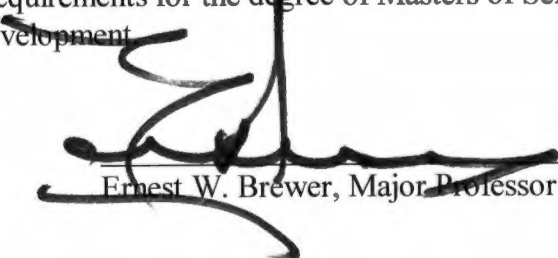
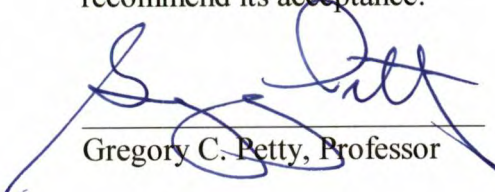
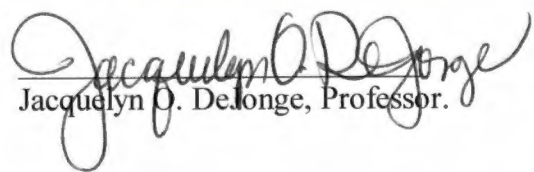


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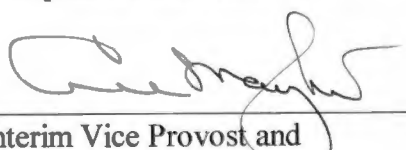
I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Suzanne Epperson Young entitled " Job Satisfaction and Job Burnout of Certified Employee Assistance Professionals." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Science, with a major in Human Resources Development


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**Job Satisfaction and Job Burnout of
Certified Employee Assistance Professionals**

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Science Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Suzanne E. Young

August, 2000

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Abstract

In this study, future trends, worker demographics, and organizational changes affecting the American workplace for the 21st century were examined. The evolution of a global economy and advances in technology will continue to create change and generate stress and anxiety in the workplace. Corporate change efforts such as downsizing, mergers, and acquisitions and the constant source of internal business change increases demands and stresses on the ability of the workforce to consistently meet rising performance standards. Corporations, managers, and employees have turned to Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) to facilitate workforce assimilation of stress and change. This study described the demographic characteristics of Certified Employee Assistance Professionals (CEAPs), assessed their levels of job satisfaction, and examined their experiences with Maslach's constructs of burnout given the identified workplace EAP practice delivery models. The findings indicated that the majority of CEAP practitioners are satisfied in their work and with the field of EAP, as shown by their high scores on professional efficacy and low experiences with the dimensions of emotional exhaustion and cynicism.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Today the American workplace is undergoing major transformational change. The formation of global economies and marketplaces is crafting the work environment of the 21st century with rapid advancements in communications and information technology, collapsing national trade boundaries, and fierce international competition. The evolution of the global workplace has led to the emergence of a culturally diverse, highly knowledgeable, and skilled workforce that is in critical demand and fundamental to organizational growth and profitability (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999, Challenger, 1998; Drucker, 1998, Garten, 1998). The ability of organizational leaders to (a) understand the emerging and shifting work place assumptions, (b) assess systemic consequences beyond their business or industry, and (c) identify solutions for utilizing the workforce in new and different ways could determine the ultimate success and future longevity of their companies in the competitive global environment.

In today's changing work environment, traditional organizational structures, managerial roles, paradigms and practices, and work processes and methods that have been in place for decades have been forever altered or changed (Gore, 1997; More, 1998). The workforce of today is more educated and mobile and is constantly trying to manage the complex challenges and stresses of integrating the new ways of working with their families and personal responsibilities. Today's workers and dual income families are requiring more from their employers and assistance from others to ensure effective performance and balance of their stressful work lives (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999).

For the past two decades, there have been multiple efforts to address and cope with the challenges and stresses of the contemporary work life. Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) and practitioners have played a vital role in educating and supporting organizations, managers, and employees through understanding and managing the multiple stresses associated with organizational stress and change. The workplace of the 21st century is guaranteed to produce constant change and stress (More, 1998). Educating leaders and assisting in the formulation of management practices and workforce interventions that facilitate the assimilation of change and effective management of stress within the work environment is emerging as a basic EAP practitioner competency. According to Quick, Quick, Nelson, and Hurrell (1997),

There is an emerging organizational reality not yet fully defined, that is fundamentally changing and even transforming how people organize to get work done. This new organizational reality is characterized by competitive change; a de-emphasis on jobs as a way of organizing work; an emphasis on a worker's portfolio of knowledge, skills, and abilities; and an effort to leverage technology to its maximum. The underlying processes driving this new organizational reality account for the mergers and acquisitions, downsizing, restructuring, re-engineering and privatization initiatives of the past decade. These systemic processes have dramatic effects on individual lives and are among the contemporary forces causing stress for people in organizations (p. 1)

These workplace challenges that may affect organizations and workers in the 21st century are currently being described, defined, and studied by organizational researchers. In today's work environment, daily occurrences of work life have provided organizational researchers with a glimpse into the future work environment by allowing them to study workplace demographics, social norms, government and marketplace events, and

interactions and emerging trends found within the workforce. By assigning possible interpretations and meaning to those observations, researchers can speculate on the workplace of the future and postulate its impact on (a) national economies, (b) technological advancements and assimilation, (c) industry, business growth, and profitability, and (d) changing employee, employer expectations. Organizational researchers can develop potential strategies and solutions for assisting leaders, human resource managers, and Employee Assistance professionals in helping the workforce integrate and manage stress and change.

The workplace in the United States at the beginning of the 21st century is one of the most productive and stressful environments in the world (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999). In today's 24-hour virtual work environment, workers have excessive demands placed on their time with consistently higher expectations in performance required. Technological advancements, worker mobility, and the redefinition of family roles have rendered employees, regardless of time zone and geography, only a cell phone or e-mail message away from their work

Along with America's phenomenal economic success, rapid innovations in work processes and technology have resulted in chronic employee stress and have generated concerns among many employers about the quality of work life within their corporations. Employers are seeing the inability of today's workers to effectively integrate all the demands and stresses of their job, maintain performance standards, and balance work and family requirements as creating a new type of work life dilemma for their organizations.

In response to managing these workplace issues, trends, and challenges, two decades ago, corporations began to look for solutions to address worker adjustment concerns, lifestyle changes, and family stress, while trying to help them remain productive at work. As companies formalized worker assistance processes, a new professional discipline within the behavioral and mental health field called Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) emerged. Employee Assistance Programs are workplace oriented and focused on supporting the organization and its employees in adjusting and integrating work life and personal issues. Employee Assistance Program practitioners provide workplace counseling or referral services for addressing employee performance problems (Hartwell & Steele, 1996). In addition to direct employee interventions, EAP practitioners work with managers to facilitate resolution or corrective action aimed at restoring troubled employees to their previous levels of performance and functioning on their job (*Employee Assistance Professional Association*, [EAPA], 1999).

Employee Assistance Program practitioners have migrated from other traditional human services professions such as social work, nursing, counseling, or psychology (Cohen, Gard, & Heffernan, 1998). The EAP practitioner's level of client contact, involvement, and intensity of interpersonal relationships varies according to the type of worksite EAP delivery model that is embedded in the business or organization. The most common types of EAP delivery models are (a) those in which EAP practitioners are internally employed, providing services directly for their organization, (b) those in which EAP practitioners are external contractors to the business in which they provide services while working as an independent consultant or as a member of a group EAP practice, and

(c) a hybrid or blend of both internal or external models. Regardless of EAP delivery model, EA practitioners are subjected to the same workplace environments, and to similar stresses, workload demands, and changes impacting the client system in which they are hired to provide consultation, counseling, and referral services

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study was designed to determine whether or not the associated levels of workplace adjustments and stresses found in the contemporary work environment were generating high levels of job burnout or job dissatisfaction among EA practitioners. Research studies have shown that human services professionals such as social workers, nurses, or other professions requiring intense levels of interpersonal interactions by organizational or client demands experienced higher levels of job burnout as a result of their work environment. Most of the research that related to job burnout has been conducted using traditional human service professionals in industries such as healthcare, education, or social services. Little research has explored the levels of job burnout and job satisfaction that EAP practitioners face as a result of addressing the issues and concerns of employees, managers, and organizations found in their chaotic workplace or business arenas.

Purpose of the Study

Due to the lack of research in the area of EAP job burnout and job satisfaction, this study was designed to determine whether or not any differences existed among EAP practitioners given their EAP delivery model of practice. This study had four primary objectives. The first objective was to describe the transformational changes occurring in

today's work environment. The second was to identify the demographic commonalities and differences among EAP practitioners practicing in today's workplace. The third was to assess the levels of job satisfaction and job burnout among EAP practitioners based on the independent variables of an internal, external, or blended EAP practice delivery model. The fourth was to identify whether or not any differences existed among EAP practitioners based on their level of job satisfaction and job burnout given the presence or absence of three types of change affecting their workplace depending upon their EAP practice delivery model.

Research Questions

The following research questions were developed after analyzing the related literature, identifying the problem, and finding the limited information on EAP practitioners' job burnout and job satisfaction. Research and analysis of the data obtained from this study provided new knowledge and insight to the questions listed below.

1. Do EAP practitioners have more demographic similarities or differences regarding job satisfaction or job burnout?
2. Are the levels of job satisfaction among EAP practitioners different depending on an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model?
3. Are the levels of job burnout among EAP practitioners different depending on an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model?
4. Do EAP practitioners experience different levels of job burnout in organizations undergoing consolidations such as downsizing, mergers and acquisitions or other types of internal major changes, depending on their EAP delivery model?

Null Hypotheses

Given the lack of research found regarding EAP practitioners related to job burnout and job satisfaction, this study explored EAP professionals to determine whether or not a significant difference exists in job burnout and job satisfaction among EAP practitioners in today's challenging work environment. The study compared Certified Employee Assistance Professional (CEAP) practitioners against their EAP delivery model for determining their levels of job satisfaction and job burnout in their current practice. In addition to the four research questions, three null hypotheses were formulated.

- H₀1. Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners had no difference in age, gender, marital status, education attainment, years in current position, and years in Employee Assistance as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).
- H₀2: Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners experienced no difference in susceptibility to job satisfaction and job burnout regardless of an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS).
- H₀3. Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners had no significant difference in job burnout when working with organizations undergoing consolidations (downsizing, mergers, or acquisitions) or major changes regardless of an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS).

Research Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

Limitations

Consistently within the EAP industry, CEAP practitioners' certification and delivery of services is based on a set of core competencies established by the Employee

Assistance Professionals Association (EAPA) (EAPA, 1999). While the core EAP competencies provide a common framework for EAP practice, CEAP practitioners identified in this study may have different employment and clinical experiences, levels of education, and credentials from a variety of mental and behavioral health professions. This study had limitations because of the wide application of industries, diverse CEAP backgrounds, and EAP delivery models. This study was limited as outlined below.

- 1 The results of this study were limited by the CEAP response rate from a national database sample selected from the *EAPA Member Resource Directory*, 1999.
- 2 The job satisfaction characteristics were limited to measurements of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) nine dimensions and total satisfaction score
- 3 The job burnout characteristics were limited to measurements of the three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS), emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy.
- 4 The results of this study were limited by CEAP practitioners' interpretations of organizational consolidation (downsizing, mergers, or acquisitions) or major changes occurring in their workplace. No consistent definition of organizational consolidation or major changes was included in the study
- 5 The results of this study were limited to the truthfulness and accuracy of companies undergoing consolidations (downsizing, mergers, or acquisitions) or other major changes in their workplaces as reported by the CEAP practitioners.
6. The results for this study were limited by the CEAP practitioners' interpretations of internal, external, or blended EAP delivery models.

Delimitations

For the purposes of this study, the researcher delimited this study as outlined below

1. The research sample was conducted among Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners who were members of the Employee Assistance Professional Association, Inc. Other EAPA members were excluded from participation.
2. The characteristics of job burnout and job satisfaction were limited to the 16 items on the MBI-GS instrument and the 36 statements included in the JSS

Assumptions

The following assumptions provided direction to this study.

1. CEAP practitioners are involved in assisting employers and employees in integrating change and the challenges of work life to ensure performance standards are obtained.
2. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a valid instrument for measuring job satisfaction for CEAP practitioners
3. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) is a valid instrument for measuring the three dimensions of the Maslach burnout construct among CEAP practitioners
4. CEAP practitioners have a common framework of seven core competencies that define the elements of their EAP practice as established by the Employee Assistance Professionals Association.
5. The three EAP delivery models of internal, external, and blended are common EAP practice models found in today's American workplace

Terms and Definitions

For the purposes of this research, the following terms frequently utilized in the related literature will be operationally defined for their utilization in this study

1. *Employee Assistance Programs*: Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) were defined as a worksite-based program designed to assist employers in addressing workforce productivity and performance issues.
2. *Employee Assistance Program (EAP) Practitioners*: Employee Assistance Program practitioners were defined as counselors who assist employees in problem identification and resolution and work with management to address

work and organizational performance issues and workgroup concerns. The credentials of an Employee Assistance Program practitioner at a minimum should include a master's degree with at least five years of experience with supervision in the mental behavioral health fields. Employee Assistance Program practitioners should have formal education and experience in fields such as social work, clinical psychology, psychiatry, counseling, or nursing. EAP practitioners must have expertise in chemical dependency issues and additional experience in other fields of mental or behavioral health (Cohen, Gard, & Heffernan, 1998).

3. *Certified Employee Assistance Professionals*: Certified Employee Assistance Professionals (CEAPs) were defined as a voluntary three-year credential achieved by a passing score on a test that indicates the mastery of the EAP core technology and body of knowledge required in today's organizations.
4. *Internal EAP Program Practitioner*: The internal EAP practitioner was defined as an EAP employee working directly for the organization for which they are providing EAP services.
5. *External EAP Program Practitioner*. The external EAP practitioner was defined as an external contractor to the organization who provides services while working as an independent consultant or member of an EAP practice or firm.
6. *Occupational Stress*: Occupational stress was defined as any affect-laden negative experience that is caused by an imbalance between job demands and the response capability of the worker. When work or job demands exceed a worker's capacity to cope, stress reactions are likely to occur in the individual (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).
7. *Job Burnout*. Job burnout was defined as a special type of prolonged occupational stress that results particularly from intensive interpersonal demands at work. Christina Maslach and Susan Jackson described job burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (Cynicism), and reduced personal accomplishments (Professional Efficacy) that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).
8. *Job Satisfaction*. Job satisfaction is an attitudinal perspective that describes how people feel about their job and the different aspects of their job. According to Paul Spector (1997), job satisfaction is the extent to which a person likes (satisfied) or dislikes (dissatisfied) the variable elements of his or her job.

Research Methodology Overview

Research Study Population and Sample

This was a comparative quantitative study conducted using a survey technique to collect respondent information. The population identified for this research study was certified Employee Assistance Program (EAP) practitioners who were members of the Employee Assistance Professional Association (*EAPA*, 1999). The population sample chosen for the study consisted of (a) Certified Employee Assistance Professional (CEAP) practitioners, (b) CEAP members who listed their practice as geographically located within the United States, and (c) CEAP members working within an organization as described by their membership listing. The population sample exclusions were identified as (a) CEAP members who were listed as students, (b) non-CEAP certified members, (c) members whose membership listed employment as involved in private practices, and (d) CEAP members with international addresses. A population base of 2,319 CEAP members met the selection criteria. A sample size of 327 CEAP members was drawn at random from a box containing each name on a slip of paper and recorded in a Microsoft 97 EXCEL database.

Research Data Collection Procedures

Once the sample respondents were identified and transferred to a database, the CEAP members received letters of introduction (Appendix A) that explained the purpose of the research study, a request for their participation, and three surveys to anonymously complete and return using the U. S. Postal Services. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was provided in the survey administration packet for members to use to return survey

instruments After allowing two weeks for survey returns, a follow-up letter reminding respondents to complete their surveys and return them was sent. Certified Employee Assistance Professional participant names were kept confidential and a numerical identification code was assigned to the instruments prior to mailing.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in the study were the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) In addition, the participants completed a demographics questionnaire.

The *Employee Assistance Practitioner Demographics Questionnaire* was the questionnaire designed to collect descriptive data on Certified Employee Assistance Professional (CEAP) practitioners, their credentials, work experiences, and their EAP worksite practice. The national EAPA membership database did not identify CEAP practitioners' industries of practice or information on whether or not their organizations were undergoing consolidation or major change. This demographics survey determined the CEAP practitioners' EAP practice delivery model (see Appendix B).

Paul Spector developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in 1985 The JSS assesses nine facets of job satisfaction and provides an overall job satisfaction score A copy of the JSS instrument is located in Appendix C. According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that describes how people generally feel about various aspects or facets of their job

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)*, originally designed in 1986 by Christina Maslach and Susan Jackson, is viewed as the universal instrument of choice for assessing

job burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). The MBI has three versions: (a) the MBI-Human Services Survey, which measures burnout in staff members within human services institutions, (b) the MBI-Educators Survey which assesses educator burnout, and (c) the MBI-General Survey measures burnout in non-social services settings such as corporations and government agencies. This research study utilized the MBI-General Survey (1996) developed by William Schaufeli, Michael Leiter, Christina Maslach, and Susan Jackson to assess a CEAP practitioner's susceptibility to job burnout (see Appendix D) The MBI-GS provided analysis of CEAP members' experiences of three core dimensions of job burnout: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy

Data Collection and Analysis

This quantitative study was designed to utilize four statistical procedures for testing the three null hypotheses and for describing the findings from the three EAP questionnaire survey responses. Descriptive statistics were utilized to determine the typical CEAP practice profile and demographics. Correlation coefficients were used to determine the relationship between the CEAP total job satisfaction and burnout experiences against the selected independent variables of EAP delivery models

The third statistical procedure used in this comparative study is an Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test sample means. The fourth statistical procedure used was the Pearson's Chi-Square to assess CEAP frequencies based on the selected variables.

The independent variables identified for this study were the three EAP delivery models. For reporting EAP demographic information, the independent variables were age, gender, marital status, education attainment, and ethnicity. The dependent variables for this study were identified as the three core dimensions of job burnout taken from the MBI-GS: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. The JSS total dimensions of job satisfaction and the types of organizational change as reported by the CEAP respondents in the EAP demographics questionnaire were inherent in this research

Chapter II

Literature Review

This literature review focused on the changing nature of work and the workplace as society emerges into the 21st century, how that impacts the level of job stress among American workers, and how businesses are coping with the challenges inherent in the changes. The scope of this literature review is limited to research conducted in the decade of the 1990s, with a focus on the American private sector as the workplace.

In the arena of organizational behavior, one of the most commonly researched topics is job satisfaction and job burnout. In today's rapidly changing business environment, human resources professionals and employee assistance program practitioners must understand (a) the context and conditions of how work is changing, (b) effects of change on the workforce, and (c) how change may impact the levels of job satisfaction, job stress, and job burnout found in our contemporary workplace. This review explored the contemporary literature in three primary areas: (a) the changing process and nature of work, workforce demographics, and organizational change and business consolidation trends; (b) the utilization of Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) and practitioner competencies and challenges; and (c) job burnout and job satisfaction among human services professionals, business leaders, and managers.

The New Organizational Reality

The American Economy – A Historical Perspective

According to the U. S Department of Labor (1999), since the founding of the United States, Americans have experienced three major drivers of the U. S national economy. From the time of the Revolutionary War until shortly after the Civil War, the U. S. was largely an agricultural economy with a rural-based society as the source of employment. Based on advancements in agricultural research, efficient equipment and land utilization, today approximately 1% of the agricultural industry produces food for the other 99% of the population.

The Industrial Age of manufacturing and goods-producing economies emerged shortly after the Civil War and assumed a prominent position in the U. S. until the evolution of the service sector, which began in the early 20th century. Throughout much of the 20th century, manufacturing and the service sector enjoyed a similar rate of growth and both benefited from the steady migration of workers who were relocating from rural farms and communities to urban environments. The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (U. S Department of Labor, 1999) reported manufacturing industries account for only 18.1 million jobs. With technological advancements requiring fewer workers to do the same work, the opening of trade borders and new routes, and the decline in goods-producing industries has led to the "de-industrialization" of America. Since the 1970s, the number of service sector jobs has been consistently increasing due to the changing needs of the contemporary family unit and efforts to meet demands of dual wage earner households. Increasingly, service sector jobs are expected to increase over the next five years as domestic work and other household services are contracted to small businesses and evolving cottage industries.

At the dawn of the 21st century, the third distinct economic age emerging in America is termed the Information Age. The Information Age is evolving by continuous advancements in technology – high-speed computers coupled with fast communication networks that have revolutionized American work and family life resulting in the construction of a true global economy. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999)

. the rapid computerization and networking of American businesses, industries, and homes, has been called a 'microprocessor revolution'. That revolution is fundamentally transforming the way and the speed with which people think, connect, collaborate, design and build, locate resources, manipulate tools, conduct research, analyze and forecast, reach markets, present themselves and their wares, move and track products, make transactions and, in short, do business. (p 3)

The Future: The Rise of Global Organizations

The cultural effects of the Information Age and its impact on society, family structures and roles, environmental awareness, and the emerging concept of how work is accomplished in global markets are constantly being rewritten and redefined. According to Garten (1998), globalization has become a permanent and irreversible fixture in American and international business. Garten stated that the primary reason businesses would be permanently global is based on the power of integrating technology into corporate strategies and the capacity to maximize transportation across national boundaries.

Organizations, managers, and workers at all levels have found themselves constantly confronting an environment of rapid change, hostility, and complexity that challenges most of the previous assumptions about work. According to Elisabeth More

(1998), the challenges an organization and its workforce could encounter in the Information Age include a growing sophistication of information access, speed, and computer and communications technology that can internationally link the business world. As organizations become global, they continue to experience industry mergers, acquisitions, and restructuring to maximize growth and minimize costs. Organizations are engaged in fierce competition for generating new knowledge and recruiting highly skilled, productive workers for their workforce. Ideas and knowledge become the commodity for trade and exchange. Complexity and uncertainties found in the changing landscape of workplace demographics, diversity, and the ability of the workforce to cope with continuous stress will shape the work environment of the 21st century.

It is impossible to quantify the challenge in hypothesizing about the future needs of the American workforce, the nature of work, and the workplace, yet it is critical to consider for long-term planning and growth. Efforts to explore the changing nature of work and work life in the 21st century are at best speculative. According to Peter Drucker (1998), in human affairs such as politics, economics, and business, it is pointless to attempt to predict the future without first looking back at key events and trends to determine their potential impact on the future.

According to More (1998), management challenges in the 21st century will require organizations and managers to organize and lead differently. Managers must promote more decentralized decision making and participatory involvement. They must develop new leadership practices and sustain employee morale while dealing with tight labor market conditions. In More's research, seven core elements were identified as critical for

organizational success in the 21st century. Companies should (a) build internal capacity for constant organizational learning, (b) promote and reward innovation and experimentation, (c) foster constructive contention, (d) lead from a philosophy of empowerment and shared leadership, (e) possess the ability to optimize value potential, and (f) strategically refocus to ensure corporate sustainability. Finally, companies must find new ways to address the diverse needs and expectations of the workforce to assist employees in balancing work life issues.

The Workforce of the Future

Demographics

Management theorist Peter Drucker (1998) stated that one of the most significant trends affecting businesses over the next 20 years would not be technology or economics, but workforce demographics of industrial countries in Europe, Asia, and North America. Drucker suggested that current workers, burdened by caring for a growing number of aging non-workers, have been having fewer children. The resulting workforce trends (such as the under-population projections of developed countries and the volume of projected retirements) could create a critical shortage and global demand for skilled workers to support business productivity and growth. According to John Challenger (1998), increased consumer demands, coupled with low birth rates, could perpetuate a continued labor shortage. No longer can organizations indiscriminately throw more workers at tasks. Managers will be forced to utilize their limited human resources to their utmost efficiency.

The U. S. Department of Labor (1999) predicted that over the next 50 years the American population would become increasingly large and diverse. The Baby Boomer generation, people born between 1946 and 1964, has reached its prime work years and will dramatically shape the future of work as retirement age approaches. Between 2011 and 2029, many Baby Boomers will reach the traditional retirement age of 65. This will present a new set of challenges to the younger workforce in the form of elder care. Drucker (1998) indicated the average retirement age for healthy workers will likely increase to 75 years by 2010.

According to Challenger (1998), the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that workers age 65 and older increased by 31% between 1985 and 1995. On the opposite end of the aging spectrum (Challenger), the current teen population has been on the increase. By 2000, there will likely be 70 million children under the age of 17 based partially on projected immigration trends (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999). The U. S. Department of Education projected high school enrollments to add 1.9 million new students to the education system by 2007 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999). Conversely, the smaller Generation X, people born between the over 50 workers and the teens, will be considered the minority population in the workforce.

Diversity

The U. S. Department of Labor (1999) statistics suggested the population of the United States is expected to grow by 50% over the next half century from 275 million in 2000 to an estimated 394 million by 2050. The population projection determinants are calculated based on birth and death rates plus immigration and emigration rates. The birth

rates, while smaller than in previous years, will be heavily influenced by immigration projections and the death rate is expected to increase by 50% over the next 50 years. In 1995, the elderly population, aged 65 years or older, make up approximately 33.5 million of the total U. S. population. The 1999 estimates for increases in the elderly population are expected to double by 2050 representing approximately 20% of the total U. S. population.

Immigration has been on the increase in America. The U. S. Department of Labor (1999), projects by 2050 the U. S. population will have increased by 80 million people, with approximately 820,000 immigrants arriving annually. The U. S. Department of Labor compared the racial and ethnic breakdown of the American population as identified in 1995 with estimates for 2050. Table 2.1 describes the current and projected racial and ethnic trends and fluctuations of the U. S. population.

Table 2.1 Current and Projected Distribution by Race

Race	1995	2050
White	73.6%	52.8%
Black	12.0%	13.6%
Hispanic Origin	10.2%	24.5%
Asian & Pacific Islander	3.3%	8.2%
American Indian	0.7%	0.9%

Note: U. S. Department of Labor *Futurework: Trends and challenges for work in the 21st century*, 1999.

Education Trends

Peter Drucker (1998) predicted that in the future there would be no dominant economic power because countries could not produce the labor force to support such a role, and knowledge would become the critical, decisive competitive resource. Drucker

suggested that what makes knowledge different from other resources like money and technology was that it is constantly becoming obsolete. "Today's advanced knowledge is tomorrow's ignorance" (p. 17). One of the major factors that has led to competitive success, higher wages, and advancement in the workforce has been the level of education attainment of workers

According to the U. S Department of Labor (1999), approximately 83% of all adults over the age of 25 had graduated high school, with 24% having obtained bachelor degrees. This education trend was a significant increase from just 30 years ago when only 54% of this group had completed high school and less than 10% had completed college. As of 1997, 87% of adults aged 25 to 29 had completed high school. According to Ron Feemster (1999), the number of Americans seeking a college education has been slowly growing from 1993 with 14.3 million enrolled to 15.4 million in 1997. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, this is a significant increase in college enrollments from just a decade ago (Feemster, 1999)

Ron Feemster's (1999) research reported that the number of college dropouts has been increasing and should have an impact on the future workforce. Since 1992 when the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics started monitoring education attainment by the highest degree obtained, the number of adults aged 24 to 64 with some college but no degree had increased to 21 million, up from 18.7 million. The number of bachelor degrees increased to 33 million, up from 27 million (Feemster). In today's society of educated Baby Boomers, a high school student's chance of going to college dramatically increases if one

or both parents attended college. By 1996, high school graduates aged 18 to 24 had a 91% chance of being enrolled in college if their parents had a bachelor's degree (Feemster).

Educational attainment has been rising universally but has varied dramatically across racial and ethnic boundaries. In 1997, according to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), high school graduation rates were over 90%. High school graduation rates for whites and African Americans were statistically higher while Hispanics were reported at 62%. Two thirds of new college enrollments were to four-year institutions, and the other third were in two-year colleges. The U. S. Department of Labor (1999) reported that 69% of women enrolled in college while men enrolled at a 62% rate. Higher female enrollments in college are considered to be an emerging trend that will help narrow the earnings gap between men and women.

Gender in the Workforce

Employment rates between men and women have changed over the past 50 years. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), the rate of women in the workforce has increased over the past 30 years from 41% to 60%, while the percent of men in the workforce has declined from 86% to 75%. Women have been staying in school longer, working and building their careers prior to leaving the workforce to have children, and returning to work while their children were still preschoolers (U. S. Department of Labor). A fundamental shift in family structure has contributed to the increase in women working. The number of working single women with children under six years old had increased to 26% as of 1998, up 10% from 1975.

Work and Family

In the future, managing the demands of careers and the responsibilities of running a two-parent or single-parent home may continue to create stress, conflicts, and imbalances between the workplace and families. In today's society, there has been an increase in the number of single, one-parent families and families in which both parents were active in the workforce. The migration of women from the home to the workforce after World War II has been viewed as one of the most significant trends in U. S. economic and social history (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999). In 1940 only 28% of women worked compared with 60% in 1998. According to research from the U. S. Department of Labor, women with children have been entering and staying in the workforce because more job opportunities are available for women. Some women have been working to provide a second income for their families. Other factors that have contributed to the increase of women in the workforce have been the changing attitudes toward women and their traditional roles within the family and the continued reduction of workplace discrimination against women.

The challenges in the workforce for both parents working have created complex childcare issues that have required organizations to offer different benefits such as flexible work schedules and to provide support and tolerance with employees who must juggle these often competing work-family demands. With the aging U. S. population, a new trend for companies and workers has been addressing the care-giving needs of the elderly family members. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), in 1996, 22.4 million (20%) of U. S. households provided informal care to someone over the age

of 50. Companies must find solutions to support the personal needs of their workforces or risk losing skilled employees in a tight labor market.

In the future, the impact of responding to family care-giving needs will increase and have a dramatic effect on the workplace. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), a 1997 study estimated the aggregate cost of care giving on U. S businesses to be at \$11.4 billion per year due to lost production, worker absenteeism and replacement costs, workday interruptions, and the chronic stress and strain on employee physical and mental health. Companies have been utilizing Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) as a vehicle for providing employees and their families with referrals or resources to facilitate coping with the demands of family and work.

Workforce Issues and Challenges

Managing Organizational Change

According to Burton Gummer (1999), at the close of the 20th century, the American economy was undergoing change to society and businesses similar in magnitude to which took place at the beginning of the century. Early in the 20th century, blue-collar workers were the primary workforce participants, working long hours in unsafe conditions and performing repetitive, menial, low-wage tasks. According to Gummer, one of the most significant changes within organizations at the end of the 20th century was the occupational shift of labor that has seen the steady decline of blue-collar laborers and the expansion of professional, technical, and managerial workers.

The concept and rate of change for businesses at the beginning of the 21st century is a complex phenomenon. According to Elizabeth More (1998), the forces of change

affecting organizations arise from a variety of external and internal sources. Examples of external forces affecting a company occur in the form of social, political, environmental, competitive, regulatory, and technological advancements and changes. Corporations also experience many internal sources of change such as new leadership, demanding customers, technology assimilations, productivity and quality improvements, speed to market processes and continuous innovations, and worker demands for a higher quality of work life

In today's economic environment there are two dominant organizational change philosophies. A philosophical belief in incremental change results in organizations having a planned, anticipatory approach aimed at improving existing systems, processes, and market position, and gaining overall effectiveness in current operations. The second change philosophy is called transformational change. In this style of change management, every aspect of the organization from its leadership practices, work processes and systems, and employee skills and abilities are called into question and reviewed for opportunities for transformational change. Managerial concepts and tools such as total quality improvement strategies and re-engineering efforts were utilized to break down internal and external organizational barriers and re-define the company and its business model from scratch (More, 1998).

According to More (1998), companies that required transformational change interventions usually had several distinguishing characteristics that led to the feasibility of introducing this level of stress and change to an organization and its workforce. First, organizations requiring transformational change are experiencing a crisis for survival by

severe external or internal pressures to change. Secondly, organizations currently undergoing mergers or acquisitions of business units that alters the structure, products, services, and market position of a company require transformational change. Finally, new leadership to an organization with a different vision for the future, radical revisions of reward or incentive processes, and new management practices serve to facilitate this level of transformational change.

These large-scale transformational change efforts introduced businesses and workers in the late 1980s and most of 1990s to descriptive corporate terms such as downsizing, rightsizing, layering, redundancy elimination, redesign, mergers and acquisitions, reductions in force, and many other forms of organizational change and stress. These organizational changes have challenged the fundamental assumptions about the nature and stability of work and employee behaviors and expectations, and have altered employees' relationships to their employers and coworkers (Gore, 1997).

According to More (1998), much of the organizational research for the past 10 years has indicated that most change efforts, either incremental or transformational, have failed to achieve their desired goals and objectives. The most common reasons for organizational change failures have been essentially human. Generally, workers often resisted change because it represented a threat, was disruptive, stressful, confusing, and unfamiliar, and it failed to reap the intended benefits of the change within the agreed-upon time frame.

Challenges of Consolidating Business-Downsizing, Mergers and Acquisitions

One of the most defining issues in American business for the past 20 years has been the constant downsizing of the American workforce. This change has altered the

implied employer-employee social contract of lifelong employment that has driven the American workforce for generations. According to the Best Practices in Downsizing government study conducted in 1997 (Gore, 1997), the downsizing of America's private and public sectors has affected more than 43 million workers. That was approximately one third of all households. Downsizing was defined as a deliberate organizational effort to reduce the workforce of a company with the intent to improve operational performance (Shaw & Barrett-Powers, 1997). Historically, according to Shaw and Barrett-Powers, downsizing was the generic term used by organizations to indicate a divestiture of unrelated business units or sale of capital assets. However, downsizing in today's work environment usually refers to the reduction of human resources through layoffs, attrition, early retirement, or redeployment.

The intended benefits of company downsizing efforts are aimed at performance improvements, flexibility, faster decision-making, and increased quality and efficiency. The reasons offered by the private sector for downsizing are different than found in the public sector, but in the end, the result of lost jobs is the same. In the private sector, businesses have had to reduce costs as a means of responding and competing with the marketplace and maximizing shareholder returns. In the public sector, budget reductions driven by technology improvements and efficiencies have reduced the number of workers required to perform various tasks (Gore, 1997).

The impact of organizational downsizing on a workforce has usually been viewed as demoralizing, and in many cases failed to achieve the intended organizational goals. According to Shaw and Barrett-Powers (1997), research indicated that less than one

fourth of the companies that downsized realized improvements in productivity, cash flow, or shareholder return and the action left many negative consequences for the remaining workforce. According to the Best Practices benchmarking study (Gore, 1997), the negative impact on workers following a downsizing has seen a reduction of employee productivity and product quality, low morale, poor customer service, and interruption of employee relationships with customers or suppliers.

According to the literature review, Shaw and Barrett-Powers (1997) suggested that many downsizing studies reflected the impact on a variety of dependent variables at the individual and organizational level. However, there is no unifying theme that described the overall impact of downsizing interventions on a company and its workforce. Shaw and Barrett-Powers stated that the impact of downsizing on the individual employee can result in feelings of job insecurity, anger, job stress, decreased loyalty and commitment, lower motivation and productivity, and increased resistance to change. The impact of downsizing at the organization level has (a) shown negative effects on planning and innovation, the ability to retain critical skilled employees, and the financial situation; (b) disrupted relationships with customers and internally among managers and employees; and (c) limited the degree to which an organization can maintain a long-term strategic perspective.

When an organization embarks on a plan to downsize, according to Shaw and Barrett-Powers (1997), there are two fundamental methods for coping with this stressful event. The first method involves how well the organization and workforce appraises and evaluates a stressful situation. Shaw and Barrett-Powers stated that there are large bodies

of antecedents and consequences of research on companies making decisions under stress. The second method of dealing with stress considers how adequately the organization and its workforce cope with the stressful event. Meni Koslowsky (1998) defines coping as cognitive or behavioral processes that reduce or tolerate the internal or external demands of the stressful situation. Individuals cope with stress using either a problem-focused approach or an emotional-focused approach as a vehicle for addressing the stress or eliminating it (Koslowsky). According to Shaw and Barrett-Powers, research has shown that individuals involved in downsizing attempt to cope with the stressful event alone or in some form of collective groups.

In addition to downsizing as a frequent method of consolidating businesses, in the late 1980s and 1990s businesses saw the rise of mergers, acquisitions, and a variety of inter-organizational joint ventures as a popular business model for managing costs and maximizing growth opportunities. According to Cartwright and Cooper (1993), empirical studies have repeatedly confirmed that mergers have had a negative impact on corporate profitability. Studies suggested in the late eighties, approximately 23% of the U. S. mergers were successful when compared with an optimistic 50% in the United Kingdom. In a study of 148 U. S. joint ventures, 24% of the joint ventures were terminated within the first three years (Cartwright & Cooper).

The anticipation and impact of mergers or acquisitions on a workforce has been considered a stressful event that results in negative behavioral effects such as low morale and productivity, job dissatisfaction, and an increase in absenteeism and labor turnover. Aside from the intended financial or strategic value expected from the merger or

acquisition, the inability to assess the potential human impact and problems associated with the workforce has led to the failure of one third to one half of all mergers (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993). According to Cartwright and Cooper, in the literature review on mergers, issues of cultural fit and its effects and associated costs to workers and their subsequent performance have had limited empirical research conducted to accurately determine the true cost of cultural incompatibility in business consolidations.

According to Cartwright and Cooper (1993), the sources of stress on workers experiencing a merger originate from the perceived loss of organizational identity and sense of belonging, job insecurity, access to information, and the confusion related to changing work relationships and practices. The transition problems that occur for workers who have not chosen for the consolidation experience low organizational commitment to making the merger successful, low job satisfaction, and increased generalized anxiety. The overall impact of any consolidation is based on the ability of the employees and the organization to cope with the event and deal effectively with the stress and ambiguity of change

When any type of consolidation or change impacts an organization and its workforce, the relationships and connections among the workers are affected and stressed. According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), in today's global environment the workplace has undergone a breakdown of the sense of community that previously existed within organizations. Maslach and Leiter suggested that individuals lose a positive connection with others in their work environment, which has characterized the loss of community. Maslach and Leiter believed that workers were more productive in an

environment where intrinsic values such as recognition, praise, humor, and respect were evident. The presence of these human values facilitate the resolution of conflicts and stress within the workforce and reinforced workers' motivation and commitment to their jobs and organization.

Social Problems Become Workplace Problems

Contemporary organizations, in rapid response to the dynamic economic changes, have helped make the workplace a fluctuating, unpredictable, chaotic, stressful environment. It is no surprise that according to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), the workplace has inherited many of the social problems that historically were limited to family and community environments and were generally seen as beyond the scope of most corporate concerns

One of the recent social ills that has dramatically entered the work environment has been the rise in workplace violence. According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), workplace violence in the U. S. exceeded that of other developed countries and is expected to remain high in the near future. Today, according to the U. S. Department of Justice, approximately one million workers become victims of violent assaults each year. In a single year, approximately 79% of the 1,000 workplace homicides occur as a result of robberies or other violent crimes. In the workplace, women more often than men experienced a greater percent of the workplace violence (U. S. Department of Labor, 1999).

Another social problem that has emerged in today's workforce is the increased abuse of drugs and alcohol among all levels of the workforce. The effects of alcohol and

drug abuse in the workplace have been shown to (a) negatively impact the quality of relationships among co-workers and managers, (b) reflect higher absentee rates, and (c) result in lower productivity and quality of work (U S Department of Labor, 1999). In addition to production concerns, organizations are finding that employee drug and alcohol abuse can lead to episodes of workplace violence, endangering customers or other workers, and create an unsafe work environment.

In today's tight labor market, employers are choosing to invest in drug and alcohol treatment programs as a means of retaining hard to replace workers who suffer from substance abuse. In many work environments, employees are routinely subjected to drug testing during the recruitment process and once hired, in some industries, randomly selected for regular drug tests. Over the past two decades many companies have initiated Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) as a vehicle for providing (a) substance abuse referrals for treatment, (b) ongoing confidential monitoring of employees and their substance abuse recovery, and (c) reintegration of the employee, when treated, into the workforce.

Employee Assistance Programs

Coping with Change and New Ways of Working

The global economy, technological advancements, and the redefinition of the traditional family unit and roles within the family have made the workplace in the United States one of the most productive and stressful environments in the world. Along with America's phenomenal economic success, rapid changes in work processes and the resulting employee stress have generated concerns among many employers about quality

of worklife for their employees. In today's 24-hour virtual work environment, workers have had excessive demands placed on their time with consistently higher expectations required in performance. For some workers the result has been the depletion of physical and emotional energy. Frequently the extended impact of workplace stress has negatively affected others in the employee's family and social networks.

In efforts to facilitate the organizational changes and manage stress in the workplace, employers have turned to sponsoring EAPs as tools for helping managers and workers integrate all the demands of a stressful workplace with their personal and family obligations. The goals in utilizing EAPs has been to assist managers, employees, and in some cases, family members (a) make adjustments to work demands, (b) survive life changes, and (c) effectively manage ongoing stress and change without significantly impacting their job performance or productivity.

In corporations, the antecedents to EAPs were industrial programs focused on alcohol and drug abuse. The National Institute on Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse coined the term "employee assistance" to describe job performance-based interventions (Hartwell & Steele, 1996). Over time, EAP practitioners have expanded their services to include many personal problems directly or indirectly affecting the employee at the work site. According to Cohen, et al (1998), in a 1995 survey, 82.3% of companies with 1,000 or more employees reported providing EAP services to address both performance and personal concerns.

Employee Assistance Programs are defined as work-site programs designed to assist employers in addressing workforce productivity and performance issues. Employee

Assistance counselors help employees identify and resolve personal concerns including, but not limited to health problems, marital issues, financial needs, legal problems, emotional difficulties, substance dependency, stress and other issues that could affect individual or team performance. Employee Assistance Program practitioners have utilized seven core technologies that are designed to create and guide a unique approach to addressing work performance issues and employee concerns

The seven core technologies used by EAP practitioners as defined by the Employee Assistance Professional Association (EAPA, 1999) included:

- 1 Providing consultation, education, and assistance to organizational leaders, managers, and union officials seeking assistance on managing troubled employees, enhancing the work environment and initiating efforts to improve performance, and providing outreach, education, and services to the employee's family
2. Ensuring confidential and timely problem identification and assessment services for employees with personal concerns that may affect job performance
3. Providing constructive confrontation, motivation, and short-term intervention with employees to address problems that affect performance.
- 4 Providing referral of employees for diagnosis, treatment, and assistance plus offering case monitoring and follow-up service.
- 5 Providing consultation to the organization in establishing and maintaining effective relations with treatment and other service providers and in managing provider contracts
6. Providing consultation to work organizations to encourage availability of employee access to health benefits covering medical and behavioral problems, including but not limited to, alcoholism, drug abuse, and mental and emotional disorders.
- 7 Identifying and reporting the effects of EAP services on the work organization and individual job performance (EAPA, 1999)

According to Hartwell and Steele's (1996) research, EAPs have continued to grow in popularity as adjuncts and interfaces to primary health care services. Their research found that 81% of the corporations utilized off work-site premises and the external contractor model for delivery of services, compared to 17% of businesses that preferred an internal, on-site delivery model. In addition, their study confirmed that EAPs had 76% utilization rates in organizations employing over a thousand workers.

In the research conducted by Hartwell and Steele (1996), findings on workplace demographics indicated that EAPs were generally found in educated, skilled, and unionized work environments with few minority employees in the workplace. Employers' efforts to retain and reinstate troubled workers promoted their offering EAP services. The primary goal for companies supporting EAPs was the avoidance of accruing costs associated with recruiting, replacing, and training new employees. Finally, Hartwell and Steele's study indicated that the cost of EAPs varies by location and geographic region, but on average the cost of providing EAP services to eligible employees in 1993 was \$21.83 for internal programs and \$18.09 for external programs per employee, per year. In a follow-up longitudinal study comparing 1993 and 1995 research studies, French, Zarkin, Bray, and Hartwell (1999) estimated the new average cost per eligible employee for EAP services. Internal delivery models were found to be more expensive. However, at an estimated mean cost of \$26.59 per employee (\$21.83 in 1993) internal models offered more EAP services. The cost associated with external EAP providers per eligible employee was lower, estimated at \$22.19 per employee (\$ 18.09 in 1993), with fewer services provided to the organization.

Employee Assistance Program Practitioners

In the mental health field, the emergence of EAP practitioners over the past two decades has represented a new entity of professional providers for behavioral health services. EAP practitioners apply a variety of theoretical models and different behavioral, therapeutic, and clinical methods when providing services to clients. According to Cohen, et al. (1998) the credentials of EAP practitioners at a minimum should include (a) a master's degree, (b) at least five years of experience with supervision in the mental behavioral health fields, and (c) satisfying a state licensure. Cohen et al. suggested that EAP practitioners should have formal education and experience in fields such as social work, clinical psychology, psychiatry, counseling, or nursing. They also suggested that all EAP practitioners must have expertise in chemical dependency issues and additional experience in other fields of mental or behavioral health such as (a) child and family services, (b) acquired immuno-deficiency (AIDS), and (c) elder care.

The Employee Assistance Professional Association (EAPA) offers a Certified Employee Assistance Professional (CEAP) credential. The CEAP is an advanced level, voluntary credential that is designed to test and certify a practitioner's knowledge in employee assistance core services and ensures that the professional has the required clinical experiences and current number of professional development training hours to maintain the credential (EAPA, 1999). Organizations hiring CEAP practitioners benefit from the EAPA credential process, which ensures that the professionals' skills and knowledge are formally recognized and their practice adheres to the code of ethical standards established for the EAPA (EAPA, 1999).

In addition to sound clinical and ethical practices, the success of either internal or external EAPs is based on a series of complex but integrated factors involving multiple stakeholders within an organization and resources in the local community. The most critical factor in any EAP is the assurance of confidentiality between the employee and practitioner. Ensuring an employee's right to privacy is critical to building program credibility. However, exceptions must be made to the confidentiality policy, when a threat to life or some form of endangerment occurs such as suicidal or homicidal ideations, stalking, or child abuse (Cohen et al , 1998).

Another important factor for creating a successful Employee Assistance program is having a partnership and supportive relationship between the EAP practitioners and managers within the organization. According to Cohen et al. (1998), troubled employees may positively respond to seeking help if a well-intended supervisor or manager suggested EAP assistance and provided support for the employee as he or she attempted to resolve concerns. Companies should never require employees to seek EAP assistance or view EAP as a punitive employment action. Managers and EAP practitioners must have clearly articulated and agreed-upon roles and pre-established policies directing their actions when dealing with troubled employees. Managers can terminate employees for policy infringement or poor performance; however, managers should consult with EAP practitioners and determine work-related criteria that an employee must meet to retain employment.

Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction

Introduction

It has become evident from the (a) research review on workplace trends, (b) changing nature of work, and (c) increased demands and stressors found in the work environment that Employee Assistance Programs and EAP professionals have been on the forefront of addressing employee performance, and emotional and behavioral issues. The challenge with any group of human relations professionals is to provide services while maintaining a level of personal and emotional detachment from the client's problems. Given the chronic changes and stress impacting the work environment, EAP practitioners play a vital role in identifying and developing solutions to (a) address the changing dynamics and nature of the work environment, (b) assess employee levels of job satisfaction and job stress, and (c) intervene to reduce the potential for job burnout.

The Emergence of Professional Occupational Stress

In the related literature review, prior research focused on occupational stress and burnout within the context of work-related factors and their impact on specific individual or organization stressors. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), occupational stress and burnout should be viewed in a broader context to include the changing social, cultural, and ideological conditions resulting from our migration to a global economy and society. Schaufeli and Enzmann identified seven trends from society that they believe are interrelated and have led to increased prevalence of occupational stress and burnout in the workplace.

The first trend, according to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), has been the emergence of the professional service sector. Human services professional occupations such as nursing, social work and teaching were among the fastest growing occupational groups in America following World War II. According to the early research on job burnout, employees in human service professions have repeatedly demonstrated a high risk of developing burnout because of the emotional and interpersonal demands of working with people. The second trend identified was called labeling. Schaufeli and Enzmann suggested that society in general has shown a tendency to label all their problems, complaints and concerns in diffuse, mainstream, psychological terms such as stress because it was easily understood and considered to be the root of many symptoms. As seen in the literature, many definitions of the term stress are ambiguous, ambivalent or overly inclusive.

The social shift towards individualization and loss of traditional communities such as churches or neighborhoods has forced people to individually re-define their social roles. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the rise in individualization and lack of psychosocial skills in some individuals has led to a greater anonymity, impersonality and isolation. That in turn has led to increased stress and fewer support resources for helping people cope with stress. The fourth factor observed has been the increase in mental and emotional workload affecting professionals. For example, technology has penetrated service sector jobs requiring cognitive skills such as vigilance, accuracy, and rapid decision making for nurses working in technologically sophisticated intensive care units.

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), professionals traditionally have been viewed as valued members of society. However, over the past two decades as society's values have shifted, there has been a weakening of professional authority. Fundamental assumptions about expert skills, knowledge, and confidence in the institutions on which that authority rested are no longer taken for granted. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann, Cherniss, one of the pioneers in burnout research, considered the weakening of professional authority to be a major precursor to individuals experiencing professional burnout.

The sixth trend identified by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) is called professional mystique, a set of beliefs, expectations, or opinions the general public held with regard to professionals and their work or services. Professional mystique has been perpetuated with new entries into a specialized field, which reinforced the unrealistic expectations that ultimately clashed with occupational realities. As cited in Schaufeli and Enzmann, Cherniss identified five elements of professional mystique that contribute to the disillusionment and burnout of professionals when expectations do not match reality

1. competence—professionals may have the required credentials but not always the skills to feel fully competent;
2. autonomy—professional freedom and control over practice decisions, but in reality bureaucratic interference, strict regulations and fixed schedules are the standard,
3. self-realization—professional jobs are supposed to be challenging, interesting, and varied, thus providing stimulation and fulfillment; in reality a professional practice can be dull, insignificant, and routine;

- 4 collegiality—professionals tend to work isolated from others and when they are in contact with other colleagues, the time is characterized by undercutting, rivalry, competition, and distrust resulting in frustration;
- 5 attitudes of recipients—professionals are taught that the recipient of services should be grateful, honest, and cooperative. However, the large percentages of recipients have failed to live up to that standard. They may lie, cheat, manipulate, and resist the professional's efforts to help (p. 16)

Finally, the last trend identified has been the changing psychological contract between employees and their organizations. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), a psychological contract is defined as an individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between the employee and the organization. In other words, the psychological contract entails a belief in what the employer is obliged to provide based on perceived promises or reciprocal exchange. Employees have found that they are working harder, yet they have continued to experience job insecurities. The lifelong employment guarantee is no longer the operating norm in today's workplace. "Violation of the psychological contract may result in negative consequences such as turnover, dissatisfaction but also reduced organizational commitment and burnout" (Schaufeli & Enzmann, p. 16).

Occupational and Job Stress

The literature review offered many references and sources that described the impact of stress on individuals, groups, and organizations. According to Kleber and van der Velden (1996), one of the most commonly accepted definitions of stress originated by Lazarus is called an interactional definition of stress. In that definition, stress referred to a discrepancy between the demands of the environment and the resources of the individual.

in which the demands taxed or exceeded the resources of the individual. In a work setting, job stress resulted from an individual or work group's inadequate reaction to job demands. Stress could occur whenever individuals or groups were asked or required to perform tasks that they could not, might, or might not want to do. According to Quick et al (1997), job stress was not necessarily a destructive force. It could be motivating and could lead to enhanced performance if the stress was not too intense and if the individual were able to cope adequately with the demands. Typical job stress triggers could be (a) tasks or role-specific demands, (b) interpersonal demands, or (c) physical demands (Quick et al 1997).

Individual physiological and psychological responses to job stress have been common among workers. However, prolonged exposure to job stress may result in another type of stress called occupational stress. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), "Occupational stress is defined as a generic term that refers to any affect-laden negative experience that was caused by an imbalance between job demands and the response capability of the worker. When job demands were too high, stress reactions were likely to occur" (p. 8). If an employee's occupational stress levels were sustained over time without relief, a more serious form of job stress called job burnout could result. Job burnout is considered to be a special type of prolonged occupational stress that could result particularly from intensive interpersonal demands at work.

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the prevalence of occupational stress in the American workforce is high. Schaufeli and Enzmann stated that in a survey conducted in the United States, 75% of the workers responding described their jobs as

stressful and expected to see work pressures continue to increase. The survey also indicated that U. S. industry lost approximately 550 million working days per year due to absenteeism, of which 54% was thought to be stress related. In 1993, the cost of occupational stress to American businesses was projected to exceed \$200 billion per year due to absenteeism, reduced productivity, and increases in worker compensation and medical claims

According to the U. S. Department of Labor (1999), one in five employees works more than 49 hours per week and was experiences more on-the-job stress than did past generations. The increasing demands of the workplace have been producing an increase in job related stress and stress illnesses such as depression, sleep deprivation, and burnout. Physiological illnesses such as cardiovascular problems, gastrointestinal illnesses, and workplace injuries have become more prevalent in the workforce and have impacted employees' health and productivity

Burnout

In the literature review, thousands of publications about burnout have been issued in professional journal articles, dissertations, and master's theses. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), as of 1996, research on burnout continued to be a popular subject of empirical study that resulted in approximately 50 dissertations annually. Given the plethora of anecdotal information and empirical research available, this review has been limited to the most recent findings on burnout among human services professionals.

Historical Perspective on Job Burnout

Burnout as a psychological and social phenomenon emerged in the early 1970s. As cited in Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), Herbert Freudenberger described burnout in 1974. He had observed young, idealistic clinic volunteers who, after a period of time of working with drug addicts, began to experience a gradual loss of energy, numerous physical and mental complaints, and a loss of motivation and commitment to their work. Separately from Freudenberger, a social psychology researcher named Christina Maslach was observing how health care individuals such as physicians, nurses, and hospice workers coped with the stressful demands of their jobs. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann, Maslach's initial research had found that professional workers demonstrated consistent patterns of coping strategies such as a detached concern and the dehumanization of their patients as a personal defense mechanism. From these studies, Maslach and her colleagues attached the metaphor of burnout to this set of psychological observations (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), individuals who exhibited the emotions and behaviors associated with burnout have historically been considered weak, unable to survive in a tough world, and failures in taking care of themselves, and they have been viewed as having personal problems rather than job problems. "Blaming the victim" has been a common social work term, coined by William Ryan, that suggested people were at fault for their own circumstances, that somehow they were responsible for their conditions and for correcting their problems (Longres, 1995). In short, these assumptions

led to the logical conclusion that burnout was a personal problem requiring the individual to seek his or her own solutions.

The impact of burnout on organizations, according to Maslach and Leiter (1997), has a bottom line cost. In spite of the costs, failure to change the organizational conditions that contribute to individual burnout has been slow to develop in many companies. As long as employers view burnout as a personal problem and focus interventions at the individual level, stress management programs and other interventions have a low return on investment. That narrow view of blaming the individual for burnout has limited the exploration and examination of societal factors such as the organization, job content, and the relationships among managers, co-workers, and customers as being contributing factors to the syndrome.

According to Cordes and Dougherty (1993), early research on burnout focused on studying emotion and arousal and the way in which people coped with the arousal. The initial research on burnout was conducted primarily with health care professionals, and the results led researchers to conclude that something unique to individuals doing "people work" could result in burnout. According to Cox, Kuk, and Leiter (1993), initial lay concepts of burnout, non-scientific and anecdotal, have contributed to problems of construct definition, including a lack of substance and vagueness, lack of consensus, and an over-inclusion of other concepts such as job or occupation stress. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, empirical research studies with the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) psychometric instrument were conducted to further clarify and define the burnout construct.

Job Burnout Construct Defined

Today, the most widely researched and commonly accepted definition of burnout has been the Maslach three-dimension conceptualization as measured by the MBI.

According to the literature, there were several different points of view on the definition and description of burnout that had empirical data to support their distinction from Maslach and Jackson's definition that are worth referencing. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) described two types of complementary burnout definitions. end-state definitions that explored the core symptoms associated with burnout, and process definitions that described the dynamic process of the burnout syndrome.

As previously mentioned, according to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the most commonly referenced end-state definition of burnout that was proposed by Maslach and Jackson in 1986 described "burnout as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishments that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind" (p. 31) According to Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993), the definition offered by Maslach and Jackson in 1986 asserted that burnout could lead to a deterioration in the quality of care or services provided, contribute to low morale, job turnover, and physical or psychological dysfunction such as exhaustion, insomnia, increased substance abuse, and marital and family problems

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), Maslach's first dimension of burnout was called emotional exhaustion, characterized by a lack of energy and feeling that one's emotional resources were depleted. This dimension is commonly associated with a compassion fatigue among health care workers in which feelings of frustration and

tension exist between individuals, their co-workers, and their clients as they recognize they are unable to give of themselves or be as responsible as in previous interactions (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Another dimension of burnout is called depersonalization or dehumanization, which is characterized by individuals treating their clients as objects instead of as people. Cynicism, compartmentalization of professional lives, callousness, and an emotional detachment or withdrawal from co-workers, clients, and the organization are common manifestations. The final dimension of burnout is called diminished personal accomplishment in which the professionals tend to view self and their work negatively and to experience a decline in job competence, self-esteem, and achievement in work and also in interpersonal relationships (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Maslach's original position defining burnout limited the scope to "people work" in human service occupations. However, in 1997, Maslach expanded her concept of burnout to extend beyond human service occupations. "Burnout is redefined as a crisis in one's relationship with work, not necessarily as a crisis in one's relationship with people at work" (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), a second, slightly broader perspective on burnout was offered by Pines and Aronson, which

describes burnout as a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion caused by long term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding. Low energy, chronic fatigue, and a wide variety of physical and psychosomatic complaints characterize physical exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion involves feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, and entrapment, which can lead to emotional breakdowns. Finally, mental exhaustion refers to the

development of negative attitudes towards one's self, one's work, and life itself (p. 32)

As cited in Schaufeli and Enzmann, Pines and Aronson also developed a burnout instrument called the Burnout Measure that is widely utilized in contemporary burnout research.

As cited in Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), Brill described burnout in the context of work and job performance by offering the following definition of burnout: "Burnout is an exceptionally mediated, job-related, dysphoric and dysfunctional state in an individual without major psychopathology who has (a) functioned for a time at adequate performance and affective levels in the same job situation and who (b) will not recover to previous levels without outside help or environmental rearrangement" (p. 33). Brill's contribution to this definition has allowed us to view burnout within an occupational context; it excluded individuals with verified mental illness. This definition provided a level of clarity and specificity to burnout and its ramifications in work-related environments.

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), several researchers viewed burnout as a dynamic process. One of the most common process definitions came from Cherniss who identified burnout as a three-stage process. In stage one, burnout resulted from an imbalance between resources and demand (stress). In stage two, immediate, short-term emotional tension, fatigue, and exhaustion occurred, and in stage three a number of changes in attitude and behavior occurred such as a tendency to treat clients in a detached, mechanical fashion or a cynical preoccupation with one's own needs. The most

significant contribution that Cherniss offered was the notion that burnout can occur in any occupation (Schaufeli & Enzmann).

A second process definition of burnout, as cited by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) that was provided by Edelwich and Brodsky stated that individuals involved in the helping professions sometimes experience a progressive disillusionment, loss of energy, and loss of purpose. The distinction in this definition is the belief that individuals attracted to helping professions have built-in aspirations and idealistic expectations that create a predisposition to experiencing burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann). Another process definition, offered by Etzion, viewed burnout as a slowly developing process that cannot be traced to a specific stressful event or situation but that left the individual feeling totally exhausted (Schaufeli & Enzmann). Maslach and Leiter (1997) offered another characterization that describes burnout as erosion of the human soul, values, dignity, and spirit, that was pervasive and from which recovery was difficult

The conclusion from the literature suggested that the multiple definitions regarding the constructs of burnout have evolved and expanded over the past several decades. According to most researchers one thing was evident: there remains no agreement on the definition of burnout. The controversy is expected to continue given that burnout definitions, observations, and symptoms merge and overlap with other constructs such as occupational stress and mental illnesses such as depression and chronic fatigue. In the future, burnout as a theoretical construct may continue to generate more empirical research within the various contexts of seeking organizational, interpersonal, and individual clarification, description, and resolution of the stressors. That research

could assist in determining effective coping strategies and interventions for treatment.

Today, the notion of burnout has remained a popular cultural term and manifestation and while unclear, the feelings and symptoms obviously resonate with the general public

Antecedents and Correlates of Job Burnout

The burnout construct has been widely studied over the past two decades but not always with strict scientific methods. Early burnout research consisted of one-shot surveys with convenience samples and self-report assessments. In the past decade, more rigorous studies have been conducted that have identified and confirmed some of the characteristics, attributes, and individual and organizational antecedents that may result in burnout. It is important to caution that susceptibility to burnout has not been universal but has been based on the individual circumstance, capacity to cope, and a myriad of interactional variables, some of which would be impossible to identify and substantiate. The following review represents the most commonly identified aspects of burnout that may be reinforced by emerging organizational realities and trends of modern work life.

According to Schaufeli and Buunk (1996), most researchers have not usually investigated the demographic characteristics associated with burnout; however, several important characteristics have been reported that are worth mentioning. In the U. S., burnout has occurred among workers under the age of 30 to 40 with limited work experiences. Schaufeli and Buunk exercised caution in interpreting those values because some burnout victims may have dropped out of work or may have had to leave the organization due to burnout, and the reports may not have accurately reflected the change. As reported by other job stress studies, the older survivors, more experienced workers

who remained and participated in the research, have been described as experiencing a healthy worker effect in their work. Initially, women reported more burnout than men did, but gender often confounded with occupational roles and hierarchical positions; and when those variables were accounted for, there was no significant difference in burnout by gender with the exception of depersonalization. Depersonalization has been reported as higher among men. Job burnout has been found among individuals with higher levels of education as contrasted to low status and poorly educated workers. Finally, burnout has been shown to be a higher risk among single people as contrasted to those living with a partner, who presumably, have emotional support (Schaufeli & Buunk).

According to Schaufeli and Buunk (1996), studies have confirmed that burnout has been related to work overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict. Other job characteristics that have been shown to cause burnout are a lack of autonomy in work, monotony, lack of feedback and involvement in decision making, lack of responsibility or opportunity to use skills and knowledge, and poor working conditions. Job attitudes have also been linked to burnout. Typically, burnout has been shown to occur among employees with high and often unrealistic expectations, strong involvement and commitment to their work, and intense interpersonal relationships with clients. Schaufeli & Buunk suggested that job dissatisfaction is the most important attitude linked to job burnout. In a longitudinal study among teachers, burnout was shown to cause job dissatisfaction instead of the reverse.

Implications of Job Burnout, Job Satisfaction and the Emerging Organizational Realities

As the challenges of the 21st century influence the work environment, understanding the core factors that impact employee performance and satisfaction will be critical for long-term productivity and prosperity. As seen in the literature review, some researchers have explored the antecedents and consequences that organizations play in promoting job satisfaction and job burnout

Much has been said about individual antecedents related to burnout. Recently several researchers have identified organizational causes and consequences of job burnout that required some brief commentary Maslach and Leiter (1997) identified six organizational conditions leading to burnout. Those conditions facilitate a mismatch between workers and their jobs that could cause job burnout. They were:

- 1 an increased workload that requires workers to do more work with less time and resources;
- 2 a lack of control which refers to employees having less input or choice into decisions affecting their work,
3. insufficient rewards such as meager financial increases, or lack of recognition and pride for one's work,
4. the breakdown in community or loss of social connections or relationships at work;
5. an absence of fairness by the presence of inequities in pay and policy adherence; and
- 6 conflicting values that may exist between personal and company values and ethics Those organizational conclusions reinforce that job burnout should be considered in a systemic context and should not be viewed as a personal problem.

According to Schaufeli and Buunk (1996), another early burnout researcher, Cherniss, proposed an organizational framework that was shown to result in burnout. Cherniss suggested that employees experience reality shock when they encounter the following work setting conditions. “ (a) the absence of orientation or assimilation for new employees; (b) increased workloads; (c) understimulation; (d) limited scope of client contact; (e) low level of autonomy; (f) discrepancy between institutional goals and personal values, (g) inadequate leadership and supervisory practices; (h) social isolation” (p 333)

As cited by Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), in the mid-1980s, Robert Golembiewski offered a second organizational approach that incorporated Maslach’s three dimensions of burnout but re-sequenced them. Golembiewski suggested that burnout was a virulent process that migrated through eight phases, based on different job stressors, such as job overload, conflicts, and trouble with supervisors, that resulted in the likelihood of burnout existing, as determined by the MBI scores. Each of these organizational models confirmed that a dynamic relationship existed between individuals and their organizations. That offered researchers a broader, systemic perspective for studying burnout and job satisfaction.

Schultz, Greenley, and Brown (1995) examined six complex social realities that have been assumed to contribute to burnout in organizations. The researchers hypothesized that the following five organizational categories: (a) work satisfaction, (b) client severity, (c) the work environment, (d) individual characteristics, and (e) organization and management processes such as culture and leadership influences that

were sequenced in a causal framework and posited to have a reciprocal relationship to job burnout and job satisfaction. Within this framework, many of the challenges seen from the emerging work environment and the antecedents of burnout such as demanding interpersonal relationships, organizational and individual roles, goal congruence and clarity, high worker expectations, job autonomy, stabilized organizational structures, team processes, and size and workload distribution were studied. The findings from Schultz et al. (1995) indicated that an organizational structure that facilitated teams and leadership practices created favorable conditions for positively impacting job satisfaction. While their findings on job clarity and satisfaction were supported, contrary to expectations, job clarity had a negative relationship to staff autonomy. That was attributed to management methods aimed at using fewer constraints and promoting participation leadership practices. Finally, the other significant finding from this research was that a higher level of education provided increased opportunity for job autonomy and job satisfaction.

Job Burnout Among Professionals

In the literature there were volumes of information and research about the antecedent and consequences of burnout on specific professional occupations such as teachers (Burke & Greenglass, 1995), nurses (Fagin, Carson, Leary, & DeVilliers 1996; Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996), psychologists and counselors (Sabine, Schaufeli, & DeJonge, 1998), dentists (Gorter, Albrecht, Hoogstraten, & Eijkman, 1999), executives and managers (Levinson, 1996; Mirvis, Marshall, & Kilpatrick, 1999), and social workers (Acker, 1999; Arches, 1991). In many of those studies, the demands of the work

environment and the professional's experiences of exhaustion, detachment and self-efficacy and competence have been validated using the Maslach Burnout Inventory.

However, little research has been found that addresses the specific occupation of an EAP practitioner and assesses their experiences with job satisfaction and burnout. As previously mentioned, many EAP practitioners have educational credentials and professional experience in the social work or counseling arenas. For the purposes of this literature review, cautionary inferences must be made regarding the study of burnout on Employee Assistance Program practitioners with similar studies utilizing social workers and counselors. The recent research on executives and managers indicates that those on the forefront of managing the challenges of consistently having to achieve profitability are highly susceptible to ongoing job burnout. These conclusions would suggest that burnout negatively impacts leadership and management skills, subsequently affecting performance.

Job Burnout and Human Service Professionals

Employee Assistance Program practitioners have migrated from the fields of social work, nursing, psychology, and other mental health occupations. The literature review does not provide any specific information on which behavioral or health disciplines that EAP professionals migrate from. Based on that premise, understanding the level of job satisfaction and job burnout among social workers and mental health professionals will facilitate inferences with EAP practitioners regarding their susceptibility to burnout. According to Acker (1999), "job satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job situation and is linked

with characteristics and demands of one's work. The work related satisfaction of helping people, achieving change and improvement, and promoting their growth has had important implications for social workers" (p 112) According to Arches (1991), job satisfaction has been defined as an affective state that describes how one feels about one's work. Arches suggested that much of the literature in social work related to job satisfaction is the same or similar as research that is found on job burnout.

Acker (1999) stated that the literature links a social worker's job satisfaction with role conflicts by suggesting that social workers often have different perceptions and expectations for their roles than those of the organization. Secondly, job satisfaction has been found to be higher in individuals with an internal locus of control, whereby they attribute outcomes to effort or skills and have a sense of feeling in control and able to handle stressful situations. Finally, the nature of the work setting contributes to social worker job satisfaction or burnout based on the level of perceived support, autonomy, and intensity of interpersonal relationships. Other factors commonly associated with job satisfaction and burnout for social workers include individual demographics such as age, gender, level of education, and marital status (Arches, 1991).

Soderfelt, Soderfelt, and Lars (1995) reviewed approximately 18 studies focused on measuring job burnout using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the Pines Tedium Scale (P&S) instruments specifically affecting social workers. Their conclusions indicated that the previous studies conducted on social worker burnout had various limitations such as utilizing small convenient sample sizes to inconsistent reporting of measures, making comparison between the studies and generalizations to social workers

as a group impossible. Secondly, Soderfelt et al (1995) suggested that the research does not indicate that social workers are suffering any more or less burnout than other occupations. In the review, only 2 of the 18 studies suggested that high client involvement led to burnout and only slightly higher related burnout to demographic or occupational variables. However, Soderfelt et al. found that most of the research is inconclusive in assessing burnout among social workers as a population. Finally, according to Soderfelt et al., social workers are unfairly branded as being susceptible to burnout because of the nature and interpersonal demands of their work.

Performance and Job Burnout

According to Wright and Bonett (1997), while burnout is recognized and widely assumed to result in a decline in job performance, there is little empirical support to confirm that a relationship exists between burnout and job performance. In a longitudinal study, Wright and Bonett utilized the Maslach burnout construct to assess job performance and burnout with a group of human service workers who shared similar job duties to determine if a relationship between burnout and performance existed. The results of Wright and Bonett's study established that a relationship did exist between exhaustion and performance but it was not significant. The authors failed to find a similar relationship between depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. Wright and Bonett concluded that in the future as more public agencies and businesses experience budget constraints, downsizing, and other reductions, incidences of job burnout are expected to increase and performance will suffer. In a separate study conducted by Mirvis et al (1999), their research on burnout indicated that low levels of

job satisfaction, worsening job performance, and higher levels of turnover increase as the level of burnout increases. Wright and Bonett recommended more longitudinal research studies be conducted on burnout.

Leadership and Managerial Burnout and Performance Issues

Burnout among senior managerial and leadership positions could detrimentally affect an organization, its workforce, products and services, customers, and the communities in which it resides. Research has shown that an organization's culture, norms, and its related hierarchical behaviors emanating from its leaders and managers have a tendency to cascade stress and strain to lower levels of work groups and the workforce. According to Meni Koslowsky (1998), there are several factors of an organization's structure that contribute to workplace and individual stress:

1. The higher up a manager is in an organization, the higher the expectations, time restraints, and more role pressures that exist
2. The complexity of the organizational structure, networks, and informal mechanisms for accomplishing work in organizations are often so intricate that activities or behaviors requiring specific knowledge and information are not readily available.
3. Constant change of an organization's size through processes such as downsizing, reorganizing, delayering or decentralizing work processes have produced additional sources of stress, strain and confusion for managers and workers (Koslowsky, 1998, p 45).

According to Levinson (1996), managers who have symptoms of burnout are experience chronic fatigue; anger at people for making demands on them; self-criticism for putting up with the demands; cynicism and negativity, irritability; a sense of feeling besieged, and hair trigger displays of emotions Managers may express their level of

burnout by venting their angry feelings inappropriately and they may become withdrawn and isolated from their support systems and retreat to substance abuse or other forms of self-destructive behaviors. According to Levinson, burnout tends to occur more often with managers experiencing tense competitive conditions rather than in stable markets.

In a recent longitudinal study conducted by Mirvis et al. (1999), in 1989, 1992, and 1997, medical center senior managers participated in surveys that were conducted to assess burnout, role characteristics, and job satisfaction. Burnout was measured by using the MBI instrument and scored using the Golembiewski's phase model to assess intensity. According to Mirvis et al. executives exhibiting symptoms of burnout as previously described by Levinson (1996) are incapable of successfully leading organizations through major change initiatives for competitive positioning. The results from the Mirvis et al. study indicated that significant increases in the intensity of psychological burnout were found over the duration of the three surveys, and a significant decrease in positive role characteristics and job satisfaction were found among the leaders of the VA medical centers. The Mirvis et al. findings associated with role characteristics and job dissatisfaction were both shown to increase over time and with higher levels or (phase increases) of burnout. Mirvis et al. inferred that while role conflicts and ambiguity were correlated with high levels of emotional exhaustion, other antecedents not measured in this study such as market competition, managed care competition, and industry characteristics could foster burnout.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review explored the changing nature and practices of the workplace and examined the new ways of working and new requirements for managers and workers to adapt and adjust to its evolving demands. In the work environment of the 21st century, a permanent global economy exists, composed of diverse, educated workers who are technologically linked. The need for highly skilled and knowledgeable workers, coupled with the projected low birth rate in the future, will continue to foster a tight labor market. Given all the fast-paced changes in the workplace, employees are finding it more and more difficult to cope with all the demands and expectations required of them. This rise of occupational stress has reinforced the need for professional resources to assist employees in identifying their work stress and determining methods for resolving or integrating those changes into their work performance. Employee Assistance Program (EAP) practitioners are on the frontlines of assisting organizations and employees in addressing their occupational stress concerns.

The recent research on burnout susceptibility has been shown to be inconclusive for some human service occupations. Many of the earlier studies were anecdotal and based on convenience samples that limited inferences to a larger population. This research study is designed to specifically assess EAP practitioners' experiences related to the changing elements associated by the global workplace of the 21st century and determine if they are experiencing any of the three Maslach dimensions of the job burnout construct - emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and low professional efficacy.

The role of an EAP practitioner is to provide counseling, referrals, and support and facilitate integration of the stress and demands of the workplace with managers, employees, and, indirectly, their families. Are EAP practitioners effectively adjusting to the chaos and chronic changes found in the complex global workplace? Can EAP practitioners effectively facilitate the changes and demands into their practices and influence change and stress within their organizations? Are EAP practitioners isolated in their work environments and at special risk for exposure to job burnout because of the emerging stress and conflicting demands of today's workplace? These questions will be explored in the following chapters.

Chapter III

Research Methodology and Procedures

Introduction

The overall design of this study utilized a comparative quantitative approach to establish the existence of any relationships between Employee Assistance Program (EAP) practitioners' levels of job satisfaction and job burnout given their EAP practice delivery model. The research population identified was Certified Employee Assistance Professionals (CEAPs) who were members of the Employee Assistance Professional Association (EAPA). In this study one demographics questionnaire and two instruments were used to gather CEAP data and statistically compile and report findings.

Research Population and Sample Procedures

This study was designed utilizing a survey administration process to collect respondent data. The research objectives were designed to assess the levels of job satisfaction and job burnout among CEAP practitioners who provide behavioral and mental health services in work environments deemed to be potentially experiencing rapid change and stress. The population identified for this study was CEAP practitioners who were members of the Employee Assistance Professional Association (EAPA) and listed in the (EAPA, 1999

A CEAP certification is a voluntary credential indicating that an individual has met the work and exam requirements that reflect a level of advanced mastery in the fundamentals of Employee Assistance Program knowledge and core competencies. The CEAP certification is valid for three years, members must re-certify to retain the

credential According to the *EAPA Member Resource Directory* (EAPA, 1999), re-certification is earned by (a) successfully passing an exam, (b) obtaining the necessary number of professional development hours, and (c) paying certification fees Eligibility requirements for a CEAP credential can occur by two options The first certification option requires that individuals meet two of the following eligibility criteria:

1. 3,000 hours of EAP work experience gained over a two-year time period but within seven years of taking the exam,
2. 60 professional development hours with 36 hours in specific EAP technology content areas, and,
3. 24 hours of CEAP advisement occurring over six months prior to applying for the exam.

The second certification option requires that individuals meet two of the following eligibility criteria: (a) a graduate degree in an EAP-related discipline or its equivalent internationally, (b) 2000 hours of work experience in an EAP work setting with a minimum of two years of experience and within seven years of the CEAP exam, (c) 15 professional development hours in specific EAP technology content areas, and (d) 24 hours of CEAP advisement spread over six months prior to applying to take the examination (EAPA, 1999). The specific EAP technology content areas listed in the qualifications ensure that practitioners are skilled in the use of constructive confrontation, motivation, and short-term behavioral interventions that focus on job-related performance problems, and the referral, diagnosis, treatment, and follow-up case monitoring of clients.

Population parameters for identifying and selecting the research sample for this study are listed below

1. The study population must be EAPA members who have the CEAP credential identifying them as a Certified Employee Assistance Professional (CEAP).
2. The study population must show a United States address in the membership directory.
3. The study population must appear to work within or for an organization as described in their membership listing.

Certain CEAP membership exclusions were employed in the selection of the population. These included members who were (a) students, (b) listed as a non-CEAP designation, (c) listed in the membership directory as involved in a private practice, (d) listed as an individual member, and (e) listed with addresses from an international location. When any of these parameters were reflected in the membership directory listing, those individuals were excluded from consideration and selection for this study population.

Based on the EAP population parameters, the number of candidates who met the population selection criteria was 2,319 CEAP members. Utilizing the recommended sample selection table found in Gay and Airasian's (2000) *Educational Research Textbook*, the sample size that was required from the identified population of 2,319 was estimated at 327 CEAP members.

The procedure used in the selection of the sample consisted of (a) recording the 2,319 population names on individual slips of paper, (b) placing the population names in a box, (c) shaking the box to mix the names, and (d) drawing names at random until 327 names were drawn. Once the sample selection process was completed, the names of the

CEAP members were entered into a Microsoft 97 EXCEL database and alphabetized for ease in administering and tracking the sample during the survey administration process.

Research Data Collection Methodology

Once the subjects had been identified and the human subjects permission form had been approved, CEAP subjects were sent a letter of introduction (see Appendix A) via the U S Postal Service. This letter of introduction explained the purpose of the study and requested participation by completing one EA demographic questionnaire and two other instruments. the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1997) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) developed by Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, and Jackson. Subjects were instructed to anonymously complete the instruments and return them using the self-addressed envelope via the U S Postal Service. A two-week time was allocated for CEAP members to receive and return their survey instruments.

As the instruments were received, the database tracking identification code was updated to reflect their returned response. Follow-up letters were sent to the remaining CEAP subjects reminding them to return the questionnaires. When the instruments were returned their instruments they were logged in the database, and a second numerical code was entered on the actual survey forms to reflect the order in which they were received. This second numerical code was used to enter the survey instruments and demographic information into the Microsoft 97 EXCEL database.

Instrumentation

Employee Assistance Practitioner Demographics Questionnaire

In the survey packets, CEAP subjects received three instruments to complete and return. The first questionnaire used to collect data was the *Employee Assistance Practitioner Demographics Questionnaire*. This demographics survey was developed by the researcher and approved by the committee. The Employee Assistance Practitioner Demographics Questionnaire was designed to collect descriptive personal and professional data on Employee Assistance practitioners. These include personal demographics, education credentials, work history in EAP, industries of EAP practice, type of EAP delivery model, and presence of organizational change affecting their EAP worksite practice (see Appendix B).

According to the literature review on constructs of job burnout, similar personal and professional characteristics and traits appearing in the EAP demographics questionnaire have been shown to exist among individuals who are affected by job burnout. The purpose for assessing individual personal and professional demographics information for this study was to determine whether or not those common traits or characteristics were present in EA practitioners and whether or not those traits were impacted by their EA practice delivery model.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) was developed by Paul Spector in 1985 and published by Sage Publications. The JSS assessed nine facets of job satisfaction as well as an overall job satisfaction score (see Appendix C). According to Spector (1997), job

satisfaction was an attitudinal variable that described how people generally felt about various aspects or facets of their jobs. In this survey, using Likert scale measures of like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) of their jobs, CEAP respondents reflected job satisfaction attitudes for each job facet and an overall perception of job satisfaction.

In previous research studies on job satisfaction, two dimensions were found to co-exist in a person's perceptions of job satisfaction. The first dimension represented a person's overall feeling or attitude toward the job. The second dimension of job satisfaction has repeatedly showed that people had various opinions about some of the interrelated facets of particular jobs that often resulted in a wide range of reactions, both positive and negative. The JSS combines those dimensions to reflect an overall attitude about job satisfaction and the specific interrelated elements of a job. The JSS was selected for this study because the instrument has been widely utilized to measure total job satisfaction and it was economically feasible for the subject size.

The JSS contains 36 items divided into nine sub-scales with four questions within each facet sub-scales. Table 3.1 identifies each of the nine facets and provides a brief description.

Within each of the nine sub-scales of the JSS, there are four items or statements that are summed to generate a facet sub-scale score. Survey respondents reviewed the JSS questionnaire and provided either a favorable or unfavorable reaction to each item.

Table 3.1 Facets from the Job Satisfaction Survey

Job Satisfaction Facet	Descriptions
Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay raises
Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
Supervision	Satisfaction with the person's immediate supervisor
Fringe benefits	Satisfaction with fringe benefits
Contingent rewards	Satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) given for good performance
Operating conditions	Satisfaction with rules and procedures
Coworkers	Satisfaction with coworkers
Nature of work	Satisfaction with the type of work done
Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organization

Note: From *Job Satisfaction Application, Assessment, Causes and Consequences* (p. 8), by Paul E. Spector, 1997, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Copyright 1997 by Sage Publications. Reprinted with permission.

Some of the items in the survey were written in a way to reduce the likelihood of respondents having a high degree of middle scores that reflected agreement with half the statements and disagreement with the rest. Table 3.2 lists the nine sub-scales and the specific items associated with each facet category.

To arrive at an overall job satisfaction score on the JSS, the researcher summed all of the nine sub-scale categories. The range of possible scores on each of sub-scales is between 4 and 24, and for an overall job satisfaction score is between 36 and 216. The opposite wording of the sub-scale statements identified in Table 3.2 requires the administrator to reverse score the item by subtracting the respondents Likert scale numerical choice from the total possible score for each item of the facet sub-scale.

Table 3.2 Sub-scale Contents for the Job Satisfaction Survey

JSS Sub-scale	JSS Item Number
Pay	1, 10r, 19r, 28
Promotion	2r, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12r, 21r, 30
Fringe Benefits	4r, 13, 22, 29r
Contingent Rewards	5, 14r, 23r, 32r
Operating conditions	6r, 15, 24r, 31r
Coworkers	8r, 17, 27, 35
Nature of Work	8r, 17, 27, 35
Communication	9, 18r, 26r, 36r

Note: From *Job Satisfaction Application, Assessment, Causes and Consequences* (p. 9), by Paul E. Spector, 1997, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Copyright 1997 by Sage Publications. Reprinted with permission.

To reverse score an item on the JSS, one computes the total possible score for the item by adding one plus six to equal seven, and then subtracts the participant's item response.

This procedure provides the researcher with a quick method of calculating the reverse score items on the JSS.

The validity for the JSS has been established by previous studies that compared the scales with each other on the same group of employees. As cited by Spector (1997), five of the JSS sub-scales (pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, and nature of work) corresponded with the Job Descriptive Index, one of the most validated of the job satisfaction surveys. The correlation for the JSS ranged between .61 for coworkers and .80 for supervision (Spector). According to the literature, the JSS has been correlated with other job satisfaction scales and characteristics such as those found in the Job Diagnostic Survey (Spector). Included in these job characteristics were (a) age, (b) level

in an organization, (c) organizational commitment, (d) leadership, (e) intentions to quit the job, and (f) turnover (Spector).

According to Spector (1997), the JSS reliability has been established by testing the sub-scale items for internal consistency and utilizing a test / re-test method over an 18-month time span. Instruments demonstrating a high consistency reflect the assessment of the same underlying variable (Spector). The JSS internal consistency used a sample size of 3,067 and had coefficient alphas ranging from .60 on the coworker sub-scale (which is below the .70 minimally accepted standard) to a JSS score of .91 for the overall score. The test / retest method used a sample size of 43 people who tested the stability of the scale over an 18-month time span regardless of a variety of organizational changes that could have impacted the reliability results (such as layoffs, downsizing, and changes in leadership).

The JSS has been shown to determine job satisfaction attitudes across various occupational groups. The value in using an established job satisfaction instrument such as the JSS is that it enables one to evaluate EA practitioners' level of job satisfaction in a workplace against the established norms. The JSS is an instrument that assesses job satisfaction while considering the organizational stressors and changes that affect today's work environment.

Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS)

The *Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)*, originally designed in 1986 by Maslach and Jackson, has been viewed as the universal instrument of choice for assessing burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Historically, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human

Services Survey (MBI-HSS) was developed to measure burnout among human service professionals who worked in service intensive occupations such as nursing, social work, psychology, and medicine. When the MBI-HSS was applied in non-human service occupations, researchers soon found a need to modify the instrument. In non-human service occupations, previous MBI-HSS survey findings indicated that the scores differed significantly from established norms for the three burnout dimensions and were not maintained across occupational groups (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey was selected for use in this study because it was developed to measure burnout in occupations and work environments other than human service organizations. The MBI-GS was modified to "define burnout as a crisis in one's relationship to work and not necessarily as a crisis among relationships at work. The MBI-GS measures respondents' relationships with their work on a continuum from engagement to burnout" (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 20). Engagement is defined as an energetic state that promotes excellent performance of work and confidence in one's effectiveness in that work. Burnout on the MBI-GS instrument is defined as a state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one's occupation and doubtful of one's capacity to perform (Maslach et al.) The MBI-GS assesses a person's relationship and performance of work.

According to Maslach et al (1996), the MBI-GS has three sub-scales that parallel the MBI-HSS. The emotional exhaustion scale is replaced with exhaustion that focused on fatigue but does not reference people or emotion as the source of exhaustion. The major departure between the MBI-HSS and the MBI-GS is the replacement of

depersonalization with cynicism. Cynicism in this instrument reflects indifference, or a distant attitude towards work. The items addressing cynicism in the survey suggest that workers distance themselves from their work as a method of coping with exhaustive demands. Finally, professional efficacy is similar to personal accomplishment but differs by having a broader focus that includes both social and nonsocial aspects of occupational accomplishments (Maslach et al)

The combination of sub-scales on the MBI-GS provides a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. The interpretation of a high degree of burnout on the MBI-GS is based on high scores on the exhaustion and cynicism scales and a low score on professional efficacy. Similar to depersonalization, cynicism represents a dysfunctional coping mechanism. According to Maslach et al. (1996), employees who demonstrated cynicism as a method of distancing from their work also have reduced worker energy for (a) performing work, (b) inability to creatively solving problems, and (c) building professional efficacy.

The MBI-GS is a self-administered instrument composed of 16 items (Appendix D). In answering the survey, subjects chose from a frequency scale of never (0) to everyday (6), indicating how often they experienced the statement in the questionnaire. Table 3.3 identifies each MBI-GS sub-scale with its corresponding statements.

Scoring the MBI-GS requires that the survey administrator determine the mean score of all the statements in each of the specific three-dimensional scales of (a) exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy. The MBI-GS survey has

Table 3.3 MBI-GS Sub-scale and Statements

MBI-GS Sub-scale	Statements
Exhaustion	1, 2, 3, 4, and 6
Cynicism	8, 9, 13, 14, and 15
Professional Efficacy	5, 7, 10, 11, 12, and 16

Note: From *Maslach Burnout Inventory manual 3rd Ed.* by Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson, Michael P. Leiter 1996, Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc.

a numerical range that identifies an experience with burnout. According to Maslach et al. (1996), Table 3.4 reflects the range of scores possible from each of the MBI-GS scales.

Table 3.4 Range of Experience on Burnout

MBI-GS Sub-scales	Low	Average	High
Exhaustion	= 2 . 0 0	2.01 - 3.19	= 3 . 2 0
Cynicism	= 1 . 0 0	1.01 - 2.19	= 2 . 2 0
Professional Efficacy	= 4 . 0 0	4.01 - 4.99	= 5 . 0 0

Note: From *Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual 3rd Ed.* by Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson, Michael P. Leiter 1996, Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc.
Based on a North American Sample (N= 3,727)

The MBI-GS validity was shown by Schaufeli, Leiter, and Kalimo (Maslach et al., 1996), to be consistently related to other constructs. Exhaustion was shown to be associated with physical and mental strain, work overload, and role conflict. Professional Efficacy was linked with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and access to resources. Cynicism was shown to be negatively related to physical and mental strain, work overload, and role conflict. Internal consistencies for the MBI-GS were shown to be satisfactory as compared with the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), with ranges from .73 (cynicism) to .91 for exhaustion (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

In the test / retest reliability analysis, the MBI-GS was stable over time. In a longitudinal study conducted over a one-year interval, the three sub-scales of the MBI-GS had "stability coefficients of .65 (Exhaustion), .60 (Cynicism), .67 (Professional Efficacy)" (Maslach et al, 1996, p. 25). According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the exhaustion scale was the most stable burnout indicator, whereas the cynicism dimension was least stable.

According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the factorial validity for the three versions of the MBI instruments has been confirmed by using advanced statistical techniques and linear structural equation modeling processes. The statistical analyses have shown that the three-dimensional structure of the Maslach burnout construct fits the data better than single-dimensional constructs.

The MBI-GS scales have demonstrated a similar interrelation among their three dimensions that have been shown consistent with the other MBI surveys. When assessing the relationships among the MBI-GS scales, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) suggested that the MBI-GS showed a different pattern among its three dimensions. The strongest correlation was between exhaustion and cynicism ($-.44 < r < -.61$) and the weakest correlation was shown to be between exhaustion and professional efficacy ($r = -.04$ to $r = -.34$). In addition to cynicism's strong correlation to exhaustion, it also demonstrated a strong relationship to Professional Efficacy, with a correlation of $-.38 < r < -.57$. That was slightly weaker than the correlation between exhaustion and cynicism.

In summary, in the original MBI instrument, the three dimensions were not theoretically constructed before the MBI-HSS instrument was built. An inductive

approach was used to determine the three construct dimensions. From the original survey, two other MBI instruments were modified to fit other occupational environments. According to Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998), the psychometric quality of the MBI has received mixed reviews. While the factorial validity, convergent validity, and the reliability of the inventory had been confirmed in other studies, critics argued that the exhaustion dimension is closely related to other constructs such as depression, job satisfaction, and other personal distress symptoms.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data Collection

In the literature review, Employee Assistance Program (EAP) practice delivery models were found predominately in three forms: (a) external to the business where the EA practitioners work, (b) internal to the organization (as an employee), or (c) a combination of the internal and external models into a blended model. This research utilized the EAP delivery models as its independent variables and EAP practitioner demographics and the levels of job satisfaction and job burnout as its dependent variables. To gain a better understanding of these independent variables, the national CEAP survey subjects were asked to complete and return three questionnaires (a) the EAP Demographics Questionnaire, (b) the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and (c) the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) for statistical analysis and interpretation of findings.

Data Analysis

This study was designed to utilize four statistical procedures for describing the findings from the three EA instruments. The first statistical procedure applied to the data produced descriptive statistics. Utilizing descriptive statistical measures, this procedure provided information that described (a) similarities and differences of EA practitioner demographics, (b) total job satisfaction and measures of job burnout experience, (c) practice environment for change, and (d) types of EA delivery models. The second statistical procedure used to test the data determined correlational coefficients. The purpose of computing correlation coefficients was to determine whether or not a relationship existed between the variables of total job satisfaction and any of the three dimensions of burnout as applied to the three EAP delivery models.

This study identified four research questions and three null hypotheses as the basis for the research design and statistical analysis. To determine whether the null hypothesis was to be rejected or retained, a third statistical process called univariate of variance (ANOVA) was applied. The ANOVA tested sample population means for similarity or differences at a .05 probability level. This test is designed to assess differences greater than random chance. Finally, the fourth statistical procedure applied on this data was a Pearson's Chi-Square test. The objective of this statistical test was to assess CEAP sample frequencies to determine which portion of the CEAP respondents fell into a specific category, based on the selected dependent or independent variables.

Summary

The research design, methods, and procedures used in this study were presented in this chapter. An EAP demographics questionnaire was developed, and two valid and reliable instruments were utilized to assess job satisfaction (Job Satisfaction Survey) and job burnout (Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey) among Certified Employee Assistance Professionals. This chapter described the population for investigation, sample selection process, and explanation of data analysis procedures to be applied to the survey data.

Chapter IV

Findings and Results

Introduction

In response to rampant organizational change and stress in the workplace and the pivotal role that Employee Assistance Program practitioners have played in facilitating integration of the changes, the overall purpose of this study was to determine if EAP practitioners were experiencing job burnout and job dissatisfaction in their practice. Given the backdrop of constant organizational change, this study explored four objectives. The first objective described the changes taking place in the contemporary work environment. The second objective was to determine the similarities and differences in the CEAP practitioner demographics, traits, and characteristics. The third objective examined the impact of job satisfaction and job burnout on EAP practitioners based on their EAP practice delivery model. The fourth objective was to assess the impact of job burnout on CEAP practitioners and their EAP delivery model given the potential presence of three types of organizational change.

CEAP Data Summary

Of the initial 327 survey packets sent to CEAP members, 12 packets were undeliverable because of incorrect addresses or the CEAP practitioner had left employment of the company listed in the membership directory. Following the same sample selection procedure as discussed in Chapter III, 12 additional CEAP members were randomly selected to participate in the study. Of the total surveys distributed, 146 valid questionnaires were returned, providing a survey response rate of 45%. The survey

packets consisted of three surveys: (a) the EAP demographic questionnaire, (b) the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and (c) the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) In a few cases, respondents failed to answer a question(s) on one of the three surveys Those survey responses were factored into the database as missing data, but subject overall responses were considered valid.

CEAP Demographic Data Summary

Frequencies were performed on the CEAP demographic questionnaire responses Table 4.1 lists the demographic variables, frequency of responses, and valid percent values from the CEAP demographics survey From the survey, women represented the largest population and the most frequent age ranges of subjects were 41-50 and 51-60, with only a nominal difference between these ranges Of the 146 respondents' 124 (84 9%) were classified as white and 10 (6 8%) African-American. The other ethnic backgrounds (such as Hispanic, Asian or Pacific Islander, and Native American) were reported between 7% to 1 4% of the total sample size. Most CEAP respondents were married. As for education attainment, 98 (67%) had master's degrees as their highest level of formal education.

The emergence of EAP practitioners over the past several decades has represented a new entity of professional providers for behavioral health services Of the 146 CEAP members responding, 132 (93 0%) indicated they worked full time while 10 (7.0%) were employed part-time. Table 4.2 indicates the CEAP respondents' years of employment in their current jobs and the total years of work experience in Employee Assistance Programs.

Table 4.1 Demographic Information of CEAP Practitioners

Demographic Parameter	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age (N = 146)			
21 – 30	4	2.8%	2.8%
31 – 40	15	10.3%	13.1%
41 – 50	62	42.8%	55.9%
51 – 60	64	44.1%	100.0%
Gender (N = 146)			
Male	52	42.6%	42.6%
Female	70	57.4%	100.0%
Marital Status (N = 140)			
Married	98	70.0%	70.0%
Divorced	23	16.4%	86.4%
Separated	2	1.4%	87.9%
Single	17	12.1%	100.0%
Ethnicity (N = 138)			
White	124	89.9%	89.9%
African American	10	7.2%	97.1%
Hispanic	1	.7%	97.8%
Asian or Pacific Islander	1	.7%	98.5%
Native American	2	1.4%	99.9%
Education Attainment (N = 145)			
High School	15	10.3%	10.3%
Bachelor's Degree	19	13.1%	23.4%
Master's Degree	98	67.6%	91.0%
Doctorate Degree	12	8.3%	99.3
Other	1	0.7%	100.0%

Table 4.2 Frequency Comparison of Years in Current Positions & Years in EAP

Years in Current Position (N = 144)				Years in EAP (N = 142)			
Years	F	Valid %	Cum-ulative %	Years	F	Valid %	Cum-Ulative %
2 years or less	12	8.3%	8.3%	2 years or less	2	1.4%	1.4%
2 - 5 years	22	15.3%	23.6%	2 - 5 years	18	12.7%	14.1%
6 - 10 years	55	38.2%	61.8%	6 - 10 years	47	33.1%	47.2%
11 - 15 years	37	25.7%	87.5%	11 - 15 years	52	36.6%	83.8%
16 - 20 years	6	4.2%	91.7%	16 - 20 years	17	12.5%	95.8%
21 years +	11	7.6%	99.3%	21 years +	6	4.2%	100.0%

In the literature review, two common types of EAP program practice delivery models were discussed. In the first delivery model, the EAP practitioners were employees providing EAP services directly to their organization. The second practice delivery model described EAP practitioners who worked as external contractors to a business, or multiple businesses, providing EAP services. A third hybrid EAP delivery model existed as well. In this model, an EAP practitioner worked as an internal employee within a company but provided EA services on a contract basis to other companies. For example, a hospital based EAP practitioner may provide services to his or her own hospital employees but also may work with external local businesses, professional groups, or public agencies such as police and fire departments in an external contractor delivery capacity. Table 4.3 shows the number of CEAP respondents for each EAP delivery model.

In today's work environment, organizational change in the form of downsizing, business consolidations or mergers, and companies responding to major changes within the workplace are constant. This study asked CEAP practitioners to identify whether

Table 4.3 EAP Delivery Models

Demographic Parameter	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
EAP Delivery Model (N = 146)			
Internal	67	49.6%	49.6%
External	47	34.8%	84.4%
Blended Model	21	15.6%	100.0%

or not their companies were undergoing any significant changes. One of the limitations impacting this survey and its findings is based on how the CEAP respondents viewed change in their organizations. The CEAP demographics questionnaire did not ask practitioners to provide specific descriptions of the changes affecting their company beyond reporting the existence of change. For the purposes of this study, the data on organizational change were reported as a frequency of how many CEAP practitioners' companies were experiencing the type of change listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Types of Organizational Change

Type of Change (N = 146)	Frequency	Percent
No Change	49	33.6%
Downsizing	45	30.8%
Mergers & Acquisitions	23	15.8%
Major Changes	47	32.2%

The Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) instrument developed by Schaufeli & Buunk (1996) was designed to assess job burnout in non-human services occupations. The MBI-GS is scored by using the following scale: (a) Low ≤ 2.00 ; (b) Average equals 2.01 to 3.19; and (c) High ≥ 3.20 or above. Table 4.5 shows the frequencies and valid percentages of the three dimensions of job burnout: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy. A low score on emotional

exhaustion (49.71%) indicated that CEAP practitioners were not experiencing physical and mental strain, work overload, or role conflict in their current jobs. A low score on cynicism (42.8%) suggested that CEAP practitioners were not experiencing cynicism, indifference or a distant attitude towards their work. Finally, high scores on professional efficacy (74.5%) suggested that CEAP practitioners were experiencing a sense of job satisfaction, access to resources, commitment and involvement in their work. Analysis of low scores on the emotional exhaustion and cynicism and the high scores on professional efficacy reflects the established norms on the MBI-GS instrument (Maslach, et al., 1996).

Table 4.5 MBI-GS Findings on CEAP Job Burnout

MBI-GS	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Emotional Exhaustion			
Low	72	49.7%	51.1%
Average	31	21.4%	73.0%
High	38	26.2%	100.0%
Cynicism			
Low	62	42.8%	44.0%
Average	39	26.9%	71.6%
High	40	27.6%	100.0%
Professional Efficacy			
Low	5	3.4%	3.5%
Average	28	19.3%	23.4%
High	108	74.5%	100.0%

(N = 141)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1997) was used to assess the levels of job satisfaction among CEAP practitioners. The JSS examined nine sub-scales of different elements that contributed to job satisfaction and a total score that determined overall job satisfaction. This study reported JSS findings from a total or

overall job satisfaction perception instead of focusing on the nine dimensions of job satisfaction. However, for future research and reference, Table 4.6 lists the mean and standard deviations on the nine JSS sub-scale dimensions and total job satisfaction score for CEAP practitioners.

Table 4.6 Job Satisfaction Survey

JSS Sub-scale	Mean	Standard Deviations
N = 140		
Pay	15.246	5.041
Promotion	12.695	4.667
Supervision	19.007	4.405
Fringe benefits	17.338	4.761
Contingent rewards	16.225	4.372
Operating conditions	13.592	3.821
Coworkers	19.190	3.959
Nature of work	21.063	3.169
Communication	14.866	3.196
Total Job Satisfaction	148.86	22.94

Research Question 1

In the literature review, little research was identified to assess burnout and demographic characteristics among any population. One of the research questions identified for this study was do EAP practitioners have more demographic similarities or differences regarding job burnout or job satisfaction? According to Schaufeli and Buunk (1996), burnout has been reported among workers who were under the age of 30-40, had limited work experiences, and had higher levels of formal education. Schaufeli and Buunk indicated that single people have been shown to have a higher risk factor for

experiencing burnout as compared with individuals living with a partner. To address research question one, null hypothesis one was formulated.

Null Hypothesis One

Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners will have no difference in age, gender, marital status, education attainment, years in current position, and years in Employee Assistance as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) and by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). To address null hypothesis one, a series of chi-square procedures, with an alpha of .05, were performed to assess specific EA demographics against the (MBI-GS) and total job satisfaction scores as measured by the JSS. Chi-square actual and expected count tables are located in Appendix F.

Analyses of selected CEAP respondent demographics assessed with the emotional exhaustion dimension of the burnout construct are listed in Tables 4.7- 4.10. The CEAP respondent count and expected count distribution charts for each CEAP demographic measured were marginally higher or lower in the distribution. The findings from the Pearson's Chi-Square procedure indicated that there was no significant difference found between CEAP practitioners' emotional exhaustion based on (a) age $\chi^2 = 2.277, 6df, p = .893$, (b) gender $\chi^2 = .307, 2df, p = .858$, (c) marital status $\chi^2 = 3.048, 6df, p = .803$, or (d) level of education attainment $\chi^2 = 3.788, 6df, p = .705$.

Table 4.7 Emotional Exhaustion by Age

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.277	6	.893
Likelihood Ratio	2.295	6	.891
Linear-by-Linear Association	.516	1	.472
N of Valid Cases	140		

Table 4.8 Emotional Exhaustion by Gender

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.307	2	.858
Likelihood Ratio	.310	2	.856
Linear-by-Linear Association	.006	1	.939
N of Valid Cases	118		

Table 4.9 Emotional Exhaustion by Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 3.048	6	.803
Likelihood Ratio	3.391	6	.758
Linear-by-Linear Association	.920	1	.337
N of Valid Cases	135		

Table 4.10 Emotional Exhaustion by Education

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 3.788	6	.705
Likelihood Ratio	4.351	6	.629
Linear-by-Linear Association	.072	1	.789
N of Valid Cases	140		

Note: a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.44.

Given the limited literature on comparing burnout dimensions and demographics, Schaufeli and Buunk (1996) indicated that workers who were susceptible to job burnout were believed to be fairly new in their jobs or professional fields. In many cases, unrealistic or idealistic expectations about work or profession resulted in burnout. To test null hypothesis one, a chi-square procedure was used on CEAP respondents' experiences with emotional exhaustion as compared with their years in their current job and total years of practice in EAP. Table 4.11 reports no significant difference between CEAP practitioners' emotional exhaustion and employment in their current jobs, $c^2 = 13.599$, 12 *df*, $p < .327$. Table 4.12 indicates no significant difference between CEAP respondents' emotional exhaustion and years of practicing in EAP ($c^2 = 10.099$, 10 *df*, $p < .423$).

Table 4.11 Emotional Exhaustion by Years in Current Position

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 13.599	12	.327
Likelihood Ratio	14.711	12	.258
Linear-by-Linear Association	.293	1	.589
N of Valid Cases	139		

Note: a. 11 cells (52.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .22.

Table 4.12 Emotional Exhaustion by Years in Employee Assistance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 10.099	10	.432
Likelihood Ratio	12.006	10	.285
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.479	1	.115
N of Valid Cases	137		

Note: a. 10 cells (55.67%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .44.

According to Maslach et al. (1996), the MBI-GS dimension of cynicism refers to a person who as a means of coping with exhausting demands, who demonstrates indifference or reflects a distant attitude towards work. Analyses of the following CEAP respondent demographics data and the cynicism dimension of the burnout construct are listed in Tables 4.13-4.16. The CEAP respondents' actual and expected distribution charts for each CEAP demographic measured were slightly higher or lower, depending on the specific demographic chart in the distribution count. The findings from the Pearson's Chi-Square procedure indicated that there was no significant difference between CEAP practitioners' cynicism and (a) age, $c^2 = 2.613$, 6 *df*, $p = .856$, (b) gender, $c^2 = 2.646$, 2 *df*, $p = .266$, (c) marital status, $c^2 = 7.590$, 6 *df*, $p = .270$, or (d) level of education attainment, $c^2 = 6.721$, 6 *df*, $p = .347$.

In the literature review, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) identified a trend called professional mystique impacting professional occupations and practitioners. The concept of professional mystique was defined as a set of beliefs, expectations, and assumptions that the public projects onto professionals. These beliefs and expectations are perpetuated and passed on to new entries into the professional. Over time, these beliefs and

assumptions serve to reinforce new practitioners' unrealistic expectations that unfortunately clash with occupational realities and can breed cynicism and indifference among tenured professionals.

To test null hypothesis one, a chi-square procedure was used on CEAP respondents' experiences with cynicism as compared with their years in their current jobs and total years of practice in the EAP field.

Table 4.13 Cynicism by Age

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 2.613	6	.856
Likelihood Ratio	2.533	6	.865
Linear-by-Linear Association	.430	1	.512
N of Valid Cases	140		

Note: a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.11.

Table 4.14 Cynicism by Gender

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.646 ^a	2	.266
Likelihood Ratio	2.657	2	.265
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.612	1	.106
N of Valid Cases	118		

Note: a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.42.

Table 4.15 Cynicism by Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 7.590	6	.270
Likelihood Ratio	7.870	6	.428
Linear-by-Linear Association	.071	1	.790
N of Valid Cases	135		

Note: a. 56 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .46.

Table 4.16 Cynicism by Education

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 6.721	6	.347
Likelihood Ratio	6.734	6	.346
Linear-by-Linear Association	.052	1	.820
N of Valid Cases	140		

Note: a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.44.

Table 4.17 reports no significant difference was found to exist between CEAP practitioners' experience of cynicism with length of employment in their current jobs ($\chi^2 = 18.599$, 12 *df*, $p = .111$). Table 4.18 indicates no significant difference between CEAP respondents' levels of cynicism and years of practicing in EAP ($\chi^2 = 10.099$, 10 *df*, $p = .423$). These findings indicated that CEAP practitioners, regardless of length of employment in their current jobs and EAP, did not report experiencing cynicism towards their work.

Table 4.17 Cynicism by Years in Current Position

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 18.161	12	.111
Likelihood Ratio	18.968	12	.089
Linear-by-Linear Association	.192	1	.661
N of Valid Cases	139		

Note: a. 11 cells (52.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27.

Table 4.18 Cynicism by Years in Employee Assistance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 15.129	10	.127
Likelihood Ratio	18.010	10	.055
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.537	1	.060
N of Valid Cases	137		

Note: a. 10 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .55.

Data analysis of CEAP respondents' demographics and the professional efficacy dimension of the Maslach burnout construct are listed in Tables 4.19 - 4.22. The CEAP respondents' actual and expected count distribution charts for each CEAP demographic measured were nominally higher or lower depending on the specific demographics chart with professional efficacy.

Table 4.19 Professional Efficacy by Age

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 7.403	6	.285
Likelihood Ratio	5.032	6	.540
Linear-by-Linear Association	.365	1	.546
N of Valid Cases	140		

Note: a. 7 cells (53.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

Table 4.20 Professional Efficacy by Gender

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 1.511	2	.470
Likelihood Ratio	1.509	2	.470
Linear-by-Linear Association	.025	1	.875
N of Valid Cases	118		

Note: a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.22.

Table 4.21 Professional Efficacy by Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 3.887	6	.692
Likelihood Ratio	5.746	6	.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	.915	1	.339
N of Valid Cases	135		

Note a. 8 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .07.

Table 4.22 Professional Efficacy by Education

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 6.741	6	.345
Likelihood Ratio	7.643	6	.265
Linear-by-Linear Association	.862	1	.353
N of Valid Cases	140		

Note: a. 7 cells (58.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .39.

Findings from the Pearson's Chi-Square procedure indicated that there was no significant difference found between CEAP practitioners' professional efficacy and (a) age ($c^2 = 7.403$, 6 *df*, $p = .285$), (b) gender ($c^2 = 1.511$, 2 *df*, $p = .470$), (c) marital status ($c^2 = 3.887$, 6 *df*, $p = .692$), or (d) level of education attainment ($c^2 = 6.741$, 6 *df*, $p = .345$).

Professional efficacy is described by Maslach et al. (1996) as occurring when workers feel involved and committed to doing a job and have an overall sense of job satisfaction. To test null hypothesis one, a chi-square procedure was tested on CEAP respondents' experiences with professional efficacy as compared with their years in their current jobs and total years of practice in EAP. Table 4.23 reports no significant difference between CEAP practitioners' experience of professional efficacy with length of employment in their current jobs, $\chi^2 = 18.599$, 12 *df*, $p = .111$. Table 4.24 indicates no significant difference between CEAP respondents' levels of professional efficacy and years of practicing in the EAP field, $\chi^2 = 10.099$, 10 *df*, $p = .423$. These findings indicated CEAP practitioners, regardless of length of employment in their current jobs and in EAP, reported experiencing professional efficacy.

Table 4.23 Professional Efficacy by Years in Current Position

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.483 ^a	12	.488
Likelihood Ratio	12.032	12	.443
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.496	1	.221
N of Valid Cases	139		

Note: a. 11 cells (52.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27

Table 4.24 Professional Efficacy by Years in Employee Assistance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.978 ^a	10	.442
Likelihood Ratio	13.387	10	.203
Linear-by-Linear Association	.237	1	.626
N of Valid Cases	137		

Note: a. 12 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .07.

Schaufeli and Buunk (1996) suggested that job dissatisfaction was the most important attitude linked to burnout. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as an attitudinal perception of positive and negative elements of a job. Spector stated that at different times, key elements of any job can cause an employee to experience feelings of job dissatisfaction. However, overall job satisfaction is broader than specific aspects of job satisfaction.

To test null hypothesis one, descriptive statistics were obtained and an univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was performed. Respondents' demographics, as outlined in research question one, were assessed with total job satisfaction scores, as measured by the JSS. Table 4.25 reports the means, standard deviations, and ANOVA results for age demographic variable and total job satisfaction. A one-way analysis of variance, with an alpha of .05 between age and total job satisfaction, indicated there was no significance found between CEAP age and total job satisfaction, $p = .891$.

Table 4.26 reports means, standard deviations, and ANOVA results for the gender demographic variable and total job satisfaction.

Table 4.25 JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Age

Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviations	
21 – 30	4	149.5000	17.2337	
31 – 40	15	144.4667	28.3722	
41 – 50	58	149.5000	24.0593	
51 – 60	64	149.4375	21.3213	
Total	141	148.9362	23.0109	
ANOVA - Total Job Satisfaction by Age				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
AGE	Total JSS	111.814	.208	.891

$p < .05$

Table 4.26 Total JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Gender

Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviations	
Male	50	144.6000	21.1371	
Female	68	150.7500	23.7294	
Total	118	148.1441	22.7789	
ANOVA - Total Job Satisfaction by Gender				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
GENDER	Total JSS	1089.801	2.120	.148

$p < .05$.

A one-way analysis of variance, with an alpha of .05 between gender and total job satisfaction, indicated there was no significant relationship $p = .148$ between CEAP gender and total job satisfaction.

Table 4.27 reports the means, standard deviations, and ANOVA results for the marital status demographic variable and total job satisfaction scores.

Table 4.27 Total JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Marital Status

Marital Status	N	Mean	Standard Deviations	
Married	96	147.5000	22.7342	
Divorced	22	154.3182	21.9358	
Separated	2	143.5000	13.4350	
Single	16	143.5000	25.6593	
Total	136	148.0735	22.8566	
ANOVA -Total Job Satisfaction by Marital Status				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
Marital Status	Total JSS	421.997	.804	.494

$p < .05$.

A one-way analysis of variance, with an alpha of .05 between marital status and total job satisfaction, indicated there was no significant relationship $p = .494$ between CEAP marital status and total job satisfaction.

Table 4.28 reports the means and standard deviations and ANOVA result for the levels of CEAP respondent education attainment demographic variable and total job satisfaction scores. Analysis of the variance with an alpha of .05 between education attainment and total job satisfaction indicated there was no significant relationship ($p = .203$) between CEAP marital status and total job satisfaction.

In Table 4.29, means, standard deviations, and ANOVA results are reported for the CEAP respondent years in EAP variable and total job satisfaction scores. Analysis of variance, with an alpha of .05, between years in EAP and total job satisfaction indicated there was no significant relationship $p = .057$ between CEAP years in EAP and total job satisfaction.

Table 4.28 Total JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Level of Education Attainment

Education Attainment	N	Mean	Standard Deviations	
High School	15	159.9333	23.6446	
Bachelor's	19	140.6316	12.7506	
Master's	95	148.6947	24.7021	
Doctorate	11	150.2727	16.9357	
Other	1	-	150.000	
Total	141	148.9362	23.0109	
ANOVA -Total Job Satisfaction by Education Attainment				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
Education Attainment	Total JSS	787.685	1.509	.203

$p < .05$.

Table 4.29 Total JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Years in EAP

Years in EAP	N	Mean	Standard Deviations
2 years or less	2	163.0000	28.2843
2 – 5 years	18	137.2778	20.9756
6 – 10 years	45	146.2667	23.5569
11 - 15 years	52	154.8269	20.7607
16 - 20 years	17	145.2941	26.5607
21 years or more	5	158.2000	20.2534
Total	139	148.8561	23.0354

ANOVA -Total Job Satisfaction by Years in EAP				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
Years in EAP	Total JSS	1124.188	2.212	.057

$p < .05$.

An ANOVA analysis was conducted to determine whether or not a relationship existed between CEAP respondents' years in current position and total job satisfaction. In Table 4.30, the dependent variable total job satisfaction was compared with years in current position.

Table 4.30 Total JSS Means and Standard Deviations and ANOVA by Years in Current Position

Current Position	N	Mean	Standard Deviations
2 years or less	12	131.8333	21.9414
2 – 5 years	20	144.6500	20.3037
6 – 10 years	55	150.7636	23.7487
11 - 15 years	37	158.9189	20.6026
16 - 20 years	6	137.3333	14.2361
21 years or more	10	142.9000	18.0644
Total	140	149.2857	22.7148

ANOVA -Total Job Satisfaction by Years in Current Position				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	F	Significance
Current Position	Total JSS	1780.687	3.799	.003*

$p < .05$.

Analysis revealed a significant relationship of $p = .003$ based on the alpha level of .05, between practitioners' total job satisfaction and years in current position. Given the significant finding, a Tukey HSD post hoc comparison test was conducted to determine which multiple dependent variables were significantly related. Table 4.31 shows the results of the Tukey procedure. The Tukey revealed that there was a significant relationship between CEAP respondents who had been in their jobs two years or less when compared with CEAP respondents who had been in their jobs 11-15 years.

Research Questions Two and Three

The following research questions were also considered. Are levels of job satisfaction among EAP practitioners different depending on use of an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model? Are the levels of job burnout among EAP practitioners different depending on an internal, external, or blended EAP delivery model?

A study conducted by Mirvis et al. (1999) on job burnout indicated that low levels of job satisfaction, worsening job performance, and higher levels of job turnover increased as the level of burnout increased. To address research questions two and three, null hypothesis two was formulated.

Null Hypothesis Two

Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners will experience no difference in susceptibility to job satisfaction and job burnout regardless of delivery model as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS). To address null hypothesis two, correlational analyses were conducted.

Table 4.31 Tukey HSD Test on Job Satisfaction and Years in Current Position

Tukey - Total Job Satisfaction by Years in Current Position				
	Dependent Variable: Total JSS	Mean Difference (I - J)	Standard Error	Significance
(I) Years in Current Position	(J) Years in Current Position			
2 years or less				
	2	-12.8167	7.9059	.584
	3	-18.9303	6.8983	.067
	4	-27.0856	7.1926	.002*
	5	-5.5000	10.8255	.996
	6	-11.0667	9.2704	.840
2 - 5				
	1	12.8167	7.9059	.584
	3	-6.1136	5.6535	.889
	4	-14.2689	6.0090	.165
	5	7.3167	10.0780	.979
	6	1.7500	8.354	1.000
6 - 10				
	1	18.9303	6.8983	.067
	2	6.1136	5.6535	.889
	4	-8.1553	4.6035	.484
	5	13.4303	9.3087	.701
	6	7.8636	7.4431	.898
11 - 15				
	1	27.0856	7.1926	.002*
	2	14.2689	6.0090	.165
	3	8.1553	4.6035	.484
	5	21.5856	9.5288	.208
	6	16.0189	7.7166	.300
16 - 20				
	1	5.5000	10.8255	.996
	2	-7.3167	10.0780	.979
	3	-13.4303	9.3087	.701
	4	-21.5856	9.5288	.208
	6	-5.5667	11.1806	.996
21+				
	1	11.0667	9.2704	.840
	2	-1.7500	8.3854	1.000
	3	-7.8636	7.4431	.898
	4	-16.0189	7.7166	.300
	5	5.5667	11.1806	.996

These analyses were selected to assess the magnitude of relationships between CEAP levels of total job satisfaction as measured by the JSS and each of the three dimensions of the Maslach job burnout construct: (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy, as reflected in the MBI-GS.

As shown in Table 4.32, the correlational analyses between job satisfaction and each of the three dimensions of the Maslach constructs of job burnout is based on an alpha of .05. Table 4.32 indicates there was a moderately negative correlation between emotional exhaustion $r = -.402$ and cynicism $r = -.548$ with total job satisfaction. Professional efficacy ($r = .320$) had a moderately positive correlation with total job satisfaction scores. These findings suggest that as CEAP practitioners' job satisfaction increases, emotional exhaustion and cynicism decreases and professional efficacy increases.

Table 4.32 Correlation between Job Satisfaction and Constructs of Burnout

	Correlation's	Total-JSS	EX	CY	PE
Total JSS	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.402	-.548	.320
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	142	137	137	137
*EX	Pearson Correlation	-.402	1.000	.596	-.293
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	137	141	141	141
*CY	Pearson Correlation	-.548	.596	1.000	-.409
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	137	141	141	141
*PE	Pearson Correlation	.320	-.293	-.409	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	137	141	141	141

* EX = Emotional Exhaustion; CY = Cynicism; PE = Professional Efficacy

Based on the literature review, the three types of EAP delivery models – internal, external, or blended - were identified as being fairly consistent across most EAP programs. Null hypothesis two hypothesized that there would be no difference in CEAP total job satisfaction and job burnout regardless of their EAP practice delivery model. Practitioners' means, standard deviations for their EAP delivery models, and total job satisfaction scores are listed in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 EAP Delivery Model and JSS Means and Standard Deviations

EAP Delivery Model	N	Mean	Standard Deviations
1 = Internal Model	66	146.6667	23.2143
2 = External Model	46	147.8696	23.6075
3 = Blended Model	20	154.5500	20.3146
Total	132	148.2803	22.9361

A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was performed to test for differences between the three independent variable EAP delivery models and the dependent CEAP total job satisfaction scores, based on an alpha of .05. Analysis of the data listed in Table 4.34 indicates that, regardless of the three EAP practice delivery models, there was no significant relationship $p = .402$ in job satisfaction.

Table 4.34 ANOVA of Total Job Satisfaction and EAP Delivery Model

Analysis of Total Job Satisfaction				
Source	Dependent Variable	Mean Square	f	Significance
EAP Delivery Model	Total JSS	482.897	.917	.402

$p < .05$.

As posited in null hypothesis two, to determine whether differences between the three EAP delivery models and CEAP levels of job burnout based on Maslach's construct

of burnout, three chi-square procedures were performed to test the data for significance. In the following tables, the significance of each dimension of burnout - (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy - was tested with practitioners' three EAP delivery models - (a) internal, (b) external, and (c) blended. Each of the dimensions of job burnout on the MBI-GS had three possible levels of respondent scores. On the MBI-GS, CEAP respondent scores at level one indicate a low range of experience with burnout scores. At level two scores reflect an average range of experience with burnout, and scores at level three represent a high range of experience with burnout.

Analysis of the emotional exhaustion scale when compared with the three EAP delivery models indicated there was only a nominal difference between the respondents' count and the expected count distribution on each of the three levels of emotional exhaustion. The data listed in Table 4.35 are the Pearson's Chi-Square = 1.431, 4 *df*, *p* = .839, which indicated that there was no significant difference between CEAP practitioners' EAP delivery model and their experiences of emotional exhaustion.

Table 4.35 CEAP Emotional Exhaustion by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	^a 1.431	4	.893
Likelihood Ratio	1.436	4	.838
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.973
N of Valid Cases	130		

Note: a.1 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.52.

Analysis of the cynicism dimension when compared with the three EAP delivery models reflected a marginally higher difference between the CEAP respondents' count

and the expected count distribution on each of the three levels of cynicism. Reported in Table 4.36 is the Pearson's Chi-Square = 4.403, 4 *df*, *p* = .354, which indicated that there was no significant relationship between CEAP practitioners' EAP delivery model and their experience with cynicism. Both of the chi-square procedures on emotional exhaustion and cynicism reinforced the correlational studies that CEAP practitioners in this study had low experiences with two dimensions of burnout.

Table 4.36 CEAP Cynicism by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.403 ^a	4	.354
Likelihood Ratio	4.719	4	.317
Linear-by-Linear Association	.985	1	.321
N of Valid Cases	130		

Note: a.0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.98.

Analysis of the professional efficacy burnout dimension when compared with the three EA delivery models reflected slightly mixed lower and higher differences between the CEAP respondents' count and the expected count distribution. Analysis of the data listed in Table 4.37 reported the Pearson's Chi-Square = 5.164, 4 *df*, *p* = .271, which indicated that there was no significant relationship between CEAP practitioners' EAP delivery model and their experience with professional efficacy. Consistent with previous demographic and correlational results from this study, CEAP practitioners reported exceptionally high levels of professional efficacy.

Research Question Four

Do EAP practitioners experience different levels of job burnout in organizations undergoing consolidations such as downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, or other types of internal major changes depending on their EAP delivery model? In the literature review, the emerging workplace of the 21st century was described based on the continued (a) evolution of global economies, (b) changes in workplace demographics, (c) international competition for markets and workers, and (d) technology innovations that altered the nature and speed of work.

Table 4.37 CEAP Professional Efficacy by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.164 ^a	4	.271
Likelihood Ratio	5.921	4	.205
Linear-by-Linear Association	.1457	1	.227
N of Valid Cases	130		

Note: a.4 cells (44.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .81.

In the past two decades, corporations' experiences with constant change in the form of downsizing, business consolidations, and continuous change based on internal business requirements and fluctuating market conditions has generated high levels of stress and anxiety in the workforce. As previously referenced, organizations are relying on CEAP practitioners and their EAP services to facilitate and manage the stress and challenges of the contemporary work environment. Based on these emerging trends, the fourth research question in this study explored the impact of changes in the workplace and assessed the impact on CEAP practitioners' experience with burnout given their type

of EAP delivery model. A third null hypothesis was formulated to address this research issue.

Null Hypothesis Three

Certified Employee Assistance Professional practitioners will have no significant difference in job burnout when working with organizations undergoing consolidations (downsizing, mergers or acquisitions) or major changes, regardless of EAP delivery model as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS).

To determine whether or not differences exist between CEAP respondents and Maslach's burnout construct - (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy; given the following types of change - (downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, and major changes) chi-square procedures were performed to test for significance against the three EAP delivery models. The three dimensions of burnout and the three types of organizational change were the dependent variables, and the EAP practice delivery model was the independent variable. Table 4.38 identifies the sample size for the chi-square statistical procedure for the third null hypothesis.

Table 4.38 Analysis of MBI-GS by Types of Change by EAP Delivery Model

MBI-GS by Types of Change by EAP Delivery Model			
Variables	Valid N	Missing N	Total
Exhaustion by Change by EA Delivery Model	130	16	146
Cynicism by Change by EA Delivery Model	130	16	146
Professional Efficacy by Change by EA Delivery Model	130	16	146

The following chi-square tables report the actual and expected count distribution of the MBI-GS data by (a) dimension of burnout, (b) type of change, and (c) EAP delivery model. The data for this analysis are based on CEAP respondents who circled the change section of the EAP demographic questionnaire. For each type of change, a value in the 0 column indicated that CEAP respondents had no experience with that type of change in their practice within the past 18 months. A value of 1 in the second column represented a yes response that suggested that CEAP practitioners had experienced some form of the specific change in their practice within the past 18 months. It is important to state again: one of the limitations of this study was a lack of consistent definition of types of change and the CEAP respondents' interpretation of these three types of change.

The data analysis has captured the results of CEAP responses related to downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, and major change. The Not Applicable (NA) change category was included in the survey questionnaire to assess a CEAP practice that was not experiencing these types of change. For the purposes of reporting the findings in this study, each burnout dimension - emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy - was tested using the Pearson's Chi-Square test for assessing CEAP responses unaffected by the three changes listed in the study.

Listed below in Table 4.39, CEAP respondents working in an internal and external model reported no experience with emotional exhaustion and cynicism against none of the identified changes. However, for CEAP practitioners working in a blended model, a significance was found $p = .022$ for experiencing professional efficacy. For simplicity of reporting these findings, the researcher has chosen to reference

Table 4.39 Analysis of Dimensions of Burnout by Non-Applicable Change by EAP Delivery Model

Analysis of Exhaustion by Non-Applicable Change by EAP Delivery Model			
EAP Delivery Model	Value	Df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Internal EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	.075	2	.963
External EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	.495	2	.962
Blended EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	.101	2	.951

Analysis of Cynicism by Non-Applicable Change by EAP Delivery Model			
EAP Delivery Model	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Internal EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	.398	2	.820
External EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	3.141	2	.208
Blended EAP Delivery Model – Pearson's Chi-square	3.436	2	.179

Analysis of Professional Efficacy by Non -Applicable by EAP Delivery Model				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.390	2	.499
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	.915	2	.633
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	5.219d	1	.022*

Note: d. 3 cells (75%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.14.

the NA change category with each burnout dimension with only the Pearson's Chi-Square results for each type of EAP delivery model (internal, external, and blended) with the three dimensions of burnout. Each dimension of burnout was tested using the Pearson's Chi-Square for the non-applicable category. This was analyzed by change and by EAP delivery model.

Change

Corporate Downsizing

The literature review suggested that the impact of corporate downsizing over the past two decades on individual employees has resulted in feelings of job insecurity, anger, job stress, decreased loyalty and commitment to the company, lower motivation and productivity, and increased resistance to change.

Simultaneously, the impact of downsizing at the organization level has shown negative effects on planning and innovation, turnover and retention, adverse financial consequences, disruption of key internal and external relationships. Further, the impact has forced companies to maintain a short-term versus long-term perspective (Shaw & Barrett-Powers, 1997). It is within this type of stressful work environment that CEAP practitioners have found their core competencies critical to managing the stresses and challenges associated with change.

As considered in research question three, within a downsizing environment, do CEAP practitioners experience emotional exhaustion as a result of supporting the demands of the organization and employees during this type of change?

To test null hypothesis three, a chi-square procedure was performed to determine whether a significant relationship existed between CEAP practitioners' levels of emotional exhaustion and their EAP practice delivery model within a downsizing environment.

The results shown in Table 4.40 suggest that in most cases, the count was slightly higher or with the expected count. The Pearson's Chi-Square indicated that there was no significant relationship between CEAP practitioners regarding emotional exhaustion based on their specific EAP delivery model: (a) internal $c^2 = .235$, 2 *df*, $p = .889$, (b) external $c^2 = 4.471$, 2 *df*, $p = .107$, and (c) blended $c^2 = .398$, 2 *df*, $p = .820$ in a workplace where downsizing had occurred within the past 18 months.

The impact of organizational downsizing on a workforce usually has been viewed as a demoralizing, stressful event. In many cases, expected results of a downsizing effort have failed to achieve the stated organizational goals. Shaw and Barrett-Power's (1997)

Table 4.40 Analysis of Exhaustion by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Significance (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	.235	2	.889
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	4.471	2	.107
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	.398	2	.820

$p < .05$

research indicated that less than one fourth of the companies that downsized realized improvements in productivity, cash flow, or shareholder return and that the downsizing action left many negative consequences for the remaining workforce. Given these

statistics and results on prior downsizing efforts, cynicism would be a natural behavioral response for a workforce and CEAP practitioners that have had experience with this aspect of corporate business consolidation.

The objective in null hypothesis three was to determine whether there was an impact on CEAP practitioners who have experienced an organization undergoing a downsizing effort and to assess their levels of cynicism. Table 4.41 shows the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP cynicism for subjects experiencing downsizing and the three EAP delivery models. The CEAP respondent counts were even to slightly higher than the expected count distributions.

Table 4.41 Analysis of Cynicism by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.249	2	.536
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.739	2	.419
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	5.091	2	.078

$p < .05$.

The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among CEAP cynicism with downsizing regardless of their EAP delivery model: (a) internal $c^2 = 1.249$, 2 *df*, $p = .536$, (b) external $c^2 = 1.739$, 2 *df*, $p = .419$, and (c) blended $c^2 = 5.091$, 2 *df*, $p = .078$ in a workplace where downsizing had occurred within the past 18 months.

In the review of literature, it was suggested that corporate downsizing effects are aimed at performance improvement, flexibility, faster decision making, and increased

quality and efficiencies. The result has been a new workplace in which workers demonstrated a reduction in productivity, have increased workloads and demands because of limited resources, quality standards are compromised, and customer relationships are often negatively affected. In downsizing work environments, it has been easy to observe a loss in worker commitment and involvement, job satisfaction, and workforce morale.

To determine whether or not there was an impact on CEAP practitioners who have experienced an organization undergoing a downsizing effort and to assess their levels of professional efficacy, null hypothesis three was tested for significance. Table 4.42 indicates the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP professional efficacy when experiencing a downsizing type of change upon the three EA delivery models. The CEAP respondent counts were even to slightly higher than the expected count distributions. The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant difference among CEAP respondents' professional efficacy with downsizing in an internal EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = 4.466$, 2 *df*, $p = .107$, or with the blended EA delivery model, $\chi^2 = .643$, 1 *df*, $p = .422$. However, a significant relationship was found to exist between external CEAP respondents and their experience with professional efficacy, $\chi^2 = 7.570$, 2 *df*, $p = .023$, in a workplace where downsizing had occurred within the past 18 months. Given the limitation of this study, further research would be required using clear, consistent definitions of change to adequately assess the implication of low professional efficacy in an external EAP practice delivery model.

Table 4.42 Professional Efficacy by Downsizing by EA Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	4.466	2	.107
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	c7.570	2	*.023
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	.643	1	.422

p < .05.

Corporate Mergers and Acquisitions

Organizational consolidations in the form of mergers and acquisitions continue to be a popular management tool for reducing costs, eliminating redundancy, and maximizing growth opportunities. While the terminology of mergers and acquisitions is not as negatively charged as is the term corporate downsizing, the impact of a merger on a workforce can be similar. In a corporate merger or acquisition, the workforce can experience high levels of stress associated with the loss of their corporate identity and sense of belonging, previous work relationships and feelings of job insecurity until the merger stabilizes. Based on the research in the literature, human resource issues associated with cultural incompatibility and its impact on the workforce has led to failure of one third to one half of all mergers (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993). Given the published core competencies from the Employee Assistance Professional Association (EAPA), CEAP practitioners have played a vital role in assisting companies and employees in adjusting to the stress and changes associated with mergers and acquisitions.

To determine whether or not there was significant impact on CEAP practitioners who have experienced an organizational merger or acquisition effort and to assess their levels of (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) cynicism, and (c) professional efficacy, null hypothesis three was tested for significance using a chi-square procedure. Table 4.43 indicates the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP emotional exhaustion when experiencing a merger or acquisition type of change given the three EA delivery models.

Table 4.43 Exhaustion by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	.996	2	.617
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	7.849	2	*.020
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	.119	2	.942

$p < .05$.

The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among CEAP respondents' experiences with emotional exhaustion with mergers and acquisitions in an internal EA delivery model, $\chi^2 = .996$, 2 *df*, $p = .617$, or with the blended EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = .119$, 2 *df*, $p = .942$. However, a significant relationship was found between external CEAP respondents and their experience of emotional exhaustion, $\chi^2 = 7.849$, 2 *df*, $p = .020$, in a workplace where mergers and acquisitions had occurred within the past 18 months. Given the limitations of this study, further research would be required to adequately assess the findings of emotional exhaustion with an external delivery model.

However, it is important to reference that on the chi-square procedure, the count and expected count distribution chart had only one CEAP respondent who had indicated recent experience with mergers and acquisitions.

In null hypothesis three, data were analyzed to determine whether or not there was a significant impact on CEAP practitioners who had experienced an organization undergoing a merger or acquisition and assess their levels of cynicism. Table 4.44 shows the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP cynicism when experiencing a merger or acquisition type of change within the three EA delivery models. The CEAP respondent counts were even to slightly higher than the expected count distributions. The Pearson's chi-square reported no significant difference among CEAP respondents' experiences with cynicism and mergers and acquisitions in an internal EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = .656$, 2 df, $p = .720$, or with the blended EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = 5.091$, 2 df, $p = .078$.

Table 4.44 Analysis of Cynicism by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	.656	2	.720
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	7.469	2	*.024
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	5.091	2	.078

$p < .05$.

However, a significant relationship was found between external CEAP respondents and their experience of cynicism, $\chi^2 = 7.469$, 2 df, $p = .024$, in a workplace

where mergers and acquisitions had occurred within the past 18 months. However, as in the previous dimension of job burnout emotional exhaustion, it is important to reference that on the chi-square test, the count and expected count distribution chart had only one CEAP respondent who indicated recent experience with mergers and acquisitions.

Data were analyzed to determine whether or not there was a significant impact on CEAP practitioners who experienced an organizational merger or acquisition and to assess their levels of professional efficacy Table 4 45 shows the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP professional efficacy when experiencing a merger or acquisition type of change within any of the three EAP delivery models The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among CEAP respondents' experiences with cynicism with mergers and acquisitions in an internal EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = .597, 2 df, p = .742$, or with the blended EAP delivery model, $\chi^2 = 1.163, 1 df, p = .281$. A significant relationship was found to exist between external CEAP respondents and their experience of professional efficacy, $\chi^2 = 10.688, 2 df, p = .005$, in a workplace where mergers and acquisitions had occurred within the past 18 months.

However, as in the previous dimensions of job burnout, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism on the chi-square table, the count and expected count distribution chart had only a couple of CEAP respondents who indicated recent experience with mergers and acquisitions Additional research would be required to clarify the implications of this finding for CEAP respondents.

Table 4.45 Professional Efficacy by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp.Sig (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	.597	2	.742
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	10.688c	2	.005*
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.163	1	.281

p < .05.

Major Change in Internal Requirements

As established in the literature review, the American workplace is besieged with change. In addition to the major changes of downsizing and mergers, workers experience operational changes on a routine basis. Many of those create stress and performance problems. One of the limitations of this study was a lack of a uniform definition of change to facilitate CEAP response. However, while unclear in terminology, workers do experience the types of internal change brought about by improvements in technology, communication systems, and work process enhancements such as re-engineering or speed to market business models that alter the process and nature of work. External environmental changes such as fluctuating market conditions, regulatory requirements, or constantly changing consumer expectations and demands drive other types of internal change as well.

To determine whether or not there was a significant impact on CEAP practitioners who have experienced an organization undergoing internal major changes and to assess their levels of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy within their EAP

practice, null hypothesis three was tested with a chi-square procedure for significance.

Table 4.46 indicates the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP emotional exhaustion when experiencing major internal changes given the three EA delivery models. The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among

Table 4.46 Analysis of Exhaustion by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	3.241	2	.198
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	.268	2	.874
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.548	2	.461

$p < .05$.

CEAP respondents' experiences with emotional exhaustion who experienced major change regardless of their EAP delivery model, (a) internal, $c^2 = 3.241$, 2 *df*, $p = .198$, (b) external, $c^2 = .268$, 2 *df*, $p = .874$, and (c) blended, $c^2 = 1.548$, 2 *df*, $p = .461$, in a workplace where major internal changes had occurred within the past 18 months.

Table 4.47 indicates the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP cynicism among workers who were experiencing major internal changes, given the three EAP delivery models. The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among CEAP respondents experiences of cynicism while experiencing major internal changes regardless of their EAP delivery model, (a) internal, $c^2 = 2.294$, 2 *df*, $p = .318$, (b) external, $c^2 = 2.365$, 2 *df*, $p = .307$, and (c) blended, $c^2 = 2.842$, 2 *df*, $p = .241$ in a workplace where major internal changes had occurred within the past 18 months.

Table 4.47 Analysis of Cynicism by Major Change by EAP Delivery Mode

Chi-Square Tests				
EAP Delivery Model		Value	Df	Asymp. Significance. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	2.294	2	.318
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	2.365	2	.307
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	2.842	2	.241

$p < .05$.

Data were analyzed to determine whether or not there was a significant impact on CEAP practitioners who experienced an organizational major internal change and to assess their levels of professional efficacy. Table 4.48 shows the results of a chi-square test on the levels of CEAP professional efficacy when experiencing major changes within the three EAP delivery models. The Pearson's Chi-Square reported no significant relationship among CEAP respondents' experiences with professional efficacy with major change in an external EA delivery model, $c^2 = .031$, 1 *df*, $p = .398$, or with the blended EA delivery model, $c^2 = .031$, 1 *df*, $p = .861$. However, a significant difference was found to exist between internal CEAP respondents and their experience with professional efficacy, $c^2 = 11.296$, 2 *df*, $p = .004$, in a workplace where major internal changes had occurred within the past 18 months.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine demographic similarities and differences, levels of job satisfaction and burnout experience CEAP practitioners face working in an environment of constant change.

Table 4.48 Professional Efficacy by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model

Chi-Square Tests				
EA Delivery Model		Value	df	Asymp. Significance. (2-sided)
Internal N = 64	Pearson's Chi-Square	b11.296	2	*.004
External N = 45	Pearson's Chi-Square	1.843	2	.398
Blended N = 21	Pearson's Chi-Square	.031	1	.861

p < .05.

In hypothesis one, significant findings existed between job satisfaction and the EAP demographics years in current position variable. In hypothesis two, no significant relationship was found between EAP delivery models and CEAP job satisfaction and job burnout. In hypothesis three, significant findings existed between external EAP delivery models and CEAP levels of professional efficacy in a downsizing environment, and emotional exhaustion, cynicism, professional efficacy with companies involved in mergers and acquisitions. Finally, in hypothesis three, a significant finding was found between practitioners working in an internal EAP delivery model with CEAP professional efficacy and companies undergoing major changes. Null hypothesis two was retained and null hypotheses one and three were rejected. In null hypothesis three, the few examples in which a significant difference existed, sample response was considered low when compared with the total sample response rate, making any potential population inferences suspect.

Chapter V

Summary and Conclusions

Employee Assistance practitioners are emerging in today's American workplace as a critical resource in facilitating change and devising solutions to integrating the stresses and challenges of modern worklife with companies and their employees. The U. S. workplace of the 21st century promises to be complex, diverse in human resources, and multinational-focused as technology innovations and communications shrink the existing geographical boundaries. This chapter contains a summary of the research study, indicating the major findings, discussion and implications, and recommendations for future study.

Summary of the Study

This study began by exploring the American workplace and examining its trends and future changes based on (a) an emerging global economy, (b) shifting human resource demographics, (c) the impact of technology innovations, and (d) a need to integrate the challenges and implications of constant change and stress on managers and the workforce. As one of the interventions for addressing workplace change and stress, two decades ago employers began sponsoring employee assistance programs in their companies. In Chapter II, the role of Employee Assistance practitioners was described and their professional credentials and core competencies for practice were discussed.

The review of related research on workplace stress and change revealed that in today's complex work environments, stress, job dissatisfaction, and burnout are common place among today's corporate leaders and employees. Professionals in human resources

functions and Employee Assistance programs are often on the front lines intervening to facilitate employee assimilation and integration of change and stress.

Based on the literature review, job burnout and job satisfaction studies on human service providers in the medical, social services, and mental health professions were abundant. However, no research evidence was found exploring EAP professionals' experience with job burnout and job satisfaction. This study (a) examined the demographic traits and characteristics of CEAP practitioners, (b) assessed the levels of CEAP practitioner experience with job satisfaction and job burnout, and (c) determined the impact of corporate change on CEAP job burnout. The independent variables selected for final analysis was based on the three types of EAP practice delivery models: internal, external, and blended that are found in today's workplace.

Because research has shown that EA practitioners come from a variety of medical, behavioral, and mental health disciplines, this study utilized the Employee Assistance Professional Association's membership directory for selecting a target population. The population for this study consisted of Certified Employee Assistance Professionals (CEAP) who lived in the United States and worked in corporations or organizations as identified by their membership listing.

Four research questions were developed, and three null hypotheses were designed to assess CEAP demographic similarities and differences, job satisfaction and burnout, and organizational change. Research Question One asked whether CEAP practitioners had more demographic similarities or differences regarding job satisfaction or job burnout. Null Hypothesis One was formulated to hypothesize that CEAP will have no

difference in age, gender, marital status, education attainment, years in current position, and years in EAP practice as measured by the JSS and MBI-GS.

Research Questions Two and Three focused on whether or not the levels of job satisfaction or job burnout were different based on the EAP delivery model. Null Hypothesis Two hypothesized that CEAP practitioners will experience no difference in susceptibility to job satisfaction and job burnout regardless of EAP delivery model as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey.

Research Question Four examined whether or not CEAP practitioners experienced different levels of job burnout in organizations undergoing downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, or major internal changes. Null Hypothesis Three hypothesized that CEAP practitioners will have no significant difference in job burnout when working with organizations undergoing consolidations (downsizing, mergers, and acquisitions) or major changes regardless of EAP delivery model as measured by the MBI-GS.

The sample identified for this study consisted of 327 Certified Employee Assistance Professionals (CEAP). Subjects were sent a survey package containing three instruments for this study: (a) the EAP Demographics Questionnaire, (b) the Job Satisfaction Survey, and (c) the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey. A survey reminder follow-up letter was sent to CEAP participants two weeks after the survey packets were due. A total of 146 CEAP practitioners returned the surveys for a 45% response rate.

In Chapter IV, frequencies and percentages were reported for the CEAP demographic data. Chi-square procedures were performed on CEAP demographics and job burnout. Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) were obtained, and analysis of variances (ANOVA) were performed on selected CEAP demographics and the total job satisfaction scores. A Tukey HSD was conducted on two demographic findings having less than an alpha of .05 to assess which multiple variables were affected. Finally, Chi-square tests were conducted on CEAP levels of job burnout in organizations undergoing downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, and major changes based on the three EA delivery models. The alpha for significance was established at .05 for each of these statistical analyses.

Major Findings

This section includes the findings on the CEAP demographics information and the three null hypotheses. Findings related to CEAP demographics:

1. The majority of the CEAP practitioners' (86.9%) ages were between 41 - 60.
2. The majority of the CEAP respondents were female.
3. The majority of the CEAP respondents were married.
4. The majority of CEAP respondents held graduate degrees (75.9%). A small portion held only bachelor's degrees. According to the EAP Association, it is possible in the CEAP certification process to complete the eligibility requirements with only a high school diploma. Only 10.3% of the CEAP respondents held only high school diplomas representing this criterion.
5. Overwhelmingly, the majority of CEAP respondents (132) worked full time in their practice.

6. The majority of CEAP respondents (63.9%) had worked in their current positions between 6 - 15 years. The majority of CEAP respondents (69.7%) had worked in EAP for the same amount of time.
7. The majority of CEAP respondents worked in an internal EAP delivery model. The external EAP delivery model reported (34.8%) and the smallest practice model was a blended EAP delivery model.
8. A marginal majority of CEAP respondents (33.6%) reported no experiences in the past 18 months with the three types of change, downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, and major changes. The second largest category of change affecting CEAP respondents was major change at 32.2%.

Findings Related to Null Hypothesis One

In the CEAP demographics frequencies and percentages from the MBI-GS, CEAP respondents had low scores on the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and cynicism with high scores on professional efficacy. A low score on the emotional exhaustion and cynicism dimension indicated that CEAP respondents did not report experiencing physical or mental strain, stress, work overload, indifference, or distancing themselves from their work as a method of coping with demands of their jobs. A high score in professional efficacy coupled with no significant findings in total job satisfaction indicated that CEAP respondents feel they are involved and committed to their work, believe they are making a difference, and are generally satisfied in their EAP practice.

When comparing the total job satisfaction scores from the JSS with the EAP demographics, the findings indicated no significant difference was found based on the CEAP demographics of age, gender, marital status, and education attainment. However, CEAP respondents with two years or less in their current positions and respondents with

11-15 years experience in their current position had a significant difference identified between these demographics and total job satisfaction.

Findings from Null Hypothesis Two

In the analyses of EAP delivery models with the Job Satisfaction Survey and the Maslach construct of job burnout, the findings indicated that there were no significant relationships between CEAP respondents' experiences with total job satisfaction and the dimensions of burnout given the three EA practice delivery models.

Findings from Null Hypothesis Three

The findings from the analyses of EAP delivery models with the dimensions of job burnout and work environments undergoing change such as downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, or major internal changes indicated that a significant difference was found CEAP respondents' experiences with the dimensions of burnout and type of change were impacted by the practitioner's EAP delivery model. CEAP respondents reported no significant differences between downsizing and the emotional exhaustion and cynicism dimensions of burnout, regardless of EAP delivery model CEAP respondents who worked in an external delivery model reported that a difference existed in CEAP experiences with professional efficacy in a downsizing environment.

In the mergers and acquisitions form of corporate change, CEAP respondents who worked in an internal and blended EAP delivery model experienced no difference in the emotional exhaustion and cynicism dimensions of burnout. CEAP respondents who reported working in an external delivery model indicated a difference in experiencing emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy while working in a merger or

acquisition work environment. However, the number of CEAP respondents who reported experience with companies undergoing a merger or acquisition in the past 18 months was low.

In the major change category, CEAP respondents who worked in an external or blended EA delivery model reported no difference between the emotional exhaustion and cynicism dimensions of burnout. However, CEAP respondents who worked in an internal EA delivery model reported a significant difference in the professional efficacy dimension in companies experiencing major changes.

Discussion and Implications

The results drawn from this study were based on the data analyses from the 146 CEAP participants who were Employee Assistance Professional Association members in 1999 (EAPA). Based on the quantitative findings from this study, several salient points can be made regarding CEAP practitioners.

First, the findings from the CEAP respondents' demographic information indicated that CEAP practitioners in this study had more demographic traits and characteristics in common than were different. The majority of CEAP respondents were over 40 years old, white, educated with advanced degrees, married, and worked full-time. Over one half of the respondents had been employed in their current jobs and within the EAP field for 11 or more years.

Secondly, the findings demonstrated that the majority of CEAP practitioners' experience with the three dimensions of Maslach's burnout construct were low on the emotional exhaustion and cynicism dimensions but high on professional efficacy. This

would indicate that CEAP respondents' current attitude and perceptions toward their work were not generating negative job burnout experiences or behaviors and reflecting positive job involvement and commitment.

Thirdly, it was found that the majority of CEAP practitioners, regardless of EAP delivery model, expressed satisfaction with their EAP work based on the Job Satisfaction Survey results. However, it was found that new CEAP practitioners with two years or less experience in their current job and established CEAP practitioners with 11-15 years of experience expressed some dissatisfaction with their current position. Additional qualitative research will be necessary to fully understand the implications of this finding and draw accurate conclusions on CEAP job dissatisfaction with these diverse levels of tenure in their current jobs.

Finally, this study examined the presence or absence of corporate change in CEAP respondents' work environment and its impact on their experience of burnout given the three EA delivery models. Given the data analyses available from this study, one of the most interesting and surprising findings was from the largest response rate of 33.6% from CEAP practitioners who reported that their companies or organizations had not experienced any of the three types of corporate change identified in this study. The second largest participant response rate of 30.8% for corporate change was reported from CEAP respondents in companies undergoing downsizing efforts.

One of the limitations of this study was a lack of a consistent definition and description of corporate change to enable CEAP respondents to accurately assess their companies' or organizations' change process against. Beyond reporting the presence or

absence of change and CEAP respondents' experiences of Maslach's burnout construct, this limitation prevented the researcher from drawing any specific conclusions regarding the types of corporate change and the levels of CEAP respondents' experiences with burnout and their EAP delivery model

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study and the conclusions drawn from it, the following recommendations are presented for consideration.

1. Given the projected trends and changes of the U S workforce regarding age, gender, education, race, and immigration characteristics, findings from the CEAP demographics survey indicated that a majority of the CEAP practitioners shared more demographic similarities than differences. As the workforce demographic trends change, CEAP practitioners may need to enhance their EAP services and broaden their understanding of multinational cultures and ethnic backgrounds to meet the diversity needs and challenges of the new workforce. Additional research is needed to develop a comprehensive demographics profile of EAP practitioners to describe the profession.
2. Organizations will continue to change and generate stress and anxiety among their workforce as technology innovations occur, competition remains at international levels, and the need for a highly skilled workforce continues to be critical to business success and growth. Based on the findings from this study, corporations should continue to utilize and maximize Employee Assistance professionals to facilitate integration of change and manage stress in the workplace. In this study, CEAP practitioners were shown to be highly satisfied with their EAP work, committed to field and practice of EAP as seen with their employment and EAP practice tenure. The majority of CEAP respondents were not experiencing any of the dimensions of Maslach's burnout construct. This study has shown that regardless of EAP delivery model, CEAP practitioners' levels of involvement, commitment, and job satisfaction yield a quality EAP professional employee regardless of selected delivery method.
3. Based on this study, additional research on defining the types of severe corporate change, the implications of those changes and stress on the workforce, and the impact on Employee Assistance professionals is required. A consistent definition of organizational change and a focused research

methodology beyond identifying the presence or absence of change is required to generate new insight, knowledge, and solutions to facilitate change. The CEAP practitioner is in a unique position of early intervention and resolution of stress and change integration issues before employee and organizational performance is negatively affected.

Conclusions

This study provided new information describing the demographic profile of the CEAP practitioners at a national level. It represents a first step in assessing the levels of job satisfaction and job burnout among CEAP practitioners in organizations based on three commonly utilized EA practices delivery models. The findings from this study could provide a quantitative baseline for future qualitative studies on this unique population of organization human resource services providers

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Appendices

Appendix A

CEAP Letter of Introduction

**Department of Human Resource Development
The University of Tennessee**

March 3, 2000

«First_Name_» «Last_Name_», «Title_»
«Company_»
«Address_»
«Address_2»
«City_», «State_» «Zip_»

Dear CEAP Member

I am conducting a study for The University of Tennessee, Department of Human Resource Development. I am writing to request your participation in a national study focusing on CEAP practitioners and their level of job satisfaction and job burnout in today's workplace. The enclosed Employee Assistance practitioner's demographic survey and questionnaires are designed to obtain information about your professional background, areas of practice, condition of your organization related to change and your levels of job satisfaction and job burnout in your professional practice.

Your questionnaire responses will be anonymous and appreciated. To ensure confidentiality and facilitate tracking of the feedback, the questionnaires are numerically coded to limit follow up notifications. Upon completion of the study, I will be glad to provide you with a summary of the research findings. Please send a separate request via e-mail to my personal e-mail address felixfish@earthlink.net and I will forward you a summary of the study conclusions.

I would appreciate your completion of the questionnaires by March 24, 2000. I have provided a stamped, addressed envelope for you to use in returning the questionnaires. Please do not put your name on the questionnaires.

I realize that your schedule is busy and your time is valuable. However, I hope the short time it takes you complete and return these surveys will lead to further insight into the work life of EAP practitioners in today's work environment.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions about the study, you can contact me at 865-549-5729.

Yours truly,

Suzanne E. Young
Project Director

cc Dr. Ernest W. Brewer, Professor
Department head of Child and Family Studies
Enclosure

Appendix B

EAP Demographics Questionnaire

Employee Assistance Practitioner Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix B)

Please circle the answers that are appropriate to your situation.

Age	☐ 21 - 30	☐ 31 - 40	☐ 41 - 50	☐ 51 - 60	Gender	☐ Male	☐ Female
Marital Status	☐ Married ☐ Divorced		☐ Separated ☐ Single		Ethnicity	☐ White ☐ Hispanic ☐ African-American ☐ Native American ☐ Asian / Pacific Islander	
Education	Highest Education Degree Received ☐ High School ☐ Bachelor's ☐ Master's ☐ Doctorate						
Years in Current Position	☐ 2 years or less ☐ 2 - 5 years ☐ 6 - 10 years ☐ 11 - 15 years ☐ 16 - 20 years ☐ 21 years or more						
Discipline of Educational / Clinical Experience:	☐ Social Work ☐ Mental Health Counseling ☐ Nursing ☐ Psychology ☐ Substance Abuse ☐ Medicine ☐ Other						
Employment	☐ Full-Time ☐ Part-time						
Years working in EAP	☐ 2 years or less ☐ 2 - 5 years ☐ 6 - 10 years ☐ 11 - 15 years ☐ 16 - 20 years ☐ 21 years or more						
Industry (s) you provide EAP services to:	☐ Manufacturing ☐ Transportation ☐ Food / Beverage ☐ Retail / Consumer ☐ Healthcare ☐ Other ☐ Law Enforcement ☐ Military ☐ Government ☐ Bio-Tech ☐ Technology						
Delivery Model of EAP Program	☐ Internal ☐ External to Company ☐ Blended						
In past 18 mos., has your co. undergone a: ☐ N/A ☐ Downsizing ☐ Merger ☐ Major Change							
Describe Briefly							

Appendix C

Job Satisfaction Survey

Job Satisfaction Survey

Copyright by Paul E. Spector, Department of Psychology, University of South Florida (1994)

Please circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it		Please circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it														
		D	I	S	S	A	A	A	D	D	D	D	A	A	A	A
		1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
2	There is really too little chance for promotion in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his / her job	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
7	I like the people that I work with	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
8	Sometimes feel my job is meaningless	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
9	Communications seem good within our organization	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
10	Raises are too few and far between	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
12	My supervisor is unfair to me	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
17	I like doing the things I do at work	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
22	The benefits package we have is equitable	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
23	There are few rewards for those who work here	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
24	I have too much to do at work	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
25	I enjoy my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
30	I like my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
31	I have too much paperwork	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
35	My job is enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
36	Work assignments are fully explained	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		

Appendix D

Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey



SAMPLE ITEMS FOR THE
MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY
General Survey

by Wilmar B. Schaufeli, Michael P. Leiter, Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson

The purpose of this survey is to assess how staff members view their job and their reactions to their work.

Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, write a "0" (zero) before the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by writing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

How Often	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

I. Depersonalization

15 I doubt the significance of my work

II. Personal Accomplishment

7 I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does

III. Emotional Exhaustion

2 I feel used up at the end of the workday

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You may change the format of these items to fit your needs, but the wording may not be altered. Please do not present these items to your readers as any kind of "mini-test," but rather as an illustrative sample of items from this instrument. We have provided these items as samples so that we may maintain control over which items appear in published media. This avoids an entire instrument appearing at once or in segments which may be pieced together to form a working instrument, protecting the validity and reliability of the test. Thank you for your cooperation. Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., Licensing Department.

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Appendix E

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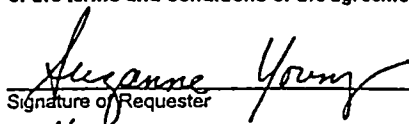
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Appendix F

Tables from Chapter IV

Chi-Square Tables

Table 4.7 Emotional Exhaustion by Age

Emotional Exhaustion by Age							
Emotional Exhaustion			Age				
			21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Total
EX	1	Count	2	7	26	36	71
		Expected Count	2.0	7.6	29.4	32.0	71.0
	2	Count	1	4	15	11	31
		Expected Count	.9	3.3	12.8	14.0	31.0
	3	Count	1	4	17	16	38
		Expected Count	1.1	4.1	15.7	17.1	38.0
Total		Count	4	15	58	63	140
		Expected Count	4.0	15.0	58.0	63.0	140.0

Note: 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .89.

Table 4.8 Emotional Exhaustion by Gender

Emotional Exhaustion by Gender					
			Male	Female	Total
EX	1	Count	24	34	58
		Expected Count	23.6	34.4	58.0
	2	Count	9	16	25
		Expected Count	10.2	14.8	25.0
	3	Count	15	20	35
		Expected Count	14.2	20.8	35.0
Total		Count	48	70	118
		Expected Count	48.0	70.0	118.0

Note: 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.17.

Table 4.9 Emotional Exhaustion by Marital Status

Emotional Exhaustion by Marital Status							
Emotional Exhaustion			Status				
			Married	Divorced	Separated	Single	Total
EX	1	Count	50	9	1	7	67
		Expected Count	47.1	10.9	1.0	7.9	76.0
	2	Count	21	6	1	3	31
		Expected Count	21.8	5.1	.5	3.7	31.0
	3	Count	24	7	0	6	37
		Expected Count	26.0	6.0	.5	4.4	37.0
Total		Count	95	22	2	16	135
		Expected Count	95.0	22.0	2.0	16.0	135.0

Note: 56 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .46.

Table 4.10 Emotional Exhaustion by Education

Emotional Exhaustion by Education							
Emotional Exhaustion			Education				
			High School	Bachelor's	Master's	Ph.D.	Total
EX	1	Count	10	9	45	7	71
		Expected Count	7.6	9.6	48.2	5.6	71.0
	2	Count	1	5	23	2	31
		Expected Count	3.3	4.2	21.0	2.4	31.0
	3	Count	4	5	27	2	38
		Expected Count	4.1	5.2	25.8	3.0	38.0
Total		Count	15	19	95	11	140
		Expected Count	15.0	19.0	95.0	11.0	140.0

Table 4.11 Emotional Exhaustion by Years in Current Position

Current Position									
			2 yrs. or less	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	16-20 yrs.	21 yrs. or more	Total
EX	1	Count	5	9	28	19	3	6	70
		Expected Count	6.0	11.1	26.2	19.1	2.5	5.0	70.0
	2	Count	1	4	12	11	2	1	31
		Expected Count	2.7	4.9	11.6	8.5	1.1	2.2	31.0
	3	Count	6	9	12	8	0	3	38
		Expected Count	3.3	6.0	14.2	10.4	1.4	2.7	38.0
Total		Count	12	22	52	38	5	10	139
		Expected Count	12.0	22.0	52.0	38.0	5.0	10.0	139.0

Table 4.12 Emotional Exhaustion by Years in Employee Assistance

Years in EAP									
			2 yrs or less	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	16-20 yrs.	21 yrs. or more	Total
EX	1	Count	2	7	22	26	8	5	70
		Expected Count	1.0	8.7	23.5	26.1	7.7	3.1	70.0
	2	Count	0	2	10	14	3	1	30
		Expected Count	.4	3.7	10.1	11.2	3.3	1.3	30.0
	3	Count	0	8	14	11	4	0	37
		Expected Count	.5	4.6	12.4	13.8	4.1	1.6	37.0
Total		Count	2	17	46	51	15	6	137
		Expected Count	2.0	17.0	46.00	51.0	15.0	6.0	137.0

Table 4.13 Cynicism by Age

Cynicism by Age							
Cynicism			Age				
			21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Total
CY	1	Count	1	6	27	27	61
		Expected Count	1.7	6.5	25.3	27.5	61.0
	2	Count	1	3	17	18	39
		Expected Count	1.1	4.2	16.2	17.6	39.0
	3	Count	2	6	14	18	40
		Expected Count	1.1	4.3	16.6	18.0	40.0
Total		Count	4	15	58	63	140
		Expected Count	4.0	15.0	58.0	63.0	140.0

Table 4.14 Cynicism by Gender

Cynicism by Gender					
			Male	Female	Total
CY	1	Count	16	33	49
		Expected Count	19.9	29.1	49.0
	2	Count	14	19	33
		Expected Count	13.4	19.6	33.0
	3	Count	18	18	36
		Expected Count	14.6	21.4	36.0
Total		Count	48	70	118
		Expected Count	48.0	70.0	118.0

Table 4.15 Cynicism by Marital Status

Cynicism by Marital Status							
Cynicism			Status				
			Married	Divorced	Separated	Single	Total
CY	1	Count	41	8	0	9	58
		Expected Count	40.8	9.5	0.9	6.9	58.0
	2	Count	27	7	2	2	38
		Expected Count	26.7	6.2	0.6	4.5	38.0
	3	Count	27	7	0	5	39
		Expected Count	27.4	6.4	0.6	4.6	39.0

Table 4.16 Cynicism by Education

Cynicism by Education							
Cynicism			Education				
			High School	Bachelor's	Master's	Ph.D.	Total
CY	1	Count	9	7	38	7	61
		Expected Count	6.5	8.3	41.4	4.8	61.0
	2	Count	4	4	31	2	39
		Expected Count	4.2	5.3	26.5	3.1	39.0
	3	Count	4	8	26	2	40
		Expected Count	4.3	5.4	27.1	3.1	40.0
Total		Count	15	19	95	11	140
		Expected Count	15.0	19.0	95.0	11.0	140.0

Table 4.17 Cynicism by Years in Current Position

Current Position									
			2 yrs. or less	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	16-20 yrs.	21 yrs. or more	Total
CY	1	Count	3	5	24	22	3	4	61
		Expected Count	5.3	9.7	22.82	16.6	2.2	4.4	61.0
	2	Count	3	11	14	8	0	2	38
		Expected Count	3.3	6.0	14.2	10.4	1.4	2.7	38.0
	3	Count	6	6	14	7	2	4	40
		Expected Count	3.5	6.3	15.0	10.9	1.4	2.9	40.0
Total		Count	12	22	52	38	5	10	139
		Expected Count	12.0	22.0	52.0	38.0	5.0	10.0	139.0

Table 4.18 Cynicism by Years in Employee Assistance

Years in EAP									
			2 yrs. or less	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	16-20 yrs.	21 yrs. or more	Total
CY	1	Count	2	3	16	29	6	4	60
		Expected Count	0.9	7.4	20.1	22.3	6.6	2.6	60.0
	2	Count	0	7	15	10	4	2	38
		Expected Count	0.6	4.7	12.8	14.1	4.2	1.7	38.0
	3	Count	0	7	15	12	5	0	39
		Expected Count	0.6	4.8	13.1	14.5	4.3	1.7	39.0
Total		Count	2	17	46	51	15	6	137
		Expected Count	2.0	17.0	46.0	51.0	15.0	6.0	137.0

Table 4.19 Professional Efficacy by Age

Professional Efficacy by Age							
			Age				
			21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Total
PE	1	Count	1	0	2	2	5
		Expected Count	0.1	0.5	2.1	2.3	5.0
	2	Count	1	4	9	14	28
		Expected Count	0.8	3.0	11.6	12.6	28.0
	3	Count	2	11	47	47	107
		Expected Count	3.1	11.5	44.3	48.2	107.0
Total		Count	4	15	58	63	140
		Expected Count	4.0	15.0	58.0	63.0	140.0

Table 4.20 Professional Efficacy by Gender

Professional Efficacy by Gender					
			Male	Female	Total
PE	1	Count	2	1	3
		Expected Count	1.2	1.8	3.0
	2	Count	9	18	27
		Expected Count	11.0	16.0	27.0
	3	Count	37	51	88
		Expected Count	35.8	52.2	88.0
Total		Count	48	70	118
		Expected Count	48.0	70.0	118.0

Table 4.21 Professional Efficacy by Marital Status

Professional Efficacy by Marital Status							
			Status				
			Married	Divorced	Separated	Single	Total
PE	1	Count	5	0	0	0	5
		Expected Count	3.5	0.8	0.1	0.6	5.0
	2	Count	21	3	0	4	28
		Expected Count	19.7	4.6	0.4	3.3	28.0
	3	Count	69	19	2	12	102
		Expected Count	71.8	16.6	1.5	12.1	102.0
Total		Count	95	22	2	16	135
		Expected Count	95.0	22.0	2.0	16.0	135.0

Table 4.22 Professional Efficacy by Education

Professional Efficacy by Education							
			Education				
			High School	Bachelor's	Master's	Ph.D.	Total
PE	1	Count	0	1	4	0	5
		Expected Count	0.5	0.7	3.4	0.4	5.0
	2	Count	1	6	17	4	28
		Expected Count	3.0	3.8	19.0	2.2	28.0
	3	Count	14	12	74	7	107
		Expected Count	11.5	14.5	72.6	8.4	107.0
Total		Count	15	19	95	11	140
		Expected Count	15.0	19.0	95.0	11.0	140.0

Table 4.23 Professional Efficacy by Years in Current Position

Current Position									
			2 yrs. or less	2-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	11-15 yrs.	16-20 yrs.	21 yrs. Or more	Total
PE	1	Count	0	2	2	0	0	1	5
		Expected Count	0.4	0.8	1.9	1.3	0.2	0.4	5.0
	2	Count	3	2	11	8	1	3	28
		Expected Count	2.4	4.4	10.5	7.7	1.0	2.0	28.0
	3	Count	9	18	39	30	4	6	106
		Expected Count	9.2	16.8	39.7	29.0	3.8	7.6	106.0
Total		Count	12	22	52	38	5	10	139
		Expected Count	12.0	22.0	52.0	38.0	5.0	10.0	139.0

Table 4.24 Professional Efficacy by Years in Employee Assistance

Years in EAP									
			2 yr. or less	2-5 yr.	6-10 yr.	11-15 yr.	16-20 yr.	21 yr. or more	Total
PE	1	Count	0	2	2	1	0	0	5
		Expected Count	0.1	0.6	1.7	1.9	0.5	0.2	5.0
	2	Count	0	0	12	11	3	1	27
		Expected Count	0.4	3.4	9.1	10.1	3.0	1.2	27.0
	3	Count	2	15	32	39	12	5	105
		Expected Count	1.5	13.0	35.3	39.1	11.5	4.6	105.0
Total		Count	2	17	46	51	15	6	137
		Expected Count	2.0	17.0	46.0	51.0	15.0	6.0	137.0

Table 4.35 CEAP Emotional Exhaustion by EA Delivery Model

Emotional Exhaustion (EX) by EAP Delivery Model						
Valid N = 130			EAP Delivery Model			
Missing N = 16			1	2	3	Total
EX	1	Count	35	22	11	68
		Expected Count	33.5	23.5	11.0	68.0
	2	Count	12	10	6	28
		Expected Count	13.8	9.7	4.5	28.0
	3	Count	17	13	4	34
		Expected Count	16.7	11.8	5.5	34.0
Total		Count	64	45	21	130
		Expected Count	64.0	45.0	21.0	130.0

Table 4.36 CEAP Cynicism by EAP Delivery Model

Cynicism (CY) by EAP Delivery Model						
Valid N = 130			EAP Delivery Model			
Missing N = 16			1	2	3	Total
CY	1	Count	28	16	11	55
		Expected Count	27.1	19.0	8.9	55.0
	2	Count	15	16	7	38
		Expected Count	18.7	13.2	46.1	38.0
	3	Count	21	13	3	37
		Expected Count	18.2	12.8	6.0	37.0
Total		Count	64	45	21	130
		Expected Count	64.0	45.0	21.0	130.0

Table 4.37 CEAP Professional Efficacy by EAP Delivery Model

Professional Efficacy (PE) by EAP Delivery Model						
Valid N = 130			EA Delivery Model			
Missing N = 16			1	2	3	Total
PE	1	Count	2	3	0	5
		Expected Count	2.5	1.7	.8	5.0
	2	Count	18	6	4	28
		Expected Count	13.8	9.7	4.5	28.0
	3	Count	44	36	17	97
		Expected Count	47.8	33.6	15.7	97.0
Total		Count	64	45	21	130
		Expected Count	64.0	45.0	21.0	130.0

Table 4.40 Analysis of Exhaustion by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Exhaustion by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model						
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	EX	1	Count	21	14	35
			Expected Count	20.2	14.8	35.0
		2	Count	7	5	12
			Expected Count	6.9	5.1	12.0
		3	Count	9	8	17
			Expected Count	9.8	7.2	17.0
	Total		Count	37	27	64
			Expected Count	37.0	27.0	64.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	EX	1	Count	21	1	22
			Expected Count	18.6	3.4	22.0
		2	Count	8	2	10
			Expected Count	8.4	1.6	10.0
		3	Count	9	4	13
			Expected Count	11.0	2.0	13.0
	Total		Count	38	7	45
			Expected Count	38.0	7.0	45.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	EX	1	Count	7	4	11
			Expected Count	6.3	4.7	11.0
		2	Count	3	3	6
			Expected Count	3.4	2.6	6.0
		3	Count	2	2	4
			Expected Count	2.3	1.7	4.0
	Total		Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.0	9.0	21.0

Table 4.41 Analysis of Cynicism by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Cynicism by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model						
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	CY	1	Count	18	10	28
			Expected Count	16.2	11.8	28.0
		2	Count	7	8	15
			Expected Count	8.7	6.3	15.0
		3	Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.1	8.9	21.0
	Total		Count	37	27	64
			Expected Count	37.0	27.0	64.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	CY	1	Count	15	1	16
			Expected Count	13.5	2.5	16.0
		2	Count	13	3	16
			Expected Count	13.5	2.5	16.0
		3	Count	10	3	13
			Expected Count	11.0	2.0	13.0
	Total		Count	38	7	45
			Expected Count	38.0	7.0	45.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	CY	1	Count	8	3	11
			Expected Count	6.3	4.7	11.0
		2	Count	4	3	7
			Expected Count	4.0	3.0	7.0
		3	Count	0	3	3
			Expected Count	1.7	1.3	3.0
	Total		Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.0	9.0	21.0

Table 4.41 Analysis of Cynicism by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Cynicism by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model						
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	CY	1	Count	18	10	28
			Expected Count	16.2	11.8	28.0
		2	Count	7	8	15
			Expected Count	8.7	6.3	15.0
		3	Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.1	8.9	21.0
	Total		Count	37	27	64
			Expected Count	37.0	27.0	64.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	CY	1	Count	15	1	16
			Expected Count	13.5	2.5	16.0
		2	Count	13	3	16
			Expected Count	13.5	2.5	16.0
		3	Count	10	3	13
			Expected Count	11.0	2.0	13.0
	Total		Count	38	7	45
			Expected Count	38.0	7.0	45.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	CY	1	Count	8	3	11
			Expected Count	6.3	4.7	11.0
		2	Count	4	3	7
			Expected Count	4.0	3.0	7.0
		3	Count	0	3	3
			Expected Count	1.7	1.3	3.0
	Total		Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.0	9.0	21.0

Table 4.42 Professional Efficacy by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model

Professional Efficacy by Downsizing by EAP Delivery Model						
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	PE	1	Count	0	2	2
			Expected Count	1.2	.8	2.0
		2	Count	13	5	18
			Expected Count	10.4	7.6	18.0
		3	Count	24	20	44
			Expected Count	25.4	18.6	44.0
	Total		Count	37	27	64
			Expected Count	37.0	27.0	64.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	PE	1	Count	2	1	3
			Expected Count	2.5	.5	3.0
		2	Count	3	3	6
			Expected Count	5.1	.9	6.0
		3	Count	33	3	36
			Expected Count	30.4	5.6	36.0
	Total		Count	38	7	45
			Expected Count	38.0	7.0	45.0
			Downsizing Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	PE	1	Count	0	0	0
			Expected Count	0	0	0
		2	Count	3	1	4
			Expected Count	2.3	1.7	4.0
		3	Count	9	8	17
			Expected Count	9.7	7.3	17.0
	Total		Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	12.0	9.0	21.0

Table 4.43 Exhaustion by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Exhaustion by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model						
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	EX	1	Count	27	814	35
			Expected Count	28.4	6.6	35.0
		2	Count	10	2	12
			Expected Count	9.8	2.3	12.0
		3	Count	15	2	17
			Expected Count	13.8	3.2	17.0
	Total		Count	52	12	64
			Expected Count	52.0	12.0	64.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	EX	1	Count	22	0	22
			Expected Count	19.6	2.4	22.0
		2	Count	9	1	10
			Expected Count	8.9	1.1	10.0
		3	Count	9	4	13
			Expected Count	11.6	1.4	13.0
	Total		Count	40	5	45
			Expected Count	40.0	5.0	45.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	EX	1	Count	9	2	11
			Expected Count	8.9	2.1	11.0
		2	Count	5	1	6
			Expected Count	4.9	1.1	6.0
		3	Count	3	1	4
			Expected Count	3.2	.8	4.0
	Total		Count	17	4	21
			Expected Count	17.0	4.0	21.0

Table 4.44 Analysis of Cynicism by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Cynicism by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model						
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	CY	1	Count	23	5	28
			Expected Count	22.8	5.3	28.0
		2	Count	13	2	15
			Expected Count	12.2	2.8	15.0
		3	Count	16	5	21
			Expected Count	17.1	3.9	21.0
	Total		Count	52	12	64
			Expected Count	52.0	12.0	64.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	CY	1	Count	16	0	16
			Expected Count	14.2	1.8	16.0
		2	Count	15	1	16
			Expected Count	14.2	1.8	16.0
		3	Count	9	4	13
			Expected Count	11.6	1.4	13.0
	Total		Count	40	5	45
			Expected Count	40.0	5.0	45.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	CY	1	Count	10	1	11
			Expected Count	8.9	2.1	11.0
		2	Count	5	2	7
			Expected Count	5.7	1.3	7.0
		3	Count	2	1	3
			Expected Count	2.4	.6	3.0
	Total		Count	17	4	21
			Expected Count	17.0	4.0	21.0

Table 4.45 Professional Efficacy by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model

Professional Efficacy by Mergers and Acquisitions by EAP Delivery Model						
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	PE	1	Count	2	0	2
			Expected Count	1.6	.4	2.0
		2	Count	15	3	18
			Expected Count	14.6	3.4	18.0
		3	Count	35	9	44
			Expected Count	35.8	8.3	44.0
	Total		Count	52	12	64
			Expected Count	52.0	12.0	64.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	PE	1	Count	3	0	3
			Expected Count	2.7	.3	3.0
		2	Count	3	3	6
			Expected Count	5.3	.7	6.0
		3	Count	34	2	36
			Expected Count	32.4	4.0	36.0
	Total		Count	40	5	45
			Expected Count	40.0	5.0	45.0
			Mergers and Acquisitions Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	PE	1	Count	0	0	0
			Expected Count	0	0	0
		2	Count	4	0	4
			Expected Count	3.2	.8	4.0
		3	Count	13	4	17
			Expected Count	13.8	3.2	17.0
	Total		Count	17	4	21
			Expected Count	17.0	4.0	21.0

NOTE: 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .33.

Table 4.46 Analysis of Exhaustion by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model

Exhaustion by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model						
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	EX	1	Count	27	8	35
			Expected Count	24.1	10.9	35.0
		2	Count	6	6	12
			Expected Count	8.3	3.8	12.0
		3	Count	11	6	17
			Expected Count	11.7	5.3	17.0
	Total		Count	44	20	64
			Expected Count	44.0	20.0	64.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	EX	1	Count	15	7	22
			Expected Count	14.2	7.8	22.0
		2	Count	6	4	10
			Expected Count	6.4	3.6	10.0
		3	Count	8	5	13
			Expected Count	8.4	4.6	13.0
	Total		Count	29	16	45
			Expected Count	29.0	16.0	45.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	EX	1	Count	9	2	11
			Expected Count	7.9	3.1	11.0
		2	Count	4	2	6
			Expected Count	4.3	1.7	6.0
		3	Count	2	2	4
			Expected Count	2.9	1.1	4.0
	Total		Count	15	6	21
			Expected Count	15.0	6.0	21.0

Table 4.47 Analysis of Cynicism by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model

Cynicism by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model						
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	CY	1	Count	20	8	28
			Expected Count	19.3	8.8	28.0
		2	Count	12	3	15
			Expected Count	10.3	4.7	15.0
		3	Count	12	9	21
			Expected Count	14.1	6.6	21.0
	Total		Count	44	20	64
			Expected Count	44.0	20.0	64.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	CY	1	Count	12	4	16
			Expected Count	10.3	5.7	16.0
		2	Count	8	8	16
			Expected Count	10.3	5.7	16.0
		3	Count	9	4	13
			Expected Count	8.4	4.6	13.0
	Total		Count	29	16	45
			Expected Count	29.0	16.0	45.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	CY	1	Count	8	3	11
			Expected Count	7.9	3.1	11.0
		2	Count	6	1	7
			Expected Count	5.0	2.0	7.0
		3	Count	1	2	3
			Expected Count	2.1	.9	3.0
	Total		Count	15	6	21
			Expected Count	15.0	6.0	21.0

Table 4.48 Professional Efficacy by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model

Professional Efficacy by Major Change by EAP Delivery Model						
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Internal	PE	1	Count	1	1	2
			Expected Count	1.4	.6	2.0
		2	Count	7	11	18
			Expected Count	12.4	5.6	18.0
		3	Count	36	8	44
			Expected Count	30.3	13.8	44.0
	Total		Count	44	20	64
			Expected Count	44.0	20.0	64.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
External	PE	1	Count	3	0	3
			Expected Count	1.9	1.1	3.0
		2	Count	4	2	6
			Expected Count	3.9	2.1	6.0
		3	Count	22	14	36
			Expected Count	23.2	12.8	36.0
	Total		Count	29	16	45
			Expected Count	29.0	16.0	45.0
			Major Change			
Delivery Model				0 = No	1 = Yes	Total
Blended	PE	1	Count	0	0	0
			Expected Count	0	0	0
		2	Count	3	1	4
			Expected Count	2.9	1.1	4.0
		3	Count	12	5	17
			Expected Count	12.1	4.9	17.0
	Total		Count	15	6	21
			Expected Count	15.0	6.0	21.0

Vita

Suzanne Young has been professionally employed in the field of Human Resource Development for over 18 years. She has worked in three different industries, healthcare, telecommunications, and apparel, in which each organization experienced business consolidations due to changing market conditions, gain or loss of consumer relevance, and loss of revenue conditions. As an internal organizational development consultant, Suzanne has experienced the stresses and challenges of organizations consolidating or growing and the workforce concerns that result.