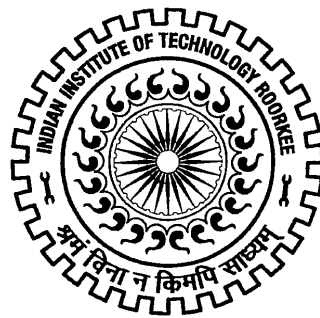


IMPACT OF JOB DESIGN ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND BURNOUT OF EMPLOYEES

Ph.D. THESIS

by

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**DEPARTMENT OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE
ROORKEE-247 667, INDIA
JUNE, 2014**

IMPACT OF JOB DESIGN ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND BURNOUT OF EMPLOYEES

A THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree
of*

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

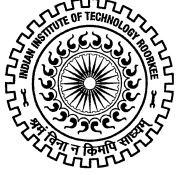
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JUNE, 2014**

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled **“IMPACT OF JOB DESIGN ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND BURNOUT OF EMPLOYEES”** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the **Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee** is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from December, 2010 to June, 2014 under the supervision of Dr. Renu Rastogi, Professor and Dr. Pooja Garg, Assistant Professor, Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(ANJALI JINDAL)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of our knowledge.

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Date: June , 2014

The Ph.D. Viva-Voce Examination of **Ms. ANJALI JINDAL**, Research Scholar, has been held on

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Head of the Department/Chairman, ODC

ABSTRACT

The focus has continuously increased on the performance of the organizations in order to meet the challenges of the competition globally. Organizations can improve their performance by restructuring the process and policies through improved job design. This has been realized by managers and academicians that what an employee actually does on his job has considerable influence on his productivity, job satisfaction, work life balance and level of burnout.

The present study mainly aimed at studying the functions of job design on work-life balance and burnout of employees. This study tries to explore and examines the relationship of key components of job design (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) with work-life balance (work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement) and burnout (exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy). In addition, the mediating effect of work-life balance on the relation of job design and burnout was also tested. Lastly, the present study has also been extended to examine the occurrence of the differences in the variables of study (job design, work-life balance and burnout) due to demographic variables (gender and marital status).

The purpose of the present research is to explore the impact of job design on work-life balance and burnout. For this purpose, responses were collected from 350 managers and participants were chosen according to purposive and convenient sampling. Collected data were analyzed by using SPSS©17 and Amos©20. Data was also checked for missing values, normality and reliability.

After ascertaining the appropriateness of data, descriptive statistics (Mean, standard deviation and standard error of mean) were calculated. After that, the analysis of data is subject to independent sample t-test, Pearson's r and Stepwise Multiple Regression analysis examine the effect of job design on work-life balance and burnout of employees. In addition, the scales, that have been used to measure the variables of study, were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Kaiser's Varimax Rotation. Further, Mediation was checked by using a bootstrap approach through structure equation modeling (SEM).

Conclusively, the results have indicated a positive and significant relationship of job design with work-life balance and on the other hand, a negative and significant

relationship of job design and burnout. Additionally, the study indicates evidences that demographic variables (gender and marital status) cause differences in perception of the variables of study (job design, work-life balance and burnout).

The present study provides important implications for researchers, practitioners and management bodies to understand the need of strategies to achieve organizational effectiveness and competitiveness through efficiency and performance which can be drawn on the basis of these research findings.

Keywords: Job design, Work-life balance, Burnout, Managers.

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ANJALI JINDAL

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

JD	Job Design
SV	Skill Variety
TI	Task Identity
TS	Task Significance
AU	Autonomy
FB	Feedback
WLB	Work-life balance
WIPL	Work interference with personal life
PLIW	Personal life interference with work
WPLE	Work/Personal life Enhancement
BO	Burnout
EX	Exhaustion
CY	Cynicism
PE	Professional Efficacy
SEM	Structure Equation Modelling

Introduction

The challenges of the 21st century are to create a new paradigm for success of an organization. Management literature has increasingly focused on the performance of the organizations to meet the challenges of global competition. Various factors such as capital, personnel policy and procedures, investment in technology, etc. are already being employed to achieve optimum levels of organizational outcome. But still, there are some flaws, which restrain organizations from performing effectively and meeting the global challenges. Steffen (2008) stated that, organizational systems that define the role of each employee are an important element of organizational design, and in the present scenario they are not sufficient to guarantee the success of an organization. For this, job design should be of paramount importance for the organizations as a lack of concern in the job design would create an imbalance in work-life aspects, mental exhaustion and eventually to burnout. Every organization needs to attract and retain valued employees in a highly competitive environment. This need can be satisfied while taking care of human resources through job design policies and practices. Well thought out job design leads to balance work and life issues, employee's mental satisfaction and reduces the exhaustion. Mentally satisfied employees contribute to organizational sustainability and productivity, while stressful and depressed employees would not be able to obtain the same sustainability and productivity for the organization.

Historically, job design approach leaves the individual or team with a rigid set of job tasks that do not allow the employee to work outside of the assigned job. But now-a-days job design has become an increasingly popular area for both theoretical and empirical inquiry. Subsequent to the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965) and Hackman and Lawler (1971), considerable research has focused on understanding job design and employee response relationships. Perception of justice in job designing make employees aware of their rights which in turn leads to the experience of environmental mastery and influences task involvement, positive work climate and job satisfaction (Chadha, 1988; Campbell, 2000; Forrester, 2000). A well-designed job involves opportunities to decide autonomously, in connection with acceptance of individual and communal responsibility for areas of work (Richter et al., 1999). A well designed job also fulfills the cognitive demand of an individual as it provides opportunities to deal with demanding tasks, i.e.

tasks that are mentally stimulating and require creativity at least some of the time (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Fay and Frese, 2001, Hacker, 2001, 2003; Ulich and Weber, 1996; Volpert et al., 1983).

Job design is actually the process of deciding on the contents of a job in terms of duties and responsibilities, on the methods to be used in carrying out the job, in terms of techniques, systems and procedures, and on the relationships that should exist between the job holder and his superior, subordinates and colleagues (Michael Armstrong, 1976). Today educated and creative employees demand well designed jobs. Job design plays a vital role in the performance maximization and when jobs are well designed, it brings involvement and satisfaction to the employees (Zareen, Razzaq & Mujtaba, 2013). If the jobs are not properly designed then there will be reduced job satisfaction and as a consequence, organizations would face higher turnover rates and poor employee performance because of lowered job satisfaction (Jafri, 2010), and leaders need to address the problem before it becomes a major issue. Stride et al. (2007) indicated the trend might continue unless leaders act to change this phenomenon.

Organizational leaders need to realize that employee job satisfaction is the key to productivity, providing value-added factors to company profitability (Sipe & Frick, 2009). Lower job satisfaction affects not only employees, but also the employing organizations (Science Daily, 2009). Lowered employee satisfaction results in lower production and higher employee turnover rates (Sipe & Frick, 2009).

Many efforts on job designing involve the creation of workplace policies which are more conducive to balanced investment in work and personal life. The efforts of these innovative organizations have been chronicled in lists of the best places to work as well as described in the more mainstream professional and academic journals (Burke, 1995, 1997, 1999). Several studies reveal that work and family are not two separate domains as they are highly interdependent, having a dynamic relationship with one another. While family life is affected by the factors at work, the reverse is also experienced (Trachtenberg, Anderson, & Sabatelli, 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007). The phrase “family friendly” was coined to describe those firms attempting to support work-personal life balance (Rodgers & Rodgers, 1989).

During the past three decades, many studies have shown that unfavorable job characteristics may have a profound impact on job stress and burnout. For example,

research has revealed that many job demand stressors like work overload, lack of autonomy, emotional demands, low social support, and role ambiguity can all lead to feelings of exhaustion and negative, callous attitudes toward work (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Gmelch and Gates 1998; Maslach et al 2001). While workplace conflict and stress cannot be eliminated, they can and should be managed effectively in order to have a productive workplace (Mujtaba, 2008).

The working environment of organizations is so demanding that many job-related stressors are likely to be pertinent to the work of managers and professionals engaged in the organization. The burnout condition of employees is a well-known phenomenon in psychology and several applied business disciplines. This well-known phenomenon in reaction to job stress reduces the motivation, effectiveness and efficiency of human. There may be several causes of organizational burnout as too many responsibilities, financial pressures, relationships with subordinates, coworkers, supervisors, other work related issues, psychological stress. When there is a perceived imbalance between resources and demands (e.g., the demand for competent, or efficacy) and that could be certain characteristics of jobs that contribute to certain psychological states of the employees (Garg & Rastogi, 2006).

Burnout in the workplace is both a national and global topic of interest. Historically, burnout has been considered more a personal problem than an organizational one (Lasalvia et al. 2009, Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Industry's efficiency and long-term competitiveness are likely to be compromised if managers and professionals are suffering from burnout. Similarly, if there is discrepancy among the professionals and their job context in several areas of working life, then it would lead to burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Consequently, organizations today not only lose talented employees due to burnout, but they are also losing large money surplus in the rehiring phase of new employees (Phillips, 2007).

Many studies in this context have shown that the processes explaining burnout cannot be restricted to workload, control and support because each occupational setting is characterized by different types and levels of work characteristics (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007); and many more work-related factors have been identified as predictors of burnout, including emotional demands and lack of feedback (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007; Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

Burnout is a work-related syndrome that most often affects the professionals. According to Maslach et al. (2001) burnout is a prolonged response to chronic exposure to a variety of job stressors. Empirical evidence indicates serious implications of burnout, implying substantial costs for both organizations and individuals.

When an employee experiences the meaningfulness and responsibility on the job, he feels motivated. Research has demonstrated that perceived job design and job characteristics are critical aspects that mitigate burnout (Babakus et al., 1996; Ito & Brotheridge, 2003; Stamper & Johlke, 2003; Xanthopoulou, et al., 2007). Consequently, burnout as experienced by employees is likely to have a detrimental impact on customer's perceptions of service quality (cf. Ledgerwood et al., 1998).

Empirical evidence indicates serious implications of burnout, implying substantial costs for both organizations and individuals. Possible effects of burnout at the organizational level are increased job turnover and absenteeism, decreased organizational commitment and reduced productivity (Jackson et al., 1986; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Wright & Bonett, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Burnout has been also linked to various health problems such as depression, irritability, anxiety, fatigue, insomnia and headaches (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Kahill, 1988).

Over the past few decades, many different factors have been found to be related to burnout. In particular, several authors have argued that burnout results from a misfit between job demands and job resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli & Schreurs 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker 2004) and offered evidence for a specific pattern of relationships between characteristics in the working environment and burnout. Furthermore, a factor that has become progressively more important to consider in occupational health psychology, that should also be included as a possible antecedent of burnout, is the interference between work and home (Geurts & Demerouti 2003).

In the light of these trends, both researchers and practitioners need a deeper understanding of how job design cultivates work-life balance and burnout management. A vast amount of research has focused on the general topic of work-life balance including flexible schedules, telecommuting and job sharing; however, very limited research has been directed toward the relationship between job satisfaction and family-friendly policies. The literature review showed a lack of empirical research regarding job design, work-life

balance and burnout related to managerial employees in various organizational environments.

Further, the relationship between each of the five core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) and satisfaction is well documented in the organizational literature (Glick, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1986; Loher et al., 1985; Orpen 1979; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). There is a gap in the research literature regarding to what extent a relationship exists between job design, work-life balance and burnout of employees. This study will look at the five dimensions; skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback and their relationship to work-life balance and burnout.

Based on current trends in theory, research and practice, the time is ripe to examine how jobs can be rationally designed to support organizational policies regarding work-life balance and burnout to have a positive impact on beneficiaries.

1.1 CONCEPT OF JOB DESIGN

The concept of job design is not new. It has roots back to the beginning of the industrial era. Perhaps the best-known theorist on job design is *Frederick Taylor*, who wrote “The Principles of Scientific Management”. He proposed analyzing, and breaking jobs into simplified tasks through motion studies. Job design defines and delineates the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of a job. This information is then used to write job descriptions

In the 1940s, at Berkeley, *Louis E. Davis* (1918-1998) published highly original research about the human impacts of automation and coined the term ‘Job Design’ to embrace the notion of efficient and more socially effective alternatives to the prevailing industrial paradigm of scientific management. Job design is affected by organizational, environmental and behavioral factors. A properly designed job will make it more productive and satisfying. If a job fails on this count, it must be redesigned based on the feedback.

Historically, job design in manufacturing manifested itself in the recognized traditional Tayloristic approaches to work (Holman et al., 2002, p. 1). This approach leaves the individual or team with a rigid set of job tasks that do not allow the employees to work outside of the assigned job.

The next era of job design focused on enriching jobs in order to promote personal development in workers (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Parker et al., 2001). Hackman and Oldham developed the job characteristics model (JCM) which proposed that well designed job should include skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, in order to ensure job satisfaction for workers. Karasek (1979) developed the DCM, which proposed that four job characteristics are critical to worker's psychological health: autonomy, skill variety, decision-making, and social support.

Job design approaches have worked in a different perspective for organizational development. Some models of job designs have been made in a decade. As Garg & Rastogi (2006) mentioned that, first the field of organizational behavior only considers job enrichment (JE) approach to job design. Now, job design has taken a broader perspective, with various dimensions such as job enrichment (JE), job engineering (JEng), quality of work life (QWL), socio-technical design, and social information processing approach (SIPA) and job characteristics approach to job design.

The content of the job an individual or group undertakes (for example, the tasks and roles they fulfill) and the methods they use to undertake their work (Holman, Clegg, & Waterson, 2002, p. 197). Job design refers to the way a job is organized to maximize individual performance and productivity of an organization (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Parker, Wall & Cordery, 2001).

Holman et al. (2002, p. 197) defined job design as, "By job design we mean the content of the job that an individual or group undertakes (for example, the tasks and roles they fulfill) and the methods they use to undertake their work."

Wieters (2007) defined job design as "the manner in which tasks are combined to form a complete job". Job designs generally specify the work activities of an individual worker or group, and can be differentiated by the degree of employee involvement in the day-to-day work activities (Chase, et al., 2004).

Job design is defined as an "outgrowth of job analysis that improves jobs through technological and human considerations in order to enhance organizational efficiency and employee job satisfaction" (Sherman, Bohlander, & Snell, 1996, p. 138).

Designing jobs include "the process of putting tasks together to form complete jobs. Job designers must consider how tasks are performed, the relationships on the job of

the organizational work, and employee-related issues such as challenge and empowerment” (Van Tiem et al., 2001, p. 351).

Job design is among the most extensively studied topics in organizational research. After three decades of research, organizational scholars have learned a great deal about the nature of job design. Researchers have contributed considerable knowledge about the task characteristics of jobs, such as autonomy, variety, identity and feedback (e.g., Arnold & House, 1980; Champoux, 1980; Griffin, 1983, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980; Hogan & Martell, 1987; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1992; Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992; Renn & Vandenberg, 1995; Tieggs, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992). Job design or job characteristics theory is a behavioral approach that focuses on the objective characteristics of an employee’s job and links their influence to the said employee (Turner and Lawrence, 1965).

The complete and best known theory for explaining worker responses to job characteristics is presented by Hackman and Oldham (1974) which superseded the first major theory with respect to the design of individual jobs given by Herzberg and his colleagues (Herzberg et al., 1959). Their two-factor theory distinguished between two types of factors, namely motivators, which are intrinsic to the work itself (e.g. achievement, recognition, and responsibility), and hygiene factors, which are extrinsic to the work (e.g. work conditions, pay, and supervision). According to Herzberg’s theory, only a challenging job has the opportunity for achievement, recognition, advancement and growth that motivate personnel. Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) job characteristics model (JCM) identified five core job characteristics. According to their theory, any job can be described in terms of five core job characteristics; skill variety, task identity, autonomy, task feedback, and task significance. These core dimensions are said to influence three critical psychological states of the worker; the experienced meaningfulness of work, the experienced responsibility for outcomes of work, and the knowledge of the actual results of work activities. High levels of the critical psychological states will lead to favorable personal and work outcomes. Hackman & Oldham’s research and subsequent work have supported the link between job dimensions and personal and work outcomes (Dunham, Pierce, et al., 1983). In the following section, all the five dimensions or factors of job design was explained in detail for a better understanding of the job design construct. These dimensions were:

1. Skill Variety: Skill Variety is the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involves the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employee.

2. Task Identity: Task Identity is the degree to which the job requires the completion of a “whole” and identifiable piece of work (i.e.; doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome).

3. Task Significance: Task Significance is the degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

4. Autonomy: Autonomy is the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling his or her work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

5. Feedback: Feedback refers to the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

1.2 CONCEPT OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE

“A balanced and skillful approach to life becomes an important factor in conducting one’s everyday existence. It is important in all aspects of life”.

---Dalai Lama

The Art of Happiness

The term ‘work-life balance’ was first coined in 1986 in reaction to the unhealthy choices that many Americans were making in favor of the workplace, as they opted to neglect family, friends and leisure activities in the pursuit of corporate goals. The analysis of the relationship between work and family has evolved over the years with more females entering the workforce and the husband and wife sharing more of the challenges and burdens of managing home-life and work-life. Traditional theories in the early 1950’s assumed the work and family lives were independent of one another; the husband assumed the traditional role as breadwinner and the woman as homemaker (Parsons and Bales, 1955).

Widely cited in the popular press, the concept of “work-life balance” (sometimes referred to as work/family balance or work/non-work balance) has gained interest because

the notion of balance is actually an empowering strategy to deal with spill-over between the two domains (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Initially, the balance was viewed as the absence of conflict (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994). Frone (2003) proposed that work/non-work balance was more than the mere lack of inter-role conflict or interference; it was the lack of inter-role conflict combined with work/non-work facilitation.

No definition of WLB exists that applies to everyone in all situations. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) define WLB as the ability to balance the roles of work and non-work life. Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003), define WLB as the extent to which individuals equally engage in and are equally satisfied with work and family roles. Clark (2000) defines WLB as satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict. Greenhaus and Allen (2006) defined WLB as the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individual's life priorities. Lastly, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) define WLB as the accomplishment of role-related expectations negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains. One common theme that arises from these definitions is that an individual's life consists of a series of roles. Achieving WLB requires the ability to participate in all these roles in a satisfactory way.

A balanced life is one where we spread our energy and effort- emotional, intellectual, imaginative, spiritual and physical – between key areas of importance. The neglect of one or more areas, or anchor points, may threaten the vitality of the whole. Pocock (2005) defined work life balance as: “about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work. It is achieved when an individual's right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm for the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society”.

The rational view of work-life balance is defined as the amount of conflict one perceives rises in proportion to the number of hours once expands and both the work and the family domain (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Keith & Shaffer, 1984; Staines, Pleck, Shepard, & O'Connor, 1978). When individuals have problems achieving work-life balance (WLB), it erodes their mental and physical well-being, and affects the quality of their personal relationships including those with their spouse and children.

As suggested by Fisher et al. (2001), the present study defines work-life balance as a multi-dimensional construct. In this study, Work-life Balance will be measured by Work-life Balance Scale developed by Fisher, McAuley, Stanton, Jolton and Gavin (2001). The labeling of the three components of the WLB Scale is Work interference with personal life (WIPL); Personal Life interference with work (PLIW); Work/Personal life enhancement (WPLE). In the following section, all the three dimensions or factors of work-life balance is explained in detail for a better understanding of the work-life balance construct. These dimensions are:

- 1. Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL):** WIPL specifically assessed the extent to which work has a negative impact on one's personal life. WIPL includes all four components of work/life balance (e.g. time, energy, goal accomplishment and strain).
- 2. Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW):** PLIW assessed the extent to which one's personal life interferes with work. Compared to WIPL, PLIW assessed the opposite direction of the work/personal interface: the extent to which aspects of one's personal life have a negative impact on work.
- 3. Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE):** WPLE assessed the extent to which one's personal life is enhanced by work or vice-versa.

1.3 CONCEPT OF BURNOUT

People commonly use stress and burnout interchangeably; however, they differ. Stress is the experience and appraisal of the stressor whereas Maslach and Jackson (1981) addressed that burnout is the consequence of stress resulting in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment

The historical background of burnout is interesting and burnout has been an important research topic in the field of occupational stress. The concept of burnout was first discussed by Bradley (1969) and was further elaborated upon by Freudenberger (1974) based on his observations of extreme psychological strain often experienced by workers in the human service profession, including social workers (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). Freudenberger (1974) has been known as the first person to use the term burnout. He defined burnout as a "state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, a way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward."

Views on burnout have changed since the 1960s when burnout was believed to be a result of the internal dissatisfaction of not meeting work goals. Burnout is now understood to be experienced by people in all occupations and is generated by the pressure of competing in the workplace. Burnout affects the organization's bottom line in the forms of worker's compensation, health care benefits, absenteeism, and on the job errors (Vu, 2004; Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Researchers since then have come close to approving on a definition and a number of variables associated with the existence of burnout. There has been a lot of research in the area of burnout. Some authors discuss causes, whereas others focus on remedies. Burnout has also been described as having three levels. The first level being institutional burnout, where there may be a shortage of organizational support; interpersonal burnout, which can result from poor relations among staff and/or a lack of competency; and individual burnout, where the practitioner may perceive that success, however hard they strive, is unlikely to occur (Clarke & Heather, 2000).

Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) stated that burnout is "characterized by physical depletion, by feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, by emotional drain, and by the development of negative self-concept and negative attitudes toward work, life, and other people..." Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do 'people-work' of some kind.

Maslach and Leiter (1997) proposed that burnout develops as the result of discrepancies between professionals and their job contexts in several areas of working life. Specifically, a mismatch occurs when the process of establishing a psychological 'contract' with one's job leaves critical issues unsolved, or when working relationships change in such a way as to feel obnoxious to the worker.

Burnout is "the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do, representing an erosion in values, dignity, spirit, will, and the erosion of human soul" (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 17). Burnout is associated with occupational stressors and depletes people of their coping resources after prolonged exposure to emotionally charged demands (Tweed & Conway, 2007). Furthermore, burnout is considered as "a process an employee experiences only after continuous ongoing exposure to stress" (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993, p. 9).

Burnout can be defined as a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001; Shirom, 1989) that may be ascribed to specific domain (e.g. personal, work, client) in a person's life (Kristensen et al. 2005). Further, it was stated that burnout is a function of job conditions, working environments, and interpersonal relationships (e.g., Schaufeli, Van Dierendonck, & Van Gorp, 1996, Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

Burnout is defined by Maslach's General Survey "as a crisis in one's relationship with work, not necessarily as a crisis in one's relationships with people at work" (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996, p. 20).

As suggested by Maslach and Jackson (1981), the present study defines burnout as a multi-dimensional construct. In this study, Burnout will be measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). The MBI-GS differs from the first two MBI versions, as "it does not refer to the service relationship with recipients; it emphasizes the respondent's relationship to the work in general" (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 156). The three components of the burnout construct are "conceptualized in slightly broader terms, with respect to the job, and not just to the personal relationships that may be part of that job" (Maslach et al., 2001, p.402). The labeling of the three components of the MBI-GS are Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional efficacy. The major function of MBI Survey Scales is that "all three assess the individual employee on the continuum from burnout to engage with work" (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p.112). The MBI-GS is designed to measure the three dimensions within wide range of occupations. In the following section, all the three dimensions or factors of burnout was explained in detail for a better understanding of the burnout construct. These dimensions were:

1. Exhaustion: Exhaustion is "the central quality of burnout and the most obvious manifestation of the burnout syndrome" (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 402). Exhaustion is regarded, as the most important type of burnout, characterized by a lack of individual energy and a feeling that the individual's emotional storages have been exhausted (Maru, n.d.). Exhaustion is the first reaction an employee faces with job stress (Angerer, 2003). Exhaustion refers to the experience of being overextended by the emotional demands of work.

2. Cynicism: Cynicism is characterized by an irritable, callous treatment of clients as if they were objects (often referred as depersonalization), a detached attitude towards work, and a loss of idealism.

3. Reduced Professional Efficacy: For the individual experiencing inefficacy, the feeling of personal accomplishment and effectiveness is reduced. This includes the social and non-social aspects of occupational accomplishment.

In the present study, job design is an important variable which is responsible for achieving organizational objectives. This has been initiated as to what extent the work-life balance and burnout are affected by job design. Therefore, the objective of the current study is to assess the effects of work-life balance and burnout. The present research has focused on the significance of the designing of a job as the principle drives for re-engineering the organization and fostering the work-life balance, while alleviating the burnout level of managers.

The purpose of this study was threefold: 1) to test the relationships among job design, work-life balance and burnout; 2) to test the impact of job design (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) in the framework of job design-work-life balance-burnout and 3) to understand how work-life balance plays a role of mediator between job design and burnout. To mitigate the lack of empirical research on this topic, a theoretical model has been proposed with an insight that job design (skill variety; task identity; task significance; autonomy and feedback) lead to prediction of work-life balance (work interference with personal life; personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement) and burnout (exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy). Further, work-life balance will mediate the relationship of job design and burnout. This study further extends to explore the significant differences in the demographic variables (gender and marital status) with the variables of the study (job design, work-life balance and burnout).

The relation between the job design, work-life balance and burnout is depicted with the help of the following figure. In **figure 1**, work-life balance mediates the relationship of job design and burnout.

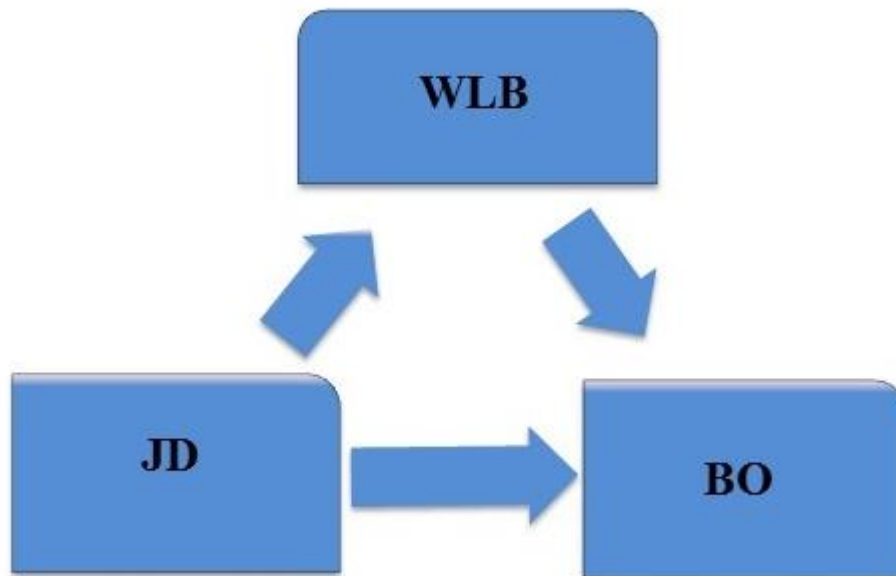


Figure1: Model depicting the relationship between job design, work-life balance & burnout

1.4 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

For both organizations and managers, it is imperative to get acquainted with the important aspects of job design that can lead to the prevalence of work-life balance and burnout in the organization.

Job design as discussed earlier has always great impact on the performance and behavior of the employees at all levels in the organization. This makes this construct a favorite issue among academicians and researchers. Many researches have been done in respect to relate job design with job satisfaction, performance, etc. But there is a missing approach in examining the role of the design of jobs and the way they can improve work-life balance (Bradley et.al., 2005).

Continually, work-life balance has been considered to be an important construct for both individual and organizational well-being. This construct has become a commonly used descriptor among researcher's articles (e.g., Crooker, Smith & Tabak 2002; Glubczynski, Kossek & Lambert 2003; De Bruin & Dupuis 2004; Lambert & Haley-Lock 2004; Dex & Bond 2005). Despite the mounting amount of literature that has addressed the concept of Work-life Balance; limited research has been conducted to explain the involvement of job design and work-life balance. Therefore, this study extends this research avenue.

Although, Burnout is a subjective phenomenon, it has a clear relationship with the organizational settings in which it occurs. It has been clearly mentioned in some researches that burnout is becoming a major threat to the executives of the world as well as for a country like India where there is a pressure to produce maximum with minimum outputs. This alarms the situation and demands a need to identify the determinants of burnout and adoption of preventive measures (Sharma R. 2007)

Finally, the study of three variables as job design, work-life balance and burnout can emphasize the pivotal role of human resource managers in considering the essence of work-life balance and burnout within the organizations. Managers have to essentially play an important role as leaders to coordinate, guide, facilitate, motivate and maintain harmony amongst employees in order to achieve organizational effectiveness in terms of products and services and the quality of the working environment of the organization. Lastly, the present study also examines the role of demographic variables (gender and marital status) in perceiving job design, work-life balance and burnout. The understanding of demographic variables extends the study to reach its new advances.

The above discussed gaps create a need to answer these unexplored issues. Therefore, in this dearth, the present study is designed.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The scope of the present study includes the following issues:

1. The present study explores the five dimensions of job design as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback.
2. The study covers work interference with personal life; personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement as of work-life balance.
3. The present study analyses exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy as dimensions of burnout.
4. Subsequently, the research for this study is conducted on middle level managers (both male and female) of the organizations located in NCR area of the country.
5. Lastly, the study aims to test the correlational, causal and mediating function of Job design on work-life balance and burnout.

Summary

This chapter was intended to investigate the relationship among the constructs of job design, work-life balance and burnout. An introduction to the background of the study was discussed. Chapter II will provide a closer look at the literature related to the problem and scholarship related to the theoretical framework. It will include a literature review of the measurement techniques used to relate to job design, work-life balance and burnout and the expected ways in which job design may affect work-life balance and burnout of employees. Chapter III deals with methodological issues: objectives, hypotheses, sample measures, data collection and data analysis procedure. Chapter IV presents the results and discussion and finally chapter V summarizes the major findings of the study in addition to the limitations, implications and further directions.

Literature Review

“The literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all the future work will be built”.

--- Berg

This chapter provides a detailed overview of the concept of job design, work-life balance and burnout and is arranged in three subsections. The first section of the chapter presents a historical overview of the concept of job design; in the second section, the concept of work-life balance is discussed and the last section discusses the concept of burnout.

2.1 JOB DESIGN

Job design is one of the most extensively studied topics in organizational research. After over three decades of research, scholars learnt a great deal about the nature of job design. Researchers have contributed with a considerable amount of knowledge about the task characteristics of jobs, such as autonomy, variety, identity and feedback (e.g., Arnold & House, 1980; Champoux, 1980; Griffin, 1983, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980; Hogan & Martell, 1987; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1992; Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992; Renn & Vandenberg, 1995; Tiegs, Tetrick & Fried, 1992).

According to Ackoff, 1978; Karasek & Theorell, (1990), “job design impacts the psychosocial health of all workers”. This review is a brief address to the concept of job design, its impact on work performance, and the potential for the psychosocial characteristics of the workplace.

Historical perspective on job design: Job design refers to the way in which a job is organized to maximize individual performance and productivity of an organization (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Parker, Wall & Cordery, 2001). Tayloristic approaches to job design in the early days of the Industrial Revolution focused on simplifying job tasks to maximize worker efficiency. Companies used to centralize authority and control employees’ job tasks in order to maximize productivity for the organization (Ackoff, 1978; Parker, Wall & Cordery, 2001).

In order to promote personal development in workers, the next era of job design focused on enriching jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Parker et al., 2001). Hackman and Oldham developed the job characteristics model (JCM) which proposed that well designed job should include skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, in order to ensure job satisfaction for workers. Karasek (1979) developed the DCM, which proposed that four job characteristics are critical to worker's psychological health: autonomy, skill variety, decision-making, and social support.

Historical Job Design Models

The foundation of the job design models was constructed by Smith's (1776) and Fayol's (1916) **division of labor**, Taylor's (1916) **scientific management**, Hackman and Oldham's (1980) **job redesign**, Kanter's (1983) **empowerment approach**, and Semler's (1997) **alignment theory**. Chase et al.'s (2004) **socio-technical systems represented contemporary job design theory**

The viewpoints about the appropriate job design are significantly different among the classical authors and can be described as a management paradigm. According to Kuhn (1962), paradigms are “models from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research” (p. 10). In general, paradigms oppose each other and represent new ways of doing something. Smith (1776), Fayol (1916), and Taylor (1916) proposed a well-structured job design using the division of labor and specialization to realize maximum productivity and efficiency gains. Alternatively, Hackman and Oldham (1980), Kanter (1983), and Semler (1997) are proponents of a job design that gives employees the opportunity to execute the complete task with certain levels of autonomy, ownership, and task significance. The controversy about the right job design continues (Chase, et al., 2004).

Division of Labor: Smith (1776) and Fayol (1916) focused on the division of labor as the optimal job design to gain maximum productivity. Work processes should be broken down into their smallest parts so that workers can become expert in their field of specialization and optimize their individual throughput. Fayol further investigated the benefits of the division of work and established **14 principles** of management. According to Parker and Ritson (2005), the division of work was based on the reduction of “the span of attention or effort for any one person or group” (Parker & Ritson, 2005, p. 176)

Traditional Production Approach: In the 19th century, Taylor personified the scientific and systematic management thought and took the division of labor to another level (Wren, 2005). In contrast to Smith's (1776) horizontal division of labor in manufacturing, Taylor introduced the vertical division of labor and formed a central column of job design (Pruijt, 2000). As a result, training costs were minimal because workers only concentrated on one particular activity (Brödner, 2007). Taylor viewed workers as "mindless machines" and expected them to only produce a specified "piece rate" per day (Darmody, 2007, p. 3). Taylorism has been described as a "formalized, bureaucratic system" that aims at maximum productivity by efficient means and methods (Pruijt, p. 446).

Job Redesign: In contrast to Taylorism, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed job redesigns to achieve work effectiveness as well as employee motivation and satisfaction. According to Thomas-Shaw (2004), Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model (JCM) "was considered to be the most influential model in job design research" (p. 4).

Job Characteristics Model. Figure 1 represents the JCM model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). In the JCM model, the authors assumed that "core job characteristics" influence "critical psychological states" (CPS) of employees which then translates into favorable results (p. 4). This model can be regarded as a foundation for the evolving models and work structures of the late 20th and 21st centuries.

Hackman & Oldham's Job Characteristics Model

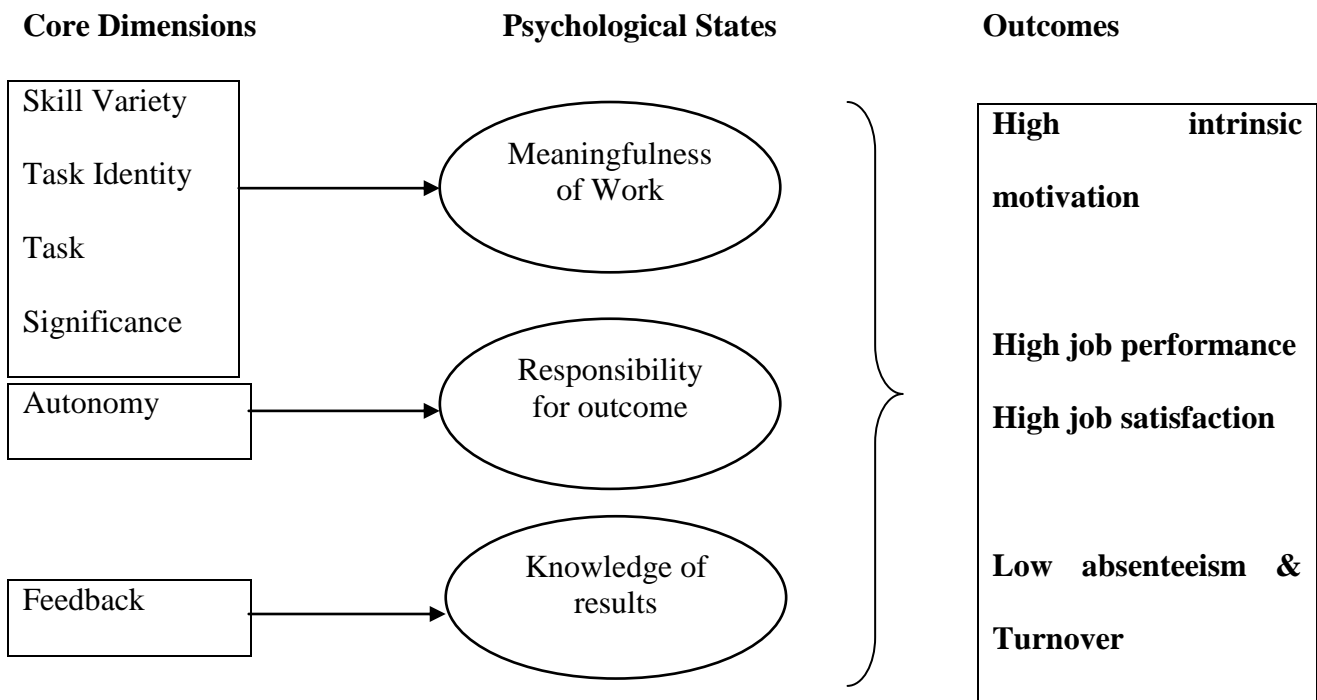


Figure 2.1. The complete JCM (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, p. 90).

Note. From *Work Redesign* (p. 90), by J. R. Hackman and G. R. Oldham, 1980, Reading, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Publications. Copyright 1980 by Addison Wesley Publications Co., Inc. Adapted with permission.

Motivating Potential Score (MPS): In 1980, Hackman and Oldham also presented the MPS as a tool to measure how strongly motivated an employee feels by the job design to provide their best performance. The formula for calculating the MPS is as follows: “ $MPS = (Skill\ Variety + Task\ Variety + Task\ Significance) / 3 \times Autonomy \times Feedback$ ” (p. 87). The Hackman and Oldham’s MPS formula showed that autonomy and feedback have the highest direct impact on employee motivation. Near-zero score any of these two variables will pull down the whole motivating potential score very low. Alternatively, “skill variety, task variety, and task significance influence less” the overall employee motivation to perform well in a job (Hackman & Oldham, 1980 p. 64). The overall MPS score will be zero only if employees do not experience any meaningfulness at all on the job. Based on this formula, Hackman and Oldham recommended that managers should primarily focus on providing feedback and empowering their employees in order to reach a high MPS.

Employee Involvement Theory Kanter's empowerment philosophy: Employee involvement strategies follow the principles of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) JCM. Kanter (1983) has been one of the first authors who presented the terms, participative management and employee empowerment. Employee empowerment means to enable them or give them official authority or legal power to execute a specific task.

Alignment Theory: In Alignment Theory, Semler (1997) stressed the need to create work structures: (a) that establishes measurement and reward systems that are aligned with strategic organizational goals, (b) that allow employee involvement for goal attainment, and (c) that allows employees to receive feedback on their performance.

Important milestones in the history of job design are briefly shown as below in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Historical Job Design Models

Division of labor (Babbage, 1835, Smith, 1776)	Productivity could be increased if jobs were broken down into simple tasks.
Scientific Management (Taylor, 1911)	Conducted time and motion studies in an effort to systematize efficient division of labor.
Hawthorne studies (Mayo, 1933)	To improve environmental conditions in ways that they expected to be conducive to both comfort & productivity.
Job Enrichment (Herzberg, 1950)	A way to motivate employees by giving them more responsibilities and variety in their jobs
Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Lawler, 1971)	Investigate the influence of job characteristics on attitudes & behaviors.
Motivating Potential Score (Hackman & Oldham, 1980)	A tool to measure how strongly motivated an employee feels by the job design to provide their best performance.

Campion and Thayer (1987) have focused on one of the most popular approaches to job design that can be called the motivational approach. It emphasizes meaningful tasks for individuals, taking into consideration the human interaction aspect of the job. This job design approach assumes that motivation at work increases the personal involvement of the individual in the job, thereby enhancing their performance and job satisfaction. The most popular job design model in the motivational approach, “the Job Characteristics Model”, was proposed in 1975 by Hackman & Oldham.

Humphrey and Morgeson (2007) explored that Hackman and Oldham’s model has been widely studied and is the central focus of the job design literature.

Garelli (2004) and Pathak (2005) described that in the economy of the 21st century, companies have to adapt their job design according to the new market conditions. According to Chase, et al. (2004) a job design is defined as “the function of specifying the work activities of an individual or group in an organizational setting”. Wieters (2007) confirmed that a job design can be defined as “the manner in which tasks are combined to form a complete job” (p. 9).

Chase, et al. (2004) claimed that the operations management departments are responsible for determination of the appropriate job design, whereas Ferguson (2006) argued that the definition of job designs belongs to human resource areas. Both authors agreed, though, that more research on job design models in general is needed (Chase, et al, 2004; Ferguson, 2006).

Batt, (2002) and Pruijt, (2000) examined that recruitment difficulties as well as the desire for flexibility and discretionary effort forced managers of manufacturing plants to turn to job design models that involve employee engagement. Seddon (2005) confirmed that management is moving away from Taylorism in factory work. According to Pruijt (2000), manufacturing companies found ways to adapt their work designs to the new market conditions and employee needs.

Burr and Cordey (2001) studied the role of worker control and skill utilization on the enhancement of task motivation. While, Ang and Slaughter (2001) believed that job design plays a significant role in improving the contract employee’s work attitudes, behavior and performance.

Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) provided a new emphasis on job design. Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) reported that only a few studies on job designs focus on social characteristics and their impact on job outcomes.

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristics model is a foundational tool for job design, implementation and evaluation and several theoretical and empirical studies have further analyzed the mediating effects of job characteristics on job design interventions, e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hogan, Lambert, Jenkins, & Wambold, 2006; Holman, Axtell, Sprigg, Totterdell, & Wall, 2010; Lambert, 2004; Robinson, 2003).

Workman and Bommer (2004) found that work processes strongly influence attitudes toward organizational commitment, as well as performance. Moreover, the experts theorized that alignment of redesigns with processes, increase organizational commitment; thus, commitment encourages the accomplishment of organizational goals (Workman & Bommer, 2004). Moreover, the experts theorized that alignment of redesigns with processes, increase organizational commitment; thus, commitment encourages the accomplishment of organizational goals (Workman & Bommer, 2004). Evidence of various studies showed that performance in specialized roles may contribute to symptoms of burnout and turnover issues (Annison, Eadie, & Knight, 2008; Farrow, 2004; Lambert & Paoline, 2010; Lee, Joo, & Johnson, 2009; Lee, Phelps, & Beto, 2009; Minor, Dawson-Edwards, Wells, Griffith, & Angel, 2009).

Grant, Fried, Parker and Frese (2010) asserted that significant changes in work contexts, such as multi-functional job designs, give birth to new theoretical inquiries about the "nature, effects, and designs of jobs" (p. 146). An organization positions itself for constant improvement through continuous alignment of "what is working, what is not, and what to do about it" (Van Tiem et al., 2001, p. 313). Thus, job design research calls for further exploration of how multitasking jobs may influence organizational performance, as job designs aligned with processes are significant contributors to goal achievement (Becker & Huselid, 2010).

After the design of the macro organization and work processes, the sole purpose of job design interventions is to support alignment of internal and external processes and goals of the organization (Amarant & Tosti, 2006; Rummler, 1990, 1995) Although some research emphasized alignment to organizational performance, other psychological

research sought to show how job designs influence job motivation, commitment, and the well-being of employees (e.g., Beehr, Glazer, Fisher, Linton, & Hanson, 2009; Campion, 1988; Campion, Mumford, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wasti, 2005).

Semler (1997) claimed that employee satisfaction, commitment and organization performance increases if jobs and organizational processes are designed in congruence with the overall strategic goals of the organization. Past researches suggest that job design factors influence employee attitudes and behavior toward job tasks significantly (Askin & Chen, 2006; Dong-Gil, Kirsch, & King, 2005; Holland, Sheehan, & De Cieri, 2007; Kossek & Lee, 2008; Kuo & Ho, 2010).

Many theoretical and empirical studies have analyzed the mediating effects of job characteristics on job design interventions, e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hogan, Lambert, Jenkins, & Wambold, 2006; Holman, Axtell, Sprigg, Totterdell, & Wall, 2010; Lambert, 2004; Robinson, 2003).

Kossek and Lee (2008) looked at the workload arrangement via a job redesign intervention—a factor known to promote commitment to organizational performance. Effective job model designs comprise “measures and goals for each job’s output based on the function, process, measures and goals” (Rummler & Brache, 1990, p. 145), “representing the final link in a measurement system that ties the organizational level output to the individual output” (Rummler & Brache, 1995, p. 153).

Smith (1776) described the division of labor (i.e., specializing job models) as the optimal job design to gain maximum results because specializing roles involve performing independent tasks. Smith asserted that specialization encourages economic growth as it compartmentalizes work processes, optimizing individual output through expert performance.

Van den Beukel et al., (2002) emphasized that the effectiveness of multifunctionality enhances core job characteristics such as task variety, thus increasing job satisfaction and motivation and resulting in a strengthening of commitment to organizational performance. Conversely, incorporating multifunctionality into job design interventions can lead to skill and resource underutilization, work intensification, and task overload (Van den Beukel et al., 2002). Van Tiem et al. (2001) also asserted that “job

designers must consider how tasks are performed, the relationship of the job to organizational work, and employee-related issues such as challenge and empowerment”

McArthur (2004) also posited that assessment of the organizational structure, job design, and core processes will yield possible suggestions for improvement that would enhance organizational performance. Jewel and Jewel (1992) explained that the design of an organization is strategically structured for effective use of resources. The implementation of processes and performance improvement interventions will be consistent with the intent of the organization’s design, processes, and goals.

Table 2.2 Contemporary research avenues on Job Design (JD)

References	Findings
Ford, M.T. & Wooldridge, J.D. (2012)	The study investigated the associations between industry revenue growth, individual work role characteristics, and job satisfaction. Results supported that Work roles were more autonomous, involve a greater skill variety, and offer more opportunities for growth and development for workers in growing industries than for workers in declining industries.
Ferris, G.R. et.al (2009)	The present study tested portions of a model of accountability, examining job and organizational characteristics as predictors, and employee influence tactics as outcomes of accountability. Results demonstrated that accountability has significant positive relationships with hierarchical level and employee influence tactics, and a negative relationship with job ambiguity.
Lin, B.Y.-J. et.al. (2010)	This study examined the job characteristics model (JCM) - including the constructs of core job characteristics, psychological statuses, individual growth needs and work outcomes - with regard to pharmacists. 298 pharmacists responded to mailed surveys. The results partially verified JCM especially with respect to the pathway of job content - characterized as task variety, integrity and significance - to the experienced meaningfulness of work, as well as to their work outcomes, including higher internal work motivation, work performance quality, work satisfaction and reduced intentions/desires to quit
Mark, G.,	This study investigated the relationships between job characteristics

Smith, A.P. (2012)	and coping in predicting levels of anxiety and depression in nurses. The results showed that job demands, extrinsic effort, and over-commitment were associated with higher levels of anxiety and depression. Social support, rewards, and skill discretion were negatively associated with mental health problems
Nie, T., Zhang, L. (2011)	This study focused on the relations between work characteristics, job burnout and individual performance. Based on the literature review of the related studies, the authors established the theoretical model and explored job variety, job authority, job burnout and work performance.
Hopkins, V., Gardner, D. (2012)	In this study, the Job Demands-Resources Model was used to identify job characteristics associated with psychological distress among lawyers, and to explore the mediating roles of burnout and work engagement. A sample of 94 legal staff was taken. The results suggested a dual focus on reducing job demands related to burnout, and increasing the availability of job resources to enhance work engagement, may help combat psychological distress among lawyers.
Eric G. Lambert et.al. (2011)	This exploratory study focused on the impact of job characteristics on the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout of prison staff. Using data from 272 staff members at a Midwestern state prison. This study revealed that both job feedback and job autonomy had negative effects on emotional exhaustion, however, both supervision and job variety had non-significant effects.
Gopesh Anand et.al. (2012)	This research examined the influence of autonomy in day-to-day work on commitment of frontline employees to continuous improvement. The results associated job autonomy with responsibility for outcomes.
David Holman et.al.(2012)	The purpose of this article was to examine whether employee learning strategies are a mechanism through which job design affects the employee innovation process. The findings provided support for the general idea that learning is a mechanism through which job design affects outcomes.

2.2 WORK LIFE BALANCE

Work-life balance has been a point of discussion throughout history, whether one was a farmer or tradesmen, or a household manager of some type. The need to make a balance between work and family, and the needs of those around you is as old as time. Only in more modern times, though there has been an increased differentiation (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Since the early 1970s, people have spoken of the importance of work-life balance (Elbing, Gadon, & Gordon, 1975). The notion of people wanting to work to live as opposed to living to work, creating a desire of employees to find the right balance between work and family responsibilities (Judkins, 2007).

Work life balance studies truly started after the World War II era generation when women came into the workforce in Europe (Greenhouse & Powell, 2003). A significant count of male members in the family joined the military. As a result, many women joined the work force. The traditional role of a woman was to be the housekeeper, a stay at home wife of a single income family while supporting her husband at home and raising the children. The paradigm shifted (Carpenter, 2003; Greenhaus, 1988). Women began entering businesses to share the workload (Carpenter, 2003). The women started working in factories and offices. Women became increasingly independent from the home and the family as this paradigm continued to change (Carpenter, 2003, Greenhaus, 1988).

The term work-life balance was first coined in 1986 for the workers neglecting their personal, family obligations to pursue corporate goals (Lockwood, 2003; Work Life Balance Center, 2007). According to the Work-Life Balance Center (2007), work-life balance is defined as a life where, “we spread our energy and effort - emotional, intellectual, imaginative, spiritual and physical – between key areas of importance”.

Frone (2003) discussed that the phrase “work-life balance” has received significant attention and is frequently referenced in everyday language by a wide variety of addressees, which makes it difficult to find a commonly accepted definition of the phrase within the work-life literature.

Guest (2002) notes that “balance” in the physical and psychological sense can be defined as “stability of body or mind”. He also comments that in the English language, the word balance is often used as a verb and that can imply that it takes agency by the person to manage the balance. Achieving a harmonious integrity in one’s work-life balance is an

idiosyncratic, complex and ongoing process (Dowdall, 2004; Guest, 2002; Ibarra, 2003; Keene & Quadagno, 2004; Moody, 1997). It requires an individual's personal leadership (Brown-Klingelhofer, 2003; Dowdall, 2004; Guest, 2002)

Work-life balance has been studied in the U.S. since the 1980s and in Europe, primarily the U.K. since the early 1970's (Frone, 2003; Murphy, 1996; Smith & Gardner, 2007; Stebbins, 2001). Cappelli (2000) asserted that the attention from organizations have been increasing towards the concept of work-life balance (WLB) as a result to the need of attracting and retaining valued employees in a highly competitive labor market. Potential employees no longer remain fully satisfied with the remuneration and promotional aspects of a job. Increasingly, job seekers also want their potential workplace to recognize and support the balance between their personal and work lives. Organizations that help to enhance employee morale, commitment, satisfaction, and reduce sources of stress and problems at work, tend to improve their ability to recruit and retain talented and valued employees.

Pitt-Catsouphes, Kossek, and Sweet (2006) have called the phrase an "almost taken for granted metaphor". As a result, work-life (family) balance got multiple, and at times inconsistent definitions throughout the research on the topic (McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011).

In spite of the traditional view that work-life balance is the absence of divergence between the work and life domains, McMillan et al. (2011) & Marks and MacDermid (1996) have suggested that individuals can and should exhibit equally positive commitments to different life roles. Other scholars too have similarly conceptualized work-life balance, suggesting that a balanced life is an essential condition for achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains that requires energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across domains (Kirchmeyer, 2000), or the satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict (Clark, 2000).

Work life balance has become an issue with the changing society and culture (Pocock, 2003). In the past, organization cultures were based on the number of hours worked and taking as least amount of leave opted for. This forced individuals to make a choice between work and family, which caused conflict in one or both fronts.

Extensively cited in the popular press, the concept of "work-life balance" (sometimes referred to as work/family balance or work/non-work balance) has gained attention because the view of balance is actually an empowering strategy to deal with spill-over between the two domains (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Previously, the balance was

viewed as the absence of conflict (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994). Frone (2003) proposed that work/non-work balance was more than the mere lack of inter-role conflict or interference; it was the lack of inter-role conflict combined with work/non-work facilitation.

Lawler (1975), O'Toole (1974) and Kanter (1977) explored the area of work-life balance by addressing the need to make vital changes in the workplace to improve it. However, due to the shrinking labor pool, companies were forced to compete for talent in the late 1980s, and widespread implementation of employee-friendly programs did not occur (Johnston & Packer, 1987).

McMillan et al., (2011) explored that work-life balance could then be viewed as a continuum with imbalance at one end and balance at the other for each role and also contain three components of balance corresponding to **time balance**, **involvement balance**, and **satisfaction balance**. This view of work-life balance may be salient to organizations interested in providing the flexibility and support necessary for employees to effectively balance life and work issues and ultimately contribute to the organization's competitive advantage and overall performance (McMillan et al., 2011).

Robbins and Judge (2011) recommend that organizations reach out to employees in an attempt to help them manage work/life conflicts; other scholars like Caproni (1997) argue that efforts to promote work/life balance may actually undermine individuals' quality of life. Caproni (1997) explained that this position is rooted in the language used to frame the constructs involved. Balance, according to Caproni (1997), is unattainable, and by focusing on an unattainable goal, the author believes individuals, both reject the acceptability of imbalance and create frustration when their work/life balance goals cannot be achieved.

Steven Covey (2004) also supported the importance of work life balance (2004), in his book *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, where he maintains that balance lays the ground work for maintaining the other six habits he recommends for success. Balance requires renewal in the four dimensions that he identifies as physical, mental, social/emotional, and spiritual.

Todd (2004) asserted that without balance, employees experiencing high levels of WLC will miss more days per year, become less committed to the organization, become less satisfied with their job, and become more likely to intend to leave their job (Todd,

2004). Work-family or work-life conflict (WLC) occur when the cumulative demand of work and non-work life roles are incompatible in some or other respect. Thus, participation in one role becomes more difficult due to participation in the other one (Duxbury & Higgins, 2001).

Igel (2005) stated, “The term balance does not necessarily indicate that equal amounts of time and effort is dedicated to the demands of both responsibilities”. What seems to be balanced for one may not be the same for another. Every individual has his or her own assessment of what work-life balance means and the required distribution of time needed for his or her personal life and career.

Taylor (2005) affirmed that work-life balance comprises more than only flexible schedules. Work-life balance may include a variety of opportunities, such as flexibility, paid and unpaid time off, health and well-being, childcare, skill development, and technology (Latham, 2006). The younger generation believes accomplishments should be a measure of the work successfully completed by an individual alone rather than the days he or she works (Wagner, 2007).

Tulgan (2002) expressed the benefits to an organization in letting the employees work at their own convenient times when they can be the most productive. Each individual is exclusive in this situation. McDonald (2008) noted that flexible work options will “increase retention and boost productivity and morale among existing staff”. Achieving a positive work-life balance brings affirmative work outcomes to the organization; such as job satisfaction and increased productivity (Taylor, 2005).

Schapiro, (2005) asserted that a life of balance is self-defined around the two concepts of work and life. The study categories that some individuals become strongly committed towards their work, while others feel more dedicated to their family, friends, community, and other activities outside of work. Workaholics, those individuals who are obsessed with their work have a clinical addiction. Other individuals place more importance in life than on their work. The assertion of work-life balance is a continuous struggle as different components of work, family, friends, self, and community activities outside of work compete for the time and commitment (Schapiro, 2005).

Duxbury and Higgins (2001) studied the enormity of WLC and the importance of balance in the lives of employees to ensure that businesses could achieve maximum profitability. These studies established that workers with high level of work-life conflict

were less committed to their employers and less satisfied with their jobs. There are high levels of stress associated with this conflict. As a result of high stress there is more absenteeism due to illness and more strain on employee assistance programs. Thus, high conflict negatively impacts a company's profitability.

Duxbury and Higgins (2001, 2003) explored the reasons for balance becoming such an increasing priority for employees? Clark (2000) mentions that though many facets of work and home are difficult to modify, individuals can shape to some extent the nature of the work and home domains, and the borders and bridges between them create a desired balance.

Netemeyer, Bolles, & McMurrian, (1996) found that Work-life balance is a concern among executives, management, and associates alike in organizations. Views of senior leaders towards work-life balance are highly subjective. Some leaders view their work as their life, while others see work as a key component of their life, but separate from family and community with minimal spill-over.

Eversole, 2005; Huang, Hammer, Neal, & Perrin (2004) stated that what a senior leader viewed about work-life balance programs, in contrast to his or her actions, send a message to the organization. Conducting a survey of senior leaders in an organization as to their views on work-life balance for themselves presents insight as to how work-life balance programs are viewed, supported and utilized by senior leadership of an organization (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). Family and work are the two most important fields of life for most adults (Andrews & Whitley, 1976; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976), and, when they are forced to choose between the work and family, people generally say that the family is more important than their work (Andrews & Whitley, 1976; Gutek, Repetti, & Silver, 1988).

Fredriksen-Goldsen and Schalach (2001), found that even though many organizations have adopted work-life balance programs, a gap always exists between the establishment of these policies and the actual prevalence of family friendly practices. The utilization of work-life balance programs throughout an organization is constantly growing. As work and family roles change, the work-life balance programs are thinning the gap. In fact, work-family balance troubles have been much better documented than the efficacy of the programs designed to alleviate them.

Cappelli, (2000) suggested that organizations that seek to enhance employee morale, commitment, and satisfaction, and reduce sources of stress and problems at work, will improve their capability to recruit and retain talented, valued employees.

Pocock (2005) found that even when organizations offer WLB measures, employees minimally use these resources. Often this result occurs due to managers' negative attitudes and resistance, and also their lack of communication about the benefits of having appropriate WLB. Many employees believe that working more hours works as a necessary condition for promotion. Therefore, if companies' policies do not facilitate employee's achievement of WLB, then there will be reduced work performance, increased absenteeism, higher turnover, lower commitment, and poorer morale in their workers. These issues unfavorably affect the profitability of the organization and can result in increased turnover.

Frone, 2003; Moody, (1999) investigated the organizations' continuous struggle from work-family issues. Continued investigation has revealed that work-family conflict is related to job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, lack of retention, and poor performance.

Stebbins (2001) found that many organizations have developed work-family programs, better known as "family friendly" programs to the reported benefits of both employee and employer. He focused that getting the balance between life and work is of interest as it represents a portion of organizational management.

Schaffner and Van Horn (2003) of the John J. Heldrich Center for Workforce Development affirmed that work-life balance is no longer viewed as only a human resources issue, but is also a paramount concern for corporate leaders, policy makers and academics (Perlman, 1993).

Bartoleme and Evans (1980) argue that work and family balance is a personal issue and has personal meaning concerning individual satisfaction and well-being. The evaluation of the need of these work-life balance programs continues to find as to how the programs benefit the employee and the organization. The study of Work-Life Conflict has been principally focused on non-management and middle management positions (Eversole, 2005; Frone, 2003; Glubcynski, 2003; Kasper, Meyer, & Schmidt, 2005).

Huang et al (2004) has addressed the organizational issues concerning work to family conflict and the reactions employees have within organizations. Additional studies have focused on the work-life balance initiatives, implemented by the organizations

(Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Frone, 2003; Frone & Yardley, 1996; Galinsky et al., 1996; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kanter, 1977, Kasper et al., 2005; Marmot, 1994; Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001, Riedel, Lynch, Baase, Hymel, & Peterson, 2001; Smith & Gardner, 2007; Smithson & Strokoe, 2005; Tomlinson, 2005).

Eversole, (2005), Huang et al, (2004) explained that the work-life balance programs become more of an issue in the future survivability of the organization beyond that of the existing mature senior leaders. Pearlin and Schooler (1978) propose future research in analyzing work-life conflict issues and the coping skills necessary to remain productive in family and work environments. The study, completed by Frone and Yardley (1996) indicates a further development of effective family supportive program resources used in organizational work-life balance initiatives. Smith and Gardner (2007) surveyed the employees of a particular organization in order to determine the quality and utilization of work-life balance resources available to the employees as well as the impact these resources have on other employees.

Lilly, Duffy and Virick (2006) suggest that men and women have different expectations for work and home. It was also alleged that men have a higher need of affiliation than women and find that family experiences interfere with work. Understanding the roles of men and women in the workplace must include norms dictated by society. Women are expected to be more family focused than men, while men, who are considered the family providers, are more career conscious than women. Typically, men spend more time at the office seeking career advancement while women are doing both, spending excessive time at the office while trying to maintain the family household (Hochschild, 1997; Lilly et al., 2006).

Greenhaus (1988) study concludes that there are different roles to be played and that there is a stigma in organizations towards males and females as to the expected roles the individuals should play at home and at work

According to Hochschild (1997), men accomplish one-third of daily home activities; women perform two-thirds. Therefore, if there are family conflicts and the woman is earning less than her husband, the woman is more than likely to leave the workplace.

Frone and Cooper (1994), Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) and Pleck (1985) agree that conflict is bi-directional and can originate in a work-family domain or in the family-work domain.

Working under these pressures has caused an increase in work-family conflict that has contributed to the growth of burnout, adverse attitudes, job dissatisfaction, decreased quality family time and workplace violence (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Lilly et al., 2006; Noor, 2002).

Kanter (1977) argued that work and family should be interwoven and not portrayed in two independent domains, while Steers and Mowday (1981) examined non-work issues that affected job satisfaction, including family responsibilities, family interaction and family conflict

Whittard and Burgess (2007) and Brunton (2006), explained that effective work-life programs such as flexible work schedules, compressed work weeks, telecommuting, job sharing and on-site childcare proved beneficiary to both the employer and the employee, which in turn, can result in higher productivity, job satisfaction, commitment, job retention, and organizational loyalty.

Frone (2003), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) and Spector et al. (2007) discovered that extended work hours and excessive workloads have an influence on the work-family conflict and can be proved as the direct antecedent to work-family conflict.

Various researchers have found that the significant interdependence between the roles of work and family and the requirements to perform in both domains can cause conflict between the two roles (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Bass, et al., 2008; Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005; Conway, 1978; Day, 2005; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Duxbury & Higgins, 2001; Eikhof, Warhurst, & Haunschild, 2007; Ezra & Deckman, 1996; Frone, 2003; Haar, 2007; Harrington, 2007; Hochschild, 1997; Matthews & Rodin, 1989; Quick et al, 2006; Swody & Powell, 2007). Each role is salient and might demand more time or more responsibilities, which could lead to a reduction in work productivity and family conflict (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus & Weer, 2006).

Frone (2003) indicated there was a positive correlation between an employee's attitude and experiences in the work and family domains. The results of inter-role conflict

can reduce job satisfaction and cause the family domain to become unsteady (Brough, O’Driscoll & Kalliath, 2005).

Aycan and Eskin (2005) found that organization and spousal supports are critical factors in reducing work-family conflict for men and women. Duffy and Virick (2006) found that men and women viewed work-family conflict differently and suggest that policies be implemented to support both.

Table 2.3 Contemporary research avenues on Work-life balance (WLB)

References	Findings
Narayanan, et.al. (2012)	This study targeted on the work-life balance of software professionals working in IT sector. The study revealed that various factors are accountable for affecting the work-life balance of software professionals.
Mustapha, N. et.al. (2011)	This study analyzed the mediating effects of work, family facilitation and family satisfaction on the relationship between family-friendly work environment as the independent variable and intention to stay as the dependent variable. The findings indicated that there are significant positive relationships among variables.
Ahmad, A.R. et.al. (2013)	This study investigated the relationship between the flexible working hours and employees' motivation. Further, the results concluded that there is a high positive correlation between flexible working hours and employees' motivation.
Annink, A. & den Dulk, L. (2012)	This study investigated the work-life balance (WLB) of self-employed workers with a sample of 24 self-employed women with children. Results revealed that autonomy appeared to be an substantial leading to greater satisfaction with the WLB was the ability to define and reflect on personal objectives in work and other life domains
Ashfaq, S. et.al. (2013)	This study focused on the impact of work-life conflict and work overload on employee performance in banking sector of Pakistan (N=300). The results showed that employee performance is affected by work-life conflict and work overload because in banking sector working hours are prolonged.

Chauhan, A. (2010)	The study dealt with the barriers which women face while climbing up the corporate ladder and their handling styles. An empirical study was done with the sample size of 70 of married women employees of various industries in Haridwar, Uttarakhand, India.
Bass, B.L. & Grzywacz, J.G (2011)	This study examined differences in components of work-family balance among individuals in diverse types of jobs ranging from "inadequate" to "optimal." (N = 2,877). The results suggested jobs enriched with both structural and psychosocial attributes contribute to better work-family balance by reducing conflict and promoting enrichment.
Koubova, V. & Buchko, A.A (2013)	This study developed a conceptual linkage between life-work balance and emotional intelligence (EI) Based on a review of the literature, it was suggested that life experiences contribute to the development of EI, which then moderates the individual's life-work balance
Nomaguchi, K.M (2012)	Using data from the 2002 National Study of Changing Workforce (N = 1,430), this study examined differences in home-to-job conflict by marital status and gender among employed parents. Findings indicated that marital status and gender create distinct contexts that shape employed parents' perceived home-to-job conflict.
Abdullah, H., Ismail, N. (2012)	This study examined the relationship between the effectiveness of implementing tele-working and the effects of employees' quality of life, quality of work life and job satisfaction in their organization(N=150). The findings demonstrated that quality of life, quality of work life and job satisfaction has significant connection with tele-working.
Bailyn, L. (2011)	This study described a series of intervention projects in the conditions and the design of work geared to increasing gender equity in organizations and the ability of employees to integrate their working lives with their personal lives. It showed that approaching work with a work-family lens tends to lead to changes in the temporal environment of work, in what has come to be known as flexibility in the workplace.
Chandra, V (2012)	This study compared and contrast eastern and western perspectives on work-life balance (WLB). It is noted that the American and European companies rank higher than the Indian companies as they pay a lot more concentration to it.

Todd, P. , Binns, J. (2013)	This article recognized whether the positioning of WLB as a problem for management provides the opportunity for change resulting in an improved quality of working life in the public sector. The findings highlighted the inadequacy of much of the WLB discourse that obscures the tension between the imperative for managers to implement WLB more effectively and organizational practices and the broader social, political and economic context in which the management and the organization are located.
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(Source: above mentioned respective research papers)

2.3 BURNOUT

Since the early 1970's overall interest in the construct of burnout has grown within the workforce. Individuals working within the human services professions had incorporated the concept of burnout and allowed it to become part of their work image (Farber, 1983; Cherniss, 1980a). From the 1970's to the 1980's the concept of burnout practiced a strong birth, an emerging in terms of individual attitudes and feelings that in earlier years would not be spoken of in public as it is today (Cherniss, 1980a).

Burnout has become a prominent topic over the past twenty years and the concept of burnout was first discussed by Bradley (1969) and was further elaborated upon by Freudenberger (1980) based on his interpretations of extreme psychological strain often experienced by workers in the human service profession, including social workers (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). Freudenberger (1974) is often given credit for first coining the term burnout in workers. He began to explore the phenomenon of burnout when he recognized the indications of extreme work related stress in patients presenting to his clinic (Templeton & Satcher, 2007). He noted characteristics of a burnt-out person, including boredom, unhappiness, and depression.

Since Freudenbderger (1974) introduced the term burnout to describe individuals that showed an apparent appearance that is also associated with individuals who are experiencing substance abuse, the term burnout has been widely incorporated by scholars. The literature on burnout shows that human service professionals experience a high degree of stress in their daily work lives. This on-going stress leads to a high rate of burnout that results from constant and repeated emotional burden associated with intense and ongoing work with people (Maslach & Pines, 1982). Researchers such as Cherniss (1980),

Freudenberger (1980), Maslach (1982b), Paine (1982), Pines & Aaronson (1988), Schaufeli, & Enzmann, (1998) and a host of others have explored the burnout phenomenon. The operational definition most widely used in job burnout research is the three-component model developed by Maslach & Jackson (1986).

Christina Maslach, a social psychologist began to examine human service workers in 1978 to determine the stressors prevalent in their jobs (Angerer, 2003). Maslach's interest in burnout developed out of her interest in individual's emotions and "in the general question of how people know what they are feeling" (Maslach, 2001). Measurement scales to determine exact levels of burnout were developed during the 1980's (Angerer, 2003). The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) Survey (Maslach et al., 2001; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) has the strongest psychometric properties and continues to be the chosen measurement scale of researchers till today.

The way that the study of job burnout originated is rare in scholastic research in that it was brought to the attention of academics by clinicians and the people experiencing it. The social problem of job burnout originated as a focus of popular attention (Maslach, 2003). The empirical study of job burnout began with Christina Maslach's qualitative research into the emotional work understanding of human service employees in the 1970s. In her earlier research (Maslach, 1976), Maslach interviewed health care worker participants to find patterns in emotional arousal and associated coping mechanisms in the course of doing their demanding and draining jobs (Maslach, 1993; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), especially "cognitive strategies such as detached concern and dehumanization used in self-defense" (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998, p. 4). In a review of job burnout research, efforts to generalize job burnout to corporate and industrial settings have been encouraged (Cordes & Dougherty 1993).

Burnout has been an important research topic in the field of occupational stress. Burnout is described as a chronic affective response to stressful work conditions (Brillhart, 2004; Cordes & Daugherty, 1993). Burnout is the dislocation between what people have done, compared to what they are expected to do and represents a deterioration of values, spirit, and will.

Another trend in burnout research in 2000s is to examine the work environment as a contributor to burnout, whereas in the past burnout was often attributed to flaws in an individual's personality, character or drive (Angerer, 2003). An additional burnout trend in

2000s is focused on corporate wellness as more organizations are paying attention to the effects of burnout on the outcome (Vu, 2004). As organizations see the impact of stress and burnout they are investing more in corporate wellness programs (Devries & Wilkerson, 2003).

Burnout is a phenomena associated (or caused by) working conditions in all occupations. The issue of job burnout with one's employment is not a new phenomenon in today's workforce. Job burnout is an increasingly common phenomenon in today's stressful workplace (Canaff, 2007). Burnout is predominant in people oriented professions such as nursing (Jamal & Baba, 2000), and with the helping professions (Pines, 2003).

Maslach & Leiter (2005) asserted that burnout carries a two-sided relationship. The individual must be free of job stress and have personally obtained job satisfaction to alleviate aspects of burnout in the work environment

Burnout in the workplace is both a national and global topic of interest. Organizations today not only lose talented employees due to burnout, but they are losing large monetary surplus in the rehiring phases of new employees (Phillips, 2007).

Figley (2002) has investigated that when an individual feels astounded by burnout may change jobs and even consider changing professions. Pines, Aronson & Kafry (1981) researched that when this is the case individuals never analyze factors that caused their burnout. Burnout consequences can cause physical symptoms such as insomnia, fatigue, headaches, digestive and skin problems (Espeland, 2006). Komala & Garnesh (2007) asserted that burnout leads to poorer overall performance, increases intentions to leave, inappropriate client care, higher absenteeism rates, higher turnover rates, and a higher mark of daily sick calls.

Maslach & Leiter (1997, p. 17) explored that burnout is the dislocation between what people are and what they have to do, representing an loss in values, dignity, spirit, will, and the erosion of the human soul. Burnout is associated with occupational stressors and depletes people of their coping resources after persistent exposure to emotionally charged demands (Tweed & Conway, 2007). Furthermore, burnout is considered "a process an employee experiences only after continuous ongoing stress". (Maslach & Leiter, 1993, p. 9).

Both Freudenberger in 1975 and Maslach in 1992 related that burnout was therefore the end result in which highly motivated and committed individuals lose their whole spirit to continue in their present workplace (Maslach, 1982). Kalliath and Beck (2001) also relate that several empirical studies have given evidence that low supervisor relations with employees has contributed to both job burnout and increased turnover rates.

Burnout is different from the experience of a reaction to intense stress as it is “a cumulative reaction to ongoing occupational stressors” rather than a response to specific incidents. After the symptoms (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) and experience (Maslach, 1993) of job burnout were qualitatively plotted, the focus of much of the current burnout research has treated the experience of burnout as something that can be overtly and uniformly addressed. Recent research on burnout has been solution-oriented and application-focused, qualitative rather than quantitative. Because the study of burnout came out of employee’s experience rather being discovered in a research lab, burnout has been approached with a “pragmatic conceptual framework of a social problem that needed to be solved” (Leiter & Maslach, 2004, p. 92).

Burnout was not viewed as an external-driven process, but rather as an internal-driven weakness that a person with poor self-discipline was unable to constrain (Ballantine & Spade, 2008). Burnout is now formally recognized as a syndrome that affects a extensive variety of professionals in education, health care, social work, and other tasks that involve relational contact and communication with others directed at achieving or realizing the specific objectives (Ballantine & Spade, 2008; Bauer et al., 2006; Chiang, 2009). It is generally linked to a lack of coping skills, the absence of emotional intelligence, and low feelings of self-efficacy (Schultz & Pekrun, 2007).

Several authors have provided typologies of burnout. According to Maslach et al. (1996), there are three types of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Gillespie (1982) sought a need to recognize the phenomenon of burnout by developing and defining two types of burnout, active and passive. Farber (1998) examined teacher stress and burnout and defined three types of burnout (worn-out, frenetic and under challenged) as applicable to individual teachers.

Further, Zellmer (2005) investigated the phenomena of burnout and “understanding the various causal factors that can lead to discernment of educational strategies to minimize the potential for worker’s burnout”. Burnout is not a new phenomenon in the

workplace of today (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Burnout occurs in a wide variety of occupations, especially those in which individuals work in human services, management roles and academia as well (Pines & Aronson, 1988; Espeland, 2006). Maslach & Leiter, 1997 found that “so now, more than ever the workplace is fertile ground for burnout and as the saying goes, burnout has gotten no respect”. While Tweed & Conway (2007) asserted that burnout correlates with work-related stressors and deplete people of their coping resources after elongated exposure to emotionally charged demands. In fact, Espeland (2006) found that burnout is a process that drains the individual, creating mental fatigue and loss of all energy. Burnout is associated as a recent phenomenon to the difficulties that today’s employees face and the complications of the modern workforce (Angerer, 2003).

Leiter & Maslach (2005, p. 3) explored that “Burnout is considered as the biggest occupational hazard of the twenty-first century”. It has been increasing everywhere in the work environments and Leiter & Maslach (2005) compared it to a growing virus: “poisoning the increasingly alienated, disillusioned, even angry relationship people today have with the world of work” (p. 3).

Potter (1998) researched that no individual in any work environment is exempt from suffering job burnout; and it can affect any profession at any level, and at any time. Burnout contains both physical and psychological effects, “yet it is not considered a physical ailment or a neurorisis, it is a loss of will”. He further found that the motivation of the individual becomes spoiled, which results in an increased incapability to organize their continued interests and work capabilities.

Chiu & Tsai (2006, p.517) found that burnout is a severe psychological and physical syndrome that occurs in response to prolonged stress at work. Burnout occurs frequently among individuals who do work (Toscano & Ponterdolph, 1998; Hwang, Scherer, & Ainina, 2003; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The psychological effects of burnout on an individual can become harmful in the forms of low morale, absenteeism, tardiness and high job turnover in the work environment (Pines & Aronson, 1988; Leiter & Maslach, 1998). The employee in turn becomes unable to cope with the demands placed on their energy, time and resources. (Chiu & Tsai 2006).

The majority of studies have focused on the fact that when the work environment is not in alignment with the individual’s expectations and this misalignment does not allow individuals to achieve their personal goals, then the work becomes less fulfilling and the

danger of employee burnout becomes prevalent (Salmela-Aro, Naatanen & Nurmi, 2004). The aspect of burnout can be very costly to the organization.

Brock and Grady, (2002) stated that work overload is not the actual cause of burnout. It is when the individual worker's heart is in one area and their work is in another environment. Maslach & Leiter (1997) have proposed that burnout is most likely due to a prolonged undesirable fit or mismatch between individuals and their jobs. This overall mismatch occurs when work overload combines with a lack of control, inadequate rewards and conflicting employee values (Maslach & Leiter, 1999).

Potter (1998) explored that role conflict is a key contributor to job burnout. Role conflict is "conflicting demands and responsibilities placed on an employee (Bersamin, 2006, p. 19). Role conflict occurs because of incongruity or mismatch of an individual's expectation of a certain role (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Maslach et al. (2001) found that the construct of burnout is associated with many forms of job withdrawal such as absenteeism, intention to leave and turnover intentions. When individuals decide to remain in their employment, over time deterioration in productivity and overall effectiveness becomes paramount when the burnout condition remains with the individual.

Zellmer (2005) examined that occupational stress and burnout are of great concern in many helping professions. Cooper (1998) stated that it is not only that workplace stress is costly to organizations, but it is an increasing problem globally as organizations downsize and outsource. Further Mandell (2008) explored that once an individual employee becomes disgruntled with one's work and work environment they become a indicator for job burnout. Many researchers revealed that prominent antecedents of burnout among employees are work overload, lack of control, lack of community, role conflict, role ambiguity and locus of control (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Leiter, 1990; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Smith, Jaffe-Gill, Segal, and Segal (2007) relate burnout in the workplace as "a factor of reducing one's productivity, taking away energy, leaving the individual feelings hopeless, powerless, cynical and resentful to the point of threatening one's employment and health".

Hardwick (2007) stated that there are several things that can be able to reduce burnout from developing: (1) supervisors need to be proactive in their support of

subordinates by treating each individual employee impartially and responding with positive feedback (2) employees need to develop a goal as to what they can accomplish and cannot accomplish in the work environment (3) every employee needs to develop a balanced life style between the work environment and home life, and (4) employees need to investigate in stress reducing methods to reduce or control their own level of stress.

Cherniss (1980b) stated that many of the causes of burnout and job stress can be barred if and when human resource departments within an organization initiate staff development programs. The organizations do not carry the full responsibility to resolve burnout or even intrude on preventive strategies. Patrick (1984) related the organization's role in the prevention and administration of burnout, which is defined as a two-way street, with half the burden going to the individual worker.

Previous researchers (e.g., Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) have suggested that two critical job conditions influence job strain outcomes (e.g., burnout and turnover intention): job demands (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload) and job resources (e.g., effective supervision, social support, job autonomy). The extant research studies have shown that both job demands and resources have unique main effects on workers' burnout and turnover intention (Houkes, Janssen, de Jonge, & Bakker, 2003; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Mor Barak et al., 2001; Söderfeldt, Söderfeldt, & Warg, 1995; Um & Harrison, 1998). Another group of studies has focused on understanding how job demands and job resources interact in explaining burnout or turnover intention (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Dollard, Winefield, Winefield, & de Jonge, 2000; Nissly, Mor Barak, & Levin, 2005; Posig & Kickul, 2003).

Reviews of the burnout literature (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) support the idea that burnout results from job demands such as role overload (Koeske & Koeske, 1989), role ambiguity, and role conflicts (Um & Harrison, 1998). Cordes and Dougherty (1993) explained that workers who perceive higher levels of role ambiguity are more likely to practice a sense of diminished personal accomplishment because it is difficult to develop strong feelings of worth when one feels unsure of what is expected of one's performance or when there is mismatch concerning performance feedback.

Burnout results in dysfunctional outcomes at the personal as well as at organizational levels. Previous research studies have found that burnout is associated with

increased levels of depression (Glass & McKnight, 1996), absenteeism (Parker & Kulik, 1995), sick-leave absences (Toppinen-Tanner et al., 2005), actual turnover (Drake & Yadama, 1996), turnover intention (Harrington, Bean, Pintello, & Mathews, 2001; Huang, Chuang, & Lin, 2003; Lee & Ashforth, 1996), impaired performance (Parker & Kulik, 1995; Wright & Bonett, 1997), and self-reported health problems (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) Longitudinal studies suggest that burnout among workers increases turnover rates.

Researchers have found evidence that job stress increases an individual's risk for cardiovascular disease (Belkic, Landsbergis, Schnall, & Baker, 2004; Melamed, Shirom, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2006; Shirom, Westman, Shamai, & Carel, 1997), metabolic syndrome (Chandola, Brunner, & Marmot, 2006), back and upper-extremity musculoskeletal disorders (Feuerstein & Theborge, 1991; Rugulies & Krause, 2005), sleep disorders (Ekstedt, Akerstedt, & Söderström, 2004; Jansson & Linton, 2006; Söderström, Ekstedt, Akerstedt, Nilsson, & Axelsson, 2004), and weakened immune function (Sauter, Hurrell, Murphy, & Levi, 1997).

Lambert and Lambert (2004) found significant positive correlation between the possibility of leaving the current job position and workplace stressors such as workload, conflict with supervisors, conflict with other co-workers, and lack of supervisory support as substantial factors causing burnout. The literature revealed that workers experiencing burnout have a sense of ineffectiveness and isolation. Understanding workplace factors that may contribute to workers' frustration, which can further assist in the understanding of the process of burnout, is inevitable for the effective functioning of organization (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Many studies on burnout tend to evaluate individual characteristics that either contribute to or are symptomatic of burnout, while minimizing organizational factors. By focusing on individual factors, burnout is characterized as a private concern, while an examination of the work environment structures the debate as a public concern.

Research has also given attention to the health considerations of burnout, given that burnout is considered a stress phenomenon (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). Burnout can be "contagious" and perpetuate itself through informal interactions on the job (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). There is also evidence that burnout has a negative "spillover" effect on people's home life (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). Health is always a consideration of burnout and can have some severe repercussions on the individual. The emotional

exhaustion component of burnout is more predictive of the stress related health consequences than the other two components of burnout (Burke & Greenglass, 2001).

Many researches have linked burnout to poor job satisfaction (Marinelli, 1992; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996; Razza, 1993; Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994), low organizational commitment (King & Sethi, 1997), intention to quit (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996), and attrition (Burke & Richardsen, 1996; Drake & Yadama, 1996). Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) state that the “social focus of burnout, the solid research basis concerning the syndrome, and its specific ties to the work domain make a distinct and valuable contribution to people’s health and well-being” (Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001, p. 397).

Laschinger et al. (2001) indicates that “burnout” is a phenomenon commonly associated with work environments at lower levels of autonomy, lack of control over work practices, non-existent collaborative working relationships and a lack of organizational trust. “Burnout” then appears to occur when the gap between an individual’s expectation as to how they might fulfill the responsibilities associated with their role and the existing organizational structure becomes too wide. Garland (2002) has explained “burnout” in terms of representing a deteriorating condition that originates from ill-managed stress.

Fogarty et al. (2000) emphasize that the “job burnout” construct is intended to capture the accumulative effect of multiple stressors. That is, each of the stressors may be manageable individually, but when occurring with other stressors in a person’s professional life and workplace, may overwhelm certain individuals.

Sources of job strain or burnout within the work environment includes such issues as an overwhelming case responsibility, client accountability, dealing with client conflict, poor staffing ratios, and a host of other shortcomings within the case management field. One assumption of the equity theory is that individuals estimate their relationship in terms of costs and rewards, comparing their inputs and outcomes to those of others (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989). According to Cropanzano & Folger, (1989), Family Case Managers as well as other professionals feel in a state of balance when their efforts towards their clients are proportional to the outcomes received. Inversely, when the relationship produces inputs and outcomes that are inequitable the Family Case Manager may feel a sense of distress and ultimately experience a sense of burnout.

The numbers of unsatisfied employees rose between 2000 and 2010. The recession of 2009 resulted in higher unemployment numbers, yet the majority of working employees experienced little pleasure in their jobs (Reisel et al., 2010). Frehill's (2010) job satisfaction survey, used to measure the happiness of employees, indicated unhappy workers spread evenly across all age and income brackets. The only exception was employees under age 25, who expressed even higher rates of dissatisfaction (Aversa, 2010; Mayo Clinic Staff, 2010; Reisel et al., 2010). Numerous unhappy employees can seriously disturb the profitability of an organization (Reisel et al., 2010). One area affected is productivity; another is the employee turnover rate.

Innstrand, Langballe, Espenes, Falkum, and Aasland (2008), considered burnout to be an affective reaction to prolonged exposure to stress at work in which various job demands may exceed the individual's adaptive resources (p. 1). Harvey (1990) considered stress and its management as important to successful change (p. 16), and that conflict and stress should not be avoided, but they should be managed intelligently (Selye, 1975), as cited in Harvey, 1990, p. 16). By acknowledging the significance of stress, as well as the fact that it is inevitable, people can better prepare themselves to manage it.

In work-to-family conflict research, the predictors of work interference in family and home life have implicated job stress (Demerouti, Bakker, & Bulters, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro, Torvatn, & Bayazit, 2004), **work overload** (Cardenas, Major, & Bernas, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, & Bulters, 2004; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003), **number and division of working hours** (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Moen & Yu, 2000), **control over work environment or decision latitude** (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), **lack of social support from colleagues** (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), **and presence of emotional demands** (Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005) as probable causes of burnout.

Table 2.4 Contemporary Research Avenues on Burnout (BO)

References	Findings
Shin, H., et al.(2013)	This study investigated the longitudinal relationships between burnout and depression among teachers. The results of the latent growth modeling analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between the initial status of burnout and the initial status of depression. Results also indicated a significant relationship between the change rate of burnout and the change rate of depression.
Volpone, S.D. et.al. (2013)	The study examined four job demands (i.e. variety, constraints, time spent on hobby, hobby/job similarity) as antecedents of the three dimensions of burnout (i.e. emotional exhaustion, cynicism, professional efficacy) and moderating effects of internal resources (i.e. conscientiousness, emotional stability) on these relationships. Findings suggest that individuals in the hobby-jobs are affected by job demands as in other jobs, but may also face unique demands
Byrne, M. et.al. (2013)	The paper assessed the levels of burnout experienced by accounting and finance academics in Ireland. Data was collected from 100 accounting and finance academics teaching in Irish third level institutions. Results reveal that the majority of accounting and finance academics experience low or average burnout with regard to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but encounter a high degree of burnout with regard to personal accomplishment
Sangganjanavanich, V.F. , Balkin, R.S. (2013)	The study investigated the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction among counselor educators. A total of 220 full-time counselor educators participated in this quantitative research study. Results revealed that the Emotional exhaustion is the most significant predictor of burnout among counselor educators.
Rumbles, S., Rees, G. (2013)	This paper explored the relationship between continuous change, organizational burnout and the role of the HR/HRD profession in facilitating activities that can support organizations in better

	managing the process. The survey findings suggested that despite having policies and procedures organizations communicate change badly; do very little to protect employee wellbeing and manage stress in times of change.
Moorthy, M.K et.al. (2013)	This research studied the causes of job stress (job ambiguity, job conflict, job overload and job instability) and the impact of job stress on job performance. Questionnaires collected from 383 bankers in Malaysia indicated that job ambiguity, job conflict, job overload and job instability have a positive relationship with job stress while job stress is negatively correlated to job performance
Rathi, N. , Bhatnagar, D., Mishra, S.K. (2013)	The research explored the relationship of emotional labor strategies (i.e., surface and deep acting) with emotional exhaustion, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among employees in the hospitality industry in India. Data were collected from 204 frontline hotel employees. The results demonstrated that surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions and negatively related to affective organizational commitment
Fernet, C. Austin, et.al. (2013)	This study aimed to explain relationships between job demands (role overload and ambiguity), job resources (job control and social support), and burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment). Participants were 356 school board employees. The results proposed that certain job demands and resources are involved in both the energetic and motivational processes-given their relationships with psychological resources-and that they distinctively predict burnout components.
Eunju Lee, et.al.(2013)	This study examined the processes of burnout. A sample of 179 home visitors was used. Results found significant direct effects of a positive organizational climate predicting lower levels of burnout as well as mediating effects of worker empowerment on burnout.
Madnawat, A.V.S. & Mehta, P (2012)	The study examined the relationship between burnout as measured by Maslach burnout inventory-general and the big five personality factors as measured by NEO-FFI of 170 managers. The findings

	revealed that neuroticism and extroversion are the most strong and consistent predictors of burnout.
Surana, S.J. , Singh, A.K (2012)	This paper examined the effect of job burnout on psychological outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention) and a behavioral outcome (job performance) among customer service representatives (CSRs) in call centers in India. A survey was conducted on 303 CSRs in call centres in India. The findings showed that there exists a significant relationship between job burnout and the given job outcomes.
Yagil, D (2012)	This study examined a model in which emotion regulation is associated with customer satisfaction and loyalty intentions as mediated by employee burnout and engagement. Data was collected from 135 employee-customer. The results showed that engagement fully mediates the relationship of deep acting, and burnout partially mediates the relationship of surface acting, with customer satisfaction and loyalty intentions
Babakus, E., Yavas, U (2012)	This study examined the role of service worker, customer orientation (CO) as a buffer against the detrimental effects of job burnout on job performance and turnover intentions. Results showed that CO moderates the detrimental effects of job burnout on both job performance and turnover intentions.

(Source: above mentioned respective research papers)

In this chapter, a historical overview and literature related to the problem was reviewed. Further, the literature was surveyed to help define the theoretical framework for this study. Journal articles were reviewed and discussed pertaining to the measurement of job design, work-life balance and burnout. As illustrated in the review of the literature, there is a strong relationship between work-life balance and the other factors discussed. The review also presents literature related to the job design and burnout. Techniques to measure job design, work-life balance, work-life conflict and burnout are examined in this chapter.

Based on the review of the literature, it is evident that a limited amount of recent empirical information is available regarding the impact of job design on work-life balance

and burnout. Theories, models and propositions of study variables have been illustrated keeping with the findings of the literature review. Gaps in the literature have shown that further research is needed to explore and explain the effects of job design on work-life balance and effects of job design on burnout. The literature is limited to studies that explain the effects of job design on work-life balance and burnout. Therefore, these gaps are the focus of this study.

Methodology

The previous section of the study discussed the premises of work-life balance (WLB) and burnout (BO) which is achieving expected outcomes as a consequence of job design (JD). Literature review has enabled us in identifying the dimensions of the study variables. Work-life balance (work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement) and BO (exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy) are studied as an outcome of JD (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback). The present study has exhibited a need to test the theoretical assumptions. The present chapter includes the research design, participants, data collection instruments, data analysis techniques and methodology used for the purpose of this study.

3.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The major objective of the study is to explore the effect of Job Design on work-life balance and burnout of employees, with the independent variable as: Job Design and dependent variables as: Work-life Balance and Burnout. The objectives of the present study are:

1. To understand the relationship of job design and work-life balance.
2. To understand the relationship between job design and burnout.
3. To study the impact of job design on work-life balance.
4. To study the impact of job design on burnout.
5. To examine the significant difference in the perception of job design on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status)
6. To examine the significant difference in the perception of work-life balance on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status)
7. To examine the significant difference in the perception of burnout on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status)
8. To understand the mediating role of work-life balance on the relationship of job design and burnout.

3.2 HYPOTHESES

The study has been initiated to verify the following hypotheses:

- H1.** There is a significant and positive relationship between job design and work-life balance.
 - H1a.** There is a significant and positive relationship between skill variety and the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H1b.** There is a significant and positive relationship between task identity and the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H1c.** There is a significant and positive relationship between task significance and the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H1d.** There is a significant and positive relationship between autonomy and the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H1e.** There is a significant and positive relationship between feedback and the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
- H2. There is a significant and negative relationship between job design and burnout.**
 - H2a.** There is a significant and negative relationship between skill variety and the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H2b.** There is a significant and negative relationship between task identity and the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H2c.** There is a significant and negative relationship between task significance and the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H2d.** There is a significant and negative relationship between autonomy and the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H2e.** There is a significant and negative relationship between feedback and dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
- H3. There is the significant impact of Job Design on Work Life Balance.**

- H3a.** There is the significant impact of skill variety on the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H3b.** There is the significant impact of task identity on the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H3c.** There is the significant impact of task significance on the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H3d.** There is the significant impact of autonomy on the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
 - H3e.** There is the significant impact of feedback on the dimensions of WLB (Work Interference with Personal Life, Personal Life interference with work and Work/Personal Life Enhancement).
- H4. There is the significant impact of Job Design on Burnout**
- H4a.** There is the significant impact of skill variety on the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H4b.** There is the significant impact of task identity on the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H4c.** There is the significant impact of task significance on the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H4d:** There is the significant impact of autonomy on the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
 - H4e:** There is the significant impact of feedback on the dimensions of Burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy).
- H5.** There is a significant difference in the perception of job design on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status).
- H5a.** There is a significant difference in the perception of job design on the basis of gender.
 - H5b.** There is a significant difference in the perception of job design on the basis of marital status.
- H6.** There is a significant difference in the perception of work-life balance on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status).

H6a. There is a significant difference in the perception of work-life balance on the basis of gender.

H6b. There is a significant difference in the perception of work-life balance on the basis of marital status.

H7. There is a significant difference in the perception of burnout on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status).

H7a. There is a significant difference in the perception of burnout on the basis of gender.

H7b. There is a significant difference in the perception of burnout on the basis of marital status.

H8. Work-life balance will mediate the relationship between job design and burnout.

3.3 SAMPLE AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The study has been initiated to evaluate and benchmark the positive work-related attitudes and perception of employees. Appropriately, the research design of this study is within-subject design with repeated measures in the form of questionnaires, given to each of the employees during meetings of the company. A total of 600 questionnaires were administered to potential participants. Out of distributed questionnaires, 385 were returned. After preliminary screening, a sample set of 350 participants was found suitable for further analysis. There is one independent variable in the study as: Job design and two dependent variables as: Work-life balance and Burnout of employees. The relationship and the effect of independent variable have been studied with/on the two dependent variables. A convenient and purposive sampling was used for the study.

The study has been conducted on a sample of 350 managerial employees. The participants were chosen as a purposive convenient sample. The descriptive statistics of the demographic variables were on the basis of employees' Experience, Education, Age, Gender, Marital Status and Type of family (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1
Frequency Table for Demographic Variables Taken in the study

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	245	70.0
Female	105	30.0
Total	350	100.0
<i>Experience</i>		
10-17 years	154	44.0
18-25 years	196	56.0
Total	350	100.0
<i>Education</i>		
Intermediate	55	27.0
Graduation	81	40.0
Above	64	32.0
Total	350	100.0
<i>Age</i>		
35-42 years	147	42.0
43-50 years	203	58.0
Total	350	100.0
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Married	252	72.0
Unmarried	98	28.0
Total	350	100.0
<i>Type of Family</i>		
Nuclear	168	48.0
Joint	182	52.0
Total	350	100.0

3.4 INSTRUMENTS AND SCORING

The data for the study has been collected by administering three measuring instruments. A brief description of each test has been given as under:

3.4.1 Personal Information Sheet

The personal information sheet included Name, Age, Gender, Marital Status, Educational Qualification, Work Experience and type of family of employees (**Appendix A**).

3.4.2 Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

Job Design has been measured by 23-items scale developed by Hackman J.R. and Oldham G.R (1976). This scale identifies five dimensions of Job Design as: **Skill variety** (comprised of five items, item number 2, 8, 11*, 14, 18*), **Task identity** (comprised of four items, item number 3, 7*, 16*, 22), **Task significance** (comprised of four items, item number 4, 13*, 20, 23), **Autonomy** (comprised of four items, item number 1, 9*, 17*, 21), **Feedback** (comprised of six items, item number 5, 6, 10, 12*, 15, 19*). Participants were asked to respond on a five point Likert-scale ranging from 1= very non descriptive to 5= very descriptive. The overall reliability co-efficient of the scale was found to be 0.88. Items in the scale which are marked with an asterisk (*) were reverse coded. Job diagnostic Survey has been shown in **Appendix B**.

Scoring

The scoring was accomplished as per the instructed scoring key in the manual. Scoring key is

Skill variety (SV) (items #2, 8, 11*, 14, 18*) = ___ /5 = ___

Task identity (TI) (items #3, 7*, 16*, 22) = ___ /4 = ___

Task significance (TS) (items #4, 13*, 20*, 23) = ___ /4 = ___

Autonomy (AU) (items #1, 9*, 17*, 21) = ___ /4 = ___

Feedback (FB) (items #5, 6, 10, 12*, 15, 19*) = ___ /6 = ___

(Note: For the items with asterisks, subtract your score from 6.)

Add the numbers for each characteristic and divide by the number of items to get an average score. Then MPS was calculated with the help of the following formula:

$$\text{Motivating Potential Score (MPS)} = \frac{\text{SV} + \text{TI} + \text{TS}}{3} \times \text{AU} \times \text{FB}$$

And MPS scores range from 1 to 125.

3.4.3 Work-life Balance Scale (WLBS)

Work-life balance has been measured by 24-items scale developed by Fisher, McAuley, Stanton, Jolton and Gavin (2003), which identifies the three dimensions of WLB as: **Work interference with personal life (WIPL)** (comprised of fifteen items, item number 1*, 3*, 7*, 8*, 9, 11*, 12*, 13, 15*, 18*, 19*, 21, 22*, 23*, 24*), **Personal Life interference with work (PLIW)** (comprised of five items, item number 2*, 4*, 5*, 16*, 17*); **Work/Personal life enhancement (WPLE)** (comprised of four items, item number 6, 10, 14, 20). Participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging 1= Not at all to 5=Almost all the time. Items in the scale which are marked with an asterisk (*) were reverse coded. WLBS has been shown in **Appendix C**.

Scoring

For the scoring of the work-life balance scale, a summative score was calculated of all the items which were scored on 5-point scale. A higher score indicates better level of work-life balance among employees.

3.4.4 Maslach Burnout Inventory

Burnout was measured by using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) developed by Maslach C., Jackson S., and Leiter M.P. (1997). The scale measures the degree of burnout which an employee experiences on the basis of three dimensions that define burnout. These dimensions are **Exhaustion** (comprised of five items, item number 1, 2, 3, 4, 6), **Cynicism** (comprised of five items, item number 8, 9, 13, 14, 15) and **Professional Efficacy** (comprised of six items, item number 5*, 7*, 10*, 11*, 12*, 16*). Each dimension is measured on the basis of 16-item scale and the score ranges from 0=Never to 6= Every day. Items in the scale which are marked with an asterisk (*) were reverse coded. MBI has been shown in **Appendix D**.

Scoring

Scoring the MBI-GS involves computing the average rating on the 0 to 6 frequency rating across the items within each of the three sub-scales.

3.5 ADMINISTRATION

A recommendation letter was drafted and sent to the heads of the companies and consent was taken for data collection for the fulfillment of the requirement of the study. The data were collected personally by the researcher.

While administering the tests, good rapport was established with the respondents to get their maximum cooperation and to have better responses out of them. The respondents were taken into confidence with the assurance given to them that the purpose of data collection is solely experimental and carries no personal interest and was also assured that the responses would be kept confidential. Though there was no time limit to finish the questionnaire, but the respondents took approximately 25-30 minutes to finish all the three questionnaires. The instructions and administration procedures were same for all the respondents and well in accordance with that described by the test authors. The tests were administered in the same sequence to all the respondents.

3.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The obtained data were subjected to a number of statistical analyses pertinent to the research objectives of the study as Pearson's Product Moment Method, Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis and independent sample t-test. Before that, skewness and kurtosis scores were calculated to measure the normality and the obtained skewness and kurtosis coefficient lies within the accepted range of ± 1 standard deviation. In addition, to examine the factor structure of the measures taken up in the study, scales were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Kaiser's Varimax Rotation. Furthermore, bootstrapping approach using SEM was employed to study job design and burnout as independent and dependent variable respectively, whereas work-life balance was taken as mediator variable. To sum up, the analyses have been conducted using **SPSS® 17.0** versions for Principal Component Analysis, Pearson's correlation, Stepwise Regression Analysis and independent sample t-test and **AMOS® 20** was employed for mediating effect.

3.6.1. Factor Structures of the Measures

Table 2 represents 16X16 inter-correlation matrix, which demonstrates correlation of the dimensions of Job design (JD) with the dimensions of Work-life Balance (WLB) and of Burnout (BO). The scales of JD, WLB, and BO were further subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with recommendation of Kaiser's Varimax Rotation Method.

Table 3.2: Intercorrelation Matrix

	SV	TI	TS	AU	FB	WIPL	PLIW	WPLE	EX	CY	PE
SV	1										
TI	.06	1									
TS	.15**	.33**	1								
AU	.11*	.41**	.61**	1							
FB	.25**	.13*	.47**	.40**	1						
WIPL	-.06	.30*	.51*	.59**	.20*	1					
PLIW	.06	.29**	.40**	.43*	.11*	.62**	1				
WPLE	.05	.22**	.33**	.40**	.32*	.37**	.25**	1			
EX	.04	-.12*	-.30**	-.33**	-.09	-.58**	-.38**	-.21**	1		
CY	-.02	-.33**	-.52**	-.55**	-.23**	-.76**	-.62**	-.38**	.59**	1	
PE	-.19**	-.29*	-.45**	-.45*	-.38**	-.40**	-.40**	-.49**	.17**	.47**	1

*Note: SV- Skill variety; TI-Task identity; TS;-Task significance, AU-Autonomy, FB-Feedback; WIPL-Work interference with personal life; PLIW- Personal Life interference with work; WPLE- Work/personal life enhancement; , EX- Exhaustion, CY- Cynicism, PE- Personal efficacy.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level*; Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.*

3.6.2 The KMO and Bartlett's Test

“The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of a sampling adequacy varies between 0 and 1, and values closer to 1 are considered better. A value of 0.6 is a suggested minimum. KMO measure of the job design scale was found to be 0.779. At the end of the Bartlett test, $\chi^2 (253) = 2742.52$ with $p < 0.001$ was found. For Work-life balance scale, KMO measure was 0.841 and at the end of the Bartlett test, $\chi^2 (276) = 3488.53$ with $p < 0.001$ was found. And lastly for Burnout, KMO measure was 0.845 and at the end of the Bartlett test, $\chi^2 (120) = 2676.32$ with $p < 0.001$ was found. The KMO coefficient value is greater than 0.6 and the Bartlett test χ^2 value is statistically reliable, so the cluster of data is adequate for factor analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 3.3
KMO and Bartlett's Test

		Job Design	Work-life Balance	Burnout
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.779	.841	.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2742.52	3488.53	2676.32
	Df	253	276	120
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000

Table 3.3 presents that all three variables used in the study show very high values for the KMO measure and significant values for Bartlett's test, thus meeting the initial requirement for factor analysis.

JOB DESIGN

Job Diagnostic Survey was subjected to factor analysis and out of 23 items, 20 items were extracted up to eigen values greater than 1.00 and which were having the factor loading above 0.50. Therefore, total 20 items were included in the study to assess the perception of job design of employees. The scale accounted for 54.43 percent of the variance and the communalities ranged from .40 to .70. The unrotated and rotated factor solutions are presented in **Table 3.4a** and **Table 3.4b** respectively.

**Table 3.4a: Job Design Scale
Unrotated Component Matrix**

	Component					h2
	1	2	3	4	5	
Skill Variety 1	.591					.66
Skill Variety 2	.309*					.32
Skill Variety 3	.666					.55
Skill Variety 4		.475*				.44
Skill Variety 5	.682					.59
Task Identity 1		.480*				.56
Task Identity 2					.472*	.46
Task Identity 3	.652					.52
Task Identity 4					.583	.60
Task significance 1		.496*				.56
Task significance 2	.574					.42
Task significance 3	.508					.45
Task significance 4		.364*				.50
Autonomy 1				.598		.70
Autonomy 2	.689					.54
Autonomy 3	.696					.61
Autonomy 4		.525				.68
Feedback 1		.510				.49
Feedback 2		.584				.62
Feedback 3	.645					.59
Feedback 4	.384					.40
Feedback 5		.471*				.54
Feedback 6	.705					.62
Eigen Values	5.59	2.77	1.63	1.33	1.17	
Percentage of Variance	24.30	12.07	7.11	5.82	5.11	54.41

**Table 3.4b: Job Design Scale
Rotated Component Matrix**

	Component					h2
	1	2	3	4	5	
Skill Variety 1		.591				.66
Skill Variety 2		.541				.32
Skill Variety 3	.716					.56
Skill Variety 4		.588				.44
Skill Variety 5	.666					.59
Task Identity 1					.679	.56
Task Identity 2				.638		.46
Task Identity 3	.516					.52
Task Identity 4			.708			.60
Task significance 1				.491*		.56
Task significance 2	.583					.42
Task significance 3	.646					.45
Task significance 4			.478*			.50
Autonomy 1					.813	.70
Autonomy 2	.592					.54
Autonomy 3	.709					.61
Autonomy 4			.801			.68
Feedback 1				.569		.49
Feedback 2		.687				.62
Feedback 3		.678				.59
Feedback 4	.442*					.40
Feedback 5			.583			.54
Feedback 6		.637				.62
Eigen Values	3.84	2.91	2.06	1.94	1.76	
Percentage of variance	16.70	12.65	8.96	8.43	7.67	54.41

Items marked with the symbol () have factor loadings less than 0.50 and have been excluded from study further*

WORK LIFE BALANCE

Similarly, for factor analysis of Work-life balance, the three dimensions were analyzed on the basis of Principal Component Analysis, with the recommendation of Kaiser's Varimax Rotation. Out of 24 items, 19 items were extracted from the scale with the factor loading was less than .50. The scale accounted for 45.79 percent of the variance and the communalities ranged from .11 to .65. The unrotated and rotated factor solutions are presented in **Table 3.5a** and **Table 3.5b** respectively.

**Table 3.5a: Work Life Balance Scale
Unrotated Component Matrix**

	Component			
	1	2	3	h2
Work Interference with Personal Life 1	.484			.56
Work Interference with Personal Life 2			.479	.51
Work Interference with Personal Life 3	.491			.42
Work Interference with Personal Life 4	.729			.54
Work Interference with Personal Life 5		.439		.43
Work Interference with Personal Life 6	.632			.40
Work Interference with Personal Life 7	.665			.46
Work Interference with Personal Life 8		.559		.53
Work Interference with Personal Life 9	.622			.48
Work Interference with Personal Life 10	.597			.61
Work Interference with Personal Life 11	.605			.54
Work Interference with Personal Life 12	.580			.46
Work Interference with Personal Life 13	.622			.42
Work Interference with Personal Life 14	.618			.47
Work Interference with Personal Life 15	.725			.59
Personal Life Interference with Work 1	.698			.62
Personal Life Interference with Work 2	.610			.39
Personal Life Interference with Work 3	.571			.36
Personal Life Interference with Work 4		.374		.27
Personal Life Interference with Work 5	.606			.40
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 1			.280	.11
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 2		.436		.31
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 3		.660		.65
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 4	.426			.35
Eigen Values	7.25	2.14	1.59	
Percentage of variance	30.22	8.92	6.65	45.79

**Table 3.5b: Work Life Balance Scale
Rotated Component Matrix**

	Component			
	1	2	3	h2
Work Interference with Personal Life 1		.750		.56
Work Interference with Personal Life 2		.716		.51
Work Interference with Personal Life 3		.612		.42
Work Interference with Personal Life 4		.537		.54
Work Interference with Personal Life 5			.610	.43
Work Interference with Personal Life 6	.419*			.40
Work Interference with Personal Life 7	.519			.46
Work Interference with Personal Life 8			.713	.53
Work Interference with Personal Life 9		.603		.48
Work Interference with Personal Life 10	.730			.61
Work Interference with Personal Life 11	.697			.54
Work Interference with Personal Life 12			.587	.46
Work Interference with Personal Life 13	.494*			.42
Work Interference with Personal Life 14	.599			.47
Work Interference with Personal Life 15	.660			.59
Personal Life Interference with Work 1		.717		.62
Personal Life Interference with Work 2		.494*		.39
Personal Life Interference with Work 3	.508			.36
Personal Life Interference with Work 4	.424*			.27
Personal Life Interference with Work 5	.524			.40
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 1	.290*			.11
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 2			.555	.31
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 3			.782	.65
Work/Personal Life Enhancement 4			.569	.35
Eigen Values	3.93	3.81	3.23	
Percentage of Variance	16.41	15.91	13.47	45.79

Note: Items marked with the symbol () have factor loadings less than 0.50 and have been excluded from further analyses.*

BURNOUT

Furthermore, for Burnout (BO), Principal component analysis was worked out to exclude the items from the study which were having factor loadings for less than .50. As aforementioned, the Burnout scale is divided into three dimensions, and on the basis of factor analysis and all 16 items were extracted for further analysis. The communalities ranged from .42 to .75 and contributed to 60.19 percent of total variance. The unrotated and rotated factor solutions are reported in **Table 3.6a** and **Table 3.6b** respectively.

**Table 3.6a: Burnout Scale
Unrotated Component Matrix**

	Component			
	1	2	3	h2
Exhaustion 1		.595		.67
Exhaustion 2	.637			.75
Exhaustion 3	.674			.64
Exhaustion 4	.591			.59
Exhaustion 5	.811			.67
Cynicism 1	.762			.63
Cynicism 2	.693			.51
Cynicism 3	.568			.45
Cynicism 4	.691			.48
Cynicism 5	.729			.66
Professional Efficacy 1		.626		.59
Professional Efficacy 2		.516		.57
Professional Efficacy 3		.557		.58
Professional Efficacy 4			.673	.71
Professional Efficacy 5			.611	.63
Professional Efficacy 6			.494	.42
Eigen Values	5.57	2.77	1.28	
Percentage of Variance	34.81	17.32	8.05	60.18

**Table 3.6b: Burnout Scale
Rotated Component Matrix**

	Component			
	1	2	3	h2
Exhaustion 1	.815			.67
Exhaustion 2	.865			.75
Exhaustion 3	.790			.64
Exhaustion 4	.771			.59
Exhaustion 5	.677			.67
Cynicism 1		.655		.63
Cynicism 2		.568		.51
Cynicism 3	.666			.45
Cynicism 4	.511			.48
Cynicism 5		.726		.66
Professional Efficacy 1		.729		.59
Professional Efficacy 2		.745		.57
Professional Efficacy 3		.579		.58
Professional Efficacy 4			.837	.71
Professional Efficacy 5			.784	.63
Professional Efficacy 6		.604		.42
Eigen Values	4.26	3.50	1.85	
Percentage of Variance	26.68	21.89	11.61	60.18

Note: Items marked with the symbol () have factor loadings less than 0.50 and have been excluded from further analyses.*

The **Table 3.7** represents the reliability of the scales after the execution of factor analysis with the Kaiser's Varimax Rotation.

Table 3.7
Reliability Coefficient of the Scales with Their Respective Dimensions

Variables	Reliability(α)
<i>Job Design Total</i>	.87
<i>Dimensions of Job design</i>	
1.Skill Variety	.88
2.Task Identity	.79
3.Task Significance	.78
4.Autonomy	.81
5.Feedback	.82
<i>Work-life Balance Total</i>	.70
<i>Dimensions of WLB</i>	
1. Work interference with personal life	.87
2. Personal life interference with work	.72
3. Work/Personal life enhancement	.74
<i>Burnout Total</i>	.72
<i>Dimensions of Burnout</i>	
1.Exhaustion	.87
2.Cynicism	.81
3.Professional Efficacy	.73

Following the above factor analysis, the hypotheses were tested on the basis of the statistical techniques as: Pearson's Correlation, Stepwise Regression Analysis, and independent sample t-test and mediation analysis.

Results and Discussion

The present research has been proposed to explore the relationship between job design, work-life balance and burnout, and also to investigate the impact of job design on work-life balance and burnout of employees. The study also examined the role of demographic variables (gender and marital status) on these variables. Besides this, the study has also identified the specific dimensions of job design that are important predictors of work-life balance (work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement) and burnout (exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy) of employees. This chapter discusses the results in relation to the previous researches.

4.1 PRELIMINARY SCREENING OF DATA

Firstly, as the preliminary screening of data, the normality (i.e. skewness and kurtosis) was checked. Table 4.1 shows the calculated coefficient for normality. The results revealed that two variables (JD and BO) are positively skewed and WLB is negatively skewed. However, these coefficients were within one standard deviation of the mean and were determined not to be a significant threat to normality.

Table 4.1 Normality Coefficient

N-350 Scale	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
JD	0.206	0.130	-0.632	0.260
WLB	-0.013	0.130	-0.736	0.260
BO	0.338	0.130	-0.876	0.260

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VARIABLES

Descriptive statistics regarding the variables examined in the study are reported in **Table 4.2**, including means and standard deviation. β

Table 4.2
Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Sum	Mean	SEm	SD
Dimensions of Job Design				
Skill Variety	1151	3.29	.030	.569
Task Identity	1198	3.42	.032	.605
Task Significance	1287	3.68	.039	.725
Autonomy	1317	3.76	.039	.724
Feedback	1184	3.38	.027	.507
Dimensions of Work-life Balance				
Work Interference with personal life	18625	53.21	.569	10.637
Personal life Interference with Work	6490	18.54	.223	4.166
Work/ Personal life Enhancement	5148	14.71	.151	2.825
Dimensions of Burnout				
Exhaustion	2520	7.20	.331	6.201
Cynicism	3445	9.84	.366	6.852
Professional Efficacy	3136	8.96	.329	6.157

4.3 CORRELATIONS

Correlation matrix indicates the relationship of job design as a single independent variable with work-life balance and burnout as dependent variables. **Table 4.3** represents a significant, high and positive relationship between job design (JD) and work-life balance (WLB) (on over-all basis) with the calculated $r=0.64$ (significant at.01 level). Similarly, the significant and negative relationship has been found between job design (JD) and burnout (BO) (on over-all basis) with the calculated correlation value as -0.66 (significant at.01 level) and can be stated that hypothesis H1 & H2 have been retained at 0.01 level. The correlation between the dimensions of job design and dimensions of work-life balance and burnout has been discussed separately in a more detailed fashion in **Table 4.4** and **4.5**, under the pertinent headings.

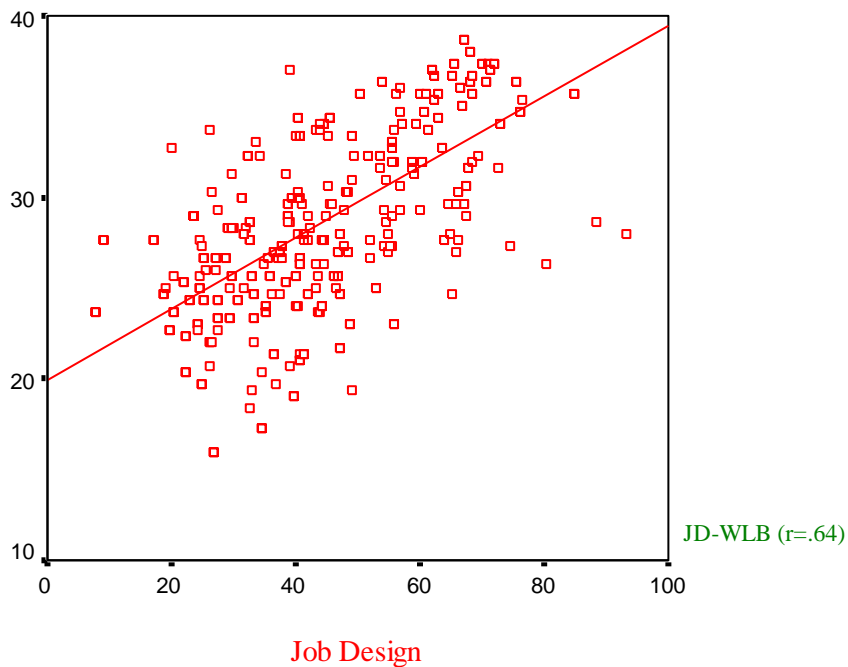
Table 4.3

**Pearson Correlation between Job Design,
Work-life Balance and Burnout of Employees on Over-all Basis**

Variables	WLB	BO
JD	.64**	-.65**

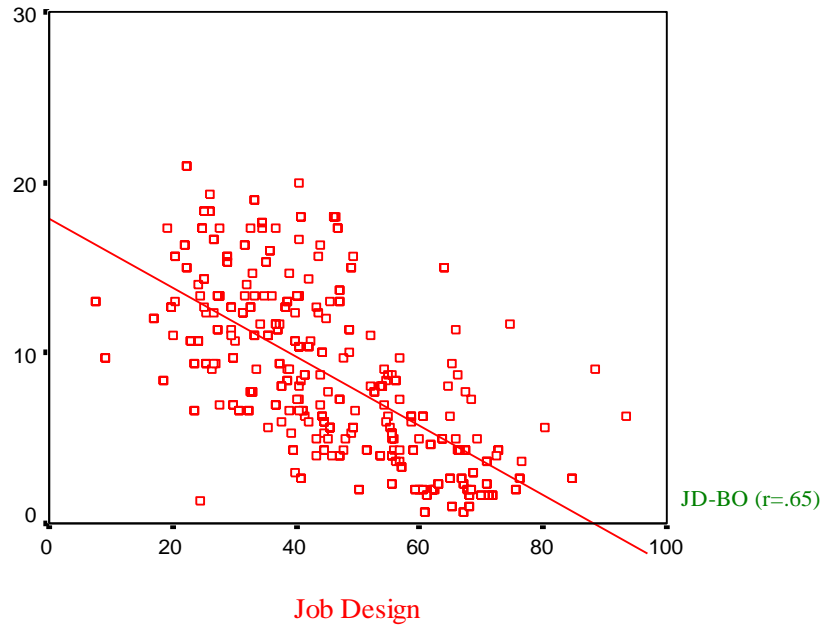
* *Significant at .01 level.

JD-Job Design, WLB-Work-life Balance, BO-Burnout



Graph Showing the Relationship between JD-WLB

Figure 4.1



Graph Showing the relationship between JD-BO

Figure 4.2

H1: There is a significant relationship between dimensions of job design and dimensions of work-life balance of employees.

A perusal of correlations shown in **Table 4.4** reveals that all the dimensions of job design as: Skill variety, Task identity, Task significance, Autonomy and Feedback correlate positively with the dimensions of work-life balance. There is an insignificant correlation of skill variety (SV) with work interference with personal life (WIPL), personal life interference with work (PLIW) and work/personal life enhancement (WPLE) with the calculated correlation value as: $-.08$, $.06$ and $.06$, respectively.

Table 4.4
Pearson Correlation between Dimensions of Job Design and Dimensions of Work-life Balance

WLB/JD	SV	TI	TS	AU	FB
WIPL	$-.08$	$.34^{**}$	$.53^{**}$	$.62^{**}$	$.27^{**}$
PLIW	$.06$	$.32^{**}$	$.44^{**}$	$.47^{**}$	$.15^{**}$
WPLE	$.06$	$.24^{**}$	$.35^{**}$	$.44^{**}$	$.37^{**}$

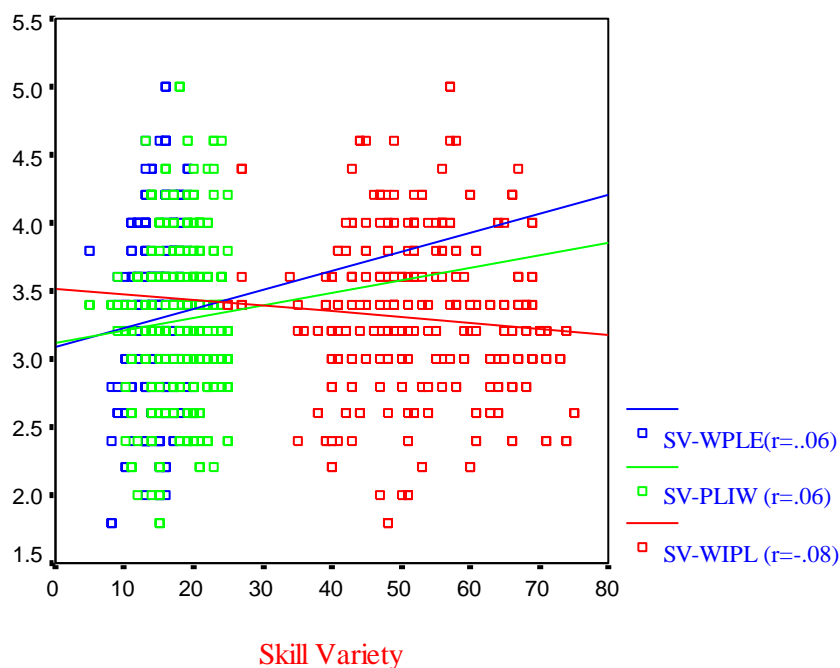
***Significant at .01 level, * Significant at .05 level.*

JD-Job design, WLB-Work-life balance, SV-Skill Variety, TI- Task identity, TS- Task significance, AU- Autonomy, FB- Feedback, WIPL, Work interference with personal life, PLIW- Personal life interference with work, WPLE- Work/Personal life Enhancement.

Another dimension of job design, that is, task identity (TI) has been found to be correlated with the dimensions of work-life balance as shown in **Table 4.4**, and has been found that task identity is significantly correlated with work-life balance, with the calculated correlation values as: .34, .32 and .24 respectively, for WIPL, PLIW & WPLE (significant at 0.01 level).

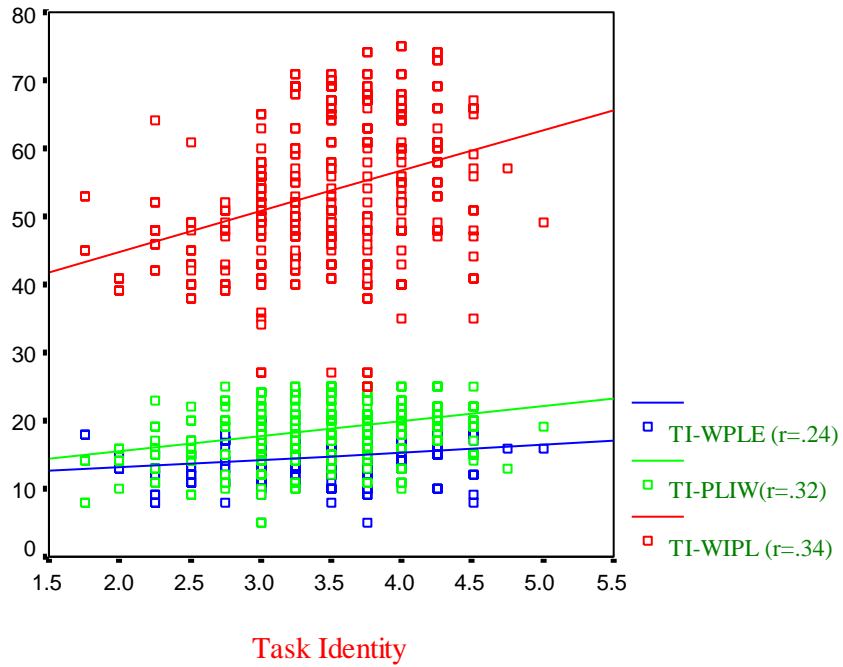
Table 4.4 reveals correlation of task significance (TS) with the dimensions of work-life balance and has been found that all the dimensions of work-life balance correlates significantly with work-life balance, with the correlation values as: .53, .44 and .35 (sig.at .01 level).

Another dimension of job design, that is, autonomy (AU) has been found to be correlated with the dimensions of work-life balance as shown in **Table 4.4**, and has been found that autonomy is significantly correlated with work-life balance, with the calculated correlation values as: .62, .47 and .44 respectively, for WIPL, PLIW & WPLE (significant at 0.01 level).The relationships between the dimensions of job design and the dimensions of work-life balance have been presented through the graph (Figure 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11).

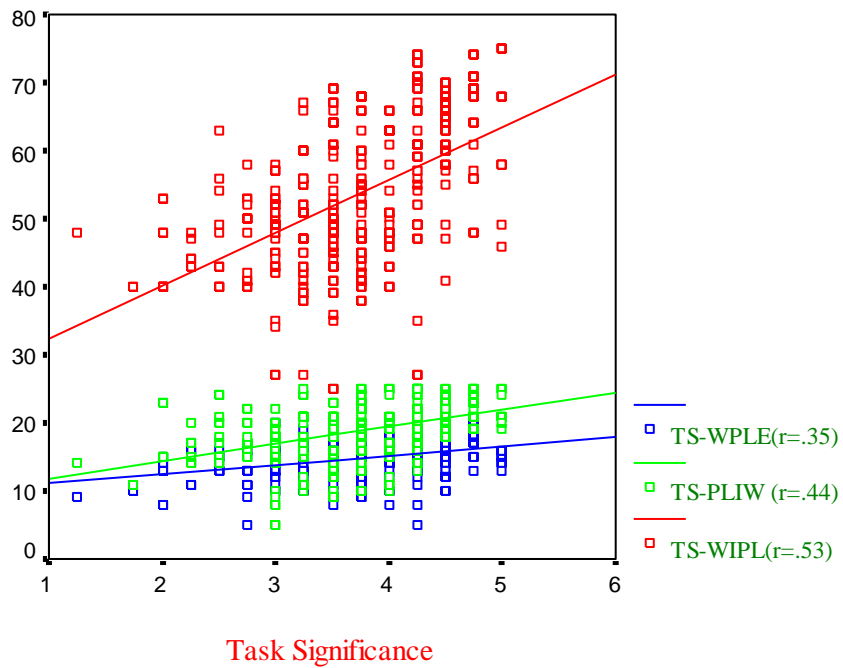


Graph Showing the relationship between SV- Dimensions of WLB

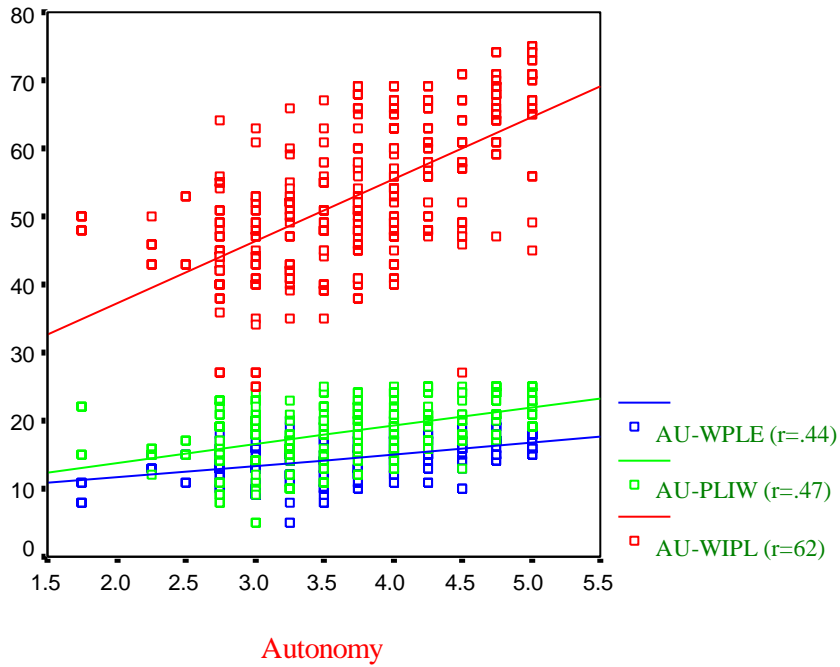
Figure 4.3



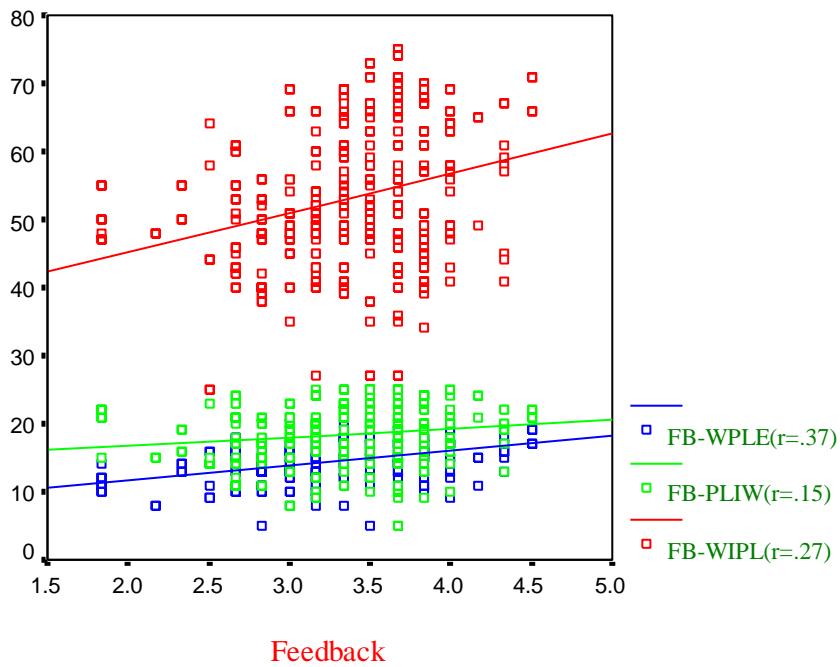
Graph showing the relationship between TI-Dimensions of WLB
 Figure 4.4



Graph showing the relationship between TS-Dimensions of WLB
 Figure 4.5



Graph showing the Relationship between AU-Dimensions of WLB
Figure 4.6



Graph showing the Relationship between FB-Dimensions of WLB
Figure 4.7

Lastly, **Table 4.4** reveals correlation of feedback (FB) with the dimensions of work-life balance and has been found that WIPL, PLIW & WPLE correlate although

moderately but significantly with feedback, with the correlation values as: .27, .15 and .37 (sig.at .01 level).

We can say that **hypotheses 1 a, b, c, d and e** have been retained at .01 level, although weak correlation has been found between some dimensions of job design and dimensions of work-life balance.

H2: There is a significantly negative relationship between dimensions of job design and burnout of employees.

A careful examination of the correlation matrix (**Table 4.5**) reveals that all the dimensions of job design as: Skill variety, Task identity, Task significance, Autonomy and Feedback correlate significantly with the dimensions of burnout as: Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. It may be noted that skill variety has negative correlation with professional efficacy ($r = -.22$) (sig.at .01 level), and low correlations have been found for exhaustion and cynicism, with r values as: .04, and $-.02$ respectively.

Table 4.5
Pearson Correlation between Dimensions of Job Design and Dimensions of Burnout

BO/JD	SV	TI	TS	AU	FB
EX	.04	-.17**	-.32**	-.37**	-.11*
CY	-.02	-.35**	-.55**	-.62**	-.27**
PE	-.22**	-.35**	-.47**	-.50**	-.41**

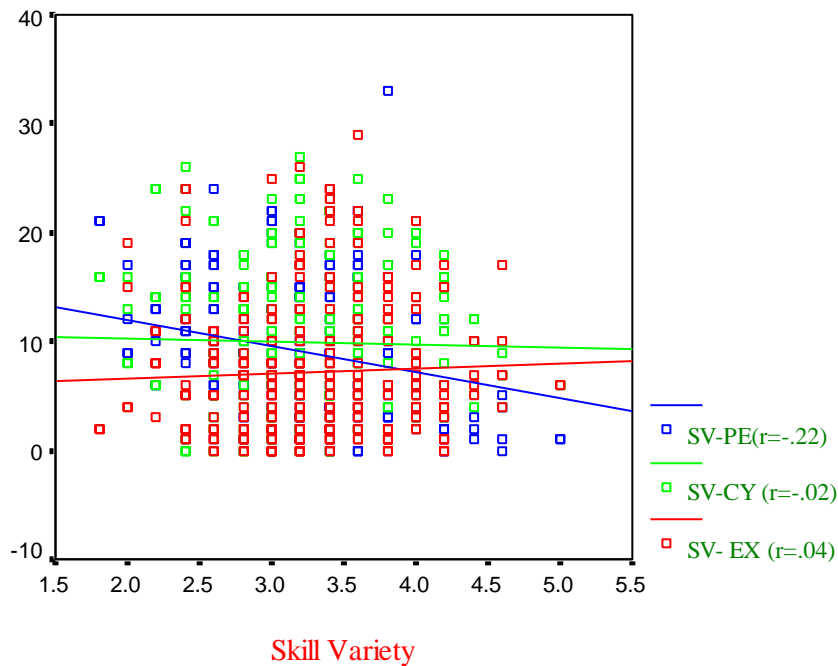
* *Significant at .01 level. SV-Skill Variety, TI- Task identity, TS- Task significance, AU- Autonomy, FB- Feedback, Ex-Exhaustion, CY- Cynicism, PE-Professional efficacy

Task identity has yielded significant relationship with the dimensions of burnout. The correlation with exhaustion with r value = $-.17$ (sig. at .01 level), followed by cynicism and professional efficacy with calculated $r = .35$ for both (sig. at .01 level).

Task Significance (TS) was also found to be significantly correlated with exhaustion ($r = -.32$, significant at .01 level). The correlation values for cynicism and professional efficacy are $-.32$, $-.55$, and $-.47$ (sig at .01 level) respectively.

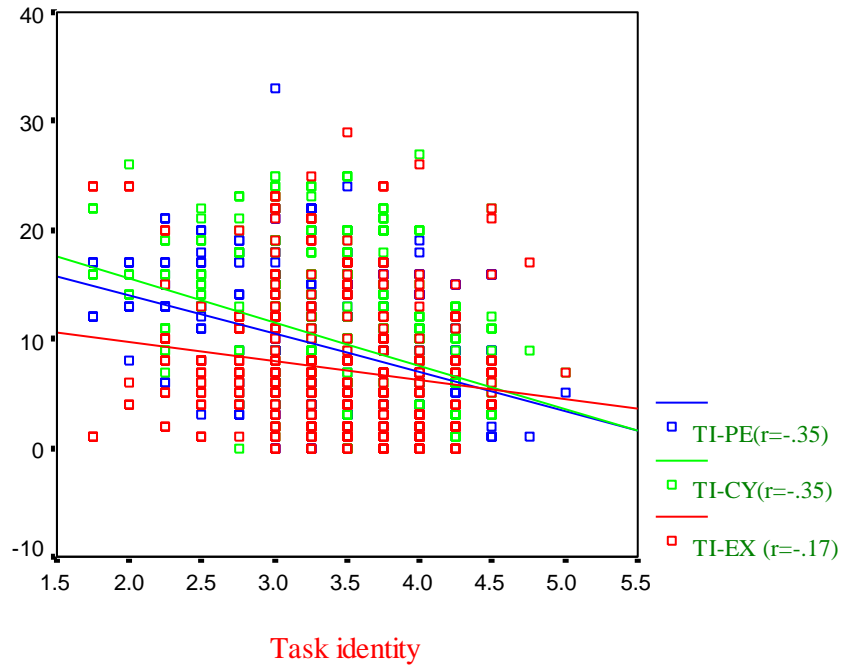
Autonomy (AU) yielded negative and significant relationship with the dimensions of burnout, as the correlation is highest with cynicism as $r = -.62$ (sig. at .01 level). Followed by exhaustion ($r = -.37$, sig. at .01 level) and professional efficacy as $r = -.50$ (sig. at .01 level).

And last, in discussion with reference to Feedback (FB), this dimension is also significantly correlated with the dimensions of burnout. Feedback is highly correlated with professional efficacy, with the calculated $r = -.41$ (sig. at .01 level). The correlation is significant with exhaustion ($r = -.11$, $p < .05$) and cynicism, with $r = -.27$ ($p < .01$). Thus, the results clearly suggest that job design plays an important role in determining the level of burnout of employees. The relationship between the dimensions of job design and the dimensions of burnout has been also presented through the graphs (Figure 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18).

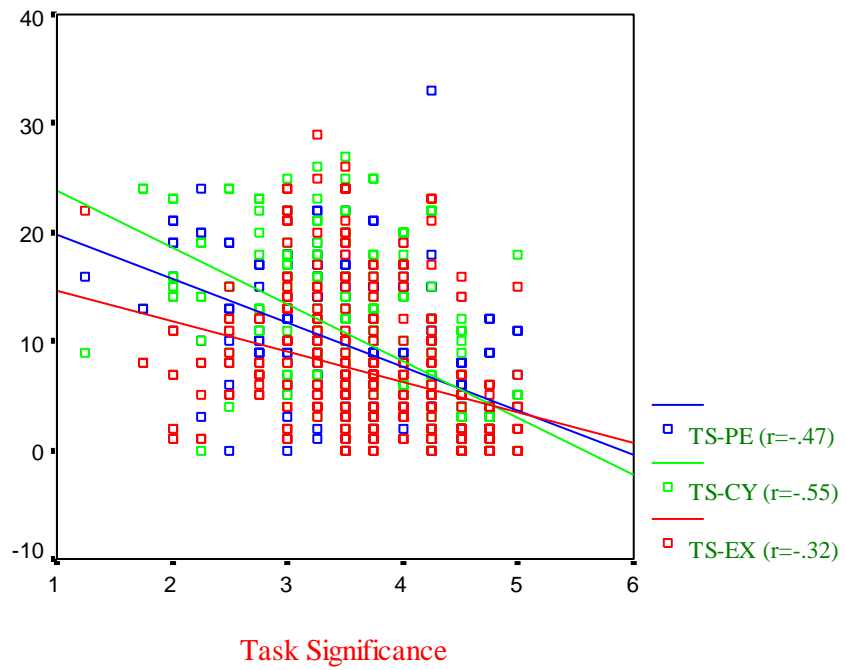


Graph showing the Relationship between SV-Dimensions of BO

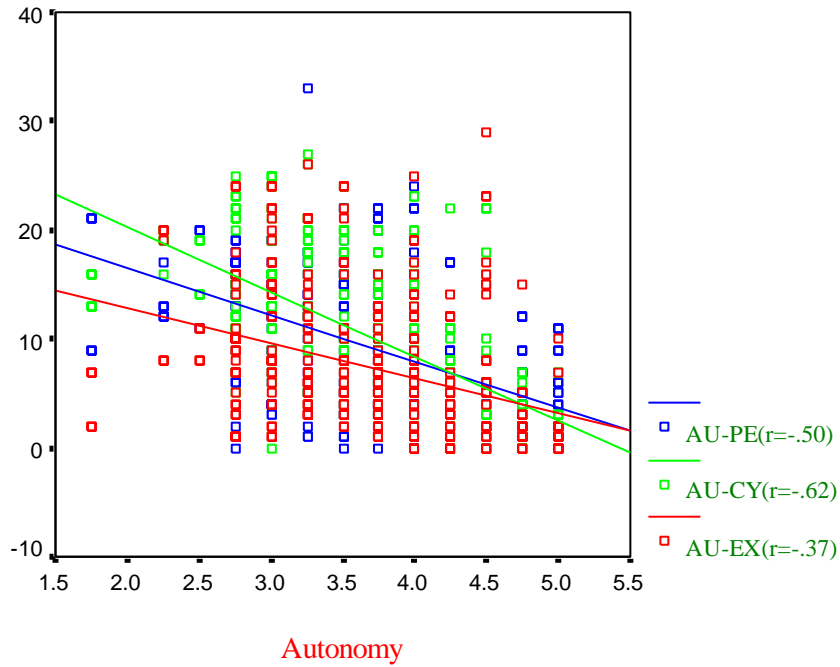
Figure 4.8



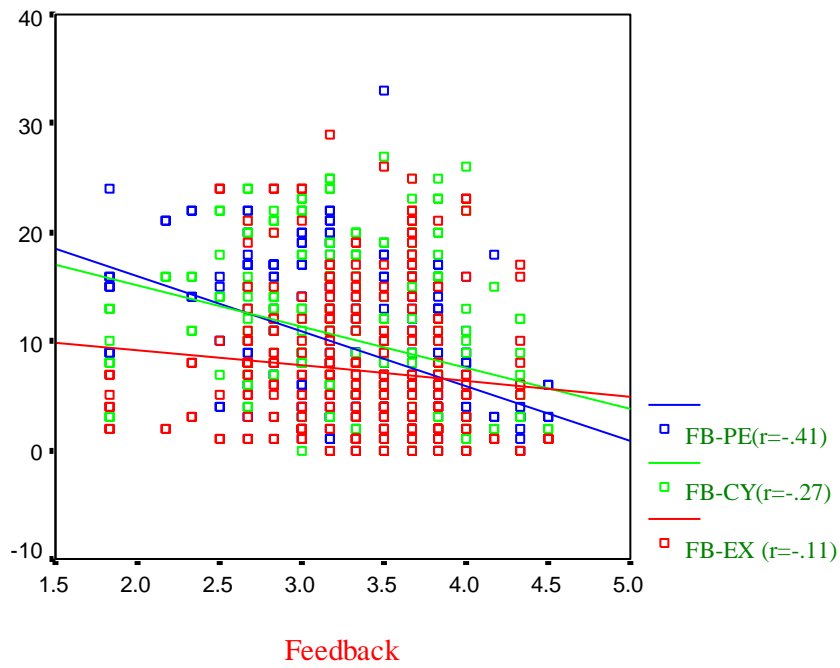
Graph showing the Relationship between TI-Dimensions of BO
Figure 4.9



Graph showing the Relationship between TS-Dimensions of BO
Figure 4.10



Graph showing the Relationship between AU-Dimensions of BO
Figure 4.11



Graph showing the Relationship between FB-Dimensions of BO
Figure 4.12

We can say that **hypotheses 2 a, b, c, d and e** have been accepted at .01 level, while attaining significant and negative correlation between dimensions of job design and dimensions of burnout.

H3: Job Design will significantly predict work-life balance of employees.

In order to examine the extent to which weighted combination of various variables included in the study predicts work-life balance of employees, stepwise regression analysis was conducted on the observed data. Although the bivariate correlation has dealt with the degree of relationship between all the measures, but it cannot be interpreted directly as an index of the extent to which scores on work-life balance and burnout are influenced by other variable, that is, job design. Therefore, multiple regression analysis has been worked out by using the stepwise method. On an over-all basis, job design predicted work-life balance with calculated R as .64 (F=244.34, p<.01, β = .64), and explained 41% of variance in predicting work-life balance. While, job design predicted burnout with the multiple R as .66 (F= 267.69, p<.01, β = .66) and explained 44% of variance in predicting burnout (**Table 4.6**).

Table 4.6
Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Work-life Balance and Burnout,
with the Independent Variable as JD and Dependent Variable as WLB& BO, on
Over-all Basis

Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	SEm	F-value	DF	B
D.V:WLB I.V : JD	.64	.41	.38	3.82	244.34**	1, 348	.64
D.V:BO I.V : JD	.66	.44	.45	3.78	267.69**	1, 348	.66

** Significant at .01 level. JD- Job Design, WLB-Work-life balance, BO-Burnout

The results of stepwise regression analysis are shown in **Table 4.7**, and has been used for the prediction of work-life balance of employees, with independent variable as job design (JD). The five dimensions of job design as skill variety (SV), task identity (TI), task significance (TS), autonomy (AU) and feedback (FB) were entered for the multiple regression equation and was found that AU has predicted Work interference with personal life (WIPL) with the calculated R as .62 (F= 218.14, p>.01, β = .62, R²=.39); AU and TS jointly with multiple R as .65 (F= 126.39, p<.01, β =.24, R²=.42); AU, TS and SV with multiple R as .67 (F= 95.09, p<.01, β =-.18, R² =.45) and jointly accounted for 45% of variance in the prediction of Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictor of WIPL with the calculated β value as .62.

Personal life interference with work (PLIW) has been predicted by autonomy (AU) with the calculated R as .48 (F= 102.57, p>.01, β = .48, R^2 =.23); AU and TS jointly with multiple R as .52 (F= 62.64, p<.01, β =.25, R^2 =.27); AU, TS and TI with multiple R as .53 (F= 44.49, p<.01, β =.13, R^2 =.27); AU, TS, TI and FB jointly with multiple R as .54 (F= 35.12, p<.01, β =-.12, R^2 =.28); and jointly accounted for 28% of variance in the prediction of Personal life interference with work(PLIW). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictor of PLIW with the calculated B value as .48.

Lastly, Work/Personal life Enhancement (WPLE) has been predicted by autonomy with the calculated R as .45(F= 87.40, p>.01, β = .45, R^2 =.20); AU and FB jointly with multiple R as .50 (F= 57.32, p<.01, β =.24, R^2 =.25) jointly accounted for 25% of variance in the prediction of Work/Personal life Enhancement (WPLE). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictor of WPLE with the calculated B value as .45.

On the basis of the interpretation of the result **table 4.7**, autonomy proved to be the potential predictor of work-life balance of employees, it can be said that **hypotheses 3 a, b, c, d and e** has been retained at .01 level while predicting work-life balance of employees on the basis of perception of job design within organizations.

Table 4.7
Stepwise Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Work-life Balance, with the Independent Variable as JD and Dependent Variable as WLB

Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	S.E.m	F-value	df	Beta
DV:WIPL AU	.62	.39	.38	8.35	218.14**	1,348	.62
AU, TS	.65	.42	.42	8.11	126.39**	1,347	.47, .24
AU, TS, SV	.67	.45	.45	7.91	95.09**	1,346	.48, .26, -.18
DV:PLIW AU	.48	.23	.23	3.67	102.57**	1,348	.48
AU, TS	.52	.27	.26	3.58	62.64**	1,347	.33, .25
AU, TS, TI	.53	.27	.27	3.56	44.49**	1,346	.28, .23, .13
AU, TS, TI, FB	.54	.28	.28	3.53	35.12**	1,345	.31, .28, .12, -.12
DV:WPLE AU	.45	.20	.20	2.53	87.40**	1,348	.45
AU, FB	.50	.25	.24	2.46	57.32**	1,347	.35, .24

Note: ** significant at p<.01 level

JD- Job design, WLB-Work-life balance, SV-Skill Variety, TI- Task identity, TS- Task significance, AU- Autonomy, FB- Feedback, WIPL, Work interference with personal life, PLIW- Personal life interference with work, WPLE- Work/Personal life Enhancement

H4: Job Design will significantly predict burnout of employees.

The above criteria allowed entry of five predictors as: skill variety (SV), task identity (TI), task significance (TS), autonomy (AU) and feedback (FB) and all these variables jointly contributed in the prediction of dimensions of burnout.

On the basis of result **table 4.8**, the results of stepwise multiple regression reveal that among all the dimensions of job design, skill variety predicted AU, with multiple R as .38 (F= 57.14, $p > .01$, $\beta = -0.38$, $R^2 = .14$); AU and (TS) jointly with multiple R as .39 (F= 32.16, $p < .01$, $\beta = -.16$, $R^2 = .16$); AU, TS and SV with multiple R as .41 (F= 23.11, $p < .01$, $\beta = .10$, $R^2 = .17$) jointly accounted for 17% of variance in the prediction of Exhaustion (EX). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictors of EX with the calculated B value as -.38.

Table 4.8
Stepwise Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Burnout, with the Independent Variable as JD and Dependent Variable as BO

Variables	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	S.E.m	F-value	df	Beta
DV:EX AU	.38	.14	.14	5.76	57.14**	1,348	-.38
AU, TS	.39	.16	.15	5.71	32.16**	1,347	-.28, -.16
AU, TS, SV	.41	.17	.16	5.69	23.11**	1,346	-.28, -.17, .10
DV:CY AU	.63	.39	.39	5.35	224.70**	1,348	-.63
AU, TS	.66	.44	.43	5.16	134.82**	1,347	-.46, -.27
DV:PE AU	.50	.25	.25	5.33	117.69**	1,348	-.50
AU, FB	.56	.31	.30	5.14	77.04**	1,347	-.40, -.26
AU, FB, TI	.58	.33	.33	5.05	57.88**	1,346	-.32, -.26, -.18
AU, FB, TI, TS	.59	.35	.34	4.99	46.54**	1,345	-.24, -.21, -.16, -.17
AU, FB, TI, TS, SV	.60	.36	.35	4.95	38.99**	1,344	-.25, -.19, -.16, -.17, -.11

Note: ** significant at $p < .01$ level

SV-Skill Variety, TI- Task identity, TS- Task significance, AU-Autonomy, FB- Feedback, Ex-Exhaustion, CY-Cynicism, PE-Professional efficacy

Cynicism has been predicted by AU with multiple R as .63($F= 224.70$, $p>.01$, $\beta=-.63$, $R^2=.39$); AU and TS jointly with multiple R as .66 ($F= 134.82$ $p<.01$ $\beta=-.27$, $R^2=.44$) jointly accounted for 44% of variance in the prediction of cynicism (CY). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictors of EX with the calculated B value as -.63.

Lastly, Professional Efficacy (PE) has been predicted by AU with the calculated R as .50 ($F= 117.69$, $p<.01$, $\beta= -.50$, $R^2=.25$); AU & FB jointly with multiple R as .56 ($F= 77.04$, $p<.01$ $\beta=-.26$, $R^2=.31$); AU, FB and TI with multiple R as .58 ($F= 57.88$, $p<.01$ $\beta=-.18$, $R^2 =.33$); AU, FB, TI and TS jointly with multiple R as .59 ($F= 46.54$, $p<.01$, $\beta=-.17$, $R^2 =.35$); and lastly all the dimensions of job design with multiple R as .60 ($F= 38.99$, $p<.01$, $\beta=-.11$, $R^2 =.36$) The five dimensions jointly accounted for 36% of variance in the prediction of Professional Efficacy (PE). As a whole, autonomy is the strongest predictor of PE with the calculated B value as -.50.

On the basis of the interpretation of the result table 4.8, we can say that autonomy proved to be the potential predictor of burnout of employees. We can say that **hypotheses 4 a, b, c, d and e** has been retained at .01 level while predicting burnout of employees on the basis of perception of job design within organizations.

H5. There is a significant difference in the perception of job design on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status).

Objective five of the study was to examine the JD with reference to demographic features (gender and marital status). Two hypotheses were framed to objectify this question. These hypotheses were tested as follows:

Hypothesis H5a proposed that male and female managers perceive JD differently. This hypothesis was tested using independent sample t-test. The results are presented in **table no. 4.9** show a significant difference between the male and female perception towards job design ($t= 2.658$, $df=348$, $p<0.05$). Mean scores showed that male employees expressed a higher level of perception toward job design ($X= 47.02$) compared to females ($X=42.01$). Thus hypothesis 5a of the study was supported.

Table 4.9: Independent sample t-test (Gender and Job design)

Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Male	245	47.02	16.23	1.04	2.658	348	.008
Female	105	42.01	16.08	1.57			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

Hypothesis 5b indicated that both married and unmarried managers perceived JD differently. The results are presented in **Table no 4.10** show a significant difference between the married and unmarried manager's perception towards job design ($t = 3.451$, $df = 348$, $p < 0.05$). Mean scores showed that married managers expressed a higher level of perception toward job design ($X = 47.37$) compared to unmarried managers ($X = 40.76$). Thus hypothesis 5b of the study has been supported.

Table 4.10: Independent sample t-test for (Marital Status and Job Design)

Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Unmarried	98	40.76	16.12	1.63	3.451	348	.001
Married	252	47.37	16.05	1.01			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

H6. There is a significant difference in the perception of work-life balance on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status)

Objective six of the study was to examine the WLB with reference to demographic variables (gender and marital status). Two hypotheses were framed for this purpose. These hypotheses were tested as follows:

Hypothesis 6a proposed that WLB perception will vary gender wise. The independent t-test analysis, which examined the hypothesis, showed that gender difference exists in the perception towards the work-life balance. The results are presented in **table no. 4.11** show a significant difference exists between the male and female attitudes towards work-life balance ($t = 2.658$, $df = 348$, $p < 0.05$). However, mean scores showed that male employees expressed higher levels of attitude toward work-life balance ($X = 28.96$) compared to females ($X = 26.50$). Thus hypothesis 6a of the study was accepted.

Table 4.11: Independent sample t-test for (Gender and Work-life balance)

Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Male	245	28.96	5.09	.33	2.658	348	.008
Female	105	26.50	4.59	.46			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

Hypothesis 6b of the study proposed that married and unmarried managers perceived WLB differently. This hypothesis was tested using independent sample t-test. The results are presented in **Table no. 4.12** show a significant difference between the married and unmarried manager's perception towards work-life balance ($t = -3.955$, $df = 348$, $p < 0.05$). With the help of mean scores, it is clear that married managers expressed a higher level of perception toward work-life balance ($X = 29.46$) compared to unmarried managers ($X = 27.17$). Thus the hypothesis 6b of the study was accepted.

Table 4.12: Independent sample t-test for (Marital Status and Work-life balance)

Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Unmarried	98	27.17	5.84	.59	3.955	348	.000
Married	252	29.46	4.44	.28			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

H7. There is a significant difference in the perception of burnout on the basis of demographic variables (gender and marital status)

Objective seven of the study was to examine the burnout with reference to demographic variables (gender and marital status). Two hypotheses were framed for this purpose. These hypotheses were tested as follows:

Hypothesis 7a proposed that BO perception will vary gender wise. The independent t-test analysis, which examined the hypothesis, showed that gender difference exists in the perception towards the burnout. The results are presented in **table no. 4.13** show that no significant difference exists between the perception of male and female towards burnout ($t = -.469$, $df = 348$, $p > 0.05$). However, mean scores showed that female employees expressed a higher level of perception toward burnout ($X = 8.86$) compared to males ($X = 8.59$). Thus hypothesis 7a of the study was not accepted.

Table 4.13: Independent sample t-test for (Gender and Burnout)

Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Male	245	8.59	5.14	.33	.469	348	.639
Female	105	8.86	4.76	.46			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

Hypothesis 7b of the study proposed that married and unmarried managers perceived burnout differently. This hypothesis was tested using independent sample t-test. The results are presented in **Table no. 4.14** show a significant difference between the married and unmarried manager's perception towards burnout ($t = 5.894$, $df = 348$, $p < 0.05$). Mean scores showed that unmarried managers expressed a higher level of perception toward burnout ($X = 11.09$) compared to married managers ($X = 7.72$). Thus hypothesis 7b of the study was accepted.

Table 4.14: Independent sample t-test for (Marital Status and Burnout)

Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t-value	Df	P value
Unmarried	98	11.09	5.417	.55	5.894	348	.000
Married	252	7.72	4.538	.29			

(SD- Standard Deviation, SE- Standard Error, df- degree of freedom, $p < 0.05$)

H8. Work-life balance will mediate the relationship between job design and burnout

Further, it was hypothesized that work-life balance would mediate the relationship between job design and burnout. The mediating effect can be understood as the mechanism where variable X i.e. job design's causal effect can be apportioned into its indirect effect on Y i.e. burnout through M i.e. work-life balance and its direct effect on Y (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). Different approaches {causal steps strategy approaches through ordinary least square proposed and popularized by Barron and Kenny (1986); the product-of-coefficients approach or Sobel test by Sobel (1982; 1986); the distribution of the product approach/the bootstrapping approach popularized by MacKinnon et al. (2004), Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008), Hayes and Preacher (2010)} have been proposed by the authorities to test the mediating effect.

Scholars (MacKinnon et al. 2002; MacKinnon et al., 2004; Preacher and Hayes, 2004; Hayes and Preacher, 2010) have assessed the Type 1 error rates and power of these approaches and found that bootstrap approach has ability to explain high power and to control the Type 1 error rate. Therefore, the employability of the bootstrap has been recommended over other approaches in the case of mediation. Hence, in the present case too, bootstrapping approach was employed by using AMOS[®] 20.

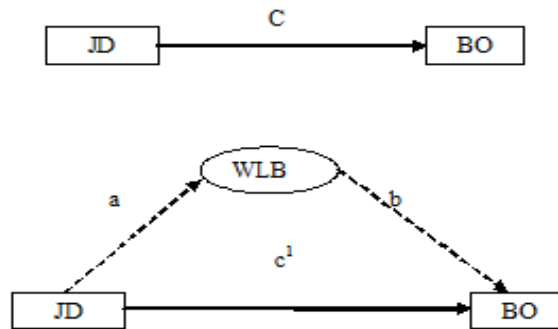


Figure 4.13 Direct and Mediated path diagram of JD and BO via WLB

Results (Table 4.15) exhibited that the indirect effect (i.e. $a \times b$) of JD on BO through WLB is -0.40 (SE .029, CI at 95% significance level is 0.465- 0.000) and is significant at $p < 0.005$. The results explained that the effect of JD on BO is decreased, but remains significant when WLB mediated the path, suggests the existence of partial mediation. We have sufficient evidence to suggest that the causal path JD to BO is partially mediated by work-life balance. Thus, hypothesis eight of the study is partially supported.

Table 4.15

Paths	Std Coefficient	SE	CI for Indirect Effect	P
Direct Effect MPS –BO {c ¹ }	-.26	.040	Lower Bound= -.465	***
Direct effect MPS-WLB {a}	.64	.030	Upper Bound=.000	***
Direct Effect WLB -BO {b}	-.63	.034		***
Total Effect MPS-BO {c}	-.66			***
Indirect Effect MPS-BO {a×b}	-.40	.029		***

Mediation Result of JD on BO via WLB

(Source Primary data, N=350, CI=confidence interval, *** significant at $p < 0.005$)

4.4 EMPIRICAL SUPPORT FOR THE HYPOTHESES

The following section has been divided into six parts. In the first and second part, findings pertaining to the relationships of job design with work-life balance and burnout (along with their dimensions) have been discussed. Results related to the roles of demographic variables (gender and marital status) on the study variables have been discussed in third, fourth and fifth parts. In the last part, the mediation effect of work-life balance between job design and burnout has been discussed.

4.4.1 Job Design and Work-Life Balance

The findings indicate that there is a significant and positive relationship between job design (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) and work-life balance of employees. It is evident from the results that job design plays a significant role in determining the work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work and work/personal life enhancement, which in combination constitutes the work-life balance of employees. This in turn balances both the domains of an individual, i.e. work life and non-work life, as employees appear to move between the domains of work and non-work, carrying the influence of each sphere of activity into each other (spillover effect). Responding to the increasing demands of work and family, balance is an area that has been relatively under researched (Goodstein, 1994; Ingam & Simons, 1995). Whilst it has also been reported that one of the biggest challenges in any organization is that employers will be creating work/life strategies that affect multi-generational workplaces. In order to support this supposition, two hypotheses (H1 & H3) were framed with the help of relevant literature. Hypothesis 1 and its sub-hypotheses proposed that there is a positive relationship between job design along with its dimensions and work-life balance. Whereas hypothesis 3 and its sub-hypotheses proposed that there will an impact of job design along with its dimensions on work-life balance. Current findings support the said hypotheses and substantially strengthen the belief that job design is viewed as the perspective predictor of work-life balance.

The findings of the study confirm the view that job design increases work-life balance and has a positive impact. It is also revealed that positive experiences at the workplace, such as increased participation in decision making, innovation, etc. would lead to positive feelings towards jobs, colleagues and organizations, which ignite organizational growth and profitability (Gupta, 2003; Ganesh & Gupta, 2010; Sahay & Gupta, 2011). In

other research, it is also proved that the satisfied employees will contribute towards the effectiveness of an organization (Biswas et al. 2007). Work-life balance is considered to be the topic of great relevance for any individual as well as organizations. The present study focuses on the designing of the job in such a way that the work should be motivating and thereby helps employees in managing work-life balance. In addition, there are some other studies which have suggested that work and the job experiences and satisfaction with work life influence non-working life satisfaction (e.g. Cho, 1996; Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991; & Mahdaavi, Shirazi & Cho, 2007). For the continuous improvement in work-life balance, work flexibility has long been established as an important way. However, job designing is always associated with work flexibility improvements in order to improve work-life balance. Considering redesigning jobs to provide greater work-life balance is important in any organization.

Traditionally, work-life balance was just assumed to have equal amounts of time given to paid work and non-work roles. But in the fast changing scenario, the concept has been recognized as being more complex. The balance between the two spheres is considered to be in conflict, it is difficult to comply with the demands of one role due to the role pressures from another domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Previous researches have substantiated the benefits of work-life balance to any organizations. As proper job designing which lead to good work-life balance established a link between the provision of flexible work options and reduction in turnover (Capelli, 2000; Nord, Fox, Phoenix, & Viano, 2002), it shows that work-life balance agenda is now a strategic human resource issue.

Job design works from the very outset when any employee has been hired and job design will have a tremendous effect on their productivity. The employees can be motivated by removing barriers that hinder their abilities to perform their daily job tasks (Gupta & Thatchenkery, 2010), by introducing effective job design policies in the organizations related to sophisticated selection, internal promotion and flexibility and team working (Pathak et al. 2005). On the other hand, work-life balance is the fulfillment of personal expectations in a work environment as well as at home. People who have high levels of work conflict tend to be less satisfied with their job, higher levels of stress and family problems; these factors corresponded to lower levels of commitment and increased incidents of absenteeism. Work-life balance can only be maintained in the organization when employees are being satisfied with the designing of their assigned work. A study,

done by Anderson in 1984 five job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job); were correlated with four worker responses (job satisfaction, absenteeism, and job performance). All job dimensions were significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction with one exception, i.e. skill variety was not significantly related to job. Autonomy, task identity and feedback obtained directly from the job were the three dimensions most closely related to overall job satisfaction.

The results of the present study reveal that among all the dimensions of job design, autonomy tends to be the strongest predictor of all the dimensions of work-life balance (work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work & work/personal life enhancement). There is little empirical support relating to support for autonomy to employee work-life balance. Previous research has implied that the ability of supervisors to enhance employee autonomy is the key factor in increasing employee wellbeing. Recent studies have found that well-being and a host of positive work related outcomes are the product of autonomous action.

The results of the statistical analysis revealed that supervisor support for autonomy was significantly related to the three work-life balance dimensions. The three dimensions of work/life balance that were assessed included work interference with personal life (WIPL), personal life interference with work (PLIW) and work/personal life enhancement (WPLE). In addition, supervisor support for autonomy substantially contributed to employee job satisfaction. This study empirically investigates the importance of considering the complex interrelationships between support for autonomy and work-life balance. The principal finding of the study supports the observation that enhancing the autonomy provided to employees can promote the integration of work, family and personal life. The results of the study are also substantiated by previous researches (Jeremy Hayman, 2005).

It is clear that companies need to perform a thorough job analysis and create a job design that reflects necessary job requirements. These two functions will allow the employee to have a balanced work-life environment that will benefit the company and be more successful and productive. The organizations should support the culture that supports and encourages enhanced employee autonomy. Policy makers in the organizations need to frame policies and procedures that help in motivating employees intrinsically and

extrinsically (Biswas et al 2007). Further, policy makers and psychologists can work together to ensure that workplace experiences help in flourishing both the personal and professional ends. Positive experiences at the workplace also direct employees thrive and experience progress and momentum marked by a sense of learning (greater understanding and knowledge) (Johnson, et al., 1996). Hence, there is an opportunity for human resource management professionals to facilitate training programs that might improve the understanding of supervisory staff on the importance of support for autonomy for employees.

4.4.2 Job Design and Burnout

Since yesteryear's research in the area of psychology, a generally accepted notion is that job stress tends to reduce the capacity of the individual to exert control over their work environment, which has an adverse effect on an individual's performance in an efficient way (Fried, Ben-David, Tiegs, Avital, & Yeverechyahu, 1998; McGrath, 1976). It can be implied that when people become exhausted under the influence of environmental demands, they will not be able to perform efficiently. And this will lead to burnout due to the job designing issues. A large body of research has addressed the issue of burnout and accordingly an attempt has been made in this study to correlate job design dimensions with burnout by providing empirical evidence. In order to strengthen this view, it was proposed (hypothesis 2 & 4) that the dimensions of job design are negatively related to and have significant impact on burnout. The findings of the study support the hypothesis that job design, which is characterized by skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback, affects the burnout negatively. Drawings from the similar research also support these findings (Jindal et al., 2013).

The findings indicate that there is a significant and negative relationship between job design (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) and burnout of employees. It is evident from the results that, job design plays a significant role in determining the exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy, which in combination constitutes the burnout of employees. Burnout is associated with innumerable negative outcomes such as reduced mental health, lower job satisfaction, poor quality of work and performance (Bovier, Arigoni, Schneider, & Gallacchi, 2009; Rabin, Matalon, Maoz, & Shiber, 2005). Workers who feel burnt out and frustrated with their jobs are more likely to have higher turnover and be absent from work (De Croon et al., 2004). So, burnout becomes a topic of interest to researchers in psychology, management and medical

science (Cox & Leiter, 1992; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Consequently, finding practices to reduce employees' negative perceptions of job design and the occurrence of burnout are of paramount importance.

The present study confirms the negative relationship between job design and burnout and it is very important to know the causes and the consequences of burnout. It is normally found that the causes of "job burnout" lie within the organization. This implied that something should be done with the delegation of roles or the job design conditions in the organization (Garland, 2002). As far as consequences are concerned, empirical evidence has shown that burnout has important dysfunctional ramifications, implying substantial costs for both organizations and individuals, for example, increases in turnover, absenteeism, reduced productivity, and human considerations (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Shirom, 1989). Several researchers and studies support a negative relationship between burnout and jobsatisfaction. These studies demonstrate that as burnout increases, job satisfaction decreases (Wolpin, Burke & Greenglass, 1991; Arie & Yoram, 1993; Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993).

The major consequence of job burnout is turnover and numerous studies have been exploring the reasons for turnover (Birdseye, 1990), which, which was associated significantly with organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and personal characteristics. Of the three broad categories of predictor variables, however, job characteristics appear to have received the most research attention (Glisson & Mark, 1988; Teely et al., 1971; Lyons, 1971; Abdel-Halim, 1981; Bedeian & Achilles, 1981; Bartel, 1982; Marsh & Manari, 1977; Price, 1977; Dewar & Werbel, 1979; Gerhart, 1987; Blau & Boal, 1989). The arrangement behind quitting the job may be due to role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload, which further leads employees to experience burnout. The core linkages among job characteristics and job burnout are supported by the results of the study.

Burnout is considered as negative phenomenon and results from the interaction between the individual and the environment. Although a subjective phenomenon, burnout has a clear relationship with the organizational settings in which it occurs. Recent research has adopted the job demands resources (JD-R) model to explain how burnout originates and has shown that heightened job demands and a deficit of job resources, predict an increase in future self-reported burnout scores (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). The present study examines

five job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) which are intended to reduce the experience of burnout and predict burnout components.

Generally, job design is considered as the main cause behind the generation of feeling of burnout among the employees. If the job is not properly designed, and employees are overloaded with their jobs, then they may become emotionally exhausted or burnt out. The manner in which jobs were designed may lead employees to be in more stressful conditions. The relationship of the MPS index (job design index) and burnout is negative, i.e. the lower the additive MPS index, which includes, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback, the higher the level of burnout (Demerouti, 2003). It has also become obvious in case of burnout that time pressure increases the feeling of burnout, whereas burnout is decreased by skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. When employees have high autonomy, receive feedback about their performance, have an identifiable piece of work that require skill variety, they may experience feelings of happiness (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and consequently will be less stressed out and burnt out, thereby preventing turnovers in the organization. Research has ample support for a positive relationship between burnout and turnover intention. These studies demonstrate that as burnout increases, turnover intention increases (Moore, 2000; McMurtney, Glover, Tenge & Lightner, 2002; Niederman & Sumner, 2004; Thatcher, Stepina & Boyle, 2002).

The results of the present study reveal that among all the dimensions of job design, autonomy tends to be the strongest predictor of burnout (emotional exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy). Job autonomy was also found to have a significant negative relationship with burnout. There is empirical support for this contention; Burisch (1993) argued that lack of autonomy is critical factor in burnout reaction. Autonomy is to be considered as closely tied to emotional exhaustion because lack of psychological freedom leads to depletion of emotional resources (Adie, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2008; Blais, Briere, Lachance, Riddle, & Vallerand, 1993; Levesque, Blais, & Hess, 2004; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

The extant literature supports the relationships between perceived job autonomy and employee's psychological outcomes which shows that lack of job autonomy reduces personal accomplishment (Maslach, Schafeli, & Leiter, 2001) and engenders a depersonalized attitude among workers (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Therefore, it is

expected that job autonomy is negatively associated with burnout as well as turnover intention and it has been found to moderate burnout in various cases (Burke & Richardson, 1993; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Chiu, 2000, Ito & Brotheridge, 2003; Nekoei-Moghadam, Poor & Sadeghi, 2008, Adebayo & Ezeanya 2010). Employees in jobs low in autonomy rated themselves as engaging in more depersonalizing behaviors towards clients than did those with jobs, affording them a greater degree of control over their work (Barad, 1979).

The empirical findings of the study proved a significant involvement of job design factors in predicting burnout and its core dimensions. Also, it can be said the job design should be an important concern for the organizations because the lack of concern in the job design would lead to mental exhaustion and eventually to burnout. Well thought out job design leads to employee's mental satisfaction and reduces the exhaustion. Further, organizations need to create thriving employees who are less susceptible to burnout (Rumbles & Rees, 2013).

4.4.3 Demographic Variables and Job Design

Hypothesis 5a and 5b of the study proposed that gender and marital status significantly cause variation in the perception of the managers regarding job design. Also the findings of the study support the hypothesis that job design perception varies with male and female counterparts, thus accept the assumption of gender differences. The consistency continues with the results of the study when manager's perception was checked according to their marital status (married and unmarried) as significant difference was recorded on the basis of marital status. This study supports hypothesis 5a and 5b.

Okpara (2004) substantiates the results of gender differences, indicated that female employees are less satisfied than their male counterpart specifically in terms of pay, promotion and supervision. As it was also asserted that (Valentine & Godkin, 2000; Shome, Khurana & Banerjee, 2011), males are expected to perceive greater variety, autonomy, job significance and feedback than females in regard to task structure of jobs. Furthermore, females in the jobs are expected to be ambitious, but they could not expect equal treatment in terms of pay, perks and promotions (Singh-Sengupta, 2006).

Lastly the job design perception of married and unmarried counterparts was analyzed (hypothesis 5b). The study found that married managers expressed a higher level of perception toward job design compared to unmarried managers. Some studies

(Chambers, 1999; Loscocco, 1990; Robbins et al., 2003) also supported these findings. In particular, Chambers (1999) found that married employees experience increased satisfaction with pay, work, supervision and co-worker subscales. However, Robbins et al. (2003) note that the available research only distinguishes between being single and married.

4.4.4 Demographic Variables and Work-Life Balance

Hypothesis 6a and 6b of the study assumed that demographic variables (gender and marital status) cause a significant amount of variation in work-life balance. In conformity with the assumption of hypothesis 6a, the results of the study accept the view of variation on work-life balance due to gender. On the other hand, the results of the study are also in the support of the hypothesis 6b by accepting the view of variation on work-life balance due to marital status.

Hypothesis 6a suggested that male and female managers perceive work-life balance differently. Work-life balance from the perspective of gender role has been tested in the study and the findings of the study accept the hypothesis which was in constant with many of the earlier studies (Guest, 2002; Halford, 2006; Loscocco, 1997; Neale & White, 2014). Reviews from other studies also indicate the same that the perception of work-life balance to be different across genders (Connell 2005; Smithson and Stokoe, 2005; Duxbury and Higgins, 1991).

Burke (2002) asserted that both women and men give preference to the organizations that support work-life balance. However, men appeared to benefit more than women. Frankenhaeuser et al., (1989); Lundberg et al., (1994) found that women show more conflict between work and home life than men. The findings of the study are also in consistent with (Hays, 1996; Townsend, 2002) who found gender differences in undertaking family, work, as well, as different cultural expectations of mothers and fathers.

Hypothesis 6b assumed that both types of managers (married and unmarried) perceived work-life balance in different ways. The findings of the study also support the hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the perception of work-life balance according to the marital status. It is found that unmarried seem to encounter more difficulties in balancing work and non-work activities than married (Panisoara & Serban, 2013). However, Galinsky, Bond and Friedman (1996) found that parent employees

exhibit significantly higher levels of conflict between work and family/personal life than non-parents. However, it is assumed that balancing work and non-work demands are an issue that pertains to all individuals who are in paid work regardless of whether they have family responsibilities or not (Dex and Scheibl, 2001; Fu and Shaffer, 2001; Rotondo et al., 2003).

The results indicate that male employees report greater satisfaction (higher mean values) in the perception of work- life balance as compared to female employees. The working women are exposed to more responsibilities like looking after their commitments towards family, bringing up children, household chores, etc. as well as working in the office to the utmost perfection. This discussion can well be substantiated with a recent survey done by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (as cited in TOI, March 8, 2014). According to this survey, an average Indian man has the dubious distinction of spending all of 19 minutes a day on routine housework, among the lowest in the world, while Slovenian men are on top with 114 minutes a day. In India, it is a socially well-accepted reality that, even where both spouses are working, women end up handling most household chores. The survey made by the OECD shows that Indian women spend a huge 5 hours on routine housework such as cooking, laundry, pets and home maintenance in analogy to 19 minutes spent by men. This puts some extra burden on females compared to their male counterpart. This disturbs the work-life balance in women.

4.4.5 Demographic Variables and Burnout

Hypothesis 7a and 7b of the study assumed that demographic variables (gender and marital status) cause a significant amount of variation in burnout. Contrary to the assumptions results of the study rejects the view of variation on burnout due to gender (Hypothesis 7a). However, the results of the study support hypothesis 7b by accepting the view of variation on burnout due to marital status.

The issue has always been debated in the research history of burnout, especially on the question whether there is a significant difference among the demographic variables and burnout or not. There are always arguments that burnout is more of a female experience than that of male employees (Maslach et al., 2001). However, there is a dearth of research about the nature of gender-burnout relationship as only a handful of researchers have investigated this relationship directly. The results of the study reject the contention that there is a significant difference among gender regarding burnout, as both the groups

experience work pressure, job insecurity in the organization (Rani & Garg, 2010). Some studies (Adekola, 2012; Linzer et al., 2002; Zhao & Bi, 2003; Dali, 2004; Rani & Garg, 2010, McCarty et al., 2007, 2013; Kop et al. 1999) also supported our view. Olanrewaju & Chineye (2013) found that women experienced more burnout compared to their men; however, gender difference in burnout was not significant.

The findings of the present study can be well supported by the findings of Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) on service professionals, including teachers indicated that female staff had higher emotional exhaustion than their male colleagues. Speculations that burnout occurs more frequently among women are not uncommon (Maslach et al., 2001). Wilson (2000), who reported that the level of stress led to burnout among female more than among male teachers because the latter seemed to experience less stress than female did and they also tended to have less responsibilities. Specifically, because women are still responsible for well over 50% of household chores, and because they are still the primary child and elderly care givers (Matlin, 2004), they experience more family-related demands, such as role juggling and role conflict. Even trained clinicians and physicians are not exempted from such assumptions as they are more likely to diagnose female patients than male patients with depression and anxiety disorders (Garrett, 1991; Lichtenberg, Gibbons, Nanna, & Blumenthal, 1993; Burnam & Wells, 1991; Wrobel, 1993).

Lastly, the burnout perception of married and unmarried counterparts was analyzed and it was assumed in hypothesis 7b that there is a significant difference between the burnout of married and unmarried employees. The study finds that unmarried managers expressed a higher level of burnout compared to the married managers. Some studies (Maslach et al., 2001; Cordes & Dougherty, 1997) have also supported our view, in particular, Maslach et al., (2001) who have found that singles, especially men are more exposed to burnout than married individuals.

4.4.6 Job Design and Burnout: Mediating Effect of Work-Life Balance

Hypothesis eight of the study presumed work-life balance as a mediator between job design and burnout. In order to answer this inquiry bootstrapping was employed through SEM, and the empirical findings of the study support this hypothesis. A large body of research has identified both job demands; according to job design affects work-life balance and can also be antecedents to burnout. Peeters et al. (2005) assumed that certain job stressors cause work-home interference and as a result lead to impaired psychological

health (including burnout). Researches invariably confirmed that heavy workloads, lack of flexible timing can lead to less time and energy available for family interaction and leisure, which in turn enhances stress and burnout among the employees. Montgomery et al. (2006) substantiate this fact that spillovers have a detrimental effect on work functioning (via feelings of burnout) and in addition to this, spillover of societal culture on organizational culture also influence the work behavior of managers in the organizations (Singh-Sengupta & Sinha, 2005) Work-life balance is considered as potential mediators of burnout, due to the fact that negative job attitudes are themselves used as an indicator of burnout (Eisenstat & Felner, 1982; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). If the demands of jobs are high, then the chances of increased work-home interference are also high and consequently to lead to low burnout. Until now, many studies have supported this contention that there is mediating role of work-life balance.

Consistent with hypothesis eight, empirical support has been found for the partial mediating effect of work-life balance in relation to job design on one hand and burnout on the other hand. A finding of partial mediation is in line with other recent studies on this issue (Geurts et al., 2003; Janssen et al., 2004; Peeters, de Jonge, Janssen, & van der Linden, 2004).

To conclude, it can be said that positive experiences with job design when splattered at other facets of life will definitely lead to attitudinal, behavioral and organizational outcomes, where an individual can thrive to have positive work-life balance and reduced burnout and consequently become productive and open to the challenges at work and non-work related realms of life.

Conclusion

The present study has examined the relationship of job design, work-life balance and burnout. Theoretical foundations and development of the said variables are examined in the study. Also, there are theoretical links between the predictor and criterion variables, which were also established. A quantitative research design was employed to answer the research questions. This research will provide a base for research in the future. The correlational relationships which are described in the study are well supported by the data. The study has wider implications beyond middle level managers. The instrument can be utilized by both manufacturing and service organizations. In the following text the key findings of the study can be concluded.

Hypothesis 1 and 3 assumed that dimensions of job design have a positive relationship and impact on work-life balance. The data, obtained from a large sample of managers, provided considerable support for the general hypothesis linking job design with work-life balance values. This suggests that higher levels of job designing among managers will lead to higher levels of balances between work and life. We conclude that job design policies which are in favor of work-life balance have important work and personal consequences. When such organizational values were present, managers reported greater satisfaction inside and outside of work, generally higher life satisfaction and more positive emotional and physical wellbeing (Jindal et al. 2013). There are many evidences in past researches that the presence of such policies has produced inconsistent benefits (Bailyn, 1994; Schwartz, 1992). Based on the results regarding these hypotheses, following conclusions can be drawn:

- Job design along with its dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) has a positive and significant relationship with work-life balance.
- Clearly and properly designed jobs in an organization significantly improve work-life balance.
- Among all the dimensions of job design, autonomy proved to be the strongest predictor of work-life balance.

Moving ahead, hypotheses 2 and 4 proposed that job design is negatively related to burnout and have significant impact on it. The results of the study confirmed the significance of the role of job design in predicting burnout levels among managers. Although, burnout is a negative work and organizational outcome, its negative effects can be totally avoided by job designs that promote task identity and job autonomy and employees' growth and development. The jobs should be designed in such a manner to prevent burnout and retain workers (Dollard et al., 2000; Johnson & Hall, 1988). The results of the study supported the proposition that burnout occurs as a result of issues in the work. This is promising since it suggests that organizational interventions in terms of job designing may successfully prevent burnout. (Jindal et al. 2012). On this basis, following conclusions are drawn:

- Job design along with its dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) has a significant and negative relationship with burnout.
- Clearly and properly designed jobs in an organization helps in alleviating burnout.
- Among all the dimensions of job design, autonomy proved to be the strongest predictor of burnout.

Hypothesis 5a and 5b of the current study intended to check the variations in the job design due to demographic differences (gender and marital status). The key findings suggest that job design perception does vary among male and female counterparts. The results were also consistent when perception was checked in case of marital status. On the basis of the above input following conclusions can be made:

- Job design perception of managers varies gender wise (male and female).
- Job design perception of married managers was found significantly different from unmarried managers.

Hypotheses 6a and 6b assumed that work-life balance perception of managers varies with their demographic features (gender and marital status). To validate this view, analysis was done to see whether work-life balance perception of employees varies according to gender and marital status. The results of the present study confirmed the proposed contention and based on the following conclusions can be made:

- Both male and female have significant difference regarding the perception of work-life balance
- Both married and unmarried managers have different work-life balance perception.

In continuation of hypotheses which were proposed in terms of demographic variables, hypothesis 7a and 7b assumed that burnout perceptions of managers vary with their demographic features (gender and marital status). This view can be validated with the support of the analysis of the data. The results of the study discard the difference on the basis of gender, while results confirmed that there is a significant difference on the basis of marital status, which leads to following conclusion:

- There is no significant difference in burnout on the basis of gender.
- Both married and unmarried managers have different burnout perception.

The last hypothesis of the present study assumed work-life balance as potential mediator of the relationship of job design and burnout. The results of the study demonstrated that work-life balance mediates the relationship of job design and burnout. It can be concluded that work-life balance significantly and partially mediated the aforesaid relationship.

Conclusively, the goal of this study was to examine and understand the relationships between job design, work-life balance and burnout. This study has researched a relevant problem and can encourage future research and provide results for positive change.

5.1 FUTURE IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The findings of the study can be considered a niche in the management discourse, and a nascent area, where employees have been regarded as individual and have further implications for future scope. This research provides a foundation for future research:

- The data support the correlational relationships described in the study. The study has wider implications beyond middle level managers. Both manufacturing and service organizations can utilize this instrument.
- During the course of this research, it was not usual to find a company that allowed its employees to exhibit any level of autonomy outside the traditional relationships found in long-established manufacturing organizations. This study strengthened the role of autonomy in calculating the motivational potential score and its impact on work-life balance and burnout.
- It can be suggested that future research should expand the data collected beyond a single firm, industry and geographic location and include participants from all aspects of the workforce to improve the generalization of the current study.

- To further this research, more qualitative work must be done to fine-tune the data and findings of the study on a larger scale. The research design and methodology used in future studies could include individual interviews with participants. This could assist the researcher in obtaining a clearer understanding of a response given by the participant. The use of interviews could increase the response rate for all of the areas probed for the study.
- In addition, it can be suggested that a longitudinal study with the sample population can be conducted. A longitudinal study could be helpful in understanding the relationships between the variables over time. There have not been many longitudinal studies on burnout and its consequences (Maslach et. al., 2001) and on the relationships between other variables in this study. This may be due to the difficulties in conducting longitudinal studies. Most of the data from burnout studies has resulted from either cross-sectional studies or studies using statistical causal models (Maslach et. al 2001).
- In spite of application of qualitative and quantitative methods separately, mixed methods study that incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods. After the quantitative results are obtained the researcher might conduct focus groups to explore the results and variables as additional information could be obtained with qualitative research.
- Replicate the study utilizing a single organization. This would allow for more uniformity within the sample as the employees would all come from the same industry, and organizational policies toward work-life balance and burnout would be more consistent.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several caveats should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings of this study:

- The study is confined to specific number of respondents. Moreover, convenient sampling was done for data collection.
- A larger sample would have been used for discussing the relationship of such variables like job design, work-life balance and burnout.

- Although the selection seemed demographically appropriate and met the standards of distribution and sample size, one cannot rule out atypicality. Future studies may benefit from a larger sample population and one with more gender diversification.
- The self-report data collected in the quantitative questionnaire to assess the study variables. In the literature related to organization behavior, the use of self-report questionnaires has been a source of debate (Bryman, 1988; Spector, 1986), and has mostly been criticized for resulting in artificially inflated correlations among measures of behavioral constructs. Self-report approach may produce biased results, which may possibly inflate the magnitude of the observed correlations; this effect would not alter the statistical significance of the observed linkages between the study variables (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Kent, 2001). Indeed, the constructs included in the present study were assessed by asking employees to report their own attitudes and perceptions, as work/life balance is in the eye of the beholder (Fisher, 2001). Therefore, the use of self-report questionnaires is an appropriate and convenient method for collecting the study data.

Despite its limitations, the study makes contributions to the literature on job design, work-life balance and burnout issues. This study has a number of imperative potency. Firstly, the research was based on a correlation design within a field study; correlation studies do have several advantages over other research designs. Correlation studies are just as effective in disconfirming existing hypotheses as causal studies. Finding a high correlation between variables strengthens the hypothesis's credibility, just as finding no correlation reduces the credibility of the hypothesis. Secondly, strengths of this work include the use of standardized instruments.

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APPENDIX (A)

Instructions for filling up questionnaire:

1. Please go through the questionnaire and give an appropriate answer in the blank space provided.
2. All the information provided by you will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for research.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name:

Gender:

.....

Marital status (Married/Unmarried):

Age:

.....

Type of Family (Nuclear/Joint):

Qualification:

.....

Experience:.....

Company:

Tenure with current company:

APPENDIX (B)

JOB DESIGN

Use the scales below to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or inadequate description of your present or most recent job.

5 = Very descriptive

4 = Mostly descriptive

3 = Somewhat descriptive

2 = Mostly nondescriptive

1 = Very nondescriptive

1. ___ I have almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done.
2. ___ I have a chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.
3. ___ I do a complete task from start to finish. The results of my efforts are clearly visible and identifiable.
4. ___ What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways.
5. ___ My manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing.
6. ___ The work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing.
- 7.* ___ I make insignificant contributions to the final product or service.
8. ___ I get to use a number of complex skills on this job.
- 9.* ___ I have very little freedom in deciding how the work is to be done.
- 10___ Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing.
- 11*.___ The job is quite simple and repetitive.
- 12.* ___ My supervisors or coworkers rarely give me feedback on how well I am doing the job.
- 13.* ___ What I do is of little consequence to anyone else.
14. ___ My job involves doing a number of different tasks.
15. ___ Supervisors let us know how well they think we are doing.
- 16.* ___ My job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- 17.* ___ My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.
- 18.* ___ The demands of my job are highly routine and predictable.

- 19.* _____ My job provides few clues about whether I'm performing adequately.
- 20.* _____ My job is not very important to the company's survival.
21. _____ My job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.
22. _____ My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start.
23. _____ Many people are affected by the job I do.

APPENDIX (C)

WORK LIFE BALANCE

Use the scale below to indicate the frequency with which you have felt a particular way about the balance in your work and life.

5 = Almost All the Time

4 = Often

3 = Sometimes

2 = Rarely

1 = Not at all

- 1.* ___ I struggle with trying to juggle both my work and non work responsibilities.
2. ___ My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.
- 3.* ___ I feel overwhelmed when I try to balance my work and personal life.
4. ___ My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.
5. ___ I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.
6. ___ My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.
- 7.* ___ I have difficulty scheduling vacation time because of my work load.
- 8.* ___ I am unable to relax at home because I am preoccupied with my work.
9. ___ I am happy with the amount of time I spend doing activities not related to work.
10. ___ Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.
- 11.* ___ I often have to make difficult choices between my work and my personal life.
- 12.* ___ I have to put aspects of my personal life “on hold” because of my work
13. ___ I am able to accomplish what I would like in both my personal and work lives.
14. ___ I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.
- 15.* ___ I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.
16. ___ When I am at work, I worry about things I need to do outside of work.
17. ___ I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters.
- 18.* ___ My personal life suffers because of my work.
- 19.* ___ I have to miss out on important personal activities because of my work.

20. __My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.
21. __I feel that I allocate appropriate amounts of time to both work and non-work activities.
- 22.*_I make personal sacrifices to get work done.
- 23.*_I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.
- 24.*_My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.

APPENDIX (D)

BURNOUT

Use the scale below to indicate the level of burnout.

6= Every day

5= A few times a day

4= Once a week

3= A few times a month

2=Once a month or less

1=A few times a year or less

0= Never

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