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The Impact of In-service Training on Burnout at the Institute of Public Administration

By

Maghram M. Al-Amri

A Doctoral project submitted to the faculty of the Medical University of South Carolina
in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree Doctor of Health Administration in
the College of Health Professions

Dedication

This research is dedicated to my mother Zarah Al-Amri for everything she has given to me.

The Impact of In-service Training on Burnout at the Institute of
Public Administration

BY

Maghram M. Al-Amri

Approved by:

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Member, Project Committee

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Date 18/11/2006

Dean, College of Health Professions: Becky Trickey, Ph.D

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My thanks are also extended to the director of the DHA program Dr. James Zoller for his assistance throughout the doctoral program. Finally, my deepest gratitude is accorded to Dr. Tom Smith at the Writing Center and Center for Academic Excellence for his support during my study.

Abstract of Doctoral Project Report to the Executive Doctoral Program in Health
Administration & Leadership
Medical University of South Carolina

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Health
Administration

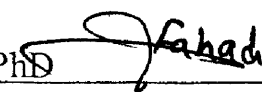
The Impact of In-service Training on Burnout at the Institute of Public Administration

By

Maghram M. Al-Amri

Chair, Project Committee: Anne Osborne Kilpatrick, DPA Date _____

Member, Project Committee: Elinor Chumney, C. G. PhD Date _____

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This study was conducted to assess the effects of training on burnout and job satisfaction by conducting pre- and post-tests of participants in various training programs provided by the Institute for Public Administration (IPA). This study used a Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) modified survey. The results suggested that the burnout levels among trainees after the professional in-service training program were not significantly different from the burnout level before the professional in-service training. At the organizational level, the findings supported a relationship between burnout and promotion, departmental and organizational tenure, age, and changing jobs and organizations. This study provided some valuable recommendations to both training and governmental organizations. Some of these recommendations are: establishing preventive burnout training programs, adopting a process for rotating employees and new methods

of promotion besides training and tenure as well as exploring matching between the satisfactions results to prevent burnout. Considering these recommendations will change the current findings of burnout related to other variables in this study. Overall, these recommendations will decrease the impact of burnout in relation to training, organizational characteristics.

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The Impact of In-service Training on burnout at the Institute of Public Administration

Increased levels of burnout within institutions are a widespread phenomenon. US industry loses approximately 550 million working days per year due to absenteeism, of which 54% is estimated to be in some way stress-related (Elkin & Rosch, 1990). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found that nearly 16,000 workers in all 15 European Union member states experienced burnout. The research, sponsored by the European Commission, revealed that 29% considered that their work activity negatively affected their health. Work-related health problems mentioned most in this survey were back pain (30%), stress (28%), and overall fatigue (20%). Similarly, Sutherland and Cooper (1990) reported that the number of workdays lost in the United Kingdom from stress-related causes increased significantly between 1982 and 1985. Schaufeli and Enzmann emphasized that, according to an international labor office (1993) survey, 75% of American workers described their jobs as stressful and reported that the pressure they face was steadily increasing. In sum, prevalence rates of occupational burnout are not only high but are also on the rise.

Although most research on burnout has been conducted in Western cultures, the phenomenon is presumably prevalent and increasing across developing societies as well. Within such modernizing societies, many roles performed in the West by private corporate interests are fulfilled by government institutions. Many governmental organizations in Saudi Arabia may therefore suffer burnout problems which may impact negatively on organizations and individuals' lives and work performance. Golembiewski,

Munzenrider and Stevenson (1986) stated that the importance of studying burnout stems from its significant effects in reducing productivity, as well as the deterioration burnout causes for individuals' quality of work and life. If burnout progresses to become an epidemic without prevention, assessment, and intervention techniques, it could result in a serious threat to Saudi governmental organizations. A pre and post burnout assessment for government trainees at the Saudi Institute of Public Administration (IPA) could benefit both the governmental organizations and their trainees. Studying burnout as a phenomenon can help organizations to address some contributing organizational culture issues and administrative policies: values, motivation systems, politics, and formal or informal power structures.

Farber (1983) emphasized the importance of being aware of some organizational issues that can lead to burnout. He asserted that the organization can create stress on their employees, which ultimately becomes personal burnout. Like any employer, governmental agencies should support and be interested in studying burnout because the results will help them to ensure the quality and effectiveness of their policies and workforce. The organizational work, policies and structures can increase personal burnout. Farber (1983) emphasized that the results of any burnout study should ideally improve work efficiency, productivity, decrease absenteeism, heighten the spirit of cooperation, and improve workers' morale. For example, from an organizational perspective, a burnout study will be helpful to the IPA to keep, change, and modify training policies at the IPA that may contribute to burnout. The study will provide a scientific tool that the IPA and governmental organizations can deploy to assess levels of burnout, and, if necessary, craft strategies that may result in the prevention, coping, and

rehabilitation from burnout. From a personal perspective, the results and recommendations of the research can help both trainees and trainers to be aware of burnout and avoid it, ultimately learning how to cope with and rehabilitate from it.

Research Site

The main purpose of the IPA is to provide training programs to all governmental employees. The IPA is comprised of three branches for men and one for women in three major cities in Saudi: Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam. This proposed study of burnout was conducted at the IPA in Riyadh (see appendix H). Riyadh is the capital city and organizational center of all Saudi services and agencies. In addition to basic training of employees, the IPA offers consultations on administrative problems presented to it by government ministries and other public organizations. In addition, it conducts research projects related to administration. The training programs cover different organizations in the government (healthcare, public administration, human resources and others). The IPA ensures trainee satisfaction about the service area through providing some benefits to the trainee. The trainee, who may live far away from the IPA branches, is accommodated by the IPA during the training program. Also, any trainee attending any training program has days off from their organization in order to be a full-time trainee. The IPA is the single most important accrediting organization recognized by the government. Any employee who works for the government must earn a certain number of credits from the IPA curriculum in order to be promoted.

Professional In-Service Training

Training is directed toward employees of governmental organizations to meet their training needs, raise their productivity and supply them with the knowledge, skills and positive attitudes necessary for improving administrative work and participating in administrative reform. At the end of each training course, trainees are evaluated in different ways. These methods differ from one program to another. Also, the evaluation methods differ from one faculty trainer to another. Evaluation methods employed include exams, workshop assignments, research, practical assessments, and others. The training programs vary from long- (weeks) to short-term (days).

Research Problem

The literature review illustrates the need to study professional in-service training and burnout through reviewing some theoretical and practical experiences. Many studies addressed training-related burnout as preventive (e.g. train the employees how to avoid burnout), or treatment/intervention (e.g. train the employees how to cope with burnout). Little emphasis has been placed on studying the effects of the in-service-training programs themselves, either in avoiding or causing burnout (e.g. improve the knowledge and skills (competence) of any professional career). A review of the literature indicates that professional in-service training related to burnout provides an opportunity for research because studies do not emphasize the potential relationship. The main purpose of this research is to assess trainee burnout pre and post training at the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). The assessment will guide the IPA specifically and other governmental organizations implicitly to know if professional in-service training—its philosophy, structure, organization, and elements—decrease or increase levels of

burnout. The second chapter of the research is a summary of the literature review that related to burnout and in-service training.

Literature Review

A literature review was conducted on training and burnout. Although little research has examined professional in-service-training as it relates to burnout, burnout itself has been thoroughly studied. Much of that study can be easily divided along the following dimensions of burnout: definitions, causes, symptoms, assessment tools, and costs. Analysis of the literature, however, is made more complex due to ambiguous and sometimes interchangeable use of the terms stress, depression and burnout. For example, some view stress and burnout as synonymous terms while others consider burnout to be a late stage of stress in the job field. Such differences between burnout and stress are addressed in this literature review.

Discovery of Burnout

The phenomenon of burnout was first described in the fields of human services, mental health and psychology. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) stated the phenomenon of burnout was first noticed in human services, the fields of child welfare and mental health. Skovholt (2001) described the first article titled “staff burnout” in a psychology field. Burnout was described as a loss of will among the practitioners who worked with their addicted clients. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) confirmed that burnout was first mentioned as a psychological phenomenon. Use of the term occurred in a discussion of helping professions by Bradley (1969), who proposed a new organizational structure in order to counteract “staff burnout” among probation officers.

Definition of Burnout

Based on literature since these early examples of the term, there is little agreement on a single definition of burnout. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found it impossible to come up with a general definition of burnout, in large part because many current definitions of burnout are contradictory. Some researchers defined burnout as a phenomenon exclusive to human services fields; other less restrictive definitions consider burnout to be a phenomenon across many different occupations. Welch, Medeiros and Tate (1983) argued that the current definitions of burnout were too narrow and restricted. Definitions, they observed, seemed only to touch on one or two aspects of human functioning. They suggested defining burnout as a complex process, which affects at least five major areas of human functioning: physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and spiritual.

Even though the definitions of burnout are dissimilar, Paine (1980) reviewed various definitions of burnout and identified similarities across the literature. There is much agreement that burnout occurs at an individual level and is mostly a negative experience for individuals, with the single caveat that burnout can be a good motivator for a person to change situations. Burnout can help the individual to consider changing their social and career vision and goals. Paine (1980) also stated there is much agreement that burnout is an internal psychological experience involving feelings, attitudes, motives, and expectations. The definitions are categorized in my findings as linguistic, generic, academic, dimensional, state, process, and operational.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) defined burnout from the English language perspective as the verb “to burn out” as to fail, wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources.

Burnout has been described generically as the status of losing, the last stage of stress, and a work related phenomenon. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) described burnout as “compassion fatigue.” Lewis (2002) described burnout generally as physical and/or emotional exhaustion, especially as a result of long-term stress or dissipation. Cedoline (1982) defined burnout as a human malfunction resulting from various forms of occupational stress. Minirth, Hawkins, Meier, and Flournoy (1986) stated that most generic definitions of burnout describe it as loss of enthusiasm, energy, idealism, perspective, and purpose. They described burnout as mental, physical, and spiritual exhaustion brought on by continued stress. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) defined generic burnout as “a progressive loss of idealism energy, and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions as a result of the condition of work” (p.15).

Each researcher defines burnout from his/her academic science background (e.g. sociology, psychology, medical, or administrative). As Gold and Roth (1993) pointed out, the definitions of burnout were related to the field of research or focus and the researchers: social-psychological perspective, a clinical approach, a public professional focus, or are based on social and economic conditions that influence workers lives and their perceptions of their work. The following are some example of these definitions. According to Gold and Roth (1993), Freudemberger defined burnout from a clinical approach as a “syndrome that included symptoms of exhaustion, a pattern of neglecting one’s own needs, being committed and dedicated to a cause, working too long and too

intensely, feeling pressure, and from giving too much to needy clients” (p.31). Skovholt (2001) defined burnout as “the index of the dislocation between what they have to do. It represents an erosion in values, dignity, spirits, and will an erosion of the human soul” (p.107-108). Cherniss (1980) defined burnout from a professional perspective as “a process in which the professional’s attitudes and behavior change in negative ways in response to job strain” (p. 5).

Burnout has also been defined by Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) according to three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. To these researchers, “burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity” (p. 4). Pines and Aronson (1988) defined burnout as a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion caused by long term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding” (p. 9).

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated that burnout definitions could be classified as state definitions: burnout as a multidimensional syndrome, burnout as exhaustion, or burnout as a dyshoric, related state in normals. The state definitions of burnout are different in scope, precision, and dimensionality of syndrome. All stated definitions are in general considered to be work related. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) defined burnout from the academic perspective as a state definition “a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind” (Maslach & Jackson, 1986, p.1).

The process of burnout can be classified into stages, input and output, transactional process, and process-causes. Most process definitions of burnout maintain

that burnout starts with tensions that result from a discrepancy between an individual's expectations, intentions, strivings, and ideals and the demands or harsh reality of life. Then, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) categorized burnout as a three-stage process: imbalance between demands and resources (stress), immediate (strain), changes in attitude and behavior (defensive coping), as increasing disillusionment, as psychological erosion. Farber (1991) defined burnout as processes of input and output, "a work-related syndrome that stems from an individual's perception of a significant discrepancy between effort (input) and reward (output), this perception being influenced by individual, organizational, and social factors. It occurs most often in those who work face to face with troubled or needy clients and is typically marked by withdrawal from and cynicism toward clients, emotional and physical exhaustion, and various psychological symptoms, such as irritability, anxiety, sadness, and lower self-esteem" (p. 24). Paradis (1987) described burnout as a transactional process consisting of job stress, worker strain, and defensive coping. He defined stress as a result of misbalancing between an individual's psychological resources and the demands of the job. Also, Paradis defined the strains as the immediate, short-term response to this stress characterized by anxiety, tension, fatigue, and exhaustion.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) defined burnout operationally as a "persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in normal individuals that is primarily characterized by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors at work. This psychological condition develops gradually but may remain unnoticed for a long time by the individual involved. It results from a misfit between intentions and reality in

the job. Often, burnout is self-perpetuating because of inadequate coping strategies that are associated with the syndrome” (p. 36). Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) defined burnout operationally as a “psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity” (p. 20). Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one’s emotional resources. Depersonalization refers to a negative detached response to other people. Reduced personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one’s feeling of competence and successful achievement in one’s work.

Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) provided three main definitions for burnout according to process-causes: according to Freudenberger and Richelson (1980), “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” (p. 13). According to Maslach (1982a), “burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind” (p.3). The process is caused by doing “people work,” according to Pines and Aronson (1988); moreover, “burnout is a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding” (p. 9). The process is caused by long-term involvement in emotionally demanding situations.

Causes for Burnout

In general the causes of burnout identified by Pines and Aronson (1988) as important factors in promoting burnout are: 1- psychological (cognitive & emotional), 2- physical (e.g. structure, space, and noise), 3-social (e.g. service recipients and co-workers

support), 4-supervisors 5- administrators (e.g. rewards and feedback), 6- organizational A-bureaucratic (e.g. communication problems) B-administrative (e.g. rules, regulations, policy, and participation), C- role in the organization (e.g. role conflict & ambiguity). In order to be more focused on some causes that relate to the organizational level, I classify causes to intra-organizational and extra-organizational causes. The intra-organizational causes can be organizational structure (e.g. policies, and regulations that relate to quality, change, training, management style, leadership, reward system, overload work, and culture), physical and social environment, gender, and personality. The extra-organizational causes can be society, competition out in the marketplace, globalization, culture, social issues, and social-economic causes.

In studying intra-organizational causes, Kilpatrick (1989) reported that 19 studies found a relation between organizational environmental variables and burnout. Generally, the less attractive the environment, the higher the burnout. The following are the most important intra-organizational causes: work and social environment, work processes, work loads, work features, work supports, work roles, work sitting, work development and improvement, work policies and regulation, and workers' personality and behavior.

1- Work and social environment. Social environment (Maslach & Zimbardo, 1982; Skovholt, 2001). Maslach & Leiter (2000), Narrow scope of client contact (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Cedoline, 1982), and Social isolation (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) stated most causes for burnout in a UK national survey of health and development were contact with people (12%). Cherniss (1980) stated the main sources of burnout were lack of professional-client interaction.

2- Work processes: lack of occupational feedback and communication (Cedoline, 1982; Imberman, 1976), transformational changes process within organizations (Golembiewski, 1996).

3- Work loads: Work hours overload (Savicki, 2002; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Pines & Aronson, 1988; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Cedoline, 1982; Gryna, 2004; Maslach & Leiter, 2000; Rogers, 1982), work under load (Cedoline, 1982), information overload (Cedoline, 1982).

4-Work features: Through a study of 104 professionals in the fields of college student personnel, mental health, and administration, McDermott (1984) asserted there is a significant positive relation between burnout and job characteristics (e.g. job description, time out, and skills). The main causes for burnout identified were job security (Cedoline, 1982; Jorde, 1982) and size of the organization (Savicki, 2002).

5-Work supports: lack of supportive groups (Schuler & Jackson, 1983), lack of recognition (Rousan, 1995).

6-Work roles: role structure (e.g. role conflict, role overload and role ambiguity) (Cherniss, 1980; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Cedoline, 1982; Jorde, 1982).

7- Work setting: job setting (Maslach & Zimbardo, 1982), physical work conditions (Cedoline, 1982), and location of services (Savicki, 2002).

8-Work development and improvement: the following are some examples of causes that relate to work improvement: inadequate training, education, and underutilization of skills (Cedoline, 1982; Paine, 1980; Cedoline, 1982; Cedoline, 1982; Jorde, 1982; Cherniss, 1980) and quality.

- Training: Gryna (2004) emphasized that inadequate training is an important cause for work overload that leads to burnout. Organizations should provide training to update skills. However, he also suggested that training could itself become a cause for burnout when it results in work overload. Reducing the numbers of employees as a result of training can cause work overload for the other employees in organizations. Paine (1980) identified five problems associated with professional training programs: they intend to create unrealistic expectations, they are not practical, they are not relevant, they do not focus on interpersonal skills, they do not provide adequate knowledge of the nature of bureaucratic organizations and how to function effectively within those constraints, and do not train professionals how to cope with uncertainty, change, conflict, stress and burnout.
- Quality: Many organizations seek to improve their level of effectiveness by using different programs of quality management that can cause burnout. Barry (1994) asserted that organizations can create or cause burnout by focusing and using Total Quality Management (TQM) on merely an operational basis rather than as

part of a larger strategic plan. This kind of burnout occurs when an organization uses a quality program approach, not a strategic process approach. Another common way that companies attempt to improve work is adopting advanced technology (Farber, 1983); however, in the process of adoption, where training is ineffective, burnout may result.

9- Work policies and regulation: the following are some examples of causes that relate to work policies and regulations: Unrealistic expectations (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Schuler & Jackson, 1983; Paine, 1980), lack of control (e.g. excessive and outdated policies and procedures) (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Maslach & Leiter, 2000; Schuler & Jackson, 1983), Routine (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), poor orientation (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), incongruent institutional goals (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), supervision practices (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Cherniss, 1980; Cedoline, 1982), poor leadership (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Brock & Grady, 2000), lack of autonomy, incongruent institutional goals (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), insufficient rewards, (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2000) and recognition (Rogers, 1982), absence of fairness (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2000), conflict values (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2000), length of time on the position (Savicki, 2002; Shirom & Mazeh, 1988; Cedoline, 1982) number of employees supervised (Savicki, 2002), power structure (e.g. bureaucratic

mentality) (Cherniss, 1980; Pines & Aronson, 1988; Schaufeli, Maslach & Marek, 1993; Cherniss, 1980), low pay (Rousan, 1995; Jorde, 1982; Rogers, 1982) and organizational culture (Schaufeli, Maslach & Marek, 1993), too many work responsibilities (Rousan, 1995; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) lack of responsibility (Schuler & Jackson, 1983), too many requirements for advancement (Rousan, 1995), setting limits (e.g. working hard without limitation) (Cedoline, 1982).

10-Workers' personality and behavior: the following are some examples of the causes that relate to work personality and behavior: lack of confidence in institutions (Cedoline, 1982), and length of time in the field (Savicki, 2002). Rush (1987), Maslach and Zimbardo (1982), Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), and Brock and Grady (2000) described the personal and behavioral characteristics as the big five and burnout: neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Also, Glicken (1983) categorized the behavior and personality types that are associated with burnout: an obsession with self and with outside forces, a need for complete control, a fear of change, a need for constant excitement, and unrealistic expectations. Schuler and Jackson (1983) stated there are some personal characteristics that may cause burnout: idealistic expectations, idealistic job and career goals, and personal responsibility for low personal accomplishment.

Non-organizational causes can be classified as: political, and economic forces (Paine, 1980) society changes (Rush, 1987; Cedoline, 1982; Paine, 1980), family activities, for example misbalancing roles between home (family) and career (job) (Pines

& Aronson, 1988; Gryna, 2004), life-style changes (Cedoline, 1982), breaking down community (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2000), competition among organizations, globalization, customer expectations, mergers, acquisitions, and downsizing (Gryna, 2004).

Symptoms of Burnout

Burnout symptoms are either silent or active. Silent symptoms are more dangerous, harder to discover, and more difficult to treat than active ones. Silent symptoms are dangerous because they are often a form of denial. Freudenberger and North (1985) described different denial techniques that can mask thoughts and feelings of excessive overextension of physical, mental or emotional energy. These techniques are suppression, displacement (your unpleasant feelings are transferred onto less meaningful objects, persons or situations), humor, projection (blaming someone else), fantasy (postpone confrontations with authentic reality through the invention of a preferred reality), selective memory, lying, self-labeling (e.g. "well that's me"), and selective incomprehension (deny what others say by refusing to understand).

Active and passive symptoms can be classified on different levels, depending on which people or how many of them experience symptoms. According to the literature, the levels are generic, individual, interpersonal, or organizational. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) listed 132 symptoms associated with burnout from A-anxiety to Z-lack of zeal. These symptoms are manifested as individual, organizational, or interpersonal. Each form of symptom affects several domains: affective, cognitive, physical, behavioral and motivational. Maslach and Leiter (2000) stated the main symptoms of burnout as exhaustion (individual stress), *cynicism* (negative reaction to others and the job), and

ineffectiveness (negative self-evaluation). The following are some generic, personal, interpersonal, and organizational symptoms.

Jorde (1982) stated the general characteristics that shape burnout are complete physical and emotional exhaustion, growing disillusionment with job and life in general, and self-doubt and blame. Potter (1980) stated the major burnout symptoms are frustration, interpersonal problems, emotional withdrawal, physical complaints, depression, drug usage, and declining performance and efficiency. Glouberman (2003) stated the alert symptoms of burnout are extreme tiredness and inability to relax or have a restful sleep, chronic anger, high self-criticism, loss of appetite for food and sex, poor attention, increase in watching TV, drinking alcohol, eating junk food, playing computer games, using internet (chat room), a closing down from family, friends, colleagues, and bosses.

The individual symptoms of burnout can be related to health, behavior, emotion and interpersonal relationships. Paine (1980) emphasized the importance of personal burnout signs. The personal signs are health (e.g. fatigue), excessive behavior (e.g. increased consumption of caffeine, and tobacco), emotional adjustment (e.g. emotional distancing), relationship (e.g. isolation from staff), and attitude (e.g. expression of powerlessness and hopelessness).

The organizational symptoms can be related to the negative behavior (e.g. high turnover rate), negative attitude (e.g. low morale), and low engagement. Paine (1980) emphasized that the importance of organizational signs for burnout, which can be poor staff morale, increased absenteeism, bureaucratic, authority conflicts, and poor communication. Glicken (1983) described the symptoms of burnout as correlation

between the dysfunction behaviors and a negative orientation or attitude toward work. These symptoms are increased feelings of emotional exhaustion in the job, cynical attitude, unhappiness with one's accomplishments, over-bonding with co-workers, boredom, depression, inability to handle minor illness, tendency to leave a series of jobs in a short period of time, over-commitment to job, low morale, absenteeism, and frequent physical illness symptoms.

Maslach and Leiter (2000) stated the importance of the relationship between burnout and engagement within the organizations: when one is high, the other is low. They listed three dimensions of the continuum between burnout and engagement:

- 1- Individual resiliency, ranging from exhaustion to energy.
- 2- Reaction to others and job responsibilities, ranging from negative (cynicism & hostility) to positive (involvement).
- 3- Reaction to oneself on the job, ranging from a feeling of ineffectiveness to a sense of efficacy and accomplishment.

All levels of burnout can be classified to different types of signs and symptoms. These types are social, emotional, psychological or physiological. Cedoline (1982) stated the main symptoms of burnout are physical and emotional exhaustion, socially dysfunctional behavior, psychological impairment, and organizational inefficiency through decreased output and poor morale. From a psychological perspective, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) categorized the symptoms of burnout based on psychological background from uncontrolled clinical observations and interview studies as follows: affective, cognitive, physical, behavioral, and motivational symptoms. Kilpatrick (1989) found 22 studies that compared physiological symptoms to burnout. Twenty of them

reported a direct association between somatic symptoms and burnout. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) stated some physical symptoms, such as chronic fatigue, headaches, stomach problems, or backaches that the workers may experience. Paradis (1987) stated the symptoms of burnout can be seen in physical, emotional, or behavioral manifestations. Physical signs include exhaustion, fatigue, sleeplessness, gastrointestinal disturbance, headaches, weight loss or gain, and feeling physically run down. Emotional signs are psychologically distancing oneself from the job, depression, paranoia, a negative self-image or sense of powerlessness, and detachment. Behavioral manifestations of burnout include alcohol and drug abuse, physical withdrawal and isolation from co-workers, increased absenteeism, and increased marital and family conflict.

Also these types of symptoms can be classified into groups: internal and external, severity stages, and symptoms related to duration and stages of burnout. These groups can exist either independently of or in combination with other symptoms. Savicki (2002) classified burnout symptoms in five different clusters: physical (tension, irritability, low-energy, fatigue, headache, chest pain, gastrointestinal disturbance, insomnia, and poor appetite), emotional (disillusionment, depression, feeling of helplessness, anxiety, hostility, alienation, apathy, and boredom), behavioral (absenteeism, turnover, decreased job performance, increased tobacco, alcohol and drug use, and talk of leaving one's job), interpersonal (less socializing, withdrawal from clients and coworkers, role rigidity, impatience, moodiness, and less tolerance toward others), and attitudinal (cynicism, rigidity of thinking, loss of self-esteem, negative attitudes). Also, Brunt (2004) classified the symptoms of burnout in five similar categories: psychological, physical, behavioral,

social, and problematic attitude symptoms. Cherniss (1980) combined some physical and behavioral signs. These include fatigue, flu, headache, sleeplessness excessive use of drugs, and decline in self-esteem family conflict, and gastrointestinal disturbances. The following are some examples of internal and external, severity stages, symptoms related to duration and stages of burnout.

Rush (1987) classified the symptoms of burnout to internal (e.g. loss of courage and personal identity) and external (e.g. irritability and physical fatigue). Cedoline (1982) described two ways of describing the symptoms of burnout. The first one focuses on the duration of symptoms. These symptoms consist of three stages. In stage one, the signs and symptoms of burnout are occasional and short-lived; at this stage, preventive intervention is required. In stage two, the symptoms become more regular, and more difficult to overcome. Therefore, coping interventions are necessary. In the third stage, symptoms are continuous. Relief for this third stage requires more time and often demands medical and/or psychiatric attention. Then, Cedoline classified burnout as progressive: physical burnout stage (e.g. fatigue, tenseness of muscles and physical ailments, and high blood pressure), intellectual burnout stage (e.g. impairment of decision-making skills, and deficiencies in processing information), social burnout stage (social withdrawal, malicious humor, and cynicism), psycho-emotional burnout stage (e.g. denial or blame, anger, and depression), and spiritual stage. Rudy, et al. (2001) described the main stages that face physicians as follows. *Stress Arousal* includes physiological and psychological responses. Some of these include persistent irritability, persistent anxiety, periods of high blood pressure, insomnia, and forgetfulness. *Energy conservation* is a compensation for stress. The consequences might include excessive

lateness, procrastination, excessive time off, decreased desire for sex, and persistent tiredness, social withdrawal from friends and family, increased cynicism, resentment, increased substance use (nicotine, caffeine, alcohol, prescription drugs), and excessive apathy. *Exhaustion* is the latent stage in which the person discovers something may be wrong. The symptoms include chronic sadness or depression, chronic stomach or bowel problems, chronic mental fatigue, chronic physical fatigue, chronic headaches or migraines, the desire to get away from family, friends, and even recurrent suicidal ideation.

Job Satisfaction Related to Training and Burnout

A clear relationship between job satisfaction and burnout has been identified in previous research. Satisfaction decreases as burnout increases. Arches (1989) emphasized that job satisfaction and burnout are related to the following five organizational areas: work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) stated that burnout can affect the level of job satisfaction among any employees. They stated the main dimensions or components of job satisfaction: self actualization (self-actualization is about personal ideals, values, creativity, and growth), environmental support for achievement, job-related affect (the emotional experience of jobs in words such as upset, depressed, and exhausting), working conditions (both physical characteristics of the workplace and burdensomeness of procedures), professional self-esteem (self evaluation of work, confidence in skills, and professional respect from colleagues), and futility/avoidance. They found when these factors were at positive levels, they compose high job satisfaction, and when they are at negative levels, the result is burnout. McDermott (1984) asserted through his study of 104 professionals in the fields of college student

personnel, mental health, and administration that there is significant positive relation between burnout and satisfaction.

Kilpatrick (1989) found 35 studies that assessed satisfaction with different instruments. It is important to consider training as an important element in educating employees in order to increase their satisfaction and decrease burnout. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) emphasized this correlation between getting knowledge and skills through reading or training and satisfaction or burnout.

Stages or Phases of Burnout

In general, Paine (1980) identified four stages of burnout: enthusiasm, stagnation (in which personal, financial, and career development needs begin to be felt), frustration, and apathy. Gorkin (2004) stated the four stages of burnout are physical and mental exhaustion, shame and doubt, cynicism and callousness, and failure, helplessness, and crisis. The stages of burnout can be classified according to the degree of severity, cycles, processes, or practical phases.

Gold and Roth (1993) stated the main stages of burnout in order of severity are: frustration and negative feelings, which lead to dissatisfaction (in which feelings of hopelessness begin, and multiple physical ailments appear), withdrawal and depersonalization from others (which advances to a more deteriorating level), disillusionment and burnout.

Freudenberger and North (1985) listed 12 stages of the burnout cycle: the compulsion to prove (desire to prove oneself in the world), intensity, subtle deprivations, dismissal of conflict and needs, distortion of values, heightened denial, disengagement, observable behavior changes, depersonalization, emptiness, depression, and total burnout

exhaustion. Lewis (2002) described burnout as cyclical. The burnout cycle consists of three phases: exhaustion, pain, and anger. Exhaustion is the result of a depletion of emotional, physical, intellectual, and spiritual needs. Pain is the result of violations to the emotional, physical, intellectual, and spiritual boundaries or standards. Anger is the result of self-deception when someone denies their own physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual truths. There are three ways to enter the burnout cycle. It can start with anger, exhaustion, or pain. Once any two of those elements are present at the same time, the cycle can begin.

Paradis (1987) described the burnout stages as processes embodying progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose that occurs through five stages: enthusiasm (the initial period where the worker has high hopes, energy, and expectation), stagnation (the workers are doing their jobs but beginning to become detached), frustration (the workers start to question their effectiveness in the job and their value of the job itself), apathy (a defense mechanism against frustration), and intervention (includes an action taken in response to or in anticipation of the other stages).

Another study by Veninga and Spradley (1981) listed five stages of job burnout. The first stage is the honeymoon stage (enthusiasm in job). This stage leaves employees satisfied, even exhilarated. During this stage, however, employees also expend valuable energy, and if they do not replenish that energy, they will slip inevitably into the next stage: fuel shortage. In this stage, an organization must be alert to the fact that work stress has begun. The most recognizable symptoms of burnout in this stage are job dissatisfaction, inefficiency at work, fatigue, sleep disturbances, and escape activities. The third stage is manifested by chronic symptoms: physical and psychological symptoms

that became evident in the earlier stage become persistent. The fourth stage is the crisis stage. In this stage, the symptoms become critical, and employees become obsessed with their frustrations, become pessimistic, and develop an escape mentality. The last stage is hitting the wall. When employees hit the wall, burnout has become entwined with other problems like drug abuse, heart disease or mental illness. They recommended three rules for anyone caught in the crisis stage: accept the fact of a dangerous crisis, find someone to give assistance, and do not feel guilty about retreating from danger.

Burnout Assessment Tools

Burnout assessment tools can be classified as two major methods: interview and survey (questionnaire). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) listed different assessment tools that can be used to assess the prevalence of burnout. These tools can be classified to assess psychological and physiological characteristics. The psychological tools are: observation, interview, or self-report (e.g. Do-It-Yourself Inventories). The physiological parameters are: heart rate, blood pressure, adrenaline or cortisol). The following are some examples of the types of survey and interview methods.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) also summarized briefly the popular survey methods used in different research. They put them in order of most frequently used methods in a total of 963 dissertations: MBI Maslach Burnout Inventory 59.7%, BM-Burnout Measure 2.6%, SBS-Staff Burnout Scale 2.0, BAI-Burnout Assessment Inventory 1.1, and FBS- Freudenberger Burnout Scale 0.1. Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) described different measures of burnout that have been used in burnout research. These measurements are:

1-Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the most widely used instrument. It is restricted to professionals who work with clients in some capacity. This instrument is focused on three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. MBI consists of 22 items which are divided into three subscales. The items are written in the form of statements about personal feelings or attitudes and are answered in terms of frequency on a 7-point scale.

2- Burnout Measure (BM) is not restricted to specific professional groups. It consists of 21 items that express exhaustion and that are scored on a 7-point rating scale. The length of BM can be shortened to half its items without negatively affecting its reliability. BM is a reliable and valid research instrument that indicates the individual's level of exhaustion. In a few studies, the MBI has been employed simultaneously with the BM.

3- Do-It-Yourself Burnout Scale: This instrument consists of 15 questions. An individual scoring in the lowest category is considered to be doing fine, whereas others are informed that they are a candidate for burning out.

4- Teacher Attitude Scale (TAS). This burnout instrument is specific for an occupational group. It is a modified version of MBI consisting of 64 questions (25 originally from MBI, 40 additional items relevant to teaching field). The survey focuses on emotional exhaustion, commitment to teaching, and gratification in working closely with students.

5- The Staff Burnout Scale for Health Professionals (SBS-HP) consists of 30 items. Twenty items assess burnout and the remaining ten from a lie scale to detect tendencies to “fake good”. SBS-HP has been validated in many studies.

6- Meier Burnout assessment (MBA) consists of true-false burnout test.

7- Perceptual Job Burnout Inventory (PJBI) consists of a 15 items burnout inventory that can be used outside the human service professions. These items reflect emotional exhaustion, demoralization, frustration, reduced efficiency, as well as excessive demands on energy, strength, and resources.

8- Emener-Luck Burnout Scale (ELBS) consists of 30 items. These items are work related feeling, work environment provisions, dissonance between the individual’s perception of self and others’ perception of self, and job alternatives.

9- Energy Depletion Index (EDI). This instrument has been used to focus on energy depletion as the central dimension of the burnout experience.

Through reviewing research studies between 1973 and 1987, Kilpatrick (1989) found most studies of burnout include surveys followed by interviews, and outside observers, or a combination. These studies are individual self-report, compared work groups, individual/group or individual, group, and organizational on burnout. Although the dominant popular instrument is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), another instrument that has been employed widely is a modification of MBI by Golembiewski and associates (1988) (Phase Model). The other instrument was Jones’ instrument. Jones’ instrument consists of 30 items that can be modified for each occupational group. This instrument measures cognitive, affective, behavioral, and psycho-physiological reactions. Jones’ instrument measures four factors of burnout: dissatisfaction, psychological and

interpersonal tension, physical illness, and unprofessional relationships with clients. The second measurements tool is the interview method. Cherniss (1980) conducted a burnout study by using unstructured interviews for 28 professionals in public organizations from different occupational groups (lawyers, mental health workers, nurses, and teachers). The study focused on participants who are early in their professional careers (first two years).

Almost universally used as an instrument to assess burnout, MBI scores seem to be rather stable over time (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). MBI reliability and validity has been confirmed by a number of recent studies that employed advanced statistical techniques. Foreign language versions have similar internal consistencies and show similar factorial and construct validity as the original American English version. The earliest questionnaires designed to measure the level of burnout were developed by Maslach and included this MBI. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated the main components of MBI can be different from one occupation to another. MBI has been used in health care studies 33.8%, teaching and education 26.6%, social work 7.0%, administration and management 3.7%, police 3.4%, and others 25.5%. Golembiewski, Boudreau, Munzenrider and Park (1990) asserted the MBI instrument generates factor structures that are generic rather than idiosyncratic. The MBI does not qualify as cross-cultural, but they do avoid the easy conclusion that burnout is idiosyncratic to specific local settings or specific nations.

Burnout and Study Duration

Burnout has been examined over specific periods of time, at single points in time, at two points in time, and pre- and post-intervention. Burke and Greenglass (1989) stated there are two ways in which burnout can be examined: the experience of burnout over

time (longitudinal investigation) by measuring burnout and its potential antecedents (e.g. work environment and personal characteristics) and consequences (e.g. job satisfaction) at one point in time. The other way is to examine the process based on phases within the burnout concept: prioritizing the three subscales the MBI on theoretical grounds.

Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) studied a group of employees at two points in time separated by one year. They found that most of those who were at an advanced phase of burnout at time one were still highly burned out at time two. Cherniss (1990) conducted interviews of 25 professionals from healthcare settings (mental health, poverty law, public health nursing, and high school teaching) during their first year of practice and then studied the same phenomenon again 12 years later. Etzion and Westman (2002) examined 57 employees of high tech companies who traveled abroad as part of their jobs. The participants completed a self-report survey (pre-, mid-, and post-trip). The results showed significant declines in job stress and burnout after returning from the trips.

Costs of Burnout

The cost of burnout can be tangible: organizations will bear both financial and non-financial costs. These costs can be experienced at national, organizational, and personal levels. Expenditures related to occupational burnout are huge (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). In the United States, occupational stress is estimated to cost employers in excess of \$200 billion per year in absenteeism, reduced productivity, medical expenses, and compensation claims (International Labor Office, 1993). Similarly, in the United Kingdom, the cost of sickness or absence for stress and mental disorders has been estimated at more than 5 billion Euros per year (Cooper et al., 1996).

Cedoline (1982) described the “non-financial costs” of burnout as a hazard that causes an organization to experience indirect costs in terms of inefficiency, low loyalty, and poor morale. Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) emphasized that burnout can affect creativity and innovation in organizations. Schuler and Jackson (1983) stated some consequences to an organization and individual: withdrawal behavior develops, interpersonal friction results, performance declines, family life suffers, and burnout eventually leads to health-related problems.

Maslach and Leiter (1997) stated that burnout can have an impact on soul, health, ability to cope, job performance, and personal lifestyle. This cost is not only suffered by individuals but also by those around them. They described burnout in terms of personal and organizational costs. The personal costs are physiological problems (headache, high blood pressure, muscle tension, fatigue) and mental distress (anxiety, depression, stress, sleep disturbance). The organizational costs are high turnover and reduced ability to deal with job problems. Pines and Aronson (1988) emphasized the cost in wasted training for those who quit their jobs, and in terms of psychological prices paid by those who stay. Organizations where burnout is a problem lose talent and suffer poor performance.

Stress and Burnout

Burnout results when employees experience increasing amounts of stress. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) differentiate burnout from stress and depression. They stated burnout is the final result of prolonged job stress and depression, usually accompanied by guilt. Moreover, they found that burnout generally occurs in a context of anger. Minirth, Hawkins, Meier, and Flournoy (1986) stated burnout is a result of too much negative stress. Too much burnout can lead to clinical depression. Croucher (2004)

delineated the main differences between burnout and stress, as summarized in table (1). Stress itself is a neutral event, and it is up to the employee to interpret the stress as either positive or negative. Simendinger and Moore (1985) emphasized that the stress that can lead to burnout is not always negative. Positive stress can make the employee feel motivated, energized, and excited to put in extra work to do their best. The employee who interprets the stress as negative, however, feels instantly overwhelmed and irritable. Also, Simendinger and Moore (1985) stated the importance of leaders identifying the negative stress that leads to burnout in order to find the best coping means for that burnout.

Susanne (1994) described a study of 42 special education teachers from Virginia who decided not to return for their teaching positions for the 1991-92 school year. These teachers indicated that stress was one of the leading factors in their decision to leave the profession. He found that they left not only their positions as a result of this stress but also their profession. The cause of stress that led to burnout included lack of resources, lack of time, excessive meetings, large class sizes, lack of assistance, and lack of support.

Table (1) The differences between stress and burnout by Croucher (2004)

Burnout	Stress
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout is a defense characterized by disengagement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress is characterized by over-engagement.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Burnout the emotions become blunted. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Stress the emotions become over-reactive.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Burnout the emotional damage is primary. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Stress the physical damage is primary.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The exhaustion of Burnout affects motivation and drive. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The exhaustion of Stress affects physical energy.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout produces demoralization. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress produces disintegration.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout can best be understood as a loss of ideals and hope. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress can best be understood as a loss of fuel and energy.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The depression of Burnout is caused by the grief engendered by the loss of ideals and hope. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The depression of Stress is produced by the body's need to protect itself and conserve energy.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout produces a sense of helplessness and hopelessness. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress produces a sense of urgency and hyperactivity.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burnout produces paranoia, depersonalization and detachment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress produces panic, phobic, and anxiety-type disorders.

Gold and Roth (1993) differentiated between burnout and stress as follows: stress can be positive or negative depending on individual perceptions. It can be of short or long

duration. When negative, it throws the person into a state of disequilibrium intellectually, emotionally, and physically. Burnout is a result of unmet and unfulfilled expectations and occurs gradually over a period of time. It affects self-esteem. It is characterized by progressive disillusionment.

Demographic characteristics

McDermott (1984) asserted that demographic variables of age, sex, marital status, and employment status of spouse had no significant correlations with burnout.

Sex

There is little agreement on who is more likely to experience burnout: men or women. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated the relationship between burnout and gender is not clear-cut. Horsburgh, Cameron, Armstrong and Al-Ma'aitah (1999) conducted a study of 479 nurses (68% female and 32% male) at public and military hospitals in Jordan. They found there is no significant difference between male and female burnout. Also, Chestnut, Morch, Rosario and Shinn (1984) emphasized no sex differences in individual coping skills were found. Maslach and Zimbardo (1982) emphasized that overall, men and women are fairly similar in their experience of burnout. In contrast, other researchers emphasized that women are more exposed to burnout than men (Maslach & Jackson 1981; Poulin & Walter, 1993). Pines and Aronson (1988) concurred, finding that professional women had slightly higher levels of burnout than professional men. Kilpatrick (1989) found 54 studies addressing the relationship between burnout and gender. Thirty two reported differences in gender, with slightly more studies reporting females experienced more burnout. Glicklen (1983) stated that, in general, females

are more likely to experience burnout by feeling emotionally exhausted and less involved in jobs than men. Vardi, Carel, Potashnik, Sheiner and Sheiner (2003) investigated burnout in females by conducting a case-control study of working female patients (64 case group & 106 control group) attending a fertilization clinic. They found no significant association between burnout and female fertility status. Maslach and Jackson (1981) found that males had higher depersonalization scores than females.

Age

There is broad agreement that young people are more exposed to burnout than the old. Shapard and Brewer (2004) conducted a meta-analysis to study the relationship between age and burnout, finding a small negative correlation between employee age and emotional exhaustion. Glicken (1983) stated young workers are more likely to feel burnout than older workers. Kilpatrick (1989) found 64 studies that discussed the relationship between age and burnout. She found 47 of them reported differences, with a slight emphasis on younger workers experiencing burnout at a greater rate than older people. Russell and Van Velzen (1987) found in a burnout study of teachers in public school in Iowa that young teachers suffered from burnout more than the old. Maslach and Zimbardo (1982) similarly asserted that the burnout level is higher among young people than the old. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated 38% of 1500 young men were under severe nervous strain at work, results revealed in a national survey of health and development in the UK. Pines and Aronson (1988) stated young women were more exposed to burnout than old women.

Race

The element of racial background in burnout has been addressed in some studies conducted in the United States. Scandura and Lankau (1996) reviewed literature on racial differences in job burnout among whites, blacks, and Hispanics. They found whites experienced a higher level of job burnout than blacks, and Hispanics reported the highest job satisfaction, which means low levels of burnout.

Marital Status

Being married appears to translate into less exposure to burnout. Maslach and Zimbardo (1982) asserted workers who are single experience the most burnout, while those who are married experience the least. The people who are divorced are close to singles in terms of high emotional exhaustion, but closer to the married in terms of lower depersonalization and greater sense of accomplishment. Kilpatrick (1989) found 21 of 37 studies discussed the relationship between burnout and marital status. She found single divorced persons more burned out than married persons.

Education

Kilpatrick (1989) found in 21 of 42 studies that there was a relationship between education and burnout. The dominant finding was that more education translated to greater levels of burnout. Maslach and Zimbardo (1982) found that this increasing burnout oversimplifies the phenomenon. In their work, the greatest amount of burnout is found for those who have completed college but have not had any postgraduate training. Still, consistent with Kilpatrick, they found less burnout with less education.

Practical Strategies to Prevent, Cope or Overcome Burnout

Practical strategies can be classified as organizational, managerial, and personal. Burnout demands both individual and organizational effort to be prevented or overcome. Paine (1980) stated burnout is classified according to the site of intervention: personal, interpersonal, workplace, and organizational. Then, he recommended three different identification methods (self-evaluation, peer-feedback, formal survey, and performance monitoring) and goals of intervention (prevention, professional training, support groups, professional and organizational development), mediation (stress management, creative supervision, job redesign, and quality assurance), and remediation (individual counseling, career change, and employee assistance) for each type. For example, the workplace category can be identified by using a survey, the prevention through professional development, mediation through job redesign, and remediation through job or career changes. Organizational burnout can be identified by performance monitoring and can be prevented by organizational development. Based on interviews with Hospice program directors, Paradis (1987) listed some strategies to cope with burnout. These strategies can be adopted by the organization to cope with burnout. The strategies were divided into two types: A- work oriented (e.g. physical withdrawing from staff, leaving work, delegating to other staff, socializing with staff) B- nonworking related (e.g. 1- physical self-care: 2- psychological/ emotional self-care [e.g. support from spouse and family, time off, crying as needed, and laughing], and 3- spiritual self-care (e.g. prayer religious activities).

Pines and Aronson (1988) stated some generic personal strategies for dealing with burnout that can be adopted: being aware of burnout as a problem, taking responsibility to deal with it, achieving some degree of cognitive clarity, and developing new tools for

coping and improving the range and quality of old tools. Gorkin (2004) recommended some strategies to recover from burning out: good grief, the four R's of recovery (reading, running, retreating, and writing), transition and diversification. Paine (1980) recommended four individual professional responsibilities that should be considered by employees to reduce burnout:

- 1-Learn about burnout and job stress in general and how it might affect themselves and others
- 2-Develop techniques for monitoring personal levels of burnout.
- 3-Develop effective coping mechanisms to deal with job-related burnout
- 4-Work with others within organization to deal with problems.

Organizational and personal strategies

The following are some organizational and personal strategies that can be adopted to prevent or treat burnout: actual and potential strategies, management project intervention, strategies according to burnout levels, focus group strategies, experimental strategies, and intervention therapy.

Maslach and Leiter (2000) provided an outline of practical phases to help any organization prevent burnout. These phases are doing an organizational checkup (assessing burnout, identifying its key sources, developing a way to move from burnout to the goal of engagement), getting ready for assessment (mission and vision with support from top management and staff), planning guide for project leader (timing, participants, setting up a team, putting together the survey, spreading the word, making sense of survey, making change happen, checkups and change, and repeating the checkup).

Chestnut, Morch, Rosario and Shinn (1984) conducted a burnout study for 141 human service workers to investigate effective coping with burnout produced by job stress. The sample is from a statewide professional society for group therapists and other group workers. The organization represented a broad sample of human service workers: its members are drawn from a variety of professional groups (psychologists, social workers, psychiatrists, pastoral counselors, and nurses). They used a survey with open-ended questions. They classified coping strategies as potential and actual coping strategies. The actual strategies were those employed by the respondents, and the potential recommended strategies were based on participants' responses when asked what agencies could do to keep workers from burning out. The actual strategies are as follows: 64% involved focusing on family, friends or hobbies rather than job (e.g. exercise, relaxing weekend); 30% focused on building competence by attending workshops and conferences; 31% focused on taking vacations; and 31% used emotional strategies (e.g. anger, withdrawal, self-blame or focusing on positive aspects of work); and 22% identified changing the job itself. The potential strategies identified included building workers' competence (encouraging personal growth experiences, good training opportunities, in-service and workshops), changing job responsibilities/structures (e.g. reduce workload, rotation workers), improving supervision; improving communication and participation in decisions, increasing recognition and rewards, and having institutional health club membership. All participants agreed that none of their organizations considered any strategies to discover or to cope with burnout.

O'Driscoll, Dewe and Cooper (2001) provided a conceptual framework for stress management interventions. The interventions were classified in three categories: primary, secondary, and tertiary. Each intervention had different scope, target, and examples. For example, primary intervention had the following components: scope is preventive, target is work environment and organizational structure, and example is job redesign. The secondary intervention had scope preventive/reactive, target individual, and the example was stress management training. The tertiary intervention had a scope of treatment and minimizing damaging consequences, the target was individual, and the example was employee assistance programs.

Maslach and Zimbardo (1982) stated that coping with burnout can be classified to different levels: individual, social, and institutional. The individual level includes actions that can be taken by an individual. Social techniques are those requiring joint efforts of several people (e.g. co-workers). Coping techniques at an institutional level require policies, administrative, and process actions that can help the staff to deal with emotional burnout.

Friedman (2000) conducted a study of burnout among teachers. As a result, he came up with some strategies that can help both individuals and organizations to deal with burnout and its consequences. At a personal level, he recommended some stress management techniques to alleviate burnout. These techniques include exercise, relaxation training (at home and work), biofeedback (involves voluntary control of physiological mechanisms: brain waves, heart rate, muscle tension, and blood pressure), and cognitive-behavioral techniques (by removing cognitive distortions

such as over-generalizing, magnifying and personalization by assertiveness training). At the organizational level, he recommended adopting a supportive, encouraging, and participative managerial style; organizational goals, expectations, roles, and assignments should be stated clearly; effective communication; good collegial and social support should be encouraged; and professional development (including stress alleviation workshops and workshops on coping with discipline problems).

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) classified burnout interventions to three groups of focus: individual, individual/organizational interface, and organization. Each focus group consists of primary prevention, secondary prevention, treatment, and rehabilitation. At the individual level, the primary prevention would be stress management and promoting healthy lifestyles. Secondary prevention would be cognitive-behavioral techniques. At the individual/organizational interface, the primary intervention was time management and interpersonal skills training. The secondary prevention was peer-support groups, consultation and career planning. At the organizational level, the primary prevention was improving job content and environment, time scheduling, retraining, and wellness and fitness programs. The secondary prevention focused on communication, decision making, conflict, and organizational development. Treatment included psychotherapy referral, specialized counseling, or employee assistance programs. Rehabilitation was through changing jobs or careers.

Bruning and Frew (1987) examined the physiological effects of three intervention strategies in a longitudinal field experiment. At a healthcare organization, 62 subjects were assigned to three experimental groups and one control

group. The intervention strategies were exercise (30 minutes every other day with choice of walking, running, swimming, or bicycling), management skills (exploring work and personal values, setting and prioritizing strategic goals, communication skills, and time management skills), and meditation (started with a few minutes calming and relaxing the body, then spending the remaining time on meditative sounds). Overall, They found that, after the intervention, the pulse rate and blood pressure were mostly decreased significantly.

Glicken (1983) recommended treating a variety of work-related burnout victims by adopting what is called Career Enhancement Therapy (CET). The CET recommended starting with 12 to 15 employees for two or eight hours for the first two days. Then, the follow up can be conducted 6 months following the first session. Adopting CET helped to evaluate and understand the causes of burnout and the hidden levels of awareness, determined personal and organizational changes, developed sensitivity to signs of burnout in order to cope more successfully with similar situations in the future, and developed skills for discussing feelings and emotions with others.

Management Practice

Watts (1990) asserted that human resource professionals and managers can help their employees to avoid burnout by resetting employee goals to make them achievable, implementing effective appraisal systems, and giving feedback to the employees. Pines and Aronson (1988) recommended the following organizational coping strategies: reducing staff-client ratio, making time out available, limiting hours of stressful work, increasing organizational flexibility, training, and improving work conditions. Russell

and Van Velzen (1987) found in a burnout a study among teachers in public school in Iowa that the teachers who reported that they had supportive supervisors and indicated that they received positive feedback concerning their skills and abilities from others were less vulnerable to burnout.

Cherniss (1980) asserted the importance of leadership and supervision in preventing burnout. The leadership and supervision should provide motivation and commitment in difficult situations. Having effective quality of leadership and supervision, including technical competence, insisting on superior performance, and maintaining impartiality in administering rewards and punishments can prevent burnout. These qualities should be associated with high morale and commitment.

Arnetz, Dallender, Nolan, Soares and Thomsen (1999) used a cross-sectional study of 1,051 psychiatrists and mental health nurses in Stockholm. They stated the psychosocial work environment and well-being of mental health professionals can be improved by concentrating on organizational factors such as efficiency, personal development, and goal quality. Paine (1980) stated the important of focusing on internal norms and standards (formal and informal, leadership style, power and decision making processes, reward systems) when seeking to analyze burnout within any organization. Cherniss (1980) suggested some strategies that can be adopted to cope with burnout. These strategies are: change in goals and aspirations, change in attitude, effective training, and intervention in the workplace. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) stated worker burnout is one of the most serious and potentially destructive problems and it is an obligation for not only managers and supervisors but all human services supervisors to help staff cope effectively with any stressful situations. Paradis (1987) noted that, due to a lack of

planning and preparation for coping with the emotional stresses of human service work, many workers are unable to maintain commitment to their jobs, leading to burnout. Gryna (2004) emphasized redesigning work is essential to eliminate workload. Glouberman (2003) emphasized using imagery exercise to recover from burnout. Dyar, Hopson and Hopson (2001) asserted from the medical perspective how critical incident stress management programs (CISM) helped many staff at emergency services. The first program was established by Dr. Jeffery Mitchell in Baltimore. Critical incident stress is any situation faced by emergency services personnel that causes them to experience unusually strong emotional reactions. The goal of CISM is to help staff to cope with stress and return them to their normal productive roles. Any such incident should be reported within 72 hours.

Maslach and Leiter (2000) stated some strategies that need to be adopted to prevent burnout:

1-Building engagement with work

2-Changing the organizational environment to reduce mismatches between workers and workplace.

3-Improving management processes to enhance the match between workers and workplace.

Rogers (1982) conducted a job satisfaction study that included 58 technologists. Thirty one percent reported high stress. Rogers (1982) recommended some possible interventions to alleviate burnout as further education to gain professional advancement, counseling others towards further education to prevent the occurrence of burnout, making adjustments such as splitting working hours, and changing jobs. Cherniss (1990)

conducted an interview for 25 professionals from healthcare settings (mental health, poverty law, public health nursing, and high school teaching) during their first year of practice and then studied them again 12 years later. Most of the subjects were burned out at the end of the first year. He discovered the main natural recovery or prevention of burnout are: new work situations that provide more autonomy, organizational support, and interesting work. These changes accrued as a result of turnover or promotion. There was a shortage of trained consultants and committed administrators who could make changes. Veninga and Spradley (1981) emphasized the main strategies for coping with burnout can be classified as personal and organizational strategies. The personal strategies are: taking control of job burnout (understand the nature of burnout, raising consciousness of work stress, listening to the body, taking control of stress perceptions, and lowering expectations), improving stress safety valves, and avoiding burnout blind alleys (ostrich response, scapegoat reaction, workaholic trap, and the guilt trip). The organizational strategies focused on the structure and the content of the job. There are five coping styles with job burnout. Most workers adopt one or more of these patterns. These styles are: loyalty servant (passive compliance), angry prisoner (passive resistance), stress fugitive (coping by running from work stress to new one), job reformer, and stress managers. The most important elements of stress management are to have: stress-management objective clear, develop a detached view of job, analyze the hidden structure of the job, take stress inventory, and use influences to redesign jobs.

Personal and Individual Behavior

Stevens (1995) suggested some burnout recovery techniques: learn and adopt tension-dumping routines from stress experts, develop a plan for change, set an objective

for behavioral change and implement it, evaluate outcomes of these new actions, and review career and life management activities, personal values, and direction. Pines and Aronson (1988) asserted that employees can cope with their burnout by: changing one job but staying in the same profession or organization, changing career (wrong career), and climbing up the administrative ladder as a way of escaping a job in which they are burned out (quitting upward). However, some employees never take action and are totally burned out. Dyar, Hopson and Hopson (2001) recommended sleep as the greatest stress buster. They describe some sleeping tips like: do not eat many proteins before bedtime, sleep in a very dark room, and create white noise.

Cherniss (1980) stated that burnout is an opportunity to create changes; these changes are not always negative. For example, tempering one's involvement in work with outside commitments is often a sound approach rather than remaining totally absorbed in the job. Changes that relate to thought and behavior on the job are: increasing discouragement, pessimism, and fatalism about one's work, decline in motivation, effort, and involvement in work; apathy; negativism, anger with clients and colleagues, blaming clients, resistance to change, and lost creativity. Cherniss (1980) asserted that losing idealism and commitment in response to stressful working conditions can occur any time in the professional career. The initial period (first year) of a career, if immediately following professional training and certification, presents the greatest possibility of change in attitude and behavior.

Farber (2000) found the clinical work with such individuals typically includes four aspects, each of which usually requires a combination of psychodynamic and cognitive-behavioral perspectives:

1-Getting the individual to adjust his or her expectations of what work can and can not provide in terms of meaning and fulfillment.

2-Getting the individual to focus on the positive aspects of work, and not just oppressive parts.

3-Getting the individual to build a strong support network to mediate the inevitable stressors of work.

4-Working with individuals to take better care of themselves and others in domains outside of work.

Spirituality and Religious strategies

Brock and Grady (2000) emphasized the spiritual dimension as encompassing the values and beliefs that inspire and provide direction. Spiritual renewal should be part of staff development programs. Renewal may take a form of prayer, meditation, and reading, listening to music, or enjoying the beauty of nature. Demaray (1983) emphasized how connection with god and genuine spirituality can heal burnout. Also, Demaray (1983) emphasized humor, therapy of creativity, god's gift of self-esteem, managing time, family support, and physical fitness to prevent and cure burnout.

Field and Career Related to Burnout

There are many fields that appear to hold more potential for burnout than others: educational settings, human services or resources (e.g. governmental or private organizations), and healthcare. The following are studies addressing such fields in the literature. Cedoline (1982) stated the main fields where burnout is a paramount concern are two arenas: helping professions and public employees. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) provided experience of real workers and research on burnout in professionals who work

with abused children. They stated, however, that the effects of burnout can reach clients and other human services fields. Welch, Medeiros and Tate (1983) differentiated the symptoms and cures of burnout specific to professions. They classified some professions to groups: scholar burnout (teachers & students), arbiters burnout (attorneys & police officers), healers burnout (nurses, physicians, and dentists), saviors burnout (clergy & counselors), managers burnout (executives & secretaries), and messengers burnout (journalists). Lewis (2002) stated burnout has long been addressed in arenas of medicine, research, psychology, and occupational health with different terms: job stress, work stress, and job burnout.

Training and Development

Dorman and Shapiro (2004) stated that the more training sessions workers attended and the more articles or books they read, the happier they were with their jobs. Accordingly, they recommended creating opportunities for learning and skill development. For example, they suggested setting up a lunch discussion group to talk about a case study or article. Such an opportunity develops a norm where staff feels comfortable batting around ideas, entertaining different approaches to cases and discussing approaches used in other settings. They suggested training for cases can take place in their organizations with well prepared guidance from training staff. Training staff at training centers can be a key to train the employees how they can help their organizations to prevent or cope with burnout among employees. Paine (1980) suggested, in order to control burnout, there is a need to strengthen individuals through workshops, development of individual stress management skills, and focused, short-term counseling. Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) emphasized the importance of having professional

training in order to reduce or prevent burnout. They pointed to the importance of having a study that investigates the relation between burnout and training. They suggested evaluating how training programs designed to increase professionals' skills in dealing with organizational problems can reduce burnout. Weiss (1988) asserted that the supervisors or managers in any organization should realize the need to train their staff. There are some signs that tell when the staff needs training. Among them are high turnover, absenteeism, and reduced pride in the job.

Training and Burnout

According to Furnham (1996), one of the most common reasons that make any training program fail in terms of effectiveness is the lack of appropriate training duration. Sherman and Chruden (1980) stated that on-the-job training is the most commonly used method in training employees. It has the advantage of providing experience under normal working conditions. Pines and Aronson (1988) asserted the best way to avoid overload is by getting to know the organization and acquiring skills. Adequate training for employees is necessary to reduce overload. Effective training programs and supportive supervision are two methods for skill acquisition and improvement that reduce overload and, ultimately, burnout. They asserted the importance for an organization to provide opportunities for expansion of learning and awareness by continuing education, conventions, or in-service classes. Employees should use available resources for growth at work that can affect their level of burnout. Also, they asserted the need for continuing education on-the-job (e.g. conferences, workshops). Such education provides employees with opportunities to get away from their work, examine their work pressure, clarify their goals, and consider coping strategies to reduce their burnout from work. Paine (1980)

emphasized that organizations should establish internal or external burnout training programs in order to control the quantity and quality of burnout. This training program should be considered as an investment in human resources. Before establishing training programs, the organizations should consider the following: needs assessment, purpose, workshop design, and evaluation of training.

Welch, Medeiros and Tate (1983) addressed lack of professional training as one of the main causes for burning out in most careers. Cedoline (1982) emphasized the importance of having training strategies to overcome or prevent burnout. The training program can be general or specialized programs, ongoing and in-service, to meet the new changes in job demands. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated there is a need in general to establish effective burnout workshops to prevent and combat burnout. For example, the workshop can consist of eight steps: introducing oneself, breaking the ice, self-assessment, awareness of the causes of burnout, awareness of coping techniques, coping skills training, awareness of social support, and planning for the future. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) found burnout symptoms decreased significantly after one month of a three day workshop for community nurses. The workshop included relaxation training, didactic stress management, interpersonal skills training, and enhancement of realistic professional role expectations.

Paine (1980) emphasized there is a need to understand the attitudinal changes that occur in professional training and the techniques used for coping with burnout during training. Paine (1980) suggested training strategy should be adopted at an early time before participants are involved in their work. Training programs for preventing burnout should be part of the curriculum in professional schools. An interview was conducted

with fifteen schools that train professionals in graduate programs (business, education, medicine, nursing, and social work). All respondents believed burnout can occur in their particular professional careers.

In conclusion, there are many concepts and aspects of burnout and training that been described and discussed in the literature. The literature review provided sufficient understanding of the association between burnout and training. The literature encouraged the researcher to conduct the study because of finding little research has examined professional in-service training as it relates to burnout. The next chapter of the research will discuss the research methodology in detail.

Methodology

This study was designed in general to investigate the phenomenon of burnout within the context of an employee training program in Saudi Arabia. The results of this study will not only contribute to an understanding of the effect that training has on burnout but may also specifically help Saudi governmental agencies to prevent, reduce or cope with the occurrence of burnout among trainees at the IPA. This research is quantitative. The most appropriate quantitative method that has been used in pre-post design is the Quasi-Experiment. This study design enabled the researcher to collect data regarding burnout pre- and post-training intervention, thus providing conclusions about the impact of training sessions on burnout levels.

Research Question

- 1) Is the burnout level among trainees after the professional in-service training program significantly different from the burnout level before the professional in-service training?
- 2) Is there a significant relationship between the level of burnout and organizational, personal or demographic variables (age, years in organization, years in department, changing organization, changing job, promotion, and retirement)?

- 3) Is there a significant relationship between the level of burnout and the training variables (training programs, trainers, implementation frequency of the training program, and length of the training session)?

Variables

Dependent variables: Post-training burnout

Independent variables: Pre-training burnout, personal, organizational, and training variables.

Research Sample

The study examined the impact of the IPA training on trainees' burnout. The total trainee sample size in pre-and post-test was 988. Participants had the following broad demographic characteristics: male, Muslim, Saudi, governmental employees, and age 20+. The sample was a convenience sample since the researcher selected for investigation the participants in several specific training sessions conducted by the same or different trainers. In this way, the study planned to have a sample of pre-post trainees that provided sensitivity to measure the actual outcomes of interest in the study.

After selecting the sample, the participants' survey responses were coded in order to protect confidentiality and limit bias in compiling and analyzing data.

Data Collection Procedures:

The collection and the procedures of data are categorized as: preparation processes and processes to administer the survey:

Preparation Processes

Before the data was collected, the following documents were obtained:

- Approval of the IRB at the Medical University of South Carolina (See appendix A).
- Approval of the IRB at the Institute of Public Administration for protection of human subjects (see appendix G)
- Getting permission from the holder of the copyright for the MBI instrument for Human Services Survey with at least 150 copies (See appendix B).
- Attaching cover letter with each questionnaire package in Arabic and English languages (See appendix C).

Process to Administer the Survey

To administer the survey, the processes were divided into three parts: pre-test, training session, and post-test processes. The investigator followed the following procedures:

Pre-test

At the beginning of each training session, the researcher introduced himself to both trainer and trainees verbally and described the goal of the study. Also, the researcher emphasized the importance of their cooperation in filling the pre and post questionnaires, offering any help or assistance if requested. The participants were given the questionnaire packet. The researcher then notified and explained for the participants the contents (sections) of the questionnaire packet by focusing on the cover letter that explains the nature of the study, a consent to act as a subject in the study, and questionnaires with a set of instructions for completion. Also, the

researcher assured the participants that their responses would be confidential during and after the study. After being prompted either to consent or decline participation, the participants were asked to complete the pre-test survey before the training session began. The researcher distributed and collected the pre-test questionnaires. At the end, the researcher encouraged the participants to file the post-test questionnaire packet. Also, the researcher emphasized the importance of filling out both the pre-test and post-test questionnaires.

The intervention (training session)

The design of the intervention is a common one at the IPA. Training sessions last from one to three days. The design of the training contents is highly connected to the professional areas of the trainees. The training was in the format of lecture and discussions. The training programs are mainly administrative training programs. These programs are: public secretary, administrative coordination, occupational performance evaluation, dealing with the public, dealing with subordinates, dealing with work pressure, dealing with supervisors, time management, administrative supervision, improving administrative processes, and building work team skills. Some of these programs are implemented more than one time. For this research, two groups of training participants in the same training program were asked to participate.

Post-test

At the end of each training session, the researcher thanked both trainer and trainees verbally for their contributions to the research. Also, the researcher reminded the participants of the importance of their

participation in the post-test survey. The participants were given the questionnaire packet. After that, the researcher then notified and explained for the participants the contents (sections) of the questionnaire packet by focusing on the cover letter that explains the nature of the study, consent to act as a subject in the study, questionnaires with a set of instructions for completion. Then, the participants were asked to complete the post-test survey. After collecting the packets, the researcher reminded the participants about his personal contact information should they wish to learn about the final results of the study.

Research Instrument

The instruments used in this study were two sets of questions. Using two sets of questions helped the researcher to assess possible associations between the two sets. First, there were some work-related and demographic questions (see appendix E) as part of the instrument packet that related to: age, duration in the department and organization, organization and job change, promotion and retirement. The second set was the modified MBI (See appendix F). This survey was adapted from a previous study by Mirvis, Kilpatrick, Brower and Ingram (1992) in assessing burnout among participants at a Veterans Affairs Medical Center. The survey consisted of 25 questions based on the widely used burnout inventory developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) as modified by Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988). The questions in the survey were quantified in order to record the data in the domains of burnout. These domains are:

- Depersonalization [DP], with high scores indicating "individuals who tend to distance self from others, who see people as things or objects."

- Emotional Exhaustion [EE], with high scores indicating "individuals who are experiencing stressors approaching, or beyond, their comfortable limits."
- Personal Accomplishment [PA], with low scores characterizing "individuals who believe they are doing well on a job that is worth doing."

According to Maslach and Jackson (1981a, p.1) the criteria of high burnout were defined as follows: high scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales and low scores on the personal accomplishment. An average level of burnout means moderate scores on the three subscales. A low level of burnout means low scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales and high scores on the personal accomplishment.

The modified instrument has been selected for use in this study because of its reliability, validity, and ease of comparison to findings of other studies. The questions of the instrument are relevant, reasonable and clear, thereby making the content valid. The instrument was translated from the original version in English to Arabic. The translated version of the Arabic instrument was used from a previous study in order to ensure that the validity of the instrument was maintained (Al-Ebedah, 1995).

The scale used with this instrument for measuring the items of the instrument is a Likert scale. The Likert scale is a seven point range (1-2-3-4-5-6-7): Very Much LIKE Me, Somewhat LIKE Me, Sometimes, Somewhat UNLIKE Me, UNLIKE Me, and Very Much UNLIKE Me. The reasons for selecting this scale were its speed, brevity and easy translation to Arabic.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analysis was conducted with SPSS. The SPSS was selected as a tool to collect, process and analyze data. In addition, SPSS was used to answer the research questions in the discussion and the results sections of the study. In order to enter the data manually into SPSS system, the data was classified into variables and cases. The cases are 988 trainees. The values of variables were entered and coded. These variables are pre and post-test, organizational, personal, training, and burnout items. The codes were pre and post-tests (pre=1 & post=0). The other variables were classified and coded as follows:

A- Training characteristics: Training programs (coded 1-11), trainers (coded 1-21), Implementation frequency (coded 1-5) of the training program, and length of the training session (coded 0-1).

B-Personal and organizational characteristics: Age (coded 1-8), years in organization (coded 1-5), years in department (coded 1-5), changing organization (coded 0-1), changing job (coded 0-1), Promotion (coded 1-6), and retirement (coded 1-4).

C- Burnout Variables: The 25 items of the survey were coded 1-7. Also, some subscales were grouped as: Depersonalization (8 items of the burnout inventory, coded 1- 7), Personal accomplishment (8 items of the burnout inventory, coded 1-7), and Emotional Exhaustion (7 items of the burnout inventory, coded 1-7). Personal accomplishment (8 items of the burnout inventory, coded 1-7) was recoded to lack of personal accomplishment to (1=7, 2=6, 3=5, 4=4, 5=3, 6=2, and 7=1). Also, these domains of burnout were grouped into 8 phases by applying the Phases of Burnout Model (see table 2). The three subscales of burnout were scored as low or high and then grouped to eight

phases. Phase one is the lowest level of burnout for the three domains, and phase eight is the highest level of burnout for each participant. After that, the eight phases were collapsed to three levels: low (Phases: 1, 2, 3), moderate (Phases: 4 & 5) and high (Phases: 6, 7, 8).

Table (2) The phases of burnout model

Domains (Subscales) of Burnout	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Depersonalization	L	H	L	H	L	H	L	H
Personal Accomplishment	L	L	H	H	L	L	H	H
Emotional Exhaustion	L	L	L	L	H	H	H	H

In conclusion, this research used a quantitative method to collect data regarding burnout pre- and post-training intervention, thus providing conclusions about the impact of training sessions on burnout level. The methodology chapter described in detail the following elements: study design, research question, variables, data collection procedures, research instrument, and the statistical analysis. The next chapter will discuss in detail the results and discussions section.

Results and Discussions

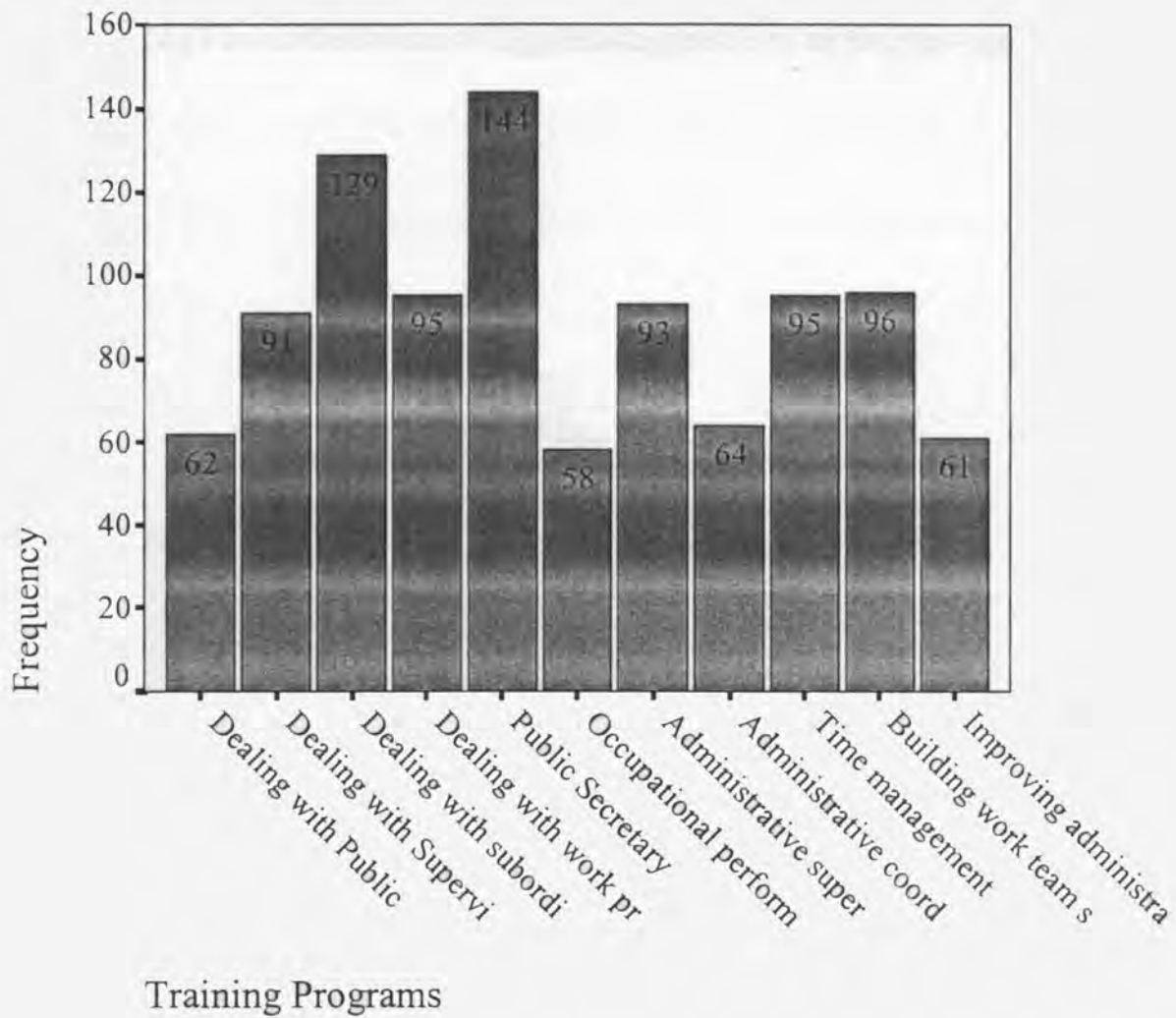
This chapter included results and discussions of the project. The results section includes descriptive statistics, and answers for the main research questions. The discussion section includes interpretation of the results and findings.

Results

In total, 1065 surveys in the pre- and post-test were distributed with 1061 replies received; of these, 988 were completed in the pre- and post-test. The results section consists of three main findings. The first two sections of the results are a description of the training, trainee and organizational characteristics. Then, the main results of assessing the burnout (domains and Phases) in pre- and post-tests are reported. Finally, comparisons of burnout to the training and organizational characteristics are reported.

The training characteristics included for analysis are pre- and post-test, training programs, implementation frequency, and length of training session. The number of trainees in pre-test was greater than in post-test, with 505 in the pre-test and 483 in the post-test. The main reasons for this difference in the number of respondents are absences or tardiness on the last day of training when the post-test was administered. Figure 1 shows the frequency of different types of training programs that were implemented. Of the total training sessions reported, 221 were two-day sessions, and 767 lasted for three days.

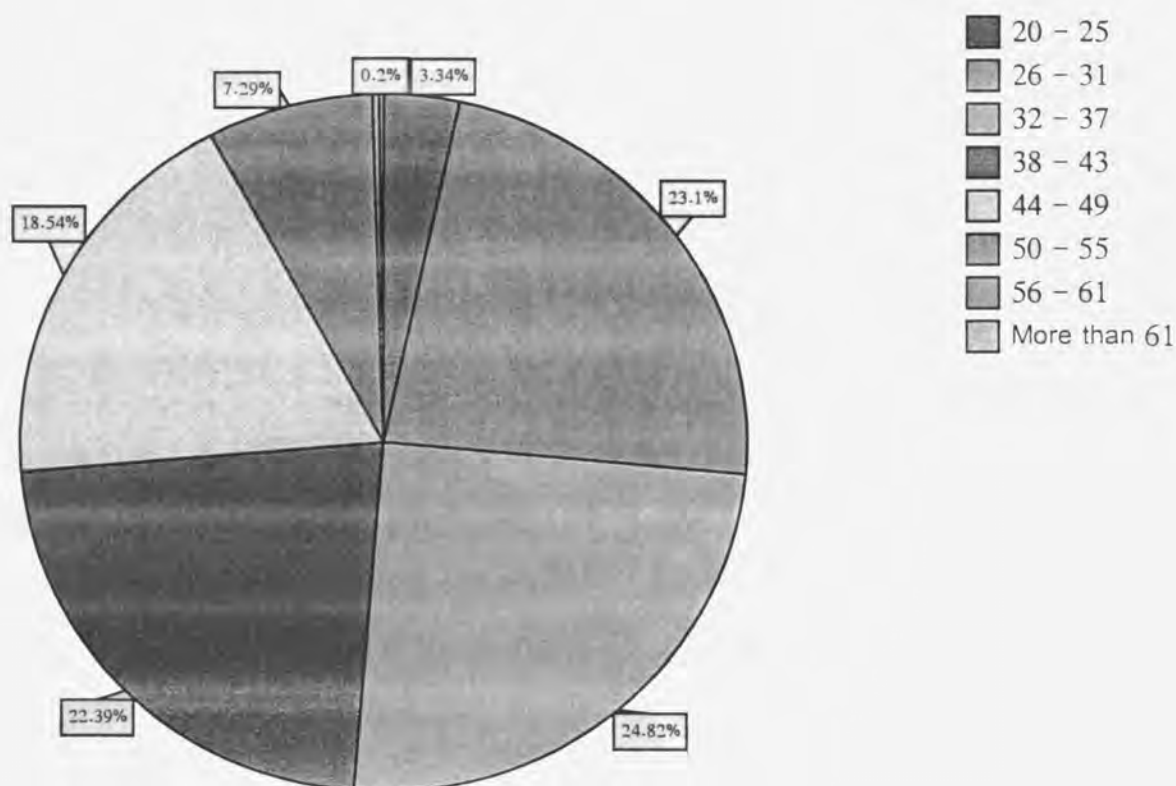
Figure (1) The implemented training Programs.



Descriptive Statistics

The personal and organizational characteristics included in the survey were age, organizational tenure, departmental tenure, changing organization, changing job, promotion, and retirement. The largest age group included in the sample was 32-37 years of age. Figure (2) shows the frequency of age among the participants. The trainees were asked to state the total number of years that they had worked in their organizations, 161 stayed in their organizations for 20+ years. Also, the trainees were asked to state the total number of years they had worked in their departments, with 306 reporting that they had stayed in their department for one to five years.

Figure (2) The distribution of age among trainees in the pre- and post-test.

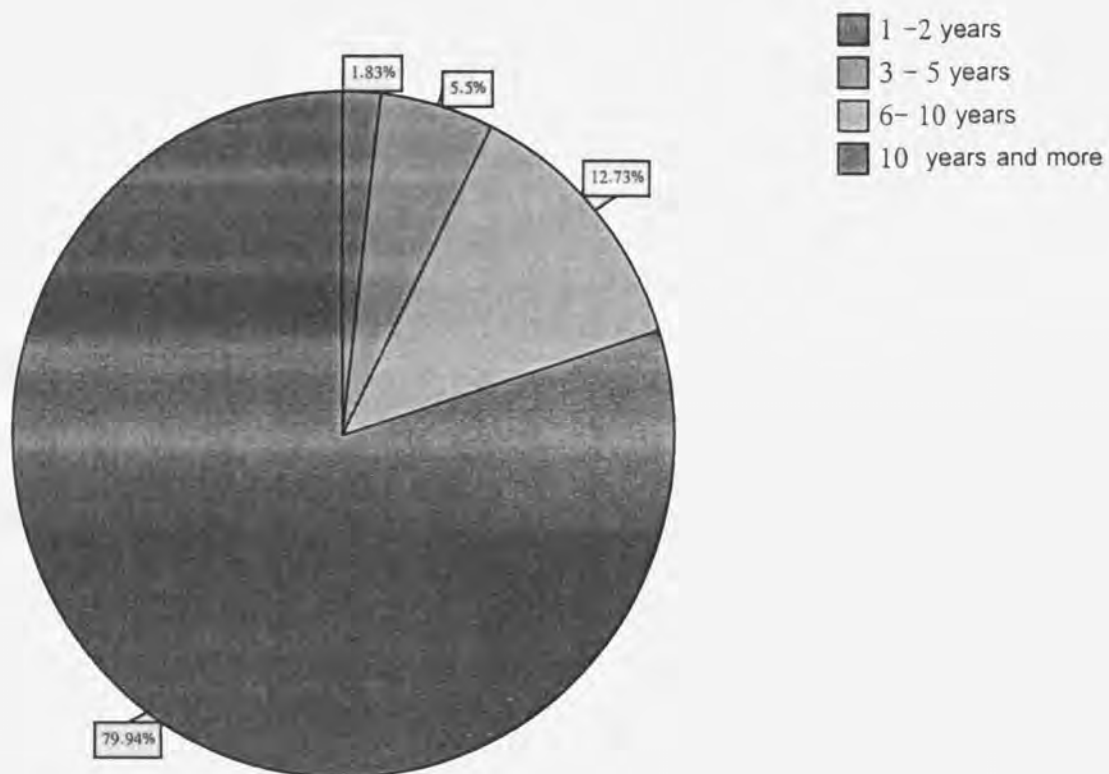


In reply to the question on the possibility of their changing organizations within 6 months, we found that 67.2% said they had no plans to change organizations and 32.5% indicated that they were planning to change. Also, the trainees were asked to assess their potential to change their job descriptions within the next 6 months. The results were 58.7% said they had no plans to change job descriptions and 40.9% indicated that they were planning to change.

The trainees were asked to report their promotion history within the last 10 years. The promotion history was reported regardless to how many times the trainees had been

promoted within the last 10 years. 108 reported that they had never been promoted and 186 reported that they had been promoted in the last one to two years. In the last three to four years, 148 were promoted. Only 10 trainees were promoted in the last ten years. When asked to report their retirement date, 394 of the trainees anticipated retiring in ten years or more from their organizations (see figure 3).

Figure (3) Anticipating retirement date



Research Questions

The research questions in this study were tested by using t-tests and linear regression analysis. Simple correlation statistics were also calculated to study the relationships among variables related to burnout. Ultimately, we were able to compare the level of burnout at pre- and post-training, enabling us to determine the impact of

training on burnout level. In order to answer the research questions, levels of burnout in the pre- and post-tests are reported, followed by the relationships between the burnout level in pre- and post training and personal and organizational characteristics.

A comparison was conducted to fill the gap in the literature by finding out if the burnout level among trainees after the professional in-service-training program was significantly different from the burnout level before the training. In order to answer this question, we compared the three domains of burnout and burnout phases before and after the training by calculating the means and computing the t-test (see table 3). We detected no statistically significant differences between the pre- and post-test responses on these domains, indicating that the burnout level among trainees was not significantly altered by the professional in-service-training program. This finding contradicted the literature about the importance of training in reducing or increasing the burnout level (Gryna, 2004; Paine, 1980; Schaufeli, Maslach & Marek, 1993; Welch, Medeiros & Tate, 1983; Cedoline, 1982; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

Table (3) The pre and post comparisons of burnout levels conducted by using a paired t-test.

Burnout Levels	Pre-Test Means	Post-Test Means	Paired T-Test	Significance level (2-tailed)
Depersonalization	22.6337	22.6501	.027	.979
Emotional Exhaustion	27.5663	27.6729	.230	.818
Revised Personal Accomplishment	21.4356	21.0186	-.713	.476
Burnout Phases	4.9030	4.8157	-.644	.519

*=Statistically significant at the 5% level

In this study, Pearson correlation coefficients were used to quantify correlations between the variables. Correlations $>|0.30|$ are reported as valuable data for further

consideration. Many of these large correlations internally validate the survey. The results of correlation analysis indicated that there are some potential relationships that need to be considered in further investigations. Organizational tenure was not only correlated with departmental tenure ($r=0.353$), but also with promotion ($r=0.513$). Also, age was highly correlated with both organizational tenure ($r=0.755$) and promotion ($r=0.468$).

The positive correlation between age and organizational tenure was expected. In this study, the age increased as organizational tenure increased, but it is unclear from a simple correlation which one has more of an effect on the burnout level, so we will turn to a linear regression analysis to address this issue. Also, we found the perceived potential for promotion is increased as organizational tenure is increased. The potentials for changing job and organization within 6 months are highly correlated (0.587). Further study can compare this relationship to burnout.

Finally, the correlations among burnout measures were identified. The study reported relatively high correlations between emotional exhaustion and depersonalization ($r=0.389$). Also, we found a high correlation between burnout phases and emotional exhaustion ($r=0.672$), and between depersonalization and burnout phases ($r=0.465$). These correlations indicate that the domains most highly correlated with burnout phases are depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. Although further study is needed in this area, we speculate that the burnout phases are more highly correlated with depersonalization and emotional exhaustion than with revised personal accomplishment. Further study can explain this correlation by testing the contents of the items that construct the burnout domains.

A series of linear regression analyses were conducted to discover any relationship between the burnout, pre- and post-, and the training and personal and organizational variables. A linear regression model assumes that there is a linear, or "straight line," relationship between burnout and training and personal and organizational variables. This relationship is described in the following formula:

$$y_i = b_0 + b_1x_{i1} + \dots + b_px_{ip} + e_i$$

Although, the training programs in the pre-test sample have different contents and duration (two or three days), we found no significant relationships between burnout and the training variables (length of training session and content of training programs). Based on these results, we found a significant relationship between burnout and organizational and personal variables. The results of the series of linear regressions predicting the level of burnout (either revised personal accomplishment, depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, or burnout phases) based on the full range of organizational and personal and training variables included in the pre-test are listed in table 2. The significant organizational variables are changing job, promotion, departmental tenure and age; these variables can be categorized as coping variables.

Table 4 summarizes the results of the linear regression analysis of revised personal accomplishment in the pre-test. The adjusted R-squared value was 0.018, which indicates that the model does not do a very good job of predicting revised personal accomplishment and that many important variables are likely omitted. The only significant organizational variable was changing job. Changing job was positively associated with revised personal accomplishment ($p = .047$). The decision to change a job can be made by trainees to cope with burnout as result of diminished job satisfaction.

Table (4) The results of a linear regression analysis of revised personal accomplishment as a function of organizational variables in the pre-test (Adjusted R-squared=0.018).

Organizational Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.102	-1.428	.154
Organizational Tenure	-.004	-.060	.952
Departmental Tenure	-.012	-.254	.800
Changing Organization	.055	1.012	.312
Changing Job	.108	1.992	.047*
Promotion	.006	.106	.916
Retirement	-.050	-.999	.318

*=Statistically significant at the 5% level

The results of linear regression analysis of depersonalization are listed in table 5. The adjusted-R squared value was again extremely low at 0.01, indicating that many factors predictive of depersonalization were excluded from the regression. Departmental tenure was significantly and positively associated with depersonalization ($p=.023$). Departmental tenure can be categorized as a cause for burnout.

Table (5) The results of a linear regression analysis of depersonalization in the pre-test (Adjusted-R squared = 0.01).

Organizational and Personal Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.066	-.925	.355
Organizational Tenure	.069	.966	.335
Departmental Tenure	.110	2.288	.023*
Changing Organization	.004	.066	.947
Changing Job	.084	1.541	.124
Promotion	-.057	-1.092	.275
Retirement	-.004	-.079	.937

*=Statistically significant at the 5% level

The results supported there was a relationship between burnout phases and organizational and personal variables (see table 6). The adjusted R-squared was .033, which indicates that this model does better job in predicting burnout phases than the previous models. Age was negatively associated with burnout phases ($p = .037$). Young trainees were suffering from burnout more than the older trainees. Departmental tenure was also significantly and positively associated with burnout phases ($p = .002$).

Table (6) The results of a linear regression analysis of burnout phases in the pre-test (Adjusted-R squared = 0.033).

Organizational and Personal Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.148	-2.091	.037*
Organizational Tenure	.028	.396	.692
Departmental Tenure	.151	3.162	.002**
Changing Organization	.049	.909	.364
Changing Job	.075	1.387	.166
Promotion	-.052	-1.003	.317
Retirement	-.042	-.835	.404

*=Statistically significant at the 5% level

**=Statistically significant at the 1% level

A linear regression of emotional exhaustion was conducted. The summary of this regression reported the adjusted R-squared was .044. The R-squared in this model is the largest among all regressions in the pre-test, which indicates that this model does the best job of predicting emotional exhaustion. Table 7 asserted the positive and negative relation between emotional exhaustion and two organizational variables. Departmental tenure was significantly and positively associated with emotional exhaustion ($p = .000$). Promotion was also associated negatively with emotional exhaustion among trainees ($p = .004$).

Table (7) The results of a linear regression analysis of emotional exhaustion in the pre-test (Adjusted R-squared=0.044).

Organizational and Personal Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.073	-1.041	.298
Organizational Tenure	.070	.996	.320
Departmental Tenure	.170	3.598	.000**
Changing Organization	.088	1.655	.099
Changing Job	.040	.745	.456
Promotion	-.147	-2.865	.004**
Retirement	-.060	-1.201	.230

**=Statistically significant at the 1% level

In the post-test, a number of significant associations between burnout and the organizational, personal, and training variables were identified and calculated by using series of linear regression analysis. Again, there were no significant relationships found between the training variables (length of training session, and the content of training programs) and level of burnout. Table 8 summarizes the significant results of the linear regression analysis of emotional exhaustion in the post-test. The adjusted R-squared was .046. This Model predicting the largest value of the adjusted R-squared of emotional exhaustion in the post-test. The adjusted R-Squared (.046) in this model is very close to the adjusted R-squared (.044) in the Pre-test. As would be expected, changing

organizations was significantly and positively associated with emotional exhaustion ($p = .004$), even after controlling for the other organizational variables.

Table (8) The results of a linear regression analysis of emotional exhaustion in the post-test (Adjusted-R squared = 0.046).

Organizational and Personal Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.097	-1.275	.203
Organizational Tenure	.131	1.729	.085
Departmental Tenure	.042	.872	.383
Changing Organization	.168	2.927	.004**
Changing Job	.078	1.361	.174
Promotion	-.019	-.349	.727
Retirement	.013	.258	.796

**=Statistically significant at the 1% level

The final linear regression was conducted on depersonalization. Depersonalization was associated significantly with organizational tenure and age (see table 9). The adjusted R-squared was .035. Organizational tenure was positively associated with depersonalization ($p = .036$) and negatively associated with age ($p = .022$).

Table (9) The results of a linear regression analysis of depersonalization in the post-test (Adjusted-R squared = 0.035).

Organizational and Personal Variables	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	T-Test	P-value
Age	-.175	-2.293	.022*
Organizational Tenure	.160	2.099	.036*
Departmental Tenure	.078	1.605	.109
Changing Organization	.098	1.702	.089
Changing Job	.084	1.447	.148
Promotion	-.021	-.396	.693
Retirement	.029	.569	.570

*=Statistically significant at the 5% level

In conclusion, the main findings of the result section included descriptive analysis and answers for the main research questions. T-test and linear regression were used to support the results. The main results of this study supported that the burnout level among trainees was not significantly altered or improved by the professional in-service-training program. Also, the results supported that there was no significant relationships between the burnout and the training variables in pre- and post-test. Finally, the results supported that there was a significant relationship between burnout and some organizational and personal variables in pre- and post- test (changing job and organization, organizational and departmental tenure, promotion, and age). These results will be interpreted in detail under the discussion section.

Discussions

The main purpose of this study is to assess the impact of in-service training on trainees' burnout. The content of this section includes interpretation of the results and findings. These interpretations will be supported by rational explanations and literature.

Previous studies asserted that there is a relation between training and burnout. Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) emphasized the importance of having professional training in order to reduce or prevent burnout. They pointed to the importance of having a study that investigates the relation between burnout and training. Dorman and Shapiro (2004) emphasized there is a correlation between training and burnout. Aronson (1988) recommended training as an organizational coping strategy for burnout. Gryna (2004) emphasized that inadequate training is an important cause for work overload that leads to burnout.

The results of this study suggest that the burnout level among trainees after the professional in-service training program was not significantly different from the burnout level before the professional in-service training. It is possible that the duration of training sessions was too short (2 to 3 days) to recognize any significant effect of the training on the burnout levels. According to Furnham (1996), one of the most common reasons that a training program fails in terms of effectiveness is the lack of appropriate training duration. Callahan, Kiker, and Cross (2003) found there is a statistically significant association between lectures, modeling and active participation and observed training performance. Paine (1980) identified five problems associated with professional training

programs: they intend to create unrealistic expectations, they are not practical, they are not relevant, they do not focus on interpersonal skills, they do not provide adequate knowledge of the nature of bureaucratic organizations and how to function effectively within those constraints, and do not train professionals how to cope with uncertainty, change, conflict, stress and burnout. There may also be some external organizational factors that may contribute to the observed lack of effect of training, such as socioeconomic ones. Kilfedder, Power and Wells (2001) reported that the lack of social support was associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

This study involved different training programs with different content and duration of 2 to 3 days. According to the results, there were no significant differences among these programs between pre and post assessment. For example, we found no significant difference between self-reported ability to deal with work pressure before and after the training program that was designed to release work pressure. It is possible that the majority of the trainees who attended this program did not experience any work pressure before training. However, we did not have an objective method to evaluate the level of work pressure for the applicants by the IPA before they attended this program. Prasad (2002) stated that it is important for any organization to estimate and assess individual and corporate training needs. Some trainees may have attended this training program not because they needed it but to collect credits for promotion. Also, the content of this training program may not have been relevant or appropriate. Paine (1980) identified five problems associated with professional training programs: they tend to create unrealistic expectations, they are not practical, they are not relevant, they do not focus on interpersonal skills, they do not provide adequate knowledge of the nature of

bureaucratic organizations and how to function effectively within those constraints, and they do not train professionals how to cope with uncertainty, change, conflict, stress and burnout. The IPA should conduct a general review to measure the effectiveness of the conducted training programs and identify the constraints. I believe the most important elements that make the conducted training programs more effective are identifying and matching the needs of the applicants with the training programs, ensuring the relevancy of training programs and trainees, choosing appropriate duration and content of the training programs in a subjective way.

In general, the literature has supported a relationship between some organizational variables and burnout. In studying intra-organizational causes, Kilpatrick (1989) reported that 19 other studies found a relation between organizational environmental variables and burnout. In this study, the results of the linear regressions supported there were significant positive and negative associations between burnout and some personal and organizational variables.

The positive associations were between burnout and the following variables: changing job and organization, departmental and organizational tenure. The positive associated variables with burnout can be grouped to: changing within next 6 months group (either job or organization) and tenure group (either department or organization). In the pre-test, there were positive associations between changing job and revised personal accomplishment ($p = .047$). Also, changing organization was positively associated with emotional exhaustion in the post-test ($p = .004$). The burnout level increased when the potential of changing both job and organization increased. Lee and Ashforth (1993) conducted a longitudinal study of 148 human services, supervisors, and

managers and found a significant positive association between burnout and intentions to leave a job. In the pre-test, 247 trainees of 505 (48.9 %) were at a high level of burnout. The number of trainees who were at a transitional stage to burnout was 138 (27.3%). In the post-test, 256 (53.0%) of the trainees expressed a high level of burnout and 100 (20.7%) reported transitional or moderate levels. Having a high number of trainees willing to change their jobs and organizations can be a result of high levels of burnout. Job insecurity (Cedoline, 1982; Jorde, 1982), work environment and characteristics (Vallen, 1993), and competition can cause burnout, ultimately leading to changing jobs and organizations. Gryna (2004) asserted that the competition among organizations could cause burnout. The trainees may feel this competition as force for change and should look for better opportunities in the market.

The trainees looking to change their organizations and position for security reasons may be driven by burnout. Stone, Larson, and Wilson (1993) asserted the relationship between the potential of changing jobs and job insecurity has become a major challenge to the employees because of unstable economic environment. When employees experience burnout with their organizations, they might think that their jobs are not secure in the future. Stone, Larson, and Wilson (1993) stated different factors that can force employees to focus on the security of their jobs: losing job, cutting budgets, and limited job opportunities. Also, they concluded that the insecurity in jobs can be expressed in withdrawing from the job and organization and thinking about change.

The conclusion that we can reach from having a high number of trainees willing to change their job and organization is they are less satisfied about their jobs and organizations and suffering burnout. Changing jobs or organizations is a choice that was

selected by most trainees to cope with burnout. Changing jobs or organizations can be a solution to be away from organizations and jobs with burnout (Pines & Aronson, 1988). Harrison (1999) recommended to employees not to leave their jobs and organizations because of burnout because leaving will not help to cope with burnout. If the employees leave their jobs and organizations because of burnout, the burnout will continue with them in the new jobs and organizations. Harrison (1999) recommended that the employees should start analyzing their jobs to discover where the burnout is coming from. If the trainees will implement their plan to change their organizations and jobs, the governmental organization will lose them in 6 months. Harrison (1999) provided the example of Xerox Corporation with the cost of turnover. The Xerox Corporation estimated that it costs approximately \$ 1-1.5 million to replace top executives and \$2000 to \$13000 to replace each typical employee. The study encourages the governmental organizations to make changes that make their employees highly satisfied and less likely to burnout. These changes should ensure job security, a healthy work environment and characteristics, thus making other organizations in the market less attractive to their employees.

The departmental tenure was significantly and positively associated in the pre-test with depersonalization ($p=.023$), burnout phases ($p=.002$), and with emotional exhaustion ($p=.000$). Also, organizational tenure was significant and positive with depersonalization in the post-test ($p=.036$). The literature supports our finding of the important and positive link between the length of time in a particular position and burnout (Savicki, 2002; Shirom & Mazeh, 1988; Cedoline, 1982). We found that the burnout level increased as the organizational and departmental tenure increased.

Governmental organizations could adopt rotating positions within both departments and organizations to prevent or cope with burnout. Shapard and Brewer (2004) asserted not only the years of experiences are associated with burnout, but also age. Age in this study associated with burnout negatively.

In this study, the negative associations were observed in two variables with burnout. Both age and promotion were negatively associated with burnout. The only personal variable recorded as having a negative relationship with burnout was age. In the literature, Kilpatrick (1989) found 64 studies that discussed the relationship between age and burnout. In our study, age was negatively associated with burnout in the pre- and post-test. Age was associated with depersonalization in the post-test ($p = .022$), and with burnout phases in the pre-test ($p = .037$). The study supported that burnout decreased when the age increased. Therefore, the burnout in this study increased among younger trainees more than older. Based on the findings of this study, 130 of 502 trainees (25.8 %) between the ages of 32 and 37 were found with high level of burnout and 65 of 238 (27.3%) with average burnout. The oldest trainees between the ages of 56 and 61 were only two of 502 (0.39 %) at a high level of burnout. These results are supported from the literature. Age has been associated with burnout because of inadequate skills and lack of experience. Younger employees are more likely to be so exposed than old (Koeske & Kirk 1995; Rowe, 2000). Glicken (1983) stated young workers are much more likely to feel burnout than older workers. Shapard and Brewer (2004) also asserted the negative relationship between age and burnout (specifically with emotional exhaustion). The study recommended to the governmental organizations to establish burnout or stress

center that can take the responsibilities and the authorities from their organizations to survey, train the employees to prevent and cope from burnout.

Promotion was negatively associated with emotional exhaustion ($p=.000$) in the pre-test. Arches (1989) emphasized that burnout is related to promotion. In this study, 108 reported that they had never been promoted. The burnout decreased as the promotion increased. The form of the promotion was unspecified in the survey. The most often cited cause for burnout that is related to promotion is insufficient rewards (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Skovholt, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2000) and recognition (Rogers, 1982). The majority of trainees believe that the only way to get promoted is to have training. This belief is not always right. There are other ways can the employees get promoted. The misunderstanding of the main goal of in service training in the civilian services occurred as result of not having complete interpretation of the promotion policy. The employees may understand the promotion policies, but they look for a short way to get promoted. According to the Ministry of Civilian Service policy, the governmental employees should collect number of training credits in order for them to get promoted as one way. The Ministry of Civilian Service sets a list of requirements (10/1) for governmental employees to be eligible for promotion. The following are some requirements that relate to training: the availability for vacancy job, the new job should be directly next to the current job, the employee must spend total of 4 years in the current position. With full respect to the last requirement, there is an exception related to training: the employee will be eligible for promotion if he/ she completed two years in the current position and successfully passed one year of training (Ghabani, 1983). The Ministry of Civilian Service and the governmental organizations should consider reviewing the promotion

policy and methods in order to avoid the negative relationship between burnout and promotion. I believe the Ministry of Civilian Service should emphasize among employees in their organizations that the training is not only the way to get promoted. The ministry should send the message to the governmental organizations to focus on matching the productivity and performance of the governmental employees with promotion instead of focusing only on training credits. The trainees who are less satisfied with the promotion system in their organization will be unsatisfied about their job and organization. Moore (2000) emphasized that lack of promotion (e.g. rewards) is a primary cause of employee dissatisfaction with their jobs and organizations. The dissatisfaction can lead the employees to suffer from work exhaustion, then burnout. Angerer (2003) concurred in concluding that a lack of sufficient rewards and promotion can cause dissatisfaction and ultimately burnout.

In conclusion, the main findings of the discussion section included interpretations that are supported by rational explanations and literature. The study suggested that the lack of appropriate training and organizational characteristics were main causes for not having significantly differences in burnout between pre- and post-training. Also, this section concluded the positive (changing job and organization, departmental and organizational tenure and negative associations (age and promotion) with burnout. The next chapter is the last chapter in this study. This chapter provided a conclusion, and recommendations based on the main findings that have been discussed in this section.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the main findings of this study, this chapter provides: conclusion, recommendations, further study, and limitation of the study.

Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to assess the impact of in-service training on the trainees' burnout. This study conducted pre- and post- test assessments at the IPA by using a MBI modified survey. The results suggested that the burnout levels among trainees after the professional in-service training program were not significantly different from the burnout level before the professional in-service training. Also, the results found no significant relationship between the level of burnout and the training variables. At the organizational level, the findings supported a relationship between burnout and promotion, departmental and organizational tenure, age, and changing job and organization. The study provided some valuable recommendations to both training and governmental organizations.

Recommendations

The findings of this study are particularly important regarding the associations among training duration, relevancy of training programs, age, tenure, intention to change jobs and burnout. The study suggests the following recommendations to be considered in the workforce: the IPA and governmental organizations should review their structures, procedures and policies:

- There is a need for adopting rotating employees as strategy to increase productivity. For example, rotating employee can decrease the positive association between departmental tenure and burnout.
- The IPA needs to assess the new duration policy of the training programs. The short duration of the training programs was adopted by the IPA recently. The two to three days maybe too short to recognize any significant effect of the training on the burnout levels.
- The IPA should ensure that the training programs are: having realistic expectations, practical, relevant, focusing on interpersonal skills, provide adequate knowledge (Paine, 1980). Maybe the conducted training programs did not affect on trainee burnout level because they are not relevant.
- The IPA should ensure matching the needs of the applicants with the training programs, ensuring the relevancy of training programs and trainees, and content of the training programs in a subjective way. For example, the IPA did not have an objective method to evaluate the level of burnout for the applicants who attended a specific work pressure training course.

- Establishing preventive burnout training program or center within governmental organizations. The main goal of this center would be to collect data and provide the top management with recommendations regarding the organizational variables that related to burnout. For example, stratifying the employees based on their promotion status (not promoted, promoted a long time ago, and promoted recently). Anonymously surveying them on burnout and satisfaction would provide top management with solutions to prevent, treat, or cope with burnout. This program can apply the same principles for the other organizational variables (e.g. organizational and departmental tenure, age, changing jobs and organizations).
- Watching the field and job market (competitors) needed to update the organizations with current competitors. Watching market will appraise the organizations about the organizational variables that may lead the employees to change their jobs and organizations and to find healthy organization without causes for burnout (e.g. salary and promotion system).
- The Ministry of Civilian Service and the governmental organizations should consider reviewing the promotion

policy and methods in order to avoid the negative relationship between burnout and promotion. I believe the Ministry of Civilian Service should emphasize among employees in their organizations that the training is not only the way to get promoted. The ministry should send the message to the governmental organizations to focus on matching the productivity and performance of the governmental employees with promotion instead of focusing only on training credits.

- The governmental organizations should focus on younger employees as a target group for experiencing burnout. Kilpatrick (1989) found 64 studies that discussed the relationship between age and burnout. In our study, age was negatively associated with burnout in the pre- and post-test. The governmental organizations should retain younger workers by making their employees highly satisfy and less burnout.

Further Study

There are further studies that can be implemented in training related to burnout and work pressure. The most relevant studies that can be considered are: comparative studies and new studies.

Comparing the results of this study with training programs that have longer duration than three days (e.g. Week(s) or month(s)) would provide valuable recommendations about the impact of training duration on the level of burnout. Since this study had a homogenous sample (all participants have same characteristics of: religion, race, sex, culture, nationality, governmental employees), the results can be compared to different studies that have same design but applied to a different sample (e.g., western). The results of this study can be an initial step to compare results of the impact of administrative training on level of burnout with other studies that would investigate the impact of technical training on the level of burnout. Also, studying the impact of in-service training programs on burnout level in the private sector can be compared to this study of training and burnout within the public sector.

The results of this study should encourage research to discover more about burnout and training. Although some studies in the literature supported that there were no differences in gender in burnout, the Saudi training environment should conduct a burnout study to support the literature because of cultural differences. For example, the female training organization at the IPA is managed and operated by females. It will be quite interesting to find out the level of burnout within the women's organization. An assessment study of burnout level by surveying the best strategies to prevent or avoid burnout can be conducted. The most interesting results can be generated from matching

the burnout level with the suggested strategies to deal or cope with burnout. A pre and post study design can be implemented with a training course dealing explicitly with burnout. The main purpose of this type of study is to find out how the designed burnout-training program can contribute to the level of burnout. Ultimately the results can be compared with the findings of this study.

Our study was not intended to study or assess the impact of training on organizational burnout. Reducing the numbers of employees as a result of training can cause work overload for the other employees in the organizations and ultimately cause burnout. This study focused directly on assessing the impact of in-service training on the level of burnout among individual trainees. Further study can assess the indirect impact of training on organizational burnout.

Limitations

In this study, the survey did not include the income of the trainees under the personal and organizational items. Low pay is considered as a main cause for burnout (Rousan, 1995; Jorde, 1982; Rogers, 1982). Further study can examine the relationship between trainees' burnout and their economic status. Also, in this study, the history of training for the trainees was not obtained. Some trainees may have attended more training sessions than others, and this potential variable may have an impact on findings.

The results of this study are presented without regard to the quality of the trainers in each training programs. Trainers' qualifications, personality, skills, and age may play a very important role in decreasing or increasing the level of burnout for the trainees. The results of this study cannot be generalized on different fields than administrative training programs within governmental organizations. Although there are some studies in the

literature supported that there are a few gender differences in burnout, this study conducted only male trainees.

Conducting the study face to face could have affected some limited bias that might have affected the responses of participants, although the researcher emphasized by both verbal and written communication that the survey was designed for research only and not for any kind of evaluation related to the training courses. There is a limited bias that may have occurred when they completed the surveys. Some participants may have filled out the survey not as they felt, but as they thought a superior might desire. At the beginning of each training session, I introduced myself as a current employee at the IPA and a researcher for my DHA degree. The limited bias may have occurred when the trainees recognized that the researcher worked for the IPA.

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Appendices

Appendix (A)

**Institutional Review Board for Human Research (IRB)
Office of Research Integrity (ORI)
Medical University of South Carolina**

165 Cannon Street Room 501
PO BOX 250857
Charleston, South Carolina 29425
Federal Wide Assurance #1888

APPROVAL:

HR# 16267

This is to certify that the research proposal entitled:

The Impact of In-service Training in the work pressure of the Institute of Public Administration trainee

and submitted by: **Maghram Mohammed Al-Amri, Master**Department: **Health Administration and Policy**Sponsor: **Medical University of South Carolina**

for consideration has been reviewed by the IRB and approved with respect to the study of human subjects as adequately protecting the rights and welfare of the individuals involved, employing adequately methods of securing informed consent from these individuals and not involving undue risk in the light of potential benefits to be derived therefrom. No IRB member who has a conflicting interest was involved in the review or approval of this study, except to provide information as requested by the IRB.

Original Approval Date: **03/28/2006**Approval Expiration: **03/27/2007**

Type: Expedited

Chairman, I.R.B.


 Patricia H. Arford, Ph. D., R.N.
Statement of Principal Investigator:

As previously signed and certified, I understand that approval of this research involving human subjects is contingent upon my agreement:

1. To report to the Institutional Review Board for Human Research (IRB) any adverse events or research related injuries which might occur in relation to the human research. I have read and will comply with IRB reporting requirements for adverse events.
2. To submit in writing for prior IRB approval any alterations to the plan of human research.
3. To submit timely continuing review reports of this research as requested by the IRB.
4. To maintain copies of all pertinent information related to the research activities in this project, including copies of informed consent agreements obtained from all participants.
5. To notify the IRB immediately upon the termination of this project, and/or the departure of the principal investigator from this Institution and the project.

Appendix (B)

February 2, 2006

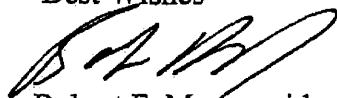
Professor Ann Osborne Kilpatrick
Medical University of South Carolina

Dear Ann – The basis for the modified version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) is a permission given by Professor Christine Maslach to Professor Robert Golembiewski and me back in the late 1970s to adapt the MBI for administration in work organizations. She originally wrote the MBI for administration in human services organizations and such settings. As a result, all of her referents in there were to “clients,” and caseworkers, and the like. Our interest in adapting it was to change all the referents to for general organization use, using words such as “customer,” and “coworker.” Generalizing the instrument in this way seemed interesting to her so she gave us permission to make the changes. Her only wish was that we track of findings, patterns, etc. in our studies, which we have done. To date, approximately three hundred administrations of our modified version of the MBI have been conducted in a variety of organizations and cultures, including translations into other languages. Naif Al –Ebedah’s Arabic translation is one such. Across all these studies, the MBI scale and factor structures seems quite stable .

You have permission to let your student use the Arabic version of the modified MBI developed by Naif Al-Ebediah to conduct a study at the Institute of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia. If he wants to change some of the Arabic translations of words that Al-Elebedah did, he is free to do so providing that you supervise the changes carefully.

Upon completion of his study, please have him send me a copy of his paper (in English) to add to our files.

Best Wishes



Robert F. Munzenrider,
MAP Program
School of Public Affairs
Penn State Harrisburg
Middletown, PA 17057

Appendix (C)

Cover letter

Dear Participant,

Thank you for reading this letter and survey. You are being asked to participate in this study of burnout entitled “The Impact of In-service Training in the work pressure of the Institute of Public Administration trainee ”. This packet contains all information and materials necessary should you decide to participate. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. All information collected for this research, including answers you give to the surveys included in this packet, will be kept confidential.

This packet includes this cover letter, a consent form and two questionnaires, one for completion before training and one to be completed after the training is over. Please read the instructions for the questionnaires before you start answering any questions. Then, be sure to complete both pre and post test questionnaires before you return the packet. It is important to answer all pre-post questionnaires carefully and accurately.

Please read the consent form, and, if you are willing to participate in this study, sign and date the consent form and return it with the questionnaires. Once the data you provide through the questionnaires is collected, all materials will be destroyed. Please feel free to return the questionnaires directly to me. Please feel free to contact me if you have any concerns, questions, or problems answering the questionnaires or are curious about the study in general. Please feel free to contact: Maghram M. Al-amri at the Institute of Public Administration (IPA): Telephone: 4768888 Fax: 4768888 or you can email me at: maghram@yahoo.com.

Thank you for your cooperation,
Best regards,

Maghram M. Al-amri

Appendix (D)
Questionnaire 1

Please circle your response for the following questions:

1- Please circle your approximate age:

A- 20-25

B- 26-31

C- 32-37

D- 38-43

E- 44-49

F- 50-55

G- 56-61

H- 61+

2- How long have you worked at your organization?

A- 1-5 years

B- 6-10 years

C- 11-15 years

D- 16-19 years

E- 20+ years

3- How long have you worked in your department?

A- 1-5 years

B- 6-10 years

C- 11-15 years

D- 16-19 years

E- 20+ years

4- Would you like to change your organization within 6 months?

A- yes

B- no

5- Would you like to change your job within 6 months?

A- yes

B- no

6- When was the last time you were promoted?

A- Never promoted

B- 1-2 years ago

C- 3-4 years ago

D- 5-6 years ago

E- 7-10 years ago

F- 10+ years

7- When will you be eligible for retirement?

A- 1-2 year

B- 3-4 years

C- 5-6 years

D- 7-10 years

E- 10+ years

Arabic Version

القسم الأول: معلومت شخصية

امل منكم تزويدنا ببعض المعلومات الشخصية و التي سوف تساعدنا على فهم البيانات الواردة في بقية الأستبيان بصورة افضل. علماً بأن إجابتك في هذا القسم مثل بقية الأقسام ستبقى في غاية السرية .

١- العمر

أ- ٢٠- ٢٥ سنة

ب- ٢٦- ٣١ سنة

ت- ٣٢- ٣٧ سنة

ث- ٣٨- ٤٣ سنة

ج- ٤٤- ٤٩ سنة

ح- ٥٠- ٥٥ سنة

خ- ٥٦- ٦١ سنة

د- ٦١ سنة فأكثر

٢- كم مضى على عملك في الجهة او المؤسسة التي تعمل بها ؟

أ- ١- ٥ سنوات

ب- ٦- ١٠ سنوات

ت- ١١- ١٥ سنوات

ث- ١٦- ١٩ سنوات

ج- ٢٠ سنة فأكثر

٣- كم مضى على شغلك لوظيفتك الحالية؟

أ- ١- ٥ سنوات

ب- ٦- ١٠ سنوات

ت- ١١- ١٥ سنوات

ث- ١٦- ١٩ سنوات

ج- ٢٠ سنة فأكثر

٤- هل تفضل العمل في جهة او مؤسسة اخرى خلال ٦ شهور القادمة؟

أ- نعم

ب- لا

٥- هل تفضل العمل في وظيفة اخرى خلال ٦ شهور القادمة؟

أ- نعم

ب- لا

٦- كم مضى على اخر ترقية حصلت عليها؟

أ- لم يسبق لي ان حصلت على ترقية

ب- ١- ٢ سنة

ت- ٣- ٤ سنة

ث- ٥- ٦ سنة

ج- ٧- ١٠ سنة

ح- ١٠ سنوات فأكثر

٧- متى سوف تتقاعد من عملك؟

أ- ١- ٢ سنة

ب- ٣- ٥ سنة

ت- ٦- ١٠ سنة

ث- ١٠ سنوات فأكثر

Appendix (E)
Questionnaire 2

Circle one number in the blank to the
right of each statement. Use low numbers

to describe statements which are unlike
you, and high numbers to describe
statements like you. 1 is very much
unlike me and 7 is very much like
me.

	Very Much UNLIKE Me	UNLIKE Me					Sometimes		Somewhat LIKE Me		Very Much LIKE Me
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
3. I feel similar to my co-workers in many ways.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
4. I feel personally involved with my co-workers' problems.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
5. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and face another day on the job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
6. I feel uncomfortable about the way I have treated some co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
7. I can easily understand how my co-workers feel about things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
8. I feel I treat some co-workers as if they were impersonal objects.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
9. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
10. I deal very effectively with the problems of my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
11. I feel burned out from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
12. I feel I'm positively influencing my co-workers' lives through my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
13. I've become more callous toward co-workers' lives through my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
14. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
15. I feel very energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
16. I feel very frustrated by my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
17. I feel I'm working too hard on my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
18. I don't really care what happens to some co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
19. Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
20. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my co-workers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
21. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
22. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				

23. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I feel my co-workers blame me for some of their problems1 2 3 4 5 6 7

[Adapted from the Human Services Survey by Christina Maslach and Susan E. Jackson,

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Arabic Version

القسم الثاني: المشاعر الشخصية

فضلاً اقرأ العبارات التالية (٢٥-١) ثم اخترغ عند بداية كل عبارة الرقم المناسب للتعبير عن شعورك حسب المقياس الرقمي (٧-١) و من ثم ضع الرقم في الفراغ عند بداية كل عبارة. المقياس هو كالتالي: (لا يشبهني بدرجة كبيرة ١ - ٢-٣-٤-٥-٦-٧ يشبهني بدرجة كبيرة). فمثلاً (١) لا يشبهني بدرجة كبيرة و (٧) يشبهني بدرجة كبيرة.

- () ١- أشعر بأنني بعيد عا طفياً عن عملي.
- () ٢- أشعر [أنني منهك تماماً في نهاية الدوام.
- () ٣- أشعر بأن هناك تشابهة في امور عديدة بيني و بين زملائي في العمل.
- () ٤- أشعر بأنني شخصياً اشارك زملائي في همومهم في العمل.
- () ٥- أشعر بأنني متعب عندما انهض من نومي في الصباح و علي أن أواجه يوماً اخر من العمل.
- () ٦- أشعر بعدم الراحة تجاة معاملتي لبعض الزملاء في العمل.
- () ٧- بأستطاعتي أن افهم بسهولة شعور زملائي تجاه أمور كثيرة.
- () ٨- أشعر بأنني أعامل بعض الزملاء كما لو انهم اشياء جامدة و ليسو أشخاصاً.
- () ٩- العمل مع الأفراد طيلة اليوم يعتبر مجهداً بالنسبة لي.
- () ١٠- اتعامل بفعالية كبيرة مع مشاكل زملائي في العمل.
- () ١١- أشعر بالإرهاق من عملي.
- () ١٢- أشعر بأنني أوتر إيجابياً على حياة زملائي من خلال عملي.
- () ١٣- أصبحت مشاعري أكثر تحجراً تجاة حياة زملائي من خلال عملي.
- () ١٤- أخشى بأن هذه الوظيفة تجعلني قاسياً من الناحية العاطفية (تؤثر سلبياً على مشاعري)
- () ١٥- أشعر بحيوية عالية.
- () ١٦- أشعر بالاحباط بسبب عملي.
- () ١٧- أشعر بأنني أوودي عملي بجد و إجتهد.
- () ١٨- لا أهتم حقيقة بما يحصل لزملائي.

- () ١٩- العمل مباشرة مع الآخرين يعرضني للضغوط (القلق و التوتر).
- () ٢٠- باستطاعتي و بسهولة أن أخلق جواً مريحاً مع زملائي.
- () ٢١- أشعر بالأبتهاج بعد العمل بصورة و ثقة مع زملائي.
- () ٢٢- لقد أنجزت الكثير من الأشياء الجديرة بالإهتمام في عملي.
- () ٢٣- أشعر بأنني قدمت كل ما لدي.
- () ٢٤- في عملي أتعامل مع المشكلات العاطفية بهدوء تام.
- () ٢٥- أشعر بأن زملائي في العمل يلومونني فيما يتعلق ببعض مشاكلهم.

Appendix (F)

Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia
Institute Of Public Administration



No :

Date : 18 MAR 2006

To Who It May Concern

This letter is to notify you of the approval of the project titled "The Impact of In-service Training in the work pressure of the Institute of Public Administration trainees" by the IPA for the protection of human subject. The participants will have a minimal harm and risk in conducting the processes. Mr. Maghram Al-amri is authorized to conduct his project on the trainees at the IPA within three months starting on March 25, 2006. Please feel free to contact us if you have further question or concern.

Best regards,

Dr. Musaed A. Furryar

Planning and Development Department Director



Headquarters, P. O. Box 205	: Riyadh 11141	Cable : Ipadmin	Tel: 4768888	Telex {	401160	Fax : 4792136
Western Province Branch, P. O. Box 5014	: Jeddah 21141	Cable : Ipadmin	Tel: 6314629		404360	Fax : 6313442
Eastern Province Branch, P.O. Box 1435	: Dammam 31141	Cable : Ipadmin	Tel: 8268300			Fax : 8268881

Appendix (G)

Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia
Institute Of Public Administration



No :

Date : **8 - MAR 2006**

To Whom It May Concern

Mr. Maghram Al-Amri is one of our employees at the Institute of Public Administration. As part of our human resources development program, Mr. Al-Amri has been awarded a full scholarship to gain his Doctorate degree in Health Care Administration. The IPA will continue assisting and supporting Mr. Al-Amri to finish his degree by allowing him to conduct his research at the IPA facility. In addition, Mr. Al-Amri is welcomed to use the available resources at the IPA in order to achieve his academic study. Please do not hesitate to contact us if you have any further concern or question.

Best Regards,



Dr. Musaed A. Furyyan

Planning & Development Dept. Director