive intervention of burnout

The different coping strategies were examined in relation to appearance and development of the three dimensions of burnout. According to Gil-Monte and Peiró (1999) and Plana et al. (2002), the coping strategies related to the burnout sequential process. Thus, feelings of low personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion are the signs of burnout beginning, while depersonalization is a coping strategy. The efficiency of coping strategies depends on the situations and the processes. Adequate coping strategies can be of great help for preventive intervention on burnout (Plana et al., 2002).

Modeling Coping Strategies

Stress stimuli (as the discrepancies between a perceived state and a desired state) can activate coping in direct or indirect ways related to psychological anticipated or perceived wellbeing. When anticipating potential threats, stress would activate coping directly, whilst already damaged psychological wellbeing will activate coping indirectly. The different patterns of coping are link in a complex system of relationships. In a study with social educators, Plana et al. 2002 used the structural equation modeling technique to examine the system of relations between different coping methods and the dimensions of burnout syndrome. The results showed that different coping patterns mediated a simultaneous relationship between feelings of personal accomplishment and emotional
exhaustion in the workplace. Personal accomplishment would tend to reduce emotional exhaustion, whilst emotional exhaustion would have a non-significant impact on personal accomplishment. This model provides, counter to expectations, that the combined strategies and methods of coping are more efficient than a managing style of burnout based on single directional strategy. The coping efficiency depends on the opportunities offered by the work context and on personality characteristics. It was, for example, shown that coping strategies oriented to the problem in situations of low control are counterproductive (they produce more stress). In situations where a lack of control is apparent, strategies oriented to avoidance seem preferable (Plana et al., 2002).

It was shown that the traits become most salient in a specific situation when individuals can recognize that they own these traits, internal awareness, awareness to consequences caused by the disappearance of these traits in that situation, external scrutiny (Jones and McEwen, 2000).

According to Pizzolato (2004), the most salient traits determine the individuals' coping styles. Therefore, students can enhance their secure attachment by participating in counseling or peer-based support groups (Moler, McCarthy and Fouladi, 2002). In Sweden, they also attempted a randomized controlled trial applying reflecting peer support groups to prevent stress and burnout (Peterson, Bergström, Samuelson & Nygren, 2008). Ewers, Bradshaw, McGovern & Ewers (2002) evaluated the effect of psychological training on the knowledge, attitudes, and levels of burnout. They demonstrated that, providing forensic mental health nurses a better understanding of serious mental illness, and training them in a broader range of interventions, helps them to be more positive in their attitudes towards the clients that they work with and experience less negative effects of stress resulting from their caring role. Long-term intervention had more prolonged effects for reducing burnout than short-term intervention, and yield permanent behavioral changes, especially for coping skills.

**Hardiness**

The other variable that has been chosen for the study is the personality construct “Hardiness” or “Hardy personality”. The construct of Hardy Personality was proposed by Kobasa (1979) as a distinctive and active way of understanding a person’s relation
with others, with goals, and with problems (Kobasa-Ouellette and Di Placido, 2001). This model of positive psychology is made up of three variables: commitment, control, and challenge. Individual commitment refers to engagement in life, control is related to the recognition of one’s influence on events, and challenge is orientation to change. According to Kobasa-Ouellette and Di Placido (2001), ‘‘hardiness is said to lessen the negative effects of stress’’. Chiefly, two mechanisms have been proposed to explain the effect of hardiness: a more optimistic perception of events (Allred and Smith, 1989; Wiebe, 1991) and the use of specific coping strategies (Westman, 1990; Williams et al., 1992).

According to Ford-Gilboe and Cohen (2000), a hardy person’s transformational way of coping involves either changing the stressful life events themselves or thinking about them optimistically. Another complementary action is the improvement of personal health practices, a consequence of one’s beliefs about one’s own health behaviours.

Thus, increasing hardy personality in workers may reduce the risk of job burnout by reducing the experience of stress. This, in turn, may lessen the experience of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation while increasing feelings of personal accomplishment. The interventions intended to reduce the risk for burnout may be more effective if they include enhancing workers’ personality rather than just decreasing environmental stressors. In fact, the hardiness approach has an organizational application. Specifically, the attitudes of commitment, control, and challenge that comprise individual hardiness correspond, at the organizational level, to cooperation, credibility, and creativity (Maddi, 2002; Maddi et al., 1999).

People high on hardiness, because of their being highly motivated and committed are likely to be attaining more success and have positive experiences. These outcomes of hardiness enhance feeling of self-worth and self-esteem. Azar, Vasudeva, and Abdollahi (2006).

The Hardy Personality or ‘‘Hardiness’’ plays a clear and relevant role in decreasing vulnerability to burnout. The hardy personality sub-dimensions are quite relevant in explaining burnout. Specifically, Control and Commitment are associated with protection from job burnout. Challenge is also negatively associated with the Lack of personal accomplishment. Garrosaa, E., Jime´neza, B.M., Liangb, Y., Gonza´lezc, J.,L. (2008).
Coping that is hardy involves clear identification of stressful circumstances, analysis of what can be done to resolve them by turning them to growth advantage, and carrying out the steps that result from this identification and analysis.

Researches indicate that hardiness can be learned. Especially learning takes place early in the life, through the nature of interactions with parents and other mentors (Khoshaba and Maddi 1999; Maddi 2002). But, hardiness can be learned at any time in life through our hardiness training program (Khoshaba and Maddi 2004; Maddi 1987, 2002). What is especially important in learning hardiness is that the parent or mentor support in practicing problem solving coping, supportive social interaction, and beneficial self-care, and also show you how to use the experiential feedback resulting from these hardy strategies to enhance the hardy attitudes.

According to Maddi (2002) hardy attitudes were positively related to the hardy strategy of problem-solving coping, and negatively related to avoidance coping. Further, the hardy attitudes were positively related to the hardy strategy of socially-supportive interactions, and unrelated to Type-A social behavior. The hardy attitudes were also positively related to the hardy strategy of beneficial self-care. These findings emerged in the data before the upheaval, and continued on after the upheaval. Indeed, the pattern of hardy attitudes and strategies was predominant in the managers who survived and thrived after the deregulation, whereas the opposite pattern characterized those who fell apart.

The combination of hardy attitudes, hardy coping, and hardy social interactions facilitates turning stressful circumstances to developmental advantage. In this, one has the courage and strategies that permit (1) clear evaluation of the stressful circumstances, (2) a consequently emerging sense of what can be done to learn from them and increase in capability thereby, and (3) persistence in carrying out what has been learned. The hardiness model also shows that hardy attitudes can facilitate the strategy of beneficial (rather than undermining) self-care. This helpful self-care involves keeping bodily arousal at an optimal level, so that there is enough energy to carry out the hard work of hardy coping and socially-supportive interactions, but not so much energy that the careful, ongoing work involved in this coping and social interaction is impossible. When the arousal level is getting too high, beneficial self-care involves relaxation
exercises, nutrition that moderates sweet and fatty foods, and physical exercise that helps in using up the excess energy. Hardy attitudes help with hardy self-care, and this decreases bodily arousal level. But, beneficial self-care, by itself, does little to reduce the stressfulness of the circumstances provoking excessive bodily arousal. Only hardy coping and social interactions can decrease the stressfulness of the circumstances, through turning them to advantage by what is learned.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined and measured in different ways. In Oxford dictionary, organizational commitment is defined as engagement with a work or obligation which limits freedom (Oxford Dictionary, 2008). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) consider it as an individual's dependency to an organization. Rusbult and Farrel (1983) have defined organizational commitment as the possibility of an individual's loyalty to his/her job and psychological belonging whether it is satisfactory or not. Organizational commitment could be defined as an employee’s strong belief in and acceptance of an organization’s goals and values, effort on behalf of the organization to reach these goals and objectives and strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Hunt and Morgan, 1994). In other words, organizational commitment points to the attitudes of employees concerning commitment towards the organizations they work for (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995; Northcraft and Neale, 1990). According to Luthans (1992), organizational commitment is directly related to the desire to maintain membership in the organization, the willingness of employees to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization’s goals and values.

The term Organizational Commitment is being looked in various perspectives. Many researchers suggest that “as the group of feelings, beliefs and intentions that increase the willingness to maintain membership in the organization” (Hunt et al., 1985). Prominently two main opinions have been explored. One of the opinions was developed by the studies of Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), and explained commitment as behavioral situation. In this respect, commitment is explained as the power of identification and involvement of an individual with a certain organization. The second view is the one stating that an individual
focuses on an action with the help of his early investments and if the action stops he loses his investments (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Oliver, 1990).

According to Mowday et al. (1979) organizational commitment is a multidimensional structure and it is the relative strength of an individual’s identification with an involvement in a particular organization and is characterized by at least three factors: the first one is a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; the second one is a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization’s goals and values; the third one is a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Savery and Syme, 1996).

Employee’s commitment to the organization can take various forms, and the antecedents and consequences of each form can be quite different (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990, Meyer and Allen, 1991). The model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) identified and developed measures of three forms of organizational commitment which are affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC) (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Allen and Meyer, 1990).

The components of organizational commitment appearing in the model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) by emphasizing the psychological dimension of organizational commitment are explained below:

**Affective Commitment**

Affective Commitment is the affective bond an individual feels toward the organization, characterized by identification and involvement with the organization as well as enjoyment in being a member of the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). Of the three components, Affective Commitment has received the most research attention (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Affective commitment reflects an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

**Continuance Commitment**

Continuance Commitment is the extent to which a person needs to stay with the organization, due to the costs of forgoing benefits associated with an individual’s
investments in the organization. These investments are close relations of an employee with fellow workers, pension benefits, seniority, career and special competencies gained by working in an organization for a long time. Employees have the fear of losing these investments in case of leaving the organization. Continuance commitment is based on the perceived costs associated with discontinuing employment with the organization.

**Normative Commitment**

Normative Commitment (NC) is the extent to which a person is obligated to stay with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991; 1997). NC’s definition has changed since its inception (Allen, 2003). NC was originally based on Weiner’s (1982) work on the internalization of norms about loyalty to organizations. Normative Commitment later became an obligation to stay with the organization, without specific reference to social pressures about loyalty (Meyer et al., 1993). More recently, the obligation has subtly changed, alluding to reciprocity for a benefit (Meyer et al., 2002). Some of the definitional changes have been reflected in revisions to the NCS (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993). Across these definitions, the core nature of NC is the employee’s sense of obligation; here, Normative Commitment is defined as the individual’s bond with the organization due to an obligation on the part of the individual. Finally, normative commitment reflects a sense of obligation on the part of the employee to maintain membership in the organization.

Organizational commitment is a function of individual characteristics like age, seniority and education with conditional factors like climate, job satisfaction and organizational characteristics (Morrow, 1983). When most of the studies are analyzed, the relations of organizational commitment with demographic characteristics and job satisfaction organizational variables draw attention (Kacmar et al., 1999).

**Job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

Job satisfaction is a well-known variable in organizational behavior studies. It is defined as being satisfied of various job elements (Herzberg & Mausner, 1959). Conrad et al. (1985) call job satisfaction as the adaption between individuals' perception on their needs and the awards they receive from their jobs. Individuals” emotional orientation toward their works is considered as a newer definition of job satisfaction.
(Price, 2001). Finally, employees' turnover can be too costly for organizations. A significant relationship is reported between intention to leave and employees' morale reduction, job satisfaction and costumers' perception on the quality of provided services (Gray et al., 1978). In a study by Steel and Ovalle (1984) which conducted via meta-analysis method, a strong significant relationship was observed between intention to leave and actual turnover.

Kovach maintained that “job satisfaction is recognized as a component of organizational commitment” (Kovach, 1977), while other researchers have clearly stated that job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Price, 1977; Spector 1997). Whether job satisfaction is a component of or a predictor of organizational commitment, the differences between organizational commitment and job satisfaction can be viewed in various ways (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). Job satisfaction is more of a response to a specific job or aspect of a job, while commitment is a more global response (Weiner, 1980) Organizational commitment may be more indicative of an employee’s attachment to the organization, as opposed to specific tasks, environment, or job location. In fact, an employee’s emotional attachment to an organization may engender a stronger personal commitment and enable the employee to experience a sense of belonging (Allen and Meyer,1990; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982)

**Career Stages and Organizational Commitment**

Allen and Meyer (1993) suggest that being able to anticipate the course of work attitudes over career stages would be useful for both employers and employees. If particular work experiences are more closely linked to work attitudes in some career stages than in others, it might be possible to manage work experiences at different career stages to promote desired attitudes. Previous studies suggest that work related attitudes of workers in later career stages deserve particular attention for several reasons, including the need of many organizations to influence retirement decisions (Morrow, 1982), concern over quality of work life issues, and demographic projections indicating that workers will not be able to progress upward through organizational hierarchies at the rate of the previous generation (Drucker, 1984).
Studies have also suggested that career stage moderates the relationships between attitudes and work behavior (Blackburn and Fox, 1983). Hence, organizational commitment varies in terms of how the relationship is maintained in the organization. Research findings suggest that affective commitment developed because of work experiences increased the employees’ feelings of challenge and comfort in the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1987; Meyer et al., 1993). Thus, Bassham (2009) suggested that the employees felt that they had found their niche that benefited both them and the organization whereas continuance commitment developed as a cost factor analysis. The parameters of continuance commitment took into consideration the amount of the employees’ investment in the organization for the position and the degree of loss encountered if they pursued other employment alternatives. According to Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, and Topolnytsky (2007) and Heere and Dickson (2008) antecedents of normative commitment which include the employees’ moral and ethical standards, were overwhelmingly strong which influenced them to remain in their current position and this strong stance of feeling obligated based on loyalty is what kept the employees committed to the organization.

**Culture and Commitment**

Another factor that has been reviewed to influence organizational commitment is the prevailing culture in which the organization and its members exist as the concept of organization carries very different meanings in collectivist and individualist societies. Employees who have collectivist values commit to organizations primarily due to their ties with managers, owners, co-workers (collectivism), and much less due to the job itself or the particular compensation scheme (individualistic incentives) (Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991).

The prevailing view seems to be that levels of organizational commitment in the western countries are influenced by their individualist orientation. Individualism and collectivism are theorized to have an impact on work values (Erez and Earley, 1987). In individualistic societies, affection, autonomy, and equity in exchange are salient, whereas collectivists emphasize skills development, prestige, and the well-being and goals of in-groups. Individualists stress the opportunity to “do their own thing,” which is
reflected in autonomous work, decentralized decision-making, and incentive systems that reward individual action and accomplishment. Furthermore, Allen, Miller, and Nath (1988) note that, in countries where individualism dominates, individuals view their relationship with the organization from a calculative perspective whereas, in collectivist societies, the ties between the individual and the organization have a moral component.

Boyacigiller and Adler (1991) comment that the dimension of individualism versus collectivism may have particular relevance for organizational commitment researchers. Randall (1993) theorizes that a country’s individualism-collectivism score may be associated with different levels and types of organizational commitment. She further states that it can be anticipated that employees in collectivist cultures would reflect higher levels of organizational commitment than employees in individualistic cultures. It can also be anticipated that there will be greater affective attachment (a sense of loyalty) to institutions in collectivistic cultures, and greater calculative involvement (a cost-benefit approach) with institutions in individualistic cultures.

Thus the variables reviewed here clearly point out that Trait EI, Burnout, Hardiness and Organizational Commitment have personality determinants, differ in terms of individuals’ demographic variables and are nurtured by organizational characteristics. Moreover, the theoretical understandings of the variables from various studies reviewed also suggest that the Trait EI, Burnout, Organizational Commitment and Hardiness could be enhanced in an individual through appropriate interventions and can be sustained over a period of time. Therefore, understanding and examining the above mentioned variables would help an organization to effectively improve the efficiency of employees and create a productive human resource capital. This would help the organization in the long run. The present study has chosen to understand, examine and has tried to improve the Trait EI, Burnout, Hardiness and Organizational Commitment in a public enterprise.

Organizations in India can be classified into three major classification- Public, Private and Entrepreneurial firms. The characteristics of the three firms differ in terms of organizational goals, management control, hierarchy structure, and approach towards human resource. The present study has chosen a public enterprise because Public institutions, which are different from private business enterprises, in respect of their
organizational objective and mission, have displayed a feature of central planning and administration. In order to be competitive and have a market edge, public enterprises need to have a committed workforce and a competitive human resource. This is possible only in an organizational climate and culture that promotes employees job satisfaction. In order to develop such a climate, it is important to increase job satisfaction and to put organizational commitment into practice connected with job satisfaction.

The organization chosen for the present study is the Bharat Electronics Limited (BEL), a state-owned defence electronics company owned by the Indian Government & primarily manufactures advanced electronic products for the Indian Armed Forces.

**Organizational Profile**

Bharat Electronics Limited (BEL) is one of the nine Public Sector undertakings (PSUs) under Ministry of Defence, Government of India. It has earned the government's Navratna status. (Navratna status is a title given to nine Public Sector Enterprises (PSEs) identified by the Government of India in 1997 as "public sector companies that have comparative advantages", giving them greater autonomy to compete in the global market so as to "support [them] in their drive to become global giants"). Bharat Electronics Limited (BEL) has nine factories and present research work was carried out at Bangalore unit.

Bharat Electronics Limited (BEL), Bangalore, was established in 1954 to meet the specialised electronic needs of the Indian defence services. Since its inception, BEL, Bangalore has grown into a multi-product, multi-technology, multi-unit company servicing the needs of customers in diverse fields in India and abroad. The company started its production in manufacturing communication equipment, Valves, Germanium Semiconductors and Radio Transmitters in 1960s. By late sixties and early seventies the company produced Radar manufacturing facility for the Army and in-house R&D. The company later produced TV picture tubes for TV Transmitters for Doordarshan. In 1980s, the focus of its production turned towards manufacturing Radars for the Indian Air Force, and a separate Naval Equipment Division in 1987 was set up at Bangalore to give greater focus to Naval projects focussing on futuristic R&D. In the years of 1990, BEL's started its first Joint Venture Company with Holland. By the year 2000, the Bangalore Unit was reorganized into Strategic Business Units (SBUs). There are seven
SBUs in Bangalore Unit. The same year, BEL shares were listed in the National Stock Exchange. And in June 2007, BEL was conferred the prestigious Navratna status based on its consistent performance. BEL recorded a turnover of Rs.6,103.81cr for the financial year of 2012-13.

The company envisions being a world-class enterprise in professional electronics. Its mission statement is “to be a customer focussed, globally competitive company in defence electronics and in other chosen areas of professional electronics, through quality, technology and innovation”. The PSU focuses on human values such as customers as its priority, working with transparency, honesty & integrity, trusting and respecting individuals, fostering team work, striving to achieve high employee satisfaction, encouraging flexibility & innovation, endeavouring to fulfil social responsibilities and a sense of pride of being a part of the organization. Hence the company aims to achieve their objectives through creating a facilitating environment for people to realise their full potential through continuous learning & team work.

There are nine SBUs in the Bangalore Unit (a strategic business unit (SBU) is a profit center which focuses on product offering and market segment, typically have a discrete marketing plan, analysis of competition, and marketing campaign, even though they may be part of a larger business entity. An SBU may be a business unit within a larger corporation, or it may be a business unto itself or a branch. Corporations may be composed of multiple SBUs, each of which is responsible for its own profitability). The present research work has focussed on Telecom and Broadcasting Systems SBU. The SBU already has a well established Human Resource Department which believes that performing work culture can be nurtured by being a learning organization through series education, training, self development and career development programmes. Further engineers and scientists are recruited through all India selection process and are inducted in various levels with classification as executive to senior management cadre based on service and placement in the organization.
Various activities done in Telecom and Broadcasting Systems SBU to promote continuous learning are

- Individual learning,
- Internal/External Training,
- Work experience,
- On the job Training,
- Job Rotation,
- Team Learning,
- Improvement projects
- Task force for specific task,
- Seminars/Conference

Organizational Learning has been practiced using

- Adoption of Business Excellence Model
- Best practices from other units/industries

The Unit has taken several initiatives for introducing innovative methodologies to improve organizational response, customer satisfaction, enhancing productivity and morale of the employees in continuous improvement activities. Some of the initiatives include

- Innovative methodologies for HR Management
- Performance Management System
- Cross Functional team
- Job Rotation
- Self inspectors
- Excellence awards
- QC circles
A four tier need identification system is institutionalized in the unit. Based on assessment, manpower planning is done. Training records of all employees are maintained in computer database and employees are sent for training to premier training institutes periodically.

BEL Bangalore believes in involving and empowering people through greater participation by giving them various opportunities. Some of the major employee involvement programs are Quality circle and, Suggestion scheme. It has also promoted committees to several welfare measures in areas such as Cultural, sports, safety, canteen, community centre, labor welfare fund committee, death relief fund committee. The Quality circle in BEL was started in 1991 and there are more than 65 quality circles which are active. More than 85% of employees are the member of quality circles and participate in various inter unit competitions. These competitions give the employees with immense opportunity to learn and improve the process effectively. An attractive award scheme has also been introduced in year 2002 for the best presentation and implementation of solution generated.

**However, the BEL Bangalore unit has Strategic Challenges which include:**

- Fast changing technology
- Management of obsolescence of material
- Retention of competent engineers
- Cost reduction
- Timely delivery
- Productivity improvement
- Effective utilization of machines
- Human resource
- Motivation of employees
- Export marketing
- RESEARCH PROBLEM
In order to cope with these challenges, the management encourages several empirical studies particularly in organizational psychology. The present research work is one such empirical work done to examine the role personality constructs such as Trait EI, Burnout, Organizational Commitment and Hardiness interact. Hence, the primary objective of the research work was to examine:

How Trait EI, Burnout, Organizational Commitment and Hardiness differs among employees and whether these personality constructs, Trait EI, Organizational Commitment and Hardiness may be enhanced and Burnout may be reduced through an intervention.

It has been proposed that examining and enhancing the above mentioned variables under investigation would benefit the organization as well as the employees in building a stronger, committed and effective utilization of the human resources for the company. The following are the five components of intervention designed for the purpose.

**Stress inoculation training/therapy (SIT)**

Stress inoculation training/therapy (SIT) (Meichenbaum (1985); Meichenbaum and Cameron, (1983); Novaco (1977), is a cognitive-behavioral form of treatment to help the client understand and manage their fear reactions and to decrease the amount of avoidance behavior associated with fear. The method used is a step-by-step approach in which the phases of stress inoculation are applied. These include assessing the likelihood of actual danger from a feared situation or event, managing avoidance behavior and engaging with feared behavior using problem-solving. SIT involves three stages—education, followed by the development of skills and finally the application of what has been learned to real life situations. Skill-building revolves around relaxation training especially relaxation imagery. The cognitive aspects of stress include thought stopping, rehearsal, problem solving, and self-talk. Problem-solving skills include Role play and clients are required to apply everything previously taught and learned to daily situations. This intervention has primarily focused on reducing burnout among managers and brings about more understanding among the team members. It is assumed that such exercises would enhance a better understanding among the members of the unit and how to tackle stress in an effective manner.
Relaxation technique

The intervention included three types of relaxation techniques namely

(a) **Progressive muscle relaxation for stress relief:**

Progressive muscle relaxation involves a two-step process in which you systematically tense and relax different muscle groups in the body.

(b) **Mindfulness for stress relief**

Mindfulness is the ability to remain aware of “moment-to-moment” experience—both internal and external. Thinking about the past—blaming and judging yourself—or worrying about the future can often lead to a degree of stress that is overwhelming. But by staying calm and focused in the present moment, you can bring your nervous system back into balance. Mindfulness can be applied to activities such as walking, exercising, eating, or meditation. Meditations that cultivate mindfulness have long been used to reduce overwhelming stress. Some of these meditations bring you into the present by focusing your attention on a single repetitive action, such as your breathing, a few repeated words, or flickering light from a candle. Other forms of mindfulness meditation encourage you to follow and then release internal thoughts or sensations.

(c) **Visualization meditation for stress relief**

Visualization, or guided imagery, is a variation on traditional meditation that requires you to employ not only the visual sense, but also the sense of taste, touch, smell, and sound. When used as a relaxation technique, visualization involves imagining a scene in which you feel at peace, free to let go of all tension and anxiety.

These three relaxation techniques are proposed to bring down anxiety levels among the employees and focus on the positive personality aspects. These relaxation techniques would help the employees to enhance their Trait Emotional Intelligence dimensions and help them to renew their commitment towards the organization.

**Executive Time Management**

The time management program focuses primarily on how to manage time when the employee changes from the present managerial cadre to higher level. When the
employee is promoted from one level to the next priorities and responsibilities shift sometimes subtly, often radically. The modern business environment demands exceptional leadership, to enhance productivity and efficiency at all levels, juggle multiple balancing customer, employee, and shareholder demands. This requires a high level of intelligence, energy, and discipline that sets you above the rest of your organizational hierarchy. To accomplish these time management techniques superior to the everyday methods need to be mastered. The time management techniques that have highlighted in the intervention included a four-quadrant Time Management Matrix based on four Priorities.

**Rational Emotive Behavioural Therapy**

Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) is based on the concept that emotions and behaviours result from cognitive processes; and that it is possible for human beings to modify such processes to achieve different ways of feeling and behaving (Ellis, 1999). REBT distinguishes clearly between two very different types of difficulties: practical problems and emotional problems. While the flawed behavior, unfair treatment by others, and undesirable situations, represent practical problems, the human tendency is to upset oneself about these practical problems, thereby unnecessarily creating a second order of problems--emotional suffering. The Ellis’ ‘ABC’ model (Ellis, 2004) is based on the following framework: ‘A’ represents an actual event or experience, and the person’s ‘inferences’ or interpretations as to what is happening. ‘B’ represents the ‘evaluative’ beliefs that follow from these inferences. ‘C’ represents the emotions and behaviours that follow from those evaluative beliefs.

**REBT addresses the latter by helping the individual through:**

- Taking responsibility of the distress
- Identifying the "musts"
- Disputing the "musts"
- Reinforcing the preferences
REBT has been used in this intervention primarily to identify the irrational thoughts behind burnout and how the emotions and behaviours that follow the irrational beliefs result in conditioning of those beliefs and turns into a burnout phenomenon.

**Team building activities**

As team work is one of the goals of the BEL, team building exercises were a part of the intervention in order to build communication. The team building exercises involved ice breakers and two games which would bring more cohesion among the groups’ members. Team Building exercises have been focussed to bring about more cohesion among the members of the unit and bring about a better understanding of every other member of the team.