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# SOCIAL RESOURCES AND EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION: THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

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**Abstract.** *Communication is an element that permeates the lives of individuals, from birth to death. Through it, it is possible to create new shared meanings, relationships, and social networks. The importance of the communication process emerges in different contexts, one of which is undoubtedly the work context: several types of research have affirmed that efficient organizational communication produces positive outcomes at the level of workers and organizations, such as increased work commitment, satisfaction, and the reduction of phenomena such as emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Starting from the theoretical*

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*framework of the Job Demands-Job Resources model, which divides the characteristics of each work context according to two general categories – namely job demands (representing workers' efforts in performing their job tasks) and job resources (facilitating aspects of work that can provide opportunities for personal growth) – the aim of this research is to explore the role of communication between colleagues and superiors in the relationship between a job resource (increased social resources) and a negative outcome, such as emotional exhaustion, by means of a non-parametric structural equation model (PLS-SEM), in a sample of 479 workers. Reliable structural and measurement models yielded excellent fit indices of the hypothesized latent variables. The results show that, for workers, enhancing social resources by asking for feedback from colleagues and bosses does not protect against the risks of emotional exhaustion, but in fact improves communication. The exclusive use of social resources at work does not have a significant impact on the risk of emotional exhaustion if it is not accompanied by perceived communication appropriate to the circumstances and contexts. Communication, therefore, fully mediates the relationship between increased social resources and emotional exhaustion and stands out as a crucial protective factor.*

**Keywords:** *communication, exhaustion, PLS-SEM, well-being, JD-R model, organizations.*

**JEL Codes:** *C30; I31; J24; O35.*

## Introduction

It is impossible not to communicate: this axiom is the basis of Paul Watzlawick's theory and the Palo Alto School (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1971; Watzlawick & Nardone, 1997), which is of fundamental importance for various areas of the social sciences. Communication is an element that permeates the lives of individuals, from birth to death. As a consequence, from a systemic point of view, it influences all the contexts in which the individual is inserted (Bronfenbrenner, 1979): starting from the microsystem, i.e., the immediate context in which they finds themselves (such as family, friends, and neighbors); passing then through the exosystem, or the set of working or social organisms connected with the subject; before encountering the mesosystem, i.e., the relations between different systems; and finally the macrosystem, consisting of the historical-social or superstructural context (laws, policies, and values). In this sense, therefore, one of the most important contexts, and one in which communication and sociality in general play an important role, is the working environment. In the present times, communication plays a fundamental role not only as a tool used for business purposes, but also and above all as a resource through which to stimulate employee satisfaction in organizations, preventing possible negative outcomes such as emotional exhaustion. Communication is a means to create new shared meanings, relationships, and networks between the actors that constitute the act, as also stated by socio-constructivist theory. Analyzing the relationship implies examining communication, since it is the vehicle of the interactive relationship (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1971; Watzlawick & Nardone, 1997). To communicate means to intentionally transmit something, and this can be done through

various channels such as writing, behavior, or gestures (Bara, 1999). The concept of communication can have numerous definitions; as Anolli (2002) suggests, it can be understood as a social activity, thus constituting a fundamental element of human interaction; as participation, through the cultural sharing of meanings and rules implicit in communicative acts; as a cognitive activity, in that it is the means with which individuals translate what they mentally represent into communicative terms; and finally as an activity connected to action, in that it is intrinsically correlated with the tendency to influence others in the act of reciprocal interaction. From a purely work-related perspective, organizational communication can be considered as a process that enables groups and partners to learn from each other and coordinate their tasks, acting in such a way as to develop and maintain fruitful relationships (Robson, Skarmeas, & Spyropoulou, 2006). Different types of research have shown that effective organizational communication has produced positive outcomes for workers and organizations, such as increased commitment (Newsome & Pillari, 1992), employee satisfaction (De Ridder, 2004), and reduced burnout (Atouba & Lammers, 2020). Emphasizing its role, therefore, becomes an important resource for promoting individual and organizational well-being.

The theoretical framework on which this study is based is the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), hereafter JD-R. JD-R is a theorization used to explain how each work environment has its own characteristics, which can be identified in a general model. This model is more flexible and rigorous than previous models based on job design, as it allows us to illustrate how well-being and efficiency at work can be the precipitates of two types of working conditions, namely job demands and job resources. The interaction between the two components is central to the development of well-being and job performance, but also to burnout behaviors. Specifically, job demands involve professional aspects that produce an effort if they exceed the worker's ability to adapt. This effort can be physical or cognitive (heavy workload, pressure, emotionally challenging interactions with others, high responsibility), and produces physiological and psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands are not necessarily negative for individuals but may result in obstacles if they require high efforts from workers. Job demands are therefore understood as those physical, psychological, social, and organizational aspects that require substantial physical and psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). The second factor within the JD-R model concerns job resources. These are those physical, psychological, social, or organizational features of work that can be instrumental in achieving objectives, in reducing the physiological and psychological costs associated with job demands, and in improving learning and development capabilities. Examples of work resources are job autonomy, performance feedback, social support, supervision, coaching, and time control. Work resources are intrinsically and extrinsically motivating (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) as they enable the fulfilment of human needs and the pursuit of growth and autonomy at work.

Underlying the processes described by the model are two psychological mechanisms: work pressure and motivation. The former can quickly result in mechanisms that reduce health processes when work demands lead to exhaustion, lack of energy, and health problems such as burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Motiva-

tion increases when work resources are a motivating force and can produce high levels of involvement, low cynicism, and excellent performance. The JD-R model is widely used by researchers and practitioners for many reasons: firstly, it represents a strong paradigm, is flexible, and can be applied to all work environments and easily adapted to specific workplaces. Secondly, the two processes are independent factors leading to organizational and individual outcomes. In particular, job demands drive the weakening of the health element, specifically exhaustion, psychosomatic health disorders, and repetitive strain-related injuries. Job resources, on the other hand, drive motivational processes, predicting work appreciation, motivation, and commitment.

**Social resources**

The social aspect has always been of great importance in determining a harmonious working environment from the point of view of the worker and the organization itself. Through constant feedback with colleagues or superiors, exchange of opinions, and material or informational support, beneficial effects on work performance can be determined. Social resources, also called social capital, have been studied by several authors, but in general they are defined as "the set of resources, concretely and immediately available, which derive both from the networks in which the subject is inserted and from the position the subject assumes in each network." They are skills and support networks that arise from interpersonal networks, characterized by relationships and cultural and information exchanges (Pittamiglio & Poggi, 2003). Social resources are also of great importance from a labor point of view, as they foster employability (Lo Presti et al., 2019; Ingusci et al., 2020), the management of one's job according to the individual needs of the worker (Ingusci et al., 2020), and both work engagement and job performance (Vermeir et al., 2015; Bhatti, Mat, & Juhari, 2018). Following the theoretical frameworks of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and the Theory of Conservation of Resources, therefore, the social aspect is rightfully part of the resources available to the worker which aim to stem the impact of demands. Social resources can be defined as the social support received, supervision by a boss or colleagues, and everything related to social sharing – in particular networking (Ingusci et al., 2018). Networking plays a key role in people's professional and educational lives (Lo Presti et al., 2019). Developing, maintaining, and increasing relationships can help individuals search for secure employment opportunities, gain access to required information, access useful resources, obtain sponsorship, and receive overall social support. Different studies have highlighted how social capital may be used to improve individual performance in general (Seibert et al., 2017).

**Organizational communication**

Interpersonal communication is defined as a social process in which those involved have a mutual influence. Its impact derives from the communicative competence that everyone can develop, i.e., the ability an individual has to communicate in an "effective and socially appropriate" way. Interpersonal communication can be direct or indirect, but

what is of paramount importance in organizations is, above all, the quality of interpersonal communication. In the organizational context, having good communication skills facilitates groups to make more innovative and creative decisions, and, often, individuals who possess good communication skills are more likely to advance in their careers than individuals who have not developed such skills (Wibowo, 2017). Good organizational interpersonal communication involves leaders providing clear directions and information to employees. From this follows work performance that can be carried out by means of the information that has been provided. For these reasons, organizational communication should not be especially harsh, and can facilitate the overcoming of problems that may be generated in work contexts. The present literature on organizational communication (Widyanti, 2020; Zito et al., 2021; Prasetyo et al., 2021) allows us to define the construct as the set of workers' perceptions regarding the sharing of information, ideas, and both professional and non-professional emotions within work teams. Organizational communication may concern sharing between team members internally or between team members and a leader. Some research has confirmed that people with high communication competence may also be more likely to maintain a healthy psychological state through effective communication with their supervisor and colleagues (Gochhayat, Giri, & Suar, 2017; Haroon & Malik, 2018; Prasetyo et al., 2021; Widyanti, Zito et al., 2021).

Other types of research have shown that good internal communication that facilitates the exchange of information, ideas, opinions, thoughts, and emotions can have a positive influence on employee productivity, innovation, and motivation, and drives employees towards initiating change processes that are beneficial to the organization (Gochhayat, Giri, & Suar, 2017; Widyanti, 2020; Haroon & Malik, 2018; Zito et al., 2021).

However, this study considers organizational communication by framing it within the theoretical model of JD-R, a comprehensive model that includes two processes: a positive motivational process and a negative health impairment (stress, burnout) process. This model provides a common code among members of the organization that can facilitate communication at work and organizational well-being, and, furthermore, it offers itself as a vehicle for understanding the underlying psychological dynamics in terms of stress and motivational processes (Shirom, 1989).

Job demands and job resources investigate two different types of processes, specifically health impairment and motivational processes. Several studies have shown the presence of this dual pathway: job demands are generally related to exhaustion, burnout, and possible depressive tendencies; job resources, on the other hand, are associated with job involvement and commitment.

**Emotional exhaustion and burnout**

Among the various theorizations of burnout, that of Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) is the most important. The authors developed a multidimensional theory of burnout, which is conceptualized as a construct consisting of three components: emotional exhaustion, disaffection (or cynicism), and reduced personal efficacy. Over the years, there have been several discussions regarding the content and validity of this conceptu-

alization (Shirom, 1989; Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). In the original conceptualization, Maslach (1982) defined burnout as a psychological stress syndrome that characterized the helping professions (nurses, physicians, psychologists, law enforcement, teachers). Maslach (1982), Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001), and Maslach and Leiter (2016) defined three dimensions of burnout: *emotional exhaustion*, *depersonalization*, and *reduced professional accomplishment*. Emotional exhaustion is the main manifestation of burnout, referred to as the feeling of having used up all the psychophysical energy needed to cope with job demands. Depersonalization is the interpersonal component of burnout: it refers to the emotional and cognitive detachment that occurs in the relationship with users/patients through a dehumanized and cynical perception of them. According to Borgogni and Consiglio (2005), depersonalization is a defense mode that the worker puts in place to protect themselves from the overwhelming emotions caused by the relationship with the user. Reduced professional accomplishment is a negative evaluation of one's own work performance and ability to cope with work demands.

Initially, the dimensions of burnout were conceived in sequential terms: relational and work demands trigger emotional exhaustion. The worker, to protect themselves, adopts a cynical view of users, detaching themselves cognitively and emotionally from them. Finally, due to their inability to cope with the work demands and the relationship with the users, the worker would experience a sense of work inadequacy and reduced professional fulfilment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

When the burnout concept was extended to other occupational settings, a new conceptualization of the construct was needed, which had difficulty adapting to other occupations. Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001), therefore, reformulated the three dimensions of burnout, or *exhaustion*, *cynicism*, and *reduced personal* efficacy. As regards exhaustion, there was less emphasis on emotions, and it did not necessarily refer to relationships with clients. Characteristic symptoms of exhaustion include a lack of psychophysical energy, feeling tired at the mere thought of going to work, feeling frustrated at work, and a lack of energy to devote to family and other non-work activities. Work disaffection or cynicism indicates a general attitude of indifference and negative detachment towards one's work. Finally, reduced personal efficacy refers to the decrease in the general sense of efficacy. This manifests itself through negative emotions and thoughts regarding one's goals or ability to succeed in work and life, a significant decrease in self-esteem, and the feeling that one's work is meaningless.

The dimensions that constitute burnout are, even today, a matter of debate – even if some researchers have stated that the dimension of exhaustion is sufficient to measure it (Maslach, 1982; Shirom, 1989).

### Aims and hypotheses

Starting from the proposed theoretical review, the aim of this work is to investigate, from the perspective of the relationship between job resources and negative work outcomes, the role of perceived communication quality. Specifically, the aim is to explore the impact that social resources have on health impairment processes, in what terms they can

protect against emotional exhaustion, and how the quality of communication between co-workers and bosses can mediate the relationship between social resources and burnout, reinforcing this protective effect.

Therefore, the starting hypotheses are:

$H_1$: Increasing social resources will negatively influence emotional exhaustion.

$H_2$: Increasing social resources will positively affect perceived communication quality.

$H_3$: The quality of perceived communication will negatively impact on emotional exhaustion.

These research hypotheses were tested by means of non-parametric structural equation models (PLS-SEM – Figure 1).

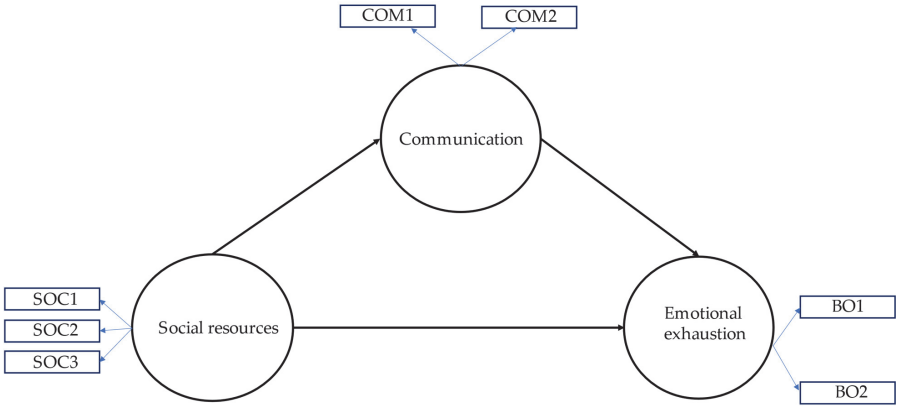


**Figure 1.** *The assumed PLS-SEM model*

## Data analysis

The survey was carried out by analyzing data from an anonymous quantitative questionnaire in which were administered validated scales in the literature to detect:

1. The level of resource-seeking and social support through the proactive job crafting strategy (Ingusci et al., 2018). The latent constructs were measured by 3 items. An example item is as follows: "*I ask my colleagues in the groups I belong to if they are satisfied with the work they have done.*"
2. The quality of communication with colleagues and superiors (surveyed through 2 single items created ad hoc), measured through 2 items. An example item is as follows: "*Overall, how satisfied do you feel with the communication at work with your colleagues*?"
3. The level of perceived emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1982; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Maslach & Leiter, 2016), measured through 2 items. An example item is as follows: "*I feel that every hour of work is tiring for me.*"

The questionnaire was completed by 479 individuals from public and private organizations. All participants gave their prior consent to take part in the research, and of course

had the possibility to withdraw from completing the questionnaire at any time. The subjects were also assured that the data would be processed in aggregate form and without any possibility of tracing private and personal information. After appropriate descriptive analyses using R Studio and Jamovi, observations with missing values (9.6% of the total) were eliminated, bringing the dataset to a total of 433 observations. The theoretical hypotheses were investigated using a non-parametric Structural Equation Model or PLS-SEM, through SMART-PLS software (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015), due to the sample size of the study. As Hair et al. (2017) and Hair et al. (2021) suggested, PLS-SEM is, in fact, a robust method aimed at providing good estimates in case of a small sample and no distributional assumptions on the collected data. Furthermore, PLS-SEM's rule of thumb to detect minimum sample size is to dispose of twenty to thirty times the maximum number of arrows pointing at a construct, or independent variables. Our study sample fully met these criteria. The mean age of the sample was 38 years, ranging from a minimum of 20 to a maximum of 67 years. From a gender point of view, the largest proportion of subjects was female (58.5%), while 41.5% were male. The prevailing educational qualifications of the sample were High School Diploma (29.6%) and bachelor's degree (28.4%). Further, 48.2% of subjects were single, while 45.9% were in a relationship/married; 39.0% of the sample had at least one child, while 61.0% had no children. Finally, 67.0% of individuals worked for a private company, while 33% had a job in a public organization (Table 1).

**Table 1.** *Descriptive analyses of the sample*

| | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| **Gender** | | |
| *Female* | 280 | 58.5% |
| *Male* | 199 | 41.5% |
| **Educational level** | | |
| *Secondary school diploma* | 40 | 8.4% |
| *High school diploma* | 142 | 29.6% |
| *Bachelor's degree* | 75 | 15.7% |
| *Master's degree* | 136 | 28.4% |
| *Postgraduate degree* | 86 | 18.0% |
| **Marital status** | | |
| *Single* | 231 | 48.2% |
| *In a relationship/married* | 220 | 45.9% |
| *Separated/divorced* | 24 | 5.0% |
| *Widower/widow* | 4 | 0.8% |
| **Children** | | |
| *Child* | 187 | 39.0% |
| *No child* | 292 | 61.0% |
| **Sending organizations** | | |
| *Private* | 321 | 67.0% |
| *Public* | 158 | 33.0% |

## Results

From a methodological point of view, the three latent constructs hypothesized – namely social resources, communication, and emotional exhaustion – all possessed excellent reliability indices, measured through Cronbach's alpha, McDonald's omega, Dillon-Goldstein's rho, and Average Variance Extracted. These results are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2.** *Reliability measures for latent variables*

| | Cronbach's α | McDonald's ω | Rho | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Social resources | 0.87 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.78 |
| Communication | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.84 |
| Emotional exhaustion | 0.82 | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.84 |

The measurement model allows the proposed indicators to be identified, from a reflective perspective (Cheah et al., 2019), as good proxies for the composite constructs through loadings, all of which were greater than 0.70 and significant (Table 3). At the same time, all AVEs were larger than the 0.50 cut-off. All estimates were validated through 5,000 bootstrap re-samplings. Furthermore, we assessed and confirmed discriminant validity through cross-loadings.

**Table 3.** *Loadings of the structural model and cross-loadings*

| | Social resources | Communication | Emotional exhaustion |
|---|---|---|---|
| SOC1 | **0.92 (.000)** | 0.22 | −0.03 |
| SOC2 | **0.89 (.000)** | 0.23 | −0.08 |
| SOC3 | **0.84 (.000)** | 0.15 | −0.03 |
| COM1 | 0.23 | **0.92 (.000)** | −0.27 |
| COM2 | 0.18 | **0.91 (.000)** | −0.28 |
| BURNOUT1 | −0.01 | −0.25 | **0.91 (.000)** |
| BURNOUT2 | −0.09 | −0.30 | **0.93 (.000)** |

As highlighted in Table 3, the strongest loading of each indicator was with its latent variable. From the results concerning the structural model, it emerged that, within the sample analyzed, the effect of increasing social resources on emotional exhaustion was almost null ($\beta_1 = 0.011$, ns, CI: [−0.089; 0.109]), while the quality of perceived communication, both with superiors and colleagues, had a significant and negative impact with emotional exhaustion ($\beta_2 = -0.302$, $p < 0.000$, CI: [−0.392; −0.216) and a positive impact with increasing social resources ($\beta_3 = 0.227$, $p < 0.000$, CI: [0.141; 0.314). According to Nitzl, Roldan, & Cepeda (2016), this mediation is only indirect, as the effect of social

resources on emotional exhaustion is completely absorbed by communication, which could be considered a protective factor in this relationship (Figure 2).

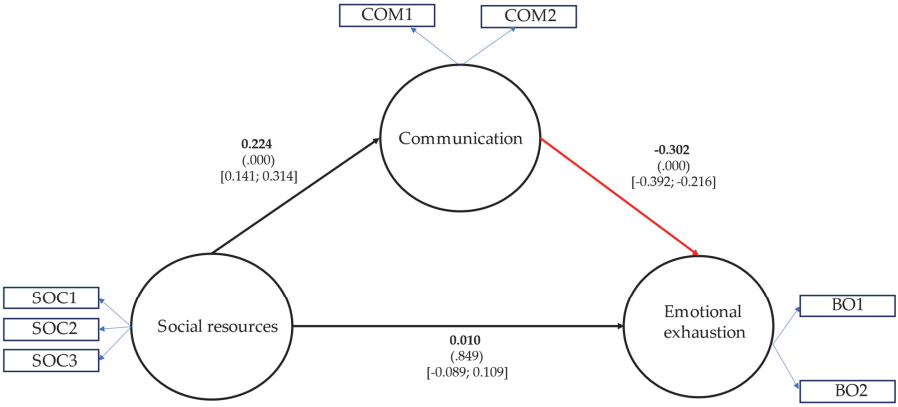


**Figure 2.** *The structural model hypothesized*

We furthermore tested whether the hypothesized model differed based on gender (Table 4) or type of organization (Table 5). For this reason, we performed a multigroup analysis (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2021).

**Table 4.** *Multigroup analysis on gender*

| | Path Coefficients Female | Path Coefficients Male | *p*-value Female | *p*-value Male | Differences Female–Male | *p*-value differences |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COM → BO | −0.334 | −0.272 | 0.000 | 0.000 | −0.062 | 0.492 |
| SOC → BO | −0.026 | 0.049 | 0.687 | 0.556 | −0.075 | 0.475 |
| SOC → COM | 0.222 | 0.239 | 0.000 | 0.000 | −0.017 | 0.840 |

**Table 5.** *Multigroup analysis on type of organization*

| | Path Coefficients Private | Path Coefficients Public | *p*-value Private | *p*-value Public | Differences Private–Public | *p*-value differences |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COM → BO | −0.283 | −0.355 | 0.000 | 0,000 | 0.073 | 0.429 |
| SOC → BO | 0.034 | −0.055 | 0.594 | 0.582 | 0.090 | 0.438 |
| SOC → COM | 0.255 | 0.181 | 0.000 | 0.024 | 0.074 | 0.414 |

These results show non-significant differences between the coefficients. The significances remained the same regardless of the categorization variable (gender or type of organization), whereby communication assumed the mediating role in both models. In more detail, the relationship between social resources and communication was stronger

in males and private organizations, while the relationship between communication and emotional exhaustion was stronger in females and public organizations. Nevertheless, as mentioned above, these coefficients were not statistically significant differences.

## Discussion and conclusions

These results essentially show that for employees, enhancing social resources by asking for feedback from colleagues and bosses does not in itself protect against the risk of emotional exhaustion, but in fact improves communication. In other words, the mere use of social resources at work does not have a significant impact on the risk of emotional exhaustion if it is not accompanied by perceived communication appropriate to the circumstances and contexts. This intervening variable ultimately makes the relationship useful in avoiding stressful situations that may lead to emotional exhaustion. Consequently, it is possible to state that communication fully mediates the relationship between increased social resources and emotional exhaustion, marking itself out as a fundamentally important protective factor. In this regard, this research was also conducted by differentiating the sample into workers in public and private organizations. From these analyses, it emerged that there is no significant difference between the two different types of companies, so that communication assumes the role of mediator regardless of the organization's origin. Ultimately, therefore, it emerged from these analyses that the predominant role in reducing the impact of emotional exhaustion belongs to the quality of perceived communication with colleagues and superiors. The aspect of seeking social resources does not seem to have a direct effect on emotional exhaustion, but in turn positively influences communication.

This result is in line with those found in different work contexts, especially for care professions, such as social workers (Cho & Song, 2017) and intensive care unit nurses (Vermeir et al., 2018), but also for university students (Chadwick et al., 2016) and IT professionals (Atouba & Lammers, 2020). According to these studies, in fact, positive communication between a supervisor and a worker allows the establishment of a supportive climate, in which the individual's perception of importance is made salient. This condition allows the professional to increase the levels of job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2006, Seibert et al., 2017), possibly decreasing burnout (Houkes et al., 2003) and turnover intentions (Newsome & Pillari, 1992; Houkes et al., 2003; Ng et al., 2006). The theoretical conceptualization of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) considers effective communication not only as a working condition that reduces perceived stress, but also as a coping tool to withstand stress in a fruitful way, becoming in effect a resource to cope with demands. The quality of communication with superiors and colleagues is an element that can foster worker participation, influencing the degree of control over the work environment. The research and theoretical framework reported, therefore, agree in defining communication as a resource to implement the quality of organizations from a healthy organizational point of view, i.e., those contexts in which culture, climate, and good practices can create an environment that promotes employee health and organizational safety and effectiveness (Lowe, 2010).

## Limitations and practical implications

The study has, of course, limitations which must be considered before generalizing the results. Firstly, the size of the sample. Although non-parametric structural equation models (PLS-SEM) do not assume the existence of criteria based on a minimum number of observations, future studies could increase the number of participants or use more robust modelling methods. Secondly, the convenience sample used does not allow causal relationships to be inferred. In addition, the measures used in the study were self-reported measures, thus subject to biases such as social desirability. Future studies could use more objective measures to consider variables such as the level of absenteeism. In addition, the cross-sectional nature of this study undermines the generalizability of the results. Further research could consider longitudinal research designs. Finally, the number of indicators for latent variables could be increased to capture different nuances inherent in the latent concept.

Despite these limitations, the practical implications for the organization and management of companies are obvious. Emotional exhaustion is one of the psychosocial risks that most often results in absenteeism, presenteeism, or consequences that can damage the productivity of organizations and at the same time individual well-being (Gemmano et al., 2020). There has been much discussion about the types of interventions that could be put in place to reduce the risk of emotional exhaustion in employees (primary, secondary, and tertiary). An interesting application could be, furthermore, to adopt linguistic analysis techniques, such as sentiment analysis, to explore emotional exhaustion in-depth (Corallo et al., 2020; Tavazoee et al., 2020) and to propose specific intervention on it (Boyd, Pasca, & Conroy-Beam, 2019; Cardazzone et al., 2021). This study shows that improved communication with colleagues and superiors has an important and negative effect on the risk of emotional exhaustion, in contrast to seeking social feedback. This aspect is crucial because implementing interventions that are aimed at fostering a frank and qualitatively adequate communication exchange could influence health and quality of organizational life. Communication, therefore, could be considered, following the JD-R model, as a resource able to cushion the impact of work demands and the process of weakening health that could result. The protective impact of communication at the work level could also, therefore, lead to a reflection on the policies to be implemented in order to promote well-being at the individual, group, and organizational levels. Acting on individual workers to promote their well-being has a significant impact on productivity.

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