CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter strives to examine the inter-relationships among the variables of the present investigation by tracing the related theoretical and empirical studies. In the present research endeavour, an attempt has been made to unfold the effect of one positive organizational scholarship variable viz. passion for work and two positive organizational behaviour variables namely psychological capital and emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and burnout, thereby facilitating the formulation of hypotheses. The following review substantiates the relationship between passion for work, psychological capital, emotional intelligence, and the work-related outcomes of job satisfaction and burnout.

2.1 PASSION FOR WORK

Before the beginning of the twenty first century nearly all empirical work on passion had been conducted in the area of close relationships especially with the concept of passionate love (Vallerand et al., 2003). Vallerand and colleagues in 2003 proposed the new dualistic approach on passion towards activities. Much initial research on passion has been with several activities and contexts including education (Vallerand et al., 2007, Study 2), dramatic arts (Vallerand et al., 2007, Study 1), internet use, online gaming (Seguin-Levesque et al., 2003; Wang & Chu, 2007), work (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003), sports, dance, music, gambling and literally hundreds of leisure activities (Rip et al. 2006; Vallerand, 2010). Having a passion for work is a highly sought after, yet poorly understood (and cultivated) work attribute and despite the recent increasing number of studies on passion for work, the organizational sciences still have a long way to go in order to fully understand the construct (Perrewe, Hochwarter, Ferris, McAllister, & Harris, 2013). Taking into account this dearth of empirical research on passion for work, studies related to passion in non-organizational settings, with concepts quite similar to job satisfaction and burnout are also included in this review of research literature.

Satisfaction with one’s work, a desirable work attitude is closely related to positive outcomes (positive emotions/affect and cognitive experiences) such as
happiness, concentration, flow, control, pride, enthusiasm, satisfaction with life, feeling alert, inspired, active, determined, etc. Burnout on the other hand indirectly reflects negative affective states and cognitive experiences characterized by detachment, emotional depletion, fatigue, hostility, irritability, feelings of anxiety, guilt, lack of control, distress, inefficacy, etc. In order to facilitate the formulation of meaningful hypotheses, the following subsections describe the various studies carried out in the area of passion that hint at a relationship between the two types of passion for work – harmonious and obsessive, job satisfaction, burnout, positive and negative emotional/affective states, and positive and negative cognitive experiences.

2.1.1 PASSION FOR WORK AND JOB SATISFACTION

Researches exploring the relationship of the two types of passion for work – harmonious and obsessive, job satisfaction, and positive outcomes (positive emotions/affect and cognitive experiences) are presented in the ensuing section.

Vallerand, Blanchard, Mageau, Koestner, Ratelle, Leonard, Gagne, and Marsolais (2003) examined obsessive and harmonious passion and validated a scale for passion. Participants in Study 1, 2, 3, and 4 were 539 college students (332 women, 203 men, and 4 unspecified), 205 male football players in the intercollegiate football league, 59 recreational cyclists (21 women, 37 men, and 1 unspecified), and 146 regular gamblers (50 women and 96 men) in Canada. Results for Study 1 revealed that during and after activity engagement, harmonious passion was found to be positively related to positive affective and cognitive experiences (concentration, flow); while there existed negative, however, not significant correlations between obsessive passion and positive outcomes such as positive emotions, concentration, and flow. As indicated by the correlational analyses in Study 2, harmonious passion for the activity leads to increases in general positive affect indicated by positive emotions such as pride, feeling active, determined, attentive, and inspired over time even when the person is not directly engaged in the activity. Results of study 3 and 4 were irrelevant in context to positive outcomes.

Ratelle, Vallerand, Mageau, Rousseau, and Provencher (2004) sought to determine the role of the two types of passion (harmonious and obsessive) in various cognitive and affective states associated with dependence and problems with
gambling. 412 participants (191 women, 219 men, and 2 unspecified) were recruited at the Montreal Casino in Canada. The Gambling Passion Scale (GPS; Rousseau, Vallerand, Ratelle et al., 2002) was used to assess passion towards gambling. Results revealed that both harmonious and obsessive passion had negative relationships with positive outcomes such as joy, concentration, and vitality. The correlations between concentration, vitality, and harmonious passion were however not significant.

Mageau, Vallerand, Rousseau, Ratelle, and Provencher (2005) investigated the outcomes of passion towards gambling in a sample comprised of 554 adults (278 females and 273 males) engaging in gambling activities (i.e. casino activities, lotteries) in casino and shopping centres in Montreal, Canada. Passion was measured using the 10-item Gambling Passion Scale (Rousseau, Vallerand, Ratelle, et al., 2002). Harmonious passion was generally found to be positively related to positive outcomes (feelings of amusement and fun, perceptions of challenge, perceptions of control, concentration, positive emotions such as being cheerful) and to having thoughts of winning during engagement in gambling activities, whereas obsessive passion had significant negative correlations with most positive outcomes (feelings of amusement and fun, perceptions of control, positive emotions such as being cheerful). After participants’ engagement in gambling activities, harmonious passion was related positively to being cheerful. Contrary to expectations, harmonious passion was not related positively to vitality. However, obsessive passion had a significant negative correlation with vitality.

Rip, Fortin, and Vallerand (2006) explored whether dancers exhibit distinct injury profiles and injury-related coping behaviours as a function of their passion for dance. 81 francophone dancers (68 females, 7 males, and 6 unspecified), reporting experience in modern dance, classical ballet, jazz ballet, and jazz from the Department of Dance at the University of Quebec, Canada participated in the study. The Passion for Dance Scale (PDS) adapted from Vallerand and colleagues Passion Scale (2003) was used to measure passion for dancing. Results suggested that having a harmonious passion for dance is associated with exhibiting more problem focused health promoting behaviours when injured, being more flexibly involved in dance activities when injured, and engaging in self-initiated injury prevention. Harmonious
passion seemed to be the motivational foundation for long-term, healthful involvement in dance while obsessive passion seemed unrelated.

Vallerand, Rousseau, Grouzet, Dumais, Grenier, and Blanchard (2006) proposed and tested a sequence involving the determinants and affective experiences associated with two types of passion towards sports. 206 collegiate recreational sportspersons (119 women, 84 men, and 3 unspecified), 210 competitive basketball players (78 women, 129 men, and 3 unspecified), and 79 water polo players (35 females and 44 males) and 28 synchronized swimmers (all females) participated in Study 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Harmonious passion was found to have significant positive correlations with all positive affective variables viz. positive affect (characterized by emotions like determination), satisfaction, vitality, and subjective well-being in Studies 2 and 3. An opposite pattern was observed with obsessive passion as it was negatively related to satisfaction and subjective well-being. However, these correlations were weak and not significant.

Vallerand, Salvy, Mageau, Elliot, Denis, Grouzet, and Blanchard (2007) examined the Dualistic Model of Passion with regard to performance attainment in two fields of expertise. Participants in Study 1 were 143 (91 females and 52 males) dramatic arts students from various theatre schools and colleges across the Province of Quebec. The sample for Study 2 consisted of 130 undergraduate psychology students (111 women and 19 men) enrolled in a specialized psychology program. The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) was used to measure passion. Results for both the studies revealed that both – harmonious and obsessive passion had significant positive relationships with long term deliberate practice, short term deliberate practice, and mastery goals. Harmonious passion was found to have significant positive correlations with performance and satisfaction as well, while obsessive passion was unrelated to both.

Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, and Guay (2008) conducted a study over a 3 month-period (consisted of two data collections) to determine the role of passion for teaching in teachers’ burnout symptoms, work satisfaction, and perceptions of positive student classroom behaviours. A total of 653 teachers from French-Canadian
schools in two school boards from the Quebec City area in Canada took part in the study at Time 1, of these, 494 took part at Time 2 as well. Passion was assessed using the Passion Scale-adapted for teachers (Vallerand et al., 2003) and job satisfaction was measured using the French-Canadian version (Blias, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Briere, 1989) of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Results indicated that harmonious passion had a significant positive relationship with work satisfaction at both Time 1 and Time 2. However, obsessive passion had a significant negative relationship with work satisfaction at Time 2 only.

Rousseau and Vallerand (2008) conducted an investigation to explore the relationship between passion and subjective well-being. 119 (70 women and 49 men) members of the Club d’Activités Physiques pour l’Âge d’Or (APADOR), which offered various physical activity programs to older adults in Montreal, Canada, participated in the study. Passion, assessed using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003), and satisfaction were measured at Time 1, positive affect and negative affect were assessed five weeks later (Time 2), and finally satisfaction was measured again at Time 3 (3 weeks later). Harmonious passion was found to have significant positive correlations with satisfaction (at both Time 1 and Time 3) and positive affect. Obsessive passion, on the other hand was unrelated to satisfaction at Time 1, however, it had a significant negative correlation with satisfaction at Time 3.

Schellenberg (2008) examined the relationship between passion and coping in sports, and tested if coping mediated the relationship between types of passion and both burnout and goal attainment. 239 college and university-level volleyball players (126 females and 113 males) in Canada participated in a prospective observational study involving two time points approximately 3 months apart. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003, Vallerand, 2010). Results indicated that both harmonious and obsessive passion were positively associated with task-oriented coping (mental imagery, thought control, effort expenditure, logical analysis, relaxation, and seeking support) and goal attainment.

Burke and Fiksenbaum (2009) carried out three studies to explore the correlates of work-based passion and addiction. The sample for Study 1 comprised of 600 MBA graduates of a single Canadian University. The data for Study 2 was collected from
458 Australian psychologists (325 females and 133 males). Study 3 was carried out on a sample of 211 journalists (70 females and 141 males). Passion was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Spence and Robbins (1992). The results of Study 1 revealed that harmonious and obsessive passion were positively and negatively related to work satisfaction respectively. Similar findings were replicated in Study 2. In Study 3 it was observed that a higher score on harmonious passion was related to lower level on the three burnout components (exhaustion, cynicism, low accomplishment) whereas a higher score on obsessive passion was related to a higher score on the three burnout components (exhaustion, cynicism, low accomplishment).

Dalskau (2009) explored harmonious and obsessive passion in relation to global and domain specific self esteem and positive affective outcomes. The sample of 210 individuals (92 females and 118 males) participating in activities (like swimming, cycling, skiing, and soccer) that they are passionate about. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Harmonious and obsessive passion had significant positive correlations with happiness, being pleased, and global self esteem. Though harmonious passion had a significant positive correlation with activity related self esteem as well, obsessive passion was unrelated to it.

Philippe, Vallerand, Andrianarisoa, and Brunel (2009) examined in two studies the role of passion for refereeing in referees’ affective and cognitive functioning during games. 90 referees (8 women and 82 men) of football (soccer) working in national and international level leagues and 227 referees (4 women and 223 men) from France participated in Study 1 and 2. Passion was assessed using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand, et al., 2006). Results of Study 1 revealed that harmonious passion for refereeing was positively associated with determination, enthusiasm, being active, attentive, and the experience of flow (challenge-skill balance, sense of control) during games. Conversely, obsessive passion for refereeing was unrelated to positive emotions (determination, enthusiasm, being active, attentive) and flow. Study 2 was not aimed at studying passion in relation to positive outcomes.

Vallerand, Paquet, Philippe, and Charest (2010) tested a model on the role of passion for work and professional burnout. The sample for Study 1 consisted of 97
nurses from France and the sample for Study 2 consisted of 258 nurses working in French-Canadian hospitals in the Province of Quebec. For Study 2 Nurses were contacted at Time 1 and completed scales assessing passion for nursing, work satisfaction, conflict, and burnout. They were contacted a second time after six months and the same measures were assessed again except for passion. Passion for work was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and work satisfaction was assessed using the Satisfaction at Work Scale (SAWS) derived from the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin, 1985). Results for Study 1 and Study 2 revealed that harmonious passion had a significant positive relationship with work satisfaction whereas obsessive passion was unrelated to work satisfaction.

Burke, Jeng, Koyuncu, and Fiksenbau (2011) examined correlates of work-based passion and addiction among hotel managers working in 3, 4, and 5 star hotels in China. There were 309 participants (130 women and 179 men) in the study. Passion was measured by the 10-item scale developed by Spence and Robbins (1992) and job satisfaction was assessed using the 7-item scale developed by Kofodimos (1993). Results indicated that passion had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Ho, Wong, and Lee (2011) proposed a model of job passion that links two types of passion, harmonious and obsessive passion, to employees’ work performance, via the mediating mechanism of cognitive engagement (comprising attention and absorption). At the time of data collection, the firm had 717 full-time employees (excluding insurance sales agents) working in a diverse range of job functions, including actuary, product development, marketing, customer service, claims, finance, IT, and corporate support. The employees came from different ranks and hierarchical levels, ranging from management to mid-level executives and managers to non-executive staff. Out of these 557 participated in the study. The passion variables were measured using the Passion Scale developed by Vallerand and colleagues (2003). Job satisfaction was assessed with three items from the scale developed by Quinn and Shepard (1974). Job satisfaction was found to have a significant positive relationship with both harmonious and obsessive passion.
Carpentier, Mageau, and Vallerand (2012) investigated the psychological mechanisms underlying the different impact of the two types of passion on well-being. The sample composed of 172 students (134 women, 36 men, and 2 unspecified) registered in two different colleges located in Montreal, Canada. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Results showed that harmonious passion was positively related to positive emotions/affect and cognitive experiences (flow, satisfaction, interest, determination, alert, enthusiasm, and being active) while obsessive passion was positively related to flow and negatively related to positive emotions/affect.

Houlfort, Philippe, Vallerand, and Menard (2013) in their research aimed to conceptually position passion for work as a predictor of heavy work investment in Quebec (Canada), as well as to assess the short and long-term influence of passion for work on workers’ satisfaction, depression, and turnover intentions. 2393 teachers (1870 females and 523 males) participated in the first study (cross-sectional) while the sample for the second study which used a longitudinal design comprised of 335 teachers (258 females and 77 males). The passion scale for work (Vallerand and Houlfort, 2003) was used in order to assess teachers’ passion for their work and work satisfaction was assessed using a five-item scale modified from the satisfaction with life scale (Diener et al., 1985) to fit the work domain. Harmonious passion was found to be positively related but obsessive passion was found to be unrelated to work satisfaction in Study 1 and Study 2 (at both Time 1 and Time 2).

Thorgren, Wincent, and Siren (2013) examined the influence of passion and work-life thoughts on work satisfaction. From a population of 8,796 companies in Sweden, the founders/owners/CEOs from 3,000 randomly chosen companies were invited to participate in this study via postal mail. 704 (143 females and 561 males) usable surveys were returned. Vallerand et al.’s Passion Scale (2003) was adopted to capture both harmonious and obsessive passion and work satisfaction was assessed using a 2-item scale based on the measures by modified scales of those employed by Lewig and Dollard (2003) and Egan, Yang, and Bartlett (2004), who drew upon Warr, Cook, and Wall’s (1979) Job Satisfaction Scale and Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh’s (1979) Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire, respectively. Correlational analyses revealed that harmonious passion had a significant positive
relationship with work satisfaction. This indicates that harmonious passion may assist individuals in balancing their work commitments. On the contrary, obsessive passion had no significant path to job satisfaction.

Astakhova (2014) assessed the curvilinear relationship between work passion and organizational citizenship behaviour. The sample comprised of 233 employee-supervisor dyads working in organizations such as education, restaurant, hotel, tourism, construction, and metal industries. Harmonious and obsessive passion for work was assessed using the 7-item scales created by Vallerand et al. (2003). Following the procedure used by Cable and Judge (1996) three items from the general job satisfaction scales with different responses were used to measure job satisfaction. Results indicated that both harmonious and obsessive passion for work had significant positive correlations with job satisfaction.

Burke, Astakhova, and Hang (2014) carried out a cross-cultural study with employee-supervisor dyads in Russia and China to examine links between harmonious and obsessive work passion and four job and organization-focused outcomes (job satisfaction, intentions to quit, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviours) and two career-focused outcomes (career satisfaction and occupational commitment). Data was collected from 233 employee-supervisor dyads in Russia (156 females and 77 males) and 193 respondent-supervisor pairs in China (104 females and 89 males). Harmonious and obsessive passions were both measured using the seven-item scales created by Vallerand et al. (2003). Job satisfaction was measured by a three-item scale created by Cable and Judge (1996) using different response formats. In both Russia and China, harmonious passion predicted job satisfaction. However, obsessive work passion predicted job satisfaction in Russia, but was unrelated to job satisfaction in China.

Orgambidez-Ramos, Borrego-Ales, and Goncalves (2014) carried out a study to present evidence of the validity of the factor structure of the Spanish version of the Passion Scale. The sample consisted of 432 Spanish workers (231 females and 201 males) from companies and entrepreneurial organizations across southern Spain. Passion in the workplace was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and Job satisfaction was assessed with the Spanish version of the Job
Satisfaction Scale (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). Results indicated that intrinsic job satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with both harmonious and obsessive passion. Extrinsic job satisfaction was also found to be positively correlated with harmonious and obsessive passion. Additionally, the relationship between obsessive passion and job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction) disappeared when the harmonious passion was statistically controlled. Harmonious showed a stronger relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction than with extrinsic job satisfaction.

2.1.2 PASSION FOR WORK AND BURNOUT

A body of literature examining the relationship between the two types of passion for work – harmonious and obsessive, burnout, negative affective states, and negative cognitive experiences are mentioned below.

Vallerand, Blanchard, Mageau, Koestner, Ratelle, Leonard, Gagne, and Marsolais (2003) examined obsessive and harmonious passion and validated a scale for passion. Participants in Study 1, 2, 3, and 4 were 539 college students (332 women, 203 men, and 4 unspecified), 205 male football players in the intercollegiate football league, 59 recreational cyclists (21 women, 37 men, and 1 unspecified), and 146 regular gamblers (50 women and 96 men) in Canada. Results for Study 1 revealed that during and after activity engagement harmonious passion was positively related to the absence of negative affect (shame, anxiety), whereas obsessive passion was associated with experiencing negative emotions (anxiety, shame) and conflict with other aspects of one’s life. On being prevented from engaging in the passionate activity, harmonious passion had low-order negative and positive correlations with negative affect (shame, anxiety) and negative cognition (not being able to concentrate on what the person does on being prevented from engaging in the passionate activity) respectively, while obsessive passion had significant positive relationships with both negative affect (shame, anxiety) and negative cognition (not being able to concentrate on what the person does on being prevented from engaging in the passionate activity). Correlational analyses in Study 2 suggested that obsessive passion leads to increases in general negative affect indicated by five negative emotions such as nervousness, hostility, etc. over time experienced outside the purview of the activity. Obsessive passion was not only found to lead to rigid persistence even when persistence was ill-
advised but was also implicated in self-destructive behaviour, as seen from the results of Study 3 and 4.

Ratelle, Vallerand, Mageau, Rousseau, and Provencher (2004) sought to determine the role of the two types of passion (harmonious and obsessive) in various cognitive and affective states associated with dependence and problems with gambling. 412 participants (191 women, 219 men, and 2 unspecified) were recruited at the Montreal Casino in Canada. The Gambling Passion Scale (GPS; Rousseau, Vallerand, Ratelle et al., 2002) was used to assess passion towards gambling. Results showed that obsessive passion for gambling predicted poorer vitality and concentration in daily tasks, as well as increased ruminations, anxiety, guilt, and problem gambling.

Mageau, Vallerand, Rousseau, Ratelle, and Provencher (2005) investigated the outcomes of passion towards gambling in a sample comprised of 554 adults (278 females and 273 males) engaging in gambling activities (i.e. casino activities, lotteries) in casino and shopping centres in Montreal, Canada. Passion was measured using the 10-item Gambling Passion Scale (Rousseau, Vallerand, Ratelle, et al., 2002). Harmonious passion had significant negative correlations with negative outcomes (feelings of being judged by others, feelings of guilt), while obsessive passion was generally found to be positively associated with negative outcomes (feelings of being judged by others, feelings of guilt, negative emotions such as unhappiness, anxiety) and with having thoughts of winning during engagement in gambling activities. Furthermore, after participants’ engagement in gambling activities, harmonious passion was related negatively to negative outcomes such as anxiety, guilt, or negative emotions. However, these correlations were not significant. Conversely, obsessive passion had significant positive correlations with negative outcomes such as feelings of guilt, anxiety and unhappiness.

Rip, Fortin, and Vallerand (2006) explored whether dancers exhibit distinct injury profiles and injury-related coping behaviours as a function of their passion for dance. 81 francophone dancers (68 females, 7 males, and 6 unspecified), reporting experience in modern dance, classical ballet, jazz ballet, and jazz from the Department of Dance at the University of Quebec, Canada participated in the study. The Passion for Dance Scale (PDS) adapted from Vallerand and colleagues’ Passion
Scale (2003) was used to measure passion for dancing. Results suggested that having a harmonious passion for dance is associated with suffering less from acute injuries, and exhibiting less health-undermining coping behaviours when injured. Obsessive passion for dance, on the other hand, was found to be associated with prolonged suffering from chronic injuries, more rigid involvement in dance activities when injured, and the tendency to report that pride is a major factor preventing one from obtaining adequate treatment. Obsessive passion for dance may therefore constitute a risk factor for sustaining chronic injuries.

Vallerand, Rousseau, Grouzet, Dumais, Grenier, and Blanchard (2006) proposed and tested a sequence involving the determinants and affective experiences associated with two types of passion towards sports. 206 collegiate recreational sportspersons (119 women, 84 men, and 3 unspecified), 210 competitive basketball players (78 women, 129 men, and 3 unspecified), and 79 water polo players (35 females and 44 males) and 28 synchronized swimmers (all females) participated in Study 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Results revealed that obsessive passion was significantly and positively related to negative affective states characterized by emotions like anxiety.

Tassell and Flett (2007) carried out a study to provide an alternative theoretical perspective on the development of burnout, which suggests it is not stressors per se that are responsible for burnout development; and, to use this alternative perspective as an explanation for burnout in the context of another human service profession – humanitarian work. Using the passion for activities notion conceptualised by Vallerand and colleagues (2003), it is explained how a lack of self-determination and autonomy leads to the development of an obsessive passion for an activity. Obsessive passion was linked to a variety of adverse cognitive and affective outcomes. This was then applied to the domain of humanitarian work, and results suggested individuals with an obsessive passion were more likely to suffer adverse outcomes and consequently develop burnout when working in humanitarian crises.

Wang and Chu (2007) conducted an empirical survey in Taipei, Taiwan to examine harmonious and obsessive passion in playing online games. Statistical analysis was utilized to analyze the 404 responses (101 females and 303 males). Passion for online gaming was measured using the 10-item Passion Scale by Ratelle
et al. (2004). The empirical evidence confirms the theory of Vallerand et al. (2003) that the passion for online computer games can be divided into two sub-dimensions, namely harmonious passion and obsessive passion. Furthermore, the influences of harmonious and obsessive passion on players’ addiction to online computer games differ significantly. Obsessive passion may lead to addiction, while harmonious passion normally does not. These results support the argument that only obsessive passion leads to negative outcomes.

Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, and Guay (2008) conducted a study over a 3 month-period (consisted of two data collections) to determine the role of passion for teaching in teachers’ burnout symptoms, work satisfaction and perceptions of positive student classroom behaviours. A total of 653 teachers form French-Canadian schools in two school boards from the Quebec City area took part in the study at Time 1, of these, 494 took part at Time 2 as well. Passion was assessed using the Passion Scale-adapted for teachers (Vallerand et al., 2003) and burnout was assessed using the French-Canadian version (Dion & Tessier, 1994) of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Results indicated that harmonious passion had a significant negative relationship with burnout and obsessive passion had a significant positive relationship with burnout at both Time 1 and Time 2.

Rousseau and Vallerand (2008) conducted an investigation to explore the relationship between passion and subjective well-being. 119 (70 women and 49 men) members of the Club d’Activités Physiques pour l’Âge d’Or (APADOR), which offered various physical activity programs to older adults in Montreal, Canada, participated in the study. Passion, assessed using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and satisfaction were measured at Time 1, positive affect and negative affect were assessed five weeks later (Time 2), and finally satisfaction was measured again at Time 3 (3 weeks later). Negative affect was found to have a significant positive relationship with obsessive passion but it was unrelated to harmonious passion.

Schellenberg (2008) examined the relationship between passion and coping in sports, and tested if coping mediated the relationship between types of passion and burnout and goal attainment. 239 college and university-level volleyball players (126 females and 113 males) in Canada participated in a prospective observational study involving two time points approximately 3 months apart. Passion was measured
using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003, Vallerand, 2010). Results indicated that both harmonious and obsessive passion were negatively associated with burnout. Harmonious passion had negative correlations with distraction-oriented coping (distancing, mental distraction) and disengagement-oriented coping (venting of unpleasant emotions, disengagement-resignation), while obsessive passion was positively correlated with both. Finally, change in obsessive passion was positively associated with change in burnout, and this relationship was mediated by disengagement-oriented coping.

Dalskau (2009) explored harmonious and obsessive passion in relation to global and domain specific self esteem and positive affective outcomes. The sample of 210 individuals (92 females and 118 males) participating in activities (like swimming, cycling, skiing, and soccer) that they are passionate about. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Anger and agitation were found to be negatively correlated with harmonious passion and positively related to obsessive passion.

Philippe, Vallerand, Andrianarisoa, and Brunel (2009) examined the role of passion for refereeing in referees’ affective and cognitive functioning during games in two studies. 90 referees (8 women and 82 men) of football (soccer) working in national and international level leagues and 227 referees (4 women and 223 men) from France participated in Study 1 and 2. Passion was assessed using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand, et al., 2006). Results of Study 1 revealed that obsessive passion for refereeing was positively associated with nervousness, irritability, guilt, and distress during games. Study 2 examined referees’ affective and cognitive functioning after having committed an important mistake. Results showed that after a bad call, harmonious passion was negatively associated with negative self-rated emotions, stress, concentration problems and unrelated to rumination, whereas obsessive passion was positively associated with negative self-rated emotions, stress, rumination, subsequent poor decision making, and unrelated to concentration problems.

Tassell (2009) examined the effects of motivation on well-being. The sample comprised of 82 humanitarian health workers (54 females and 26 males) including doctors, nurses, midwives, psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers,
physiotherapists, and dentists. The shortened version of Vallerand et al.’s (2003) Passion for Activities Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Services Scale (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) was used to assess passion and burnout respectively. Harmonious passion was found to have a significant negative relationship with burnout and obsessive passion was found to be positively correlated with burnout.

Vallerand, Paquet, Phillipe, and Charest (2010) tested a model on the role of passion for work and professional burnout. The sample for Study 1 consisted of 97 nurses from France and the sample for Study 2 consisted of 258 nurses working in French-Canadian hospitals in the Province of Quebec. For Study 2 Nurses were contacted at Time 1 and completed scales assessing passion for nursing, work satisfaction, conflict, and burnout. They were contacted a second time after six months and the same measures were assessed again except for passion. Passion for work was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Results revealed that harmonious passion had a significant negative relationship with burnout in Study 1. Results for Study 2 showed that harmonious passion had a significant negative relationship with burnout at both Time 1 and Time 2 while obsessive passion had a significant negative relationship with burnout at Time 2.

Burke, Jeng, Koyuncu, and Fiksenbau (2011) examined correlates of work-based passion and addiction among hotel managers working in 3, 4, and 5 star hotels in China. There were 309 participants (130 women and 179 men) in the study. Passion was measured by the 10-item scale developed by Spence and Robbins (1992) and exhaustion (a component of burnout) was assessed using a 9-item subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Results indicated that passion had a significant negative relationship with exhaustion.

Lavigne, Forest, and Crevier-Braud (2011) carried out a two-study test to examine relationship between passion for work and burnout and the mediating role of flow experiences. Participants in Study 1 were 113 young workers (80 females and 33 males) from the province of Quebec’s public service association. 325 individuals (172 females and 153 males) working as professionals for the Quebec government
(e.g., research agents, computer scientists, biologists, and statisticians) were the participants in Study 2. Vallerand and colleagues’ (2003) Passion Scale was used in order to assess participants’ passion towards their work and burnout was measured using the validated French version of the Maslach and Jackson’s Burnout Inventory (Dion & Tessier, 1994). Results for Study 1 revealed that harmonious passion was negatively correlated with the three components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy, while obsessive passion had a significant positive correlation with the emotional exhaustion component but was unrelated to inefficacy and cynicism. Results for Study 2 indicated that harmonious passion had a significant negative correlation with emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy, and obsessive passion had a significant positive correlation with emotional exhaustion, was unrelated to cynicism, and had a negative correlation with inefficacy at Time 1 and Time 2.

Martin (2011) examined the role of athletic identity and passion in predicting burnout. The sample comprised of 218 female adolescent athletes who were current members of a high school or high school-aged athletic team. The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire (Raedeke & Smith, 2001) were used to measure passion and burnout. High levels of harmonious passion were found to be predictive of lower levels of burnout on all three dimensions of the Athletic Burnout Questionnaire (i.e. devaluation, reduced sense of accomplishment, emotional, and physical exhaustion) and high scores on obsessive passion were predictive of higher scores on the exhaustion dimension of burnout.

Stoeber, Childs, Hayward, and Feast (2011) investigated the relationships between harmonious and obsessive passion for studying and academic engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption) and burnout (exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy) in 103 university students (92 females and 11 males). The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Student Survey (MBI-SS; Schaufeli, Martinez, et al., 2002) were utilized to assess passion for studying and burnout respectively. Harmonious passion showed negative correlations with all three components of burnout namely exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. Unexpectedly, however, obsessive passion also showed negative correlations with
two aspects of burnout (cynicism and inefficacy). Obsessive passion also predicted lower levels of inefficacy.

Carpentier, Mageau, and Vallerand (2012) investigated the psychological mechanisms underlying the different impact of the two types of passion on well-being. The sample composed of 172 students (134 women, 36 men, and 2 unspecified) registered in two different colleges located in Montreal, Canada. Passion was measured using the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003). Harmonious and obsessive passion had significant positive correlations with ruminatation.

Donahue, Forest, Vallerand, Lemyre, Crevier-Braud, and Bergeron (2012) examined the mediating roles of rumination and recovery experiences in the relationship of harmonious and obsessive passion for work with workers’ emotional exhaustion (a component of burnout). Two populations were measured in the present research; namely elite coaches (N = 117) and nurses (N = 118). Passion for coaching was measured using an adapted version of the Passion Scale for Work (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003) and coaches’ emotional exhaustion was measured using the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The original French version of the Passion Scale for Work was used in Study 2 (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003) and the validated French version of the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Dion & Tessier, 1994) was completed to assess burnout. Harmonious passion was found to have a significant negative relationship with emotional exhaustion while obsessive passion had a significant positive relationship with emotional exhaustion in both the studies (Study 1 and Study 2).

Birkeland (2014) explored the role of harmonious and obsessive passion in well-being and performance at work. The three-wave longitudinal data set contained 1,263 respondents. Results showed that the positive relationship between obsessive passion and burnout seemed to remain relatively stable throughout the course of one year but harmonious passion could be a source of change in burnout. Harmonious passion might enable employees to become more resilient towards work strain over time, and thus counteract the gradual erosion of strong work involvement. In contrast, employees with strong levels of obsessive passion may perhaps spend their resources on worrying about their self-worth and their high work load, but obsessive passion
does not seem to worsen the burnout symptoms over time. Results also revealed that the longitudinal relationship between obsessive passion and cynicism (although not with exhaustion) is weaker when individuals felt that their co-workers were caring and supportive.

Banth and Mohil (2014) analyzed the role of passion for work (harmonious and obsessive) in burnout (exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy) using the dualistic model of passion. The sample consisted of 200 male middle level managers from various branches and offices of Public Sector Banks in the tricity of Chandigarh, Mohali, and Panchkula. The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996) were used to measure passion for work and burnout respectively. The results revealed that harmonious passion was negatively related to exhaustion, cynicism, and positively correlated with professional efficacy, while obsessive passion was positively related to exhaustion, cynicism, and negatively correlated with professional efficacy. Exhaustion and cynicism were found to be lower than professional efficacy among managers in the Public Sector Banks.

Fernet, Lavigne, Vallerand, and Austin (2014) examined a motivational premise of burnout: in order to burn out, an employee must first be fired up. Participants in Study 1 were French-Canadians (144 women and 31 men) teaching in elementary school, high school or vocational/technical adult programmes. The sample for Study 2 was collected in two waves and the final sample comprised of 689 teachers (592 women and 97 men) in the province of Quebec, Canada. The Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003), which was originally validated in French, was used to assess passion for teaching and the French-Canadian version (Dion & Tessier, 1994) of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) was used to assess burnout in Study 1. Passion was measured using the short form (Lafrenière et al., 2013) of the Passion Scale (Vallerand et al., 2003) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory–General Survey (MBI–GS; Schaufeli et al., 1996) in Study 2. Results of Study 1 showed that harmonious passion had significant negative correlations with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a significant positive correlation with personal accomplishment. Conversely, obsessive passion had significant positive correlations with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and
was negatively correlated with personal accomplishment. A second, 12-month longitudinal study revealed that harmonious passion was negatively related to exhaustion, cynicism, and positively related to professional efficacy; while obsessive passion was positively correlated with exhaustion and cynicism, and negatively correlated with professional efficacy at Time 1 and Time 2.

Trepanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest, and Vallerand (2014) examined the role of passion for work in the health impairment and motivational processes proposed by the job demands-resources model. The model was tested in two occupational samples - nurses (N = 1179) and teachers (N = 745) in the province of Quebec, Canada. A short version of the Passion Scale (Marsh et al. 2013; Lafreniere et al., 2012; Vallerand et al. 2003) and the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli et al. 1996) were used to assess passion and burnout respectively in both the samples. Results for both the samples revealed that harmonious passion had a significant negative correlation with burnout while obsessive passion had a significant positive correlation with burnout.

2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Since its introduction in 2002, psychological capital has been increasingly researched in relation to organizational elements such as employee quality of life, performance, wellbeing, sense of humour, organizational commitment, undesirable employee behaviours, stress, absenteeism, burnout, workplace deviance, and job satisfaction (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Avey et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2011; Gillert, 2014; Laschinger & Fida, 2014; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Yardley, 2012) within organizations such as manufacturing units, hotel and tourism industry, private sector banks, and among teachers, doctors, and nurses. Despite such extensive research in psychological capital, there is a paucity of available literature linking psychological capital to work-related outcomes of job satisfaction and burnout among Public Sector Banks specifically. Psychological Capital, as used in the present research constitutes the following four dimensions – **Self-Efficacy, Hope, Resiliency, and Optimism** (Luthans et al., 2007). Thus, some of the studies given below link work-related outcomes with psychological capital as a whole while others relate with one of the above mentioned dimensions of psychological capital.
2.2.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND JOB SATISFACTION

The following section throws some light on the various studies relating psychological capital or one of its dimensions with job satisfaction in different organizational settings.

Tuten and Neidermeyer (2004) measured the role of optimism and its effect on stress among 122 call centre employees. Optimism was assessed with the Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier and Carver, 1985). Results of the study were contrary to what was hypothesized, optimism was found to have a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction.

Piccolo, Judge, Takahashi, Watanabe, and Locke (2005) investigated the effects of core self-evaluations (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism) on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness in Japan. 271 sales representatives participated in the study. Self-efficacy was assessed using Judge et al.’s (1998) scale and job satisfaction was measured using five items taken from the Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) measure of job satisfaction. A strong positive correlation was found between self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, and Callan (2006) tested the utility of a stress and coping model of employee adjustment to a merger on a sample of 220 former employees of international and domestic airline. The participants completed both questionnaires at Time 1 (3 months after merger implementation) and Time 2 (2 years later). Self-efficacy appraisals were assessed using items adapted from Ashford (1988) and job satisfaction was assessed at both points in time using items adapted from previous studies (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975). Self-efficacy had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction at both Time 1 and Time 2.

Betoret (2006) investigated the relationships among teacher occupational stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout in a sample of 247 Spanish secondary school teachers (117 females and 130 males). A 7-item scale was used to measure self-efficacy and job satisfaction was measured as a dimension of burnout using the scale by Blase (1982). A significant positive relationship was found between self-efficacy and job satisfaction.
Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, and Malone (2006) examined teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of their job satisfaction and students’ academic achievement. 2184 teachers participated in the study. Twelve items measured teachers’ beliefs in their ability to effectively handle various tasks, obligations, and challenges related to their professional role (self-efficacy) and four items selected and adapted from the Italian version (Borgogni, 1999) of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) measured teachers’ satisfaction with their job. Results indicated that teachers’ beliefs in their capacity to efficaciously manage class situations, didactical tasks, and interpersonal relationships with the other school members strongly influence their level of satisfaction with job conditions.

Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, and Baddar (2006) explored the effects of selected individual characteristics on frontline employee performance and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 460 frontline employees from 28 three-star, 8 four-star, and 6 five-star hotels in North Cyprus. An 8-item scale by Jones (1986) was used to measure self-efficacy and job satisfaction was measured using eight items from the scale developed by Hartline and Ferrell (1996). Correlational analysis indicated that self-efficacy had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Luthans and Larson (2006) proposed and empirically tested the potential added value that psychological capital may have for employee attitudes of satisfaction and commitment. Data was collected from 74 production workers in a small Midwestern medium-tech manufacturing company. Self-efficacy was measured using Parker’s (1998) efficacy scale. The State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996) was used to measure hope. State optimism was measured using Scheier and Carver’s (1985) Life Orientation Test (LOT). Resiliency was measured using the 14-item resiliency scale based on the research of Block and Kremen (1996) and Klonhlen (1996). Consistent with Judge and colleagues (2003) work with core self-evaluations, Stajkovic’s (2003) work on a core confidence factor for work motivation, and Luthans and colleagues proposal for positive psychological capital, the individual Positive Organization Behaviour criteria meeting states (confidence/self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency) were combined as a measure of positive psychological capital. A three-item scale, originally adapted from Hackman and Oldham’s (1980) job satisfaction measure, was used in this study for measuring job satisfaction. Results indicated that
hope, resiliency and overall psychological capital were significantly and positively related to job satisfaction.

Cordery (2007) conducted a study that sought to establish links between positive work outlooks, namely hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resiliency, with outcomes such as psychological health, job satisfaction, and quit intentions. The sample consisted of 560 managers from the industry sectors. Results indicated that all three; hope, optimism, and resiliency had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. However, no relationship was found between self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

Hmieleski and Carr (2007) investigated the relationship between the psychological capital and work tension of entrepreneurs on their level of job satisfaction. There were 144 participants in the study (116 males and 28 females) who were the founders and top management team leaders of their new ventures. Psychological capital was examined through the measurement of its four core elements. Optimism was measured using the Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy was measured using a scale developed by De Noble, Jung, and Ehrlich (1999). Resiliency was measured using a scale developed by Wagnild and Young (1993). Hope was measured using a scale developed by Snyder, Sympson et al. (1996). Job satisfaction was studied using the “work itself satisfaction” scale of Spector’s (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. Results indicated that psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007) conducted a study to analyze how hope, resiliency, optimism, and efficacy individually and as a composite higher-order factor predicted work performance and satisfaction. The sample for Study 1 consisted of 404 management students at a university from the second largest university in mid-eastern United States. The first sample for Study 2 consisted of 115 participants, who were engineers and technicians from a very large firm and the second sample consisted of 144 participants, who were employees in all functions and levels of a midsized insurance services firm. Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) was used to assess psychological capital and job satisfaction was assessed using a 3-item scale adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980). Results of
both the studies from all the three samples revealed a significant positive relationship between hope, resiliency, optimism, self-efficacy, overall psychological capital, and job satisfaction.

Youssef and Luthans (2007) investigated the impact that selected positive psychological resource capacities of hope, optimism, and resiliency have on desired employee outcomes. The sample for the first study consisted of a convenience sample of 1032 employees (578 females and 454 males) from a Midwestern organization. The sample for Study 2 comprised of a convenience sample of 232 employees (109 females and 123 males) from a wide range of positions, reporting 41 managers from 32 Midwestern organizations in a broad range of industries that included manufacturing, services, public sector, and non-government organizations. Hope was measured using Snyder, Sympson et al.’s (1996) State Hope Scale. Optimism was measured using Scheier and Carver’s (1985, 1992) Life Orientation Test (LOT). Resiliency was assessed using Block and Kremen’s (1996) Ego Resiliency Scale. A 3-item scale adapted from Oldham and Hackman’s (1980) measure was used to assess employee job satisfaction. Results for the first sample revealed a significant positive relationship between hope, optimism, resiliency, and job satisfaction. Results for the second sample revealed a significant positive relationship between hope, optimism, resiliency, and job satisfaction.

Blackburn and Robinson (2008) assessed teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction of 80 early career agriculture teachers in Kentucky. The long form of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001) was used to determine teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction was determined using the Job Satisfaction index (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) as modified by Warner (1973). Self-efficacy was positively related to job satisfaction.

Hmileski and Corbett (2008) examined the moderating effect of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on the relationship of founders’ improvisational behaviour with both the performance of their start ups and their individual level of work satisfaction using a national (United States) random sample of 159 entrepreneurs. Self-efficacy was measured using an instrument designed by De Noble, Jung, and Ehrlich (1999) and the ‘Work Itself Satisfaction’ scale of Spector's (1985)
Job Satisfaction Survey was utilized to assess job satisfaction. Results revealed that self-efficacy had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Judge, Heller, and Klinger (2008) carried out a study that related three personality taxonomies - positive affectivity and negative affectivity (PA and NA), the five-factor model (the “Big Five”), and core self-evaluations – to job satisfaction in an integrative test. Participants were 159 university employees in Midwestern United States. Self-esteem was measured with Rosenberg’s (1965) 10-item scale and overall job satisfaction was measured with the 5-item Brayfield-Rothe (1951) measure and three items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). Self-efficacy was positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey (2008) investigated whether the recently emerging core construct of positive psychological capital (consisting of hope, resiliency, optimism, and efficacy) played a role in mediating the effects of a supportive organizational climate with employee outcomes. Study 1 utilized a sample (N = 404) that were all the students from designated management classes at two Midwestern universities. The sample in Study 2 was made up of 163 insurance service firm employees. Another sample for Study 3 consisted of 170 engineers and technicians from a very large high-tech manufacturing firm. The measure of psychological capital was the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007) and a three item satisfaction scale adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980) was used to assess job satisfaction. Results indicated that psychological capital had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction for Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3.

Kluemper, Little, and DeGroot (2009) investigated the effects of state optimism on job-related outcomes. 261 students (130 women and 131 men) from a large university in the southern United States and 205 newly hired treatment workers (88 females and 117 males) at a large residential centre in the Midwest participated in Study 1 and 2 respectively. State optimism was measured using the revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) in Study 1 and the original Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier & Carver, 1985) was used in Study 2 for the same purpose. Job satisfaction, however was assessed using the five-item scale
called Job Diagnostic Survey by Hackman and Oldham (1975) in both the studies. Results for Study 1 and Study 2 revealed that state optimism was positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Nielsen, Yarker, Randall, and Munir (2009) explored the psychological mechanisms that link transformational leadership behaviours to employee job satisfaction and well-being. 274 employees working within the elderly care sector for a large Danish local government participated in the study. A reduced seven-item version of self-efficacy was used (Schwarzer, 1992; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) to assess self-efficacy and job satisfaction was measured using a 5-item scale. The correlation between self-efficacy and job satisfaction was positive, however it was not significant.

Appollis (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between intention to quit, psychological capital, and job satisfaction in the tourism industry in South Africa. The sample consisted of 70 respondents, who were employees in the tourism industry. Psychological capital was measured using Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) and job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). Results indicate that there is a strong, direct relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction.

Klassen and Chiu (2010) examined the relationships among teachers’ years of experience, teacher characteristics (gender and teaching level), three domains of self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement), two types of job stress (workload and classroom stress), and job satisfaction with a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers (987 women and 443 men) in Western Canada. Self-efficacy was assessed using Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (2001) Teachers’ Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) and job satisfaction was measured using the two items from Caprara et al. (2003) on a 9-point scale. Results revealed that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and instructional strategies reported higher levels of job satisfaction.

Moe, Pazzaglia, and Ronconi (2010) examined how good strategies and praxis interplay with positive affect and self-efficacy to determine a teacher’s job satisfaction. Participants in the study were 399 teachers (285 females and 114 males),
from primary, middle, and high schools located in various towns in northern Italy. Italian version of the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) was used to measure self-efficacy and a revised version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) proposed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985) was used to assess job satisfaction. Results indicated a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

Munyon, Hochwarter, Perrewe, and Ferris (2010) investigated the interactive relationship between optimism and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) on job satisfaction in a series of three independent samples, examining moderated polynomial relationships. The sample for Study 1 comprised of 155 employees (98 women and 57 men) of a municipal agency, 219 human resources managers (152 women and 67 men) participated in Study 2, and the sample for Study 3 comprised of individuals in blue and white collared occupations. Optimism was measured using Scheier et al.’s (1994) 6-item scale and job satisfaction was measured using a 5-item subscale of Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) index. Optimism had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction in all the three studies.

Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, and Benson (2010) examined the relationship between reported levels of teacher self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and job satisfaction among 104 special educators from a school district approximately 40 miles from a major south-eastern metropolitan area. The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was used to measure teacher self-efficacy levels and the Brayfield-Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) was used to measure job satisfaction. Results revealed that teacher self-efficacy had a direct effect on job satisfaction.

Zhang, Wang, and Xiong (2010) in their paper ‘The impact of the psychological capital and the big five personality on organization behaviour’ discussed the relationship between the psychological capital and job satisfaction and job performance, the relationship between the Big Five Personality and job satisfaction and job performance and the relationship between psychological capital and Big Five Personality. The study was carried out on a sample of 249 direct leaders and staff. Results showed that psychological capital can predict job satisfaction.
Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre (2011) carried out a meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviours and performance. The present meta-analysis included 51 independent samples (representing a total of N = 12,567 employees) that met the inclusion criteria. Results revealed a statistically significant and positive relationship between psychological capital and employee attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being).

Cetin (2011) studied the effects of organizational psychological capital on the attitudes of commitment and satisfaction. This study was carried out in Turkey and the sample consisted of 213 employees (120 females and 93 males) working in different units in ministries and connected institutions in Ankara (Turkey). Organizational psychological capital was assessed using the Turkish version (developed by Cetin & Basim, 2011) of Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007). Job satisfaction was measured using the Turkish version developed by Sesen (2010) of the Job Satisfaction Scale developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). Results revealed that there exists a positive relationship between resiliency, hope, and optimism dimensions of the organizational psychological capital and job satisfaction. However, there no relationship was observed between self efficacy and job satisfaction.

Cheung, Tang, and Tang (2011) examined the relationship between emotional labour and burnout as well as job satisfaction and if psychological capital moderated the emotional labour-burnout or job satisfaction associations. The sample comprised of 264 full-time Chinese school teachers in China. Results showed that psychological capital was related to emotional labour, burnout, and job satisfaction in the hypothesized direction. Furthermore, psychological capital moderated the association between emotional labour and the outcome variables. For instance, positive association between surface acting on depersonalization as well as negative association with job satisfaction was weaker when psychological capital was high. In addition, positive association between deep acting and job satisfaction was further reinforced among participants with high psychological capital but not among participants with low psychological capital. Finally, the relationships of psychological
capital with depersonalization as well as job satisfaction were more salient among employees who reported infrequent use of expression of naturally felt emotion.

Abbas, Raja, Darr, and Boukenooghe (2012) examined the combined effects of perceived politics and psychological capital on job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and performance. The sample comprised of 237 employees from six branches of private banks, two textile manufacturing firms, three offices of a government ministry, and customer service offices of a telecommunication company in Faisalabad, Pakistan. Psychological capital was measured using the 12 self-efficacy and hope items from the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007) and the six-item scale developed by Agho, Price, and Mueller (1992) was used to assess job satisfaction. Psychological capital was found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Hansen (2012) explored the positive aspects of psychological capital and attempted to explain how psychological resources inherent in psychological capital can aid against the negative effects of burnout. A convenience sample of 103 educators (89 females and 14 males) was taken across four educational institutions in the Umlazi Region, Kwazulu-Natal. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) were used to measure psychological capital and job satisfaction respectively. Results revealed that psychological capital had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Lanham, Rye, Rimsky, and Weill (2012) investigated how gratitude related to burnout and job satisfaction in mental health professionals. 65 mental health professionals (counsellors, case managers, clinical administrators/supervisors, employment/housing specialists, social workers, psychologists) in Midwestern United States participated in the study. Hope was measured using the Adult Trait Hope Scale (Snyder et al, 1991) and job satisfaction was assessed using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Results revealed that hope had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Stam (2012) tested the relationships between new graduate nurses’ psychological capital, access to empowerment structures, perception of staffing
adequacy, and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 203 new graduate nurses (183 females and 20 males) from Ontario, Canada. Psychological capital was measured using the 24-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007). Job satisfaction was measured using a 4-item questionnaire adapted from Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) original General Satisfaction Scale found in their Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). Results revealed that there exists a significant positive relationship between psychological capital, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and job satisfaction. However, no significant relationship was found between resiliency and job satisfaction. Although psychological capital had a smaller effect on job satisfaction than structural empowerment, it was still a significant predictor.

Chang, Chen, Lin, and Huang (2013) carried out a study to verify the impacts of psychological capital on job satisfaction of university physical education teachers, with job stress and job burnout as mediators. Participants in this study were selected through stratified sampling. Forty-one out of 146 universities in Taiwan were selected according to relative proportion. Physical education teachers from all 41 universities completed the questionnaires; a total of 537 questionnaires were distributed and 442 valid questionnaires were collected. The results showed that psychological capital had a direct and positive influence on job satisfaction, and that job stress and job burnout played a mediating role in the model.

Dirzyte, Patapas, Smalskys, and Udaviciute (2013) analyzed the relationship between organizational commitment, positive psychological capital, and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 92 working adults (48 women and 44 men) representing a wide cross-section of Lithuanian service and government organizations. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985) were used to measure psychological capital and job satisfaction respectively. Psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Kaplan and Bickes (2013) examined the relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 181 employees (57 females and 124 males) working in five star hotels in Neveshir, Turkey. Psychological capital was measured using the 24-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) developed by Luthans et al. (2007). The short form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)
was used to measure job satisfaction. Resiliency and optimism were found to be positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. However, no significant relationships were found between the other two dimensions of psychological capital i.e. self-efficacy, hope, and job satisfaction.

Kemp (2013) sought to test if new ways of working (NWW) could enhance psychological capital (hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resiliency), which in turn could lead to increased levels of job satisfaction and performance. Cross-sectional data was collected from 116 employees (63 women and 53 men) working in various banking and financial companies working according to new ways of working (NWW) principles across the Netherlands, United Kingdom, and Australia. Psychological Capital was assessed using two different instruments. Hope, optimism, and resiliency were measured using a shorter 12-item version of the original 24-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007b) while self-efficacy was measured using three items from the Work Self-Efficacy scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). Job satisfaction was measured by six items selected from the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI; Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). Results indicated that psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Larson, Norman, Hughes, and Avey (2013) investigated whether or not the similarities between employees’ and their leaders’ psychological capital added to the understanding of person-organization fit, employee engagement, and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 1002 working adults (611 women and 391 men) from the mountain states region in the United States. Psychological capital was assessed using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007) and job satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980). Employees’ psychological capital was found to have a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Murthy (2013) examined the relationship between psychological capital and job satisfaction among executives in India. The sample comprised of 274 executives drawn from six organizations. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1997) were used to assess psychological capital and job satisfaction respectively. The correlational
analysis revealed that psychological capital had a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction.

Laschinger and Fida (2014) examined the influence of authentic leadership an organizational resource, and psychological capital on burnout, occupational satisfaction and workplace mental health over the first year of employment. Data from a two-wave survey of newly graduated nurses with less than two years of experience in acute care hospitals across Ontario was used (Time 1 in 2010, Time 2 in 2011). At Time 1, 342 participants returned the questionnaires. Follow up questionnaires at Time 2 were sent only to Time 1 respondents, with a total of 205 returning completed questionnaires. Psychological capital was measured using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007). Occupational satisfaction was measured using four items adapted from Shaver and Lacey (Shaver & Lacey, 2003). Results at Time 2 revealed that occupational satisfaction had positive correlations with total psychological capital, self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, and optimism.

Mackonienė and Norvilė (2014) examined the prevalence of burnout, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and proactive coping and identified the correlates of burnout among Lithuanian school psychologists. The sample consisted of 115 school psychologists (113 females and 2 males) recruited from 19 cities and small towns in Lithuania. The General Self-Efficacy Scale (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire short-form (MSQ; Weiss et al., 1967) were used to measure self-efficacy and job satisfaction respectively. The correlation analysis indicated that although self-efficacy was positively correlated with job satisfaction, however the correlation was not significant.

Bergheim, Nielsen, Mearns, and Eid (2015) examined whether psychological capital was related to perceptions of safety climate and job satisfaction among maritime workers. The sample comprised of 594 (6 women and 588 men) crew members working on vessels from two Norwegian shipping companies typical for the maritime industry in Norway. Psychological capital was measured using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and three items from the Job Satisfaction Scale – short version (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), were included to investigate job satisfaction. Correlational analysis indicated a significant positive correlation between psychological capital and job satisfaction.
Kwok, Cheng, and Wong (2015) examined the mediating role of positive psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, optimism) on the relationship between family emotional support and job satisfaction among 227 Chinese white-collar workers (127 females and 100 males) in Hong Kong. The Self-efficacy Scale (Sherer et al. 1982), State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996), Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier & Carver, 1985), Wagnild and Young’s (1987, 1993) Resilience Scale, and Index of Job Satisfaction (IJS; Brayfield & Rothe, 1957) were administered to measure self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, optimism, and job satisfaction of the participants. Correlational analysis revealed significant positive correlations between all dimensions of psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, optimism) and job satisfaction.

Siu, Cheung, and Lui (2015) investigated the mechanism underlying the relationship among positive emotions, work well-being, and turnover intention in a sample of 311 Chinese police officers (61 females and 250 males) in Hong Kong. Psychological capital was measured using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and three items were adopted from the job satisfaction subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al. 1979) to assess job satisfaction. Results revealed that total psychological capital and all four of its dimensions had significant positive correlations with job satisfaction.

2.2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND BURNOUT

The following section describes the various studies linking psychological capital or one of its dimensions with burnout in different organizational settings.

Brouwers, Evers, and Tomic (2001) tested a non-recursive model with relationships between perceived lack of social support, self-efficacy in eliciting support at the workplace, and the three successive burnout symptoms in a sample of 277 secondary school teachers (74 females and 203 males) in the Netherlands. Self-efficacy was assessed using the two subscales of the Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy Scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 1999) and burnout was measured using the Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (MBI-NL-Ed; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Schaufeli, Daamen, & Van Mierlo, 1994; Schaufeli & Van Horn,
Self-efficacy had significant negative correlations with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a significant positive correlation with personal accomplishment.

Evers, Tomic, and Brouwers (2001) carried out a study that elicited the effects of experienced aggressive behaviour and self-efficacy in coping with aggressive behaviour on the dimensions of burnout. 551 care givers (516 women and 35 men) in 22 homes for the elderly in the southern region of Netherlands participated in the study. A validated questionnaire from the educational domain (Emmer & Hickman, 1991), translated into Dutch by Brouwers and Tomic (1998), was adapted for measuring self-efficacy and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). It was found that strong feelings of self-efficacy go along with high levels of personal accomplishment and low levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. However, the correlations between self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were weak.

Evers, Brouwers, and Tomic (2002) carried out an investigation on self-efficacy and burnout while studying teachers’ beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in the Netherlands. A random sample of 490 teachers (114 females and 376 males) employed in the study-home system participated in this study. Self-efficacy beliefs were measured with an instrument especially developed for this study and burnout was assessed using the Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (MBI-NL-Ed; Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995). Results indicated that self-efficacy beliefs for each of the three domains had significant negative relationships with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout but had significant positive relationship with the personal accomplishment dimension.

Perrewe et al. (2002) examined the relationships among role stressors, self-efficacy, and burnout across nine regions (i.e., U.S., Germany, France, Brazil, Israel, Japan, China, Hong Kong, and Fiji). The sample consisted of 923 managers from eight countries plus the former Hong Kong territory: Brazil (N = 124); China (N = 83); Fiji (N = 88); France (N = 113); Germany (N = 84); Hong Kong (N = 99); Israel (N = 119); Japan (N = 92); and the United States (N = 121). All subjects were
professional or managerial level employees and were citizens of their representative country. Self-efficacy was assessed using a 7-item scale adapted from Pearlin and Schooler’s (1978) 7-item mastery scale and the 21-item Burnout Questionnaire by Pines and Aronson (1981) measured experienced burnout. A significant negative correlation was found between self-efficacy and burnout in all the nine samples across the nine countries.

Betoret (2006) investigated the relationships among teacher occupational stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout in a sample of 247 Spanish secondary school teachers (117 females and 130 males). A 7-item scale was used to measure self-efficacy and burnout was assessed according to the dimensions considered by Blase (1982) in his model (job satisfaction, work involvement, teacher motivation, and anxiety). Results revealed that self-efficacy was positively correlated with three dimensions of burnout viz. job satisfaction, work involvement, and teacher motivation and negatively correlated with one dimension of burnout (anxiety).

Hayes and Weathington (2007) examined optimism, stress, life satisfaction, and job burnout in 120 managers from 97 casual, dine-in chain restaurants in the southeastern United States. The Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) was used to assess optimism and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Results revealed that optimism had a significant negative relationship with burnout.

Kelly (2007) carried out a study to examine the relationships between occupational self-efficacy, exercise behaviours, and social support with strain and burnout. The sample consisted of approximately 1000 faculty members entirely of the faculty from the University of California, Irvine. Self-efficacy was measured using the Measures of Self-Efficacy in Academic Tasks (MSEAT; Landino & Owen, 1988) and burnout was determined using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Self-efficacy was found to have a significant positive relationship with one component of burnout viz. personal accomplishment. However no significant relationships were found between
self-efficacy and the other two components of burnout namely emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Pretorius (2007) investigated the relationship between resilience, self-efficacy, and burnout. The sample comprised of 164 employees (27 females and 137 males) working in a chemical factory. The employees were distributed across the various disciplines and functions, such as operations (process and engineering, planning and scheduling, safety, health, environment, risk, quality (SHERQ) section), marketing, logistics, finance, human resources, training and development, technical support group and administration. The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003), the State Ego-Resilience Scale (ER89; Block & Kremen, 1996; Klonhelen, 1996), and the State Self-Efficacy Scale (SSES; Schwarzer, 1993) were used to measure burnout, resilience, and self-efficacy respectively. Resilience and self-efficacy had a significant negative relationship with burnout.

Rothmann and Essenko (2007) carried out a study to assess the relationships between job characteristics, burnout, optimism, and ill health. The sample consisted of 334 support staff members of a higher education institution in the North West Province of South Africa. The Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and two subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli et al., 1996) viz. exhaustion and cynicism were used to measure optimism and burnout respectively. Optimism had significant negative correlations with exhaustion and cynicism.

Lopez, Santiago, Godás, Castro, Villardefrancos, and Ponte (2008) examined from an integrative approach to what extent occupational stressors when in combination with other variables (Type A pattern, optimism, hardiness, friend, and family support, life events) have accredited their explicative value in accounting for teacher distress in other domains (personal, psychosocial and outside the occupational sphere) contribute to predicting and/or explaining the different components of burnout. The sample consisted of 1386 secondary education teachers in Galicia, Spain. Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES), developed by Maslach & Jackson (1986), was used to evaluate burnout and the reviewed version of
the Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) was the instrument chosen to measure optimism. Results indicated that optimism was negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and positively correlated with personal accomplishment.

Otero-Lopez, Marino, and Bolano (2008) used an integrative approach to identify the main correlates and/or predictors at different levels (personal, psychosocial, occupational and outside the workplace) of the burnout dimensions. The sample consisted of 813 university professors. The Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) were used to assess optimism and burnout. Optimism had significant negative correlations with two dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) and a significant positive correlation with one dimension of burnout (personal accomplishment).

Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) studied the relationship between self-efficacy, job stress, and burnout. The sample for Study 1 comprised of 1023 teachers (892 females and 311 males) from Syria and Germany. 458 German teachers (277 females and 181 males) participated in Study 2. Self-efficacy was assessed using the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer, Schmidt, & Dayter (1999). The Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) was used to measure general self-efficacy and burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Results for Study 1 revealed that teacher self-efficacy had a significant negative relationship with all three dimensions of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. The results of Study 2 also showed that low self-efficacy preceded burnout.

Betoret (2009) examined the relationship between school resources, teacher self-efficacy, potential multi-level stressors, and teacher burnout using structural equation modeling. The sample composed of 724 primary and secondary Spanish school teachers. Teacher self-efficacy was measured using a Spanish version of the scale designed by Schwarzer, Schmitz, and Daytnner (1999) and burnout was measured using a Spanish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) for teachers (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Results revealed that self-efficacy was negatively related
to all three dimensions of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Brudnik (2009) carried out an investigation to determine to what degree general perception of self-efficacy protects general education teachers in Poland (educational stages II–IV) against professional burnout, and whether teachers of various subjects display any differences in this respect. The study was carried out between April and June 2005 on a sample of 404 teachers (310 women and 94 men). Self-efficacy was measured with the aid of the General Self-Efficacy Scale and burnout was assessed using the Polish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). It was found that a high level of perception of self-efficacy facilitates changes in the working environment and prevention of the burnout causes.

Kluemper, Little and DeGroot (2009) investigated the effects of state optimism on job-related outcomes. 261 students (130 women and 131 men) from a large university in southern United States and 205 newly hired treatment workers (88 females and 117 males) at a large residential centre in the Midwest participated in Study 1 and 2 respectively. State optimism was measured using the revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier et al., 1994) in Study 1 and the original Life Orientation Test (LOT; Scheier & Carver, 1985) was used in Study 2 for the same purpose. Burnout was measured with a six-item scale from (Erickson & Ritter, 2001) in Study 1 and with a nine-item emotional exhaustion sub-scale from Maslach & Jackson (1981) in Study 2. Results indicated that state optimism was negatively correlated with burnout (emotional exhaustion sub-scale) in both the studies, Study 1 and 2.

Lamb (2009) examined personality traits and resilience as predictors of job stress and burnout among call centre employees. A total of 187 employees in the call centre were involved in the study. Resilience was measured using the Resilience Scale (Wagnild & Young, 1993) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach et al., 1996). Results revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between resilience and burnout.

Salmela-Aro, Tolvanen, and Nurmi (2009) conducted a study to examine whether individual achievement strategies - task avoidance and optimism measured
during university studies would have an impact on work burnout and work engagement measured 10, 14, 17 years later. The participants were 292 (77 men, 215 women) undergraduates studying various subjects (Biology, Geography, Economics, English, Finnish, French, History, Psychology, and Sociology) at the University of Helsinki at the time of the first measurement. Achievement strategies were assessed using the Strategy and Attribution Questionnaire (SAQ) and burnout was measured using the revised Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). The results showed that the higher the initial level of, and increase in, optimism during university studies, the lower was work burnout in the early career.

Zoe (2009) examined the levels of general self-efficacy, work burnout and work engagement and the relationship between these variables. The sample comprised of 124 mental health care workers (77 females and 47 males) who were working with people with mental illness at all ranks in the psychiatric services in Hong Kong, such as nurses, health care workers, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, social workers, welfare workers, and personal care workers. The Chinese General Self-efficacy Scale was used to measure generalized self-efficacy and burnout was assessed using the version of Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) modified into Chinese by Ngai (1986). Self-efficacy was found to have significant negative relationships with total burnout and its three components viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment.

Betoret and Artiga (2010) examined the relationships among stressors, coping strategies, self-efficacy, and burnout in a sample of 724 Spanish primary and secondary teachers (453 women and 271 men). Self-efficacy was measured with a version of the scale designed by Schwarzer, Schmitz, and Daytner (1999) and burnout was assessed using the Spanish version of the original Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Self-efficacy was negatively correlated with the three components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Gustafsson, Hassmen, and Podlog (2010) explored the relationship between hope and burnout in competitive sport. 178 competitive athletes (63 females and
115 males) participated in the study. Hope was measured with the 6-item State Hope Scale (SHS; Snyder et al., 1996) and the Athlete Burnout Questionnaire was used to assess burnout (Raedeke & Smith, 2001). Hope had significant negative correlations with the three components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment.

Mostafa, Moumeni, and Shourideh (2010) studied the relationship between resilience and burnout among nurses. The sample of the study was 426 nurses from government section of Kermanshah. In this study Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and Conroe-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) were used. The results showed that there is a significant negative relationship between resilience and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Moreover, there is a significant positive relationship between resilience and personal accomplishment.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout. Participants were 2249 Norwegian teachers in elementary and middle school. Teacher self-efficacy was measured by a multidimensional 24-item Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (NTSES; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007) and two dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion and depersonalization) were measured using eight modified items from the Maslach Burnout Inventory - Educator’s Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Results revealed a significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Tzioti, Mantelou, Degleris, Solias, Karamberi, and Romanou (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and job burnout among elementary school teachers in Greece. The sample consisted of 100 elementary school teachers. Self-efficacy was measured using Shwarzer and Jerusalem’s questionnaire and burnout was assessed using Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Results revealed that self-efficacy was negatively correlated with burnout.

Brouwers, Tomic, and Boluijt (2011) examined the relationships between job demands, job control, social support, and perceived self-efficacy on one hand and teacher burnout on the other. The participants of the present study were 311 physical
education teachers (94 females and 217 males) employed in general secondary education in Netherlands. Self-efficacy beliefs related to teachers’ influence on job demands were measured using an instrument developed especially for this study, consisting of six items. The Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory for teachers (MBI-NL-Ed; Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995) was used to assess the physical education teachers’ level of burnout. Results indicated that self-efficacy had a significant negative relationship with two components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a significant positive relationship with one component of burnout i.e. personal accomplishment.

Cheung, Tang, and Tang (2011) examined the relationship between emotional labour and burnout as well as job satisfaction and if psychological capital moderated the emotional labour-burnout or job satisfaction associations. The sample comprised of 264 full-time Chinese school teachers in China. Results showed that psychological capital was related to emotional labour, burnout, and job satisfaction in the hypothesized direction. Furthermore, psychological capital moderated the association between emotional labour and the outcome variables. For instance, positive association between surface acting on depersonalization as well as negative association with job satisfaction was weaker when psychological capital was high. In addition, positive association between deep acting and job satisfaction was further reinforced among participants with high psychological capital but not among participants with low psychological capital. Finally, the relationships of psychological capital with depersonalization as well as job satisfaction were more salient among employees who reported infrequent use of expression of naturally felt emotion.

Garrosa, Moreno-Jiménez, Rodríguez-Muñoz, and Rodríguez-Carvajal (2011) examined the influence of role stress and personal resources (optimism, hardy personality, and emotional competence) in nursing on burnout and engagement dimensions. The sample comprised of a total of 508 nurses from four general hospitals in Madrid (Spain). The Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and the Nursing Burnout Scale (NBS; Garrosa et al., 2008; Moreno-Jime’nez et al., 2000a) were used to assess optimism and burnout. Optimism was found to have significant negative correlations with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment.
Herbert (2011) explored the relationship between psychological capital, occupational stress, burnout, and employee engagement. 209 permanent employees and support staff of a medium size construction company within the Western Cape, South Africa, participated in the research. The Copenhagen Burnout Inventory was used to assess burnout and psychological capital was measured using Psychological Capital Questionnaire – Self Rater Version (PCQ-24; Avey et al., 2010). Results indicated that as a respondents’ psychological capital (the total score as well as the separate constructs: hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience) increased, their experiences of personal, work and client burnout significantly decreased.

Yang (2011) conducted a study to investigate the relationship of self-efficacy, emotional labour, and burnout in nurses, and to identify predictors of burnout. The participants were 268 nurses. Data was collected from May 1 to May 31, 2010. Self-efficacy showed a negative correlation with burnout.

Aftab, Shah, and Mehmood (2012) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout. Data was collected from 80 physicians (40 females and 40 males) working in different hospitals in Taxila and Rawalpindi. Self-efficacy was measured using the 10-item Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE; Schwarzer, 1992) and the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) was utilized to measure burnout. Results revealed that self-efficacy had a significant negative relationship with total burnout and two components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, and a significant positive relationship with one component of burnout viz. personal accomplishment.

Gunduz (2012) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout. The participants of the study comprised of 194 school counsellors (78 females and 116 males) working in public elementary and secondary schools in Mersin, Turkey. The Turkish version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) developed by Ergin (1992) was used to measure burnout and self-efficacy was assessed using the School Counsellors Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSES; Yiyit, 2006). Self-efficacy was found to have negative relationships with two dimensions of burnout namely emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a strong positive relationship with personal accomplishment. The results of multiple regression analysis
showed that the dimensions of the School Counsellors Self-Efficacy Scale predicted depersonalization and personal accomplishment. On the other hand it did not predict emotional exhaustion.

Gupta, Sood, and Bakhshi (2012) assessed the relationship between resilience, personality traits, and burnout. The sample comprised of 70 police personnel from Police Headquarters, Jammu. The 14-item short form of Resilience Scale (Wagnild & Young, 1987) was used to measure resilience and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010) was used to measure burnout. Resilience was found to have a significant negative relationship with burnout.

Hansen (2012) explored the positive aspects of psychological capital and attempted to explain how psychological resources inherent in psychological capital can aid against the negative effects of burnout. A convenience sample of 103 educators (89 females and 14 males) was taken across four educational institutions in the Umlazi Region, KwaZulu-Natal. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti, 1999) were used to measure psychological capital and burnout respectively. Results revealed that psychological capital had a significant negative relationship with total burnout, exhaustion, and disengagement.

Kotze and Lamb (2012) examined the influence of personality traits and resilience on burnout. The sample comprised of 187 customer service representatives from a call centre in South Africa. The Resilience Scale by Wagnild & Young (1993) was used to measure resilience and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach et al., 1996) was used to measure burnout. Results showed that neither dimensions of resilience were significant predictors of exhaustion. Acceptance of self and life (a dimension of resilience) were found to be significant predictors of cynicism. Personal competence (a dimension of resilience) was found to be a significant predictor of professional efficacy.

Mashhady, Fallah, and Gaskaree (2012) examined the role of foreign language teachers’ self-efficacy in their burnout. The sample comprised of 112 English and Foreign Language teachers (56 females and 56 males) in Iran. Teachers’ self-efficacy was measured using Friedman and Kass’s (2002) Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and
teacher burnout was measured using Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator’s Survey (MBI-ES; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). The results revealed a significant negative correlation between self-efficacy and burnout.

Wang, Chang, Fu, and Wang (2012) explored the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout among Chinese female nurses and the mediating role of psychological capital in this relationship. A pool of 1,332 female nurses from six selected hospitals in Liaoning Province, China constituted the potential study sample. Psychological capital was measured using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). Results indicated that psychological capital had significant negative correlations with two components of burnout namely emotional exhaustion and cynicism, and a significant positive correlation with one component of burnout i.e. professional efficacy.

Wang, Liu, Wang, and Wang (2012) carried out a study to investigate the relationship between work-family conflict and burnout, and the mediating role of psychological capital. The sample comprised of 1011 doctors (564 females and 447 males) selected randomly from six large hospitals in Liaoning Province, China. Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) and the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) was utilized to measure psychological capital. Psychological capital was found to have negative correlations with two components of burnout i.e. emotional exhaustion and cynicism, and a significant positive correlation with one component of burnout viz. professional efficacy.

Yardley (2012) investigated psychological capital as a positive resource to assist with the organizational outcomes of work-family conflict. Participants in the study consisted of 108 working women in New Zealand. Psychological capital was measured with the 24-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the 16-item Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti et al., 2001) was used to measure burnout. Psychological capital was found to have a significant negative relationship with burnout.
Yavas, Babakus, and Karatepe (2012) carried out a study to examine whether hope as a personal resource moderates the relationship between job burnout and frontline bank employees’ in-role and extra-role performances. The sample comprised of 164 full-time frontline employees of several banks located throughout the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Hope was operationalized via eight items taken from Snyder et al. (1991) and burnout was assessed using the 8-item Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti et al., 2001). Results showed that hope can indeed serve as an antidote to the detrimental effects of burnout.

Banth and Mohil (2013) examined psychological capital (hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism) as a positive resource for combating burnout (exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy). The sample consisted of 85 male middle level bank managers from various branches and offices of State Bank of India and Bank of India in the tri-city of Chandigarh, Mohali, and Panchkula. Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and Maslach Burnout Inventory - General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) were used to measure psychological capital and burnout respectively. The results revealed that exhaustion was negatively correlated with all dimensions of psychological capital viz. hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism. Cynicism was also found to have significant negative relationships with hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism. Additionally professional efficacy had significant positive correlations with hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism.

Chang and Chan (2013) examined the role of optimism and proactive coping style in the prediction of burnout. The sample consisted of 314 nurses in Taiwan. Burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Service Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach & Jackson, 1996) and optimism was assessed using the Chinese Revised Life Orientation Test (CLOT-R; Lai et al., 1998). Results revealed a significant negative relationship between optimism and burnout.

Consiglio, Borgogni, Alessandri, and Schaufeli (2013) explored the burnout process beyond the individual level of analysis and integrated the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) with Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R), emphasizing the role of self-efficacy in shaping the meaning that people ascribe to situations. The sample comprised of 5406 call centre agents (3731 females and 1676 males) in Italy. A
9-item Work Self-Efficacy scale consistent with Bandura’s recommendations (Bandura, 2006) was developed to assess self-efficacy. Burnout was measured using its two core dimensions, exhaustion and cynicism (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005), as well as interpersonal strain (Borgogni et al., 2012). Exhaustion and Cynicism were assessed with the Italian Version (Borgogni, Galati, Petitta, & Centro Formazione Schweitzer, 2005) of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli et al., 1996) and interpersonal strain (Borgogni et al., 2012) was measured with six items of the Interpersonal Strain at Work scale. Results revealed that self-efficacy had significant negative relationships with exhaustion, cynicism, and interpersonal strain.

Gallavan and Newman (2013) investigated the relationship of optimism, work family conflict, and burnout. The sample comprised of 101 practicing correctional mental health providers (54 women, 45 men, and 1 unspecified) in the Departments of Corrections in Oklahoma, Arkansas, Alabama, Missouri, Wyoming, and Pennsylvania in the United States of America. The Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach et al., 1981) were used to measure optimism and burnout respectively. Regression analyses highlighted that optimism can be targeted to prevent or intervene in experiences of burnout.

Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013) investigated the internal validity (construct and discriminant validity), reliability and external validity (relationship with theoretically relevant variables, namely stress, burnout and work engagement) of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24). The sample consisted of 209 employees at managerial and non-managerial levels, from a medium-sized construction company in the Western Cape, South Africa. Psychological capital was measured with the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and work burnout was measured with the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI; Kristensen et al., 2005). Results revealed that individuals who report higher levels of psychological capital (total score), self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, and optimism also report experiencing less work-related burnout.

Lin (2013) examined the relationship between perceived organization support, psychological capital, and burnout. The participants of this study were 352 full-time
employees (215 females and 137 males) with more than three-month working experience in international tourist hotels. The research scope covered twenty Taiwan international tourist hotels which were chosen in accordance to their locations (Northern region, Central region, Southern region, and Eastern region). Psychological capital was assessed using a revised and modified version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) in accordance with Taiwanese cultural situation. The measurement scales of employees’ job burnout were based on scales developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). Employee’s psychological capital was found to have a negative effect on job burnout.

Peng et al. (2013) investigated the impact of psychological capital on job burnout. The participants comprised of 473 female nurses from four large general hospitals in Xi’an, China. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) were used to measure psychological capital and burnout respectively. Results indicated that psychological capital had a significant negative relationship with burnout.

Gillert (2014) explored the associations of psychological capital and burnout. Data was collected from 119 executive directors (100 females and 19 males) in Oklahoma, Alabama, and Maryland through a one-time online survey. Psychological capital was measured using the 12-item version of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Avey, Avolio, & Luthans, 2011) and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003) was used to assess exhaustion and disengagement, classic symptoms of burnout. Psychological capital showed a strong negative correlation with burnout.

Laschinger and Fida (2014) examined the influence of authentic leadership, an organizational resource, and psychological capital, an interpersonal resource, on new graduate burnout, occupational satisfaction, and workplace mental health over the first year of employment. Data from a two-wave survey of newly graduated nurses with less than two years of experience in acute care hospitals across Ontario was used (T1 in 2010, T2 in 2011). At T1, 342 participants returned the questionnaires. Follow up questionnaires at T2 were sent only to T1 respondents, with a total of 205 returning completed questionnaires. Psychological capital was measured using the
Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24; Luthans et al., 2007). Emotional exhaustion and cynicism subscales of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) were used to measure burnout. Results at both T1 and T2 revealed that exhaustion and cynicism had negative correlations with total psychological capital, self-efficacy, hope, resiliency, and optimism.

Mackonienė and Norvilė (2014) examined the prevalence of burnout, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, proactive coping, and further identified the correlates of burnout among Lithuanian school psychologists. The sample consisted of 115 school psychologists (113 females and 2 males) recruited from 19 cities and small towns in Lithuania. The General Self-Efficacy Scale (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992) and the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti et al., 2003) were used to measure self-efficacy and burnout respectively. The correlation analysis indicated that although self-efficacy was positively correlated with job satisfaction the correlation was not significant. Both the dimensions of burnout viz. disengagement and exhaustion were found to have significant negative correlations with self-efficacy.

2.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In recent times there has been an increased emphasis on emotional intelligence especially in organizational settings because it has been realized that human relations in organizations are influenced more by emotional factors than by rational factors (Hanzaee & Mirvaisi, 2013). Although there is extensive literature on emotional intelligence and work outcomes, less research has been carried out in the Indian Public Banking Sector in particular.

2.3.1 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION

The ensuing section describes the various investigations and their results related to emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Carmeli (2003) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, work attitudes, behaviour, and outcomes on senior managers employed as chief financial officers in the local government authorities in Israel. A direct-mail questionnaire was sent to 262 senior managers. Job satisfaction was estimated by a 6-item scale employed by Tsui et al., (1992) and emotional intelligence was measured
with the self-report measure of emotional intelligence developed by Schutte et al., (1998). The results of hierarchical regression revealed that emotional intelligence was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction.

Cobb (2004) carried out a study to assess emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in public school teachers. The sample for this study consisted of 101 school teachers who were currently teaching in a public school setting in Kentucky. Emotional intelligence was measured using Bar On’s Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I, 2000) and job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). Results revealed that although there was not a significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, yet there appeared to be a trend showing that total emotional intelligence was positively related to job satisfaction.

Farmer (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, and job satisfaction among nurses in early nursing practice. 235 participants (215 females and 20 males) were recruited from a listing of newly licensed nurses obtained from the Division of Occupational Licensing in Utah. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002) and job satisfaction was assessed using a 6-item global measure of job satisfaction. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was unrelated to job satisfaction.

Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006) conducted a study to find out if emotional intelligence is related to job performance, affect, and attitudes at work. The relationship was examined in 44 analysts and clerical employees from the finance department of a Fortune 400 insurance company. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT V2.0; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002) and job satisfaction was measured by a 5-item self report measure developed by Brayfield et al., (1951). Emotional intelligence was found to be unrelated to job satisfaction.

Sy, Tram, and O’Hara (2006) examined the relationships among employees’ emotional intelligence, their manager’s emotional intelligence, employees’ job satisfaction, and performance for 187 food service employees (114 women and 73
men) from nine different locations of the same restaurant franchise. The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Law et. al, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002) and three items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, & Cammann, 1982) were used to assess emotional intelligence and job satisfaction respectively. Correlational analysis indicated that emotional intelligence was positively associated with job satisfaction.

Adeyemo (2007) examined the mediating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The sample comprised of 230 participants (90 females and 140 males) randomly drawn from five parastatals in Oyo State, Nigeria. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the emotional intelligence questionnaire developed by Schutte et al. (1998) and job satisfaction was assessed using the job satisfaction scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). A significant positive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) carried out a study which aimed to determine whether, and the extent to which, emotional intelligence is associated with affect at work and job satisfaction. Participants were 523 teachers, working in primary and secondary education from various regions in Greece. The sample included 155 males and 368 females. Emotional intelligence was measured using the self report Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and for measuring job satisfaction the General Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) was adapted to Greek. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. However, three of the four emotional intelligence branches were significant predictors of job satisfaction (others’ appraisal of emotion; use of emotion, regulation of emotion).

Guleryuz, Guney, Aydin, and Asan (2008) investigated the mediating effect of job satisfaction between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. 267 female nurses, within the age range of 21 to 63, working at Hacettepe University Hospital in Turkey participated in the study. The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) was used to measure emotional intelligence. Job satisfaction was assessed using 14 items of Section 4 of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Results revealed significant
positive correlations between total emotional intelligence, two of its components viz. utilization of emotion and regulation of emotion, and job satisfaction. The correlations of the other two components (self emotion appraisal and others emotion appraisal) were not found to be significant.

Krishnakumar (2008) carried out a study to understand the role of emotional intelligence on individual attitudinal and performance outcomes. The participants were 278 members from nine police departments and healthcare system. Emotional Intelligence (EI) was measured using Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT V2.0). Job satisfaction was measured by using five items modified from Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) job satisfaction scale. However, the results revealed no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Alam (2009) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among the administrative staff in a higher education institution in Malaysia. Participants were 120 employees (46 females and 74 males) of University Malaysia Perlis. Results revealed significant positive correlations of job satisfaction with appraisal, regulation, and utilization. Appraisal emerged as one of the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

Thiruchelvi and Supriya (2009) carried out an investigation to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on the basis of the data collected from white collared employees working in the petroleum industry. The study revealed that there is a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Afolabi, Awosolo, and Omole (2010) examined the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on job performance and job satisfaction among Nigerian police officers. A total of 119 participants took part in the study. Emotional intelligence was measured using the 25-item scale developed by Afolabi (2004) and job satisfaction was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Adanijo (1987). Results revealed that those who are high on emotional intelligence are more satisfied with their job.
Ismail, Yao, Yeo, Lai-Kuan, and Soon-Yew (2010) conducted a study to measure the effect of occupational stress (i.e., physiological stress and psychological stress) and emotional intelligence on job satisfaction in private institutions of higher learning in Sarawak, Malaysia. The sample comprised of 80 academic employees (48 females and 32 males) of private institutions of higher learning. Emotional intelligence was measured using a 7-item scale based on emotional intelligence literature (Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2008; Stough, 2003) and job satisfaction was assessed using a 5-item scale based on job satisfaction literature (Dua, 1994; Fairbrother & Warn, 2003; Smith et al., 1969; Sullivan & Bhagat, 1992; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Terry et al., 1993). Results revealed a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction; however the correlation was not significant.

Ozer, Dede, and Yildirim (2010) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The research was carried out on 82 academic personnel of four foundation universities in Istanbul. Emotional intelligence was assessed by the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI, 2nd Version) developed by Boyatzis and Goleman. According to the results, a weak positive relationship was revealed between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. However, one of the four dimensions of emotional intelligence, “self management”, was found to be strongly related to job satisfaction.

Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) examined the impact of emotional intelligence and organizational politics among Public Sector employees. The sample comprised of 308 employees (240 females and 68 males) from a variety of departments (tax collection, human resources, engineering, city development and maintenance, welfare services, culture and sports), from different jobs and occupations (clerks, accountants, engineers, social workers, technical occupations), and from different hierarchical levels (low and mid-level managers) in the two municipalities located in the centre of Israel organizations. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and job satisfaction was assessed using a measure developed by Schriesheim and Tsui (1980). Emotional intelligence was found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.
Anari (2011) investigated the relationships between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. 84 high school English teachers (55 females and 29 males) at Kerman in Iran participated in the study. Emotional intelligence was measured with the self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) developed by Schutte et al. (1998) and job satisfaction was measured using the self-report Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1985). A significant positive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Chen, Chang, Cheng, and Ma (2011) carried out a study to investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on employees’ perceptions of work stress, and the subsequent effect on their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Participants of the study consisted of 179 journalists from the electronic and print media in Taiwan. The 16-item scale ($\alpha = 0.87$) developed by Wong and Law (2002) was used to assess an individual’s EI and the 20-item scale ($\alpha = 0.89$) from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss et al. (1967) was used to measure employee job satisfaction. Results revealed that emotional intelligence was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction.

El Khouly, Ghoniem, Ghadami, and Ibrahim (2011) conducted a study to measure the effect of emotional intelligence and gender on job satisfaction in three different governmental organizations in Egypt (Information and Decision Support Center (IDSC), Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (MCIT) and the National Bank of Egypt (NBE). A total of 48 participants took part in the research. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law (2002) Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) and job satisfaction was measured using the adapted version of Brayfied and Rothe’s (1951) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. Results revealed that emotional intelligence had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Kafetsios, Nezlek, and Vassiou (2011) examined the relationship firstly, between leaders’ emotional intelligence and subordinates’ emotion and work attitudes and secondly, between leaders’ and subordinates’ emotional intelligence and work outcomes. 33 school directors/supervisors (7 women and 26 men) and 179 teachers (120 females and 59 males) from schools in secondary and primary education in northern and central Greece participated in the study. The Greek version of the
General Index of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) and the self-report Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong & Law, 2002; in Greek, Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008) were used to assess job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. All four dimensions of emotional intelligence were found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Weng, Hung, Liu, Cheng, Yen, Chang, and Huang (2011) examined the associations between emotional intelligence, doctor burnout, job satisfaction, and patient satisfaction. This study was carried out on 110 internist and 2872 patients. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (2002) and job satisfaction was measured using three self-designed items rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Results revealed that all the four dimensions of emotional intelligence had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, and Fan-Wharton (2012) examined the role of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, well-being, and engagement in explaining organizational commitment and turnover intentions in policing. The sample comprised of 193 senior Australian police constables (61 females and 132 males). Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and job satisfaction was measured using the 4-item scale from Johlke and Durham (2000). Emotional intelligence was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Ealias and George (2012) conducted a study in India to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Data was collected from 208 employees of the firm from different locations in the country using self administered questionnaires. It was hypothesized that there would be no relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. However, results revealed a significant and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Jeloudar and Goodarzi (2012) carried out a study in Iran to examine the relationship between teachers’ emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Participants were 177 senior secondary school teachers. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Emotional Competencies Inventory (ECI) designed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (1999) and job satisfaction was measured using the Job Descriptive Index.
The results revealed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Lee and Ok (2012) investigated the direct and indirect effects of employees’ emotional intelligence on two different forms of emotional labour (i.e., emotional effort, emotional dissonance), burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment) job satisfaction. Data was collected from 309 customer-contact hotel employees and managers (178 females and 131 males) in the United States. The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann et al., 1979) were used to measure emotional intelligence and job satisfaction respectively. The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was found to be mediated by employees’ personal accomplishment. When employees use their emotional intelligence in satisfying customers, they may feel more competent and successful. The accumulation of such positive self-evaluation develops job satisfaction.

Mohammad and Setareh (2012) studied the effect of emotional quotient on job satisfaction. 129 employees (17 females and 112 males) of the Ishfahan University of medical sciences in Iran participated in the study. A 133-item questionnaire was used to assess emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was measured using a 13-item scale. Overall emotional intelligence and all the components of emotional intelligence viz. public mood, interpersonal relationships, intrapersonal relationships, control of emotions, and agreeableness were found to have significant positive correlations with job satisfaction.

Mousavi, Yarmohammadi, Nosrat, and Tarasi (2012) designed a study to investigate the relationship between total emotional intelligence, its five components, and job satisfaction among physical education teachers in Iran. There were 486 participants in this study of which 265 were females (117 elementary school teachers, 84 junior high school teachers, and 64 high school teachers) and 221 were males (81 elementary school teachers, 103 junior high school teachers, and 37 high school teachers). Siberia Schernig’s Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire was used to measure emotional intelligence and Wysocky and Kromm’s Job Description Index was used for measuring job satisfaction. Results revealed that three dimensions of
emotional intelligence (motivation, empathy, social skills) and overall emotional intelligence had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Salim, Nasir, Arip, and Mustafa (2012) conducted a study to ascertain the role of emotional intelligence in the job satisfaction of school teachers. A total of 1200 primary and secondary school teachers from 60 schools in Malaysia participated in the research. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the Emotional Competencies Inventory (ECI) designed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (1999) and job satisfaction was assessed using the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). Results revealed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Also, all the four dimensions of emotional intelligence predicted job satisfaction.

Emdady and Bagheri (2013) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of men and women employees in Iran. 56 people were chosen by random stratified sampling and the data was gathered using Siberia Schernig emotional intelligence questionnaire and Brayfield & Rothe job satisfaction questionnaire. Total emotional intelligence and all its components viz. self motivation, self control, intimacy, and social skills were found to have significant positive correlations with job satisfaction.

Gholami, Shams, and Amoozadeh (2013) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The sample comprised of 200 individuals in banks and financial institutions of Darrehshahr city, Iran. It was expected that there would be a meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Results revealed no meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Hanzae and Mirvaisi (2013) surveyed the impact of emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behaviours, and job satisfaction on employees’ performance. The sample consisted of 220 hotel employees (115 females and 105 males) in Iran. The survey mechanism was first prepared in English and then translated to Persian using a back-translation procedure. Emotional intelligence and two of its components namely self-awareness and self management had significant positive correlations with job satisfaction. However, the other two components of
emotional intelligence – social awareness and relationship management were found to have a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction.

Seyal and Afzaal (2013) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in Brunei Darussalam. The sample comprised of 90 lecturers, senior lecturers, and associate professors (32 females and 58 males) from the faculty of business and computing and faculty of engineering. Emotional intelligence was measured on a scale provided by Genos (www.genos.com.au) developed by Palmer and Stough, (2001) and based on Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and job satisfaction was measured on a three-item scale adapted from Hackman and Oldman’s (1975), measured on a five-point Likert scale. Results indicated significant positive relationships between three components of emotional intelligence namely, emotional self management, emotional management of others, and emotional self control.

Trivellas, Gerogiannis, and Svarna (2013) explored the workplace implications of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The sample comprised of 145 nurses from five private general hospitals in Greece. It was hypothesized that emotional intelligence would be positively related to job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong and Law, 2002) and job satisfaction was assessed using the Melia and Peiro’s questionnaire (Melia & Peiro, 1989). Results provided empirical support for the hypothesis that emotional intelligence exerted significant impact on job satisfaction. Among the four components of emotional intelligence, only self emotional appraisal and utilization of emotion confirmed direct association with one of the components of job satisfaction viz. personal development. As expected self emotion appraisal and utilization of emotion exerted positive impact on personal development component of job satisfaction.

Verma (2013) explored the effect of emotional intelligence on the job satisfaction of employees of Indian Public Sector Banks. 271 employees (54 women and 217 men) working in four Public Sector Banks in India participated in the study. The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal Scale by Bradberry and the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale by Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, and Zaltman were used to measure emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
respectively. Results revealed that emotional intelligence of these bank employees had a significantly positive impact on their job satisfaction. All the four competencies of emotional intelligence had positive correlation with employees’ job satisfaction. Self-awareness competencies were the moderate significant positive predictor of employees’ job satisfaction. Self-management construct of emotional intelligence had strong, significant and positive predictive relationship with job satisfaction and its impact on bank employees’ job satisfaction was maximum Social awareness competencies were positive and significant predictor of employees’ job satisfaction and their influence was moderate. Relationship management competencies of employees showed weak but significant predictive relationship with the job satisfaction of employees.

Papathanasiou and Siati (2014) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 124 male and female bank employees in Greece. The questionnaire for job satisfaction relied on a study that was conducted on bank employees for their professional satisfaction by Bhatt (2004) and the emotional intelligence questionnaire was based on the 33 elements of Schutte et al. (1998). Emotional intelligence was found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Yoke and Panatik (2016) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence on job outcomes as well as how demographic characteristics influence emotional intelligence in a sample of 384 school teachers (332 females and 52 males) in Peninsular Malaysia. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong and Law, 2002) and job satisfaction was assessed using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Short Form (MSQ; Weiss et al., 1967). Results of correlational analysis revealed that emotional intelligence had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

2.3.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BURNOUT

The present section describes the various investigations and their results related to emotional intelligence and burnout.

Farmer (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and burnout among nurses in early nursing practice. 235 participants (215
females and 20 males) were recruited from a listing of newly licensed nurses obtained from the Division of Occupational Licensing in Utah. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach et al., 1996). Depersonalization (a component of burnout) was found to have a significant negative relationship with a component of emotional intelligence i.e. use of emotion. However, personal accomplishment (another component of burnout) had significant positive correlations with two components of emotional intelligence viz. understanding emotions and managing emotions.

Chan (2006) investigated the relationships among four components of emotional intelligence (emotional appraisal, positive regulation, empathic sensitivity, and positive utilization) and three components of teacher burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment) in a sample of 167 Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the 12 items from the 33-item Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al., 1998) and the 9-item abbreviated version used in this study to measure burnout was derived from the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator’s Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). One hypothesized and five competing models were constructed and tested using structural equation modelling procedures. The hypothesized model provided an adequate and moderately good fit, suggesting that emotional exhaustion, influenced by emotional appraisal and positive regulation, was causally prior to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, but personal accomplishment could develop relatively independently from the burnout components through the influence of positive utilization of emotions.

Brand (2007) explored the relationship between burnout, occupational stress, and emotional intelligence in the nursing industry. The sample comprised of 220 registered, enrolled, and auxiliary nurses (109 females and 11 males) working in hospitals in Western Cape, South Africa. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUIET; Palmer & Stough, 2001) and burnout was assessed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Service Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Total emotional
intelligence and two dimensions of emotional intelligence – emotional management and emotional control, were found to be negatively related to two components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and positively related with one component of burnout i.e. personal accomplishment. Understanding external emotions and emotional recognition and expression (dimensions of emotional intelligence) were positively correlated with all components of burnout; while emotions direct control (a dimension of emotional intelligence) was negatively related to emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment but positively related to depersonalization.

Findlay (2007) conducted a study to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among Australian surgeons and surgical trainees. There were 126 participants in the study out of which 93 were males and 33 females. It was hypothesized that there exists an inverse relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and burnout was measured using the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI). The results revealed that there exists a significant inverse relationship between total emotional intelligence levels and all forms of burnout.

Chakrabarty and Sayeed (2008) carried out an investigation to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout stress syndrome. The sample comprised of 700 medical staff including doctors and nurses from both private and public sector hospitals in Kolkata. Emotional intelligence was measured using the General Emotional Intelligence Scale (Mehrabian, 2001) and burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Results revealed that there exists a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Additionally there also exists a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and personal accomplishment.

Dette (2008) conducted a study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout of police constable officers of the South African Police Services in the Western Cape. A simple random sample of 108 police constables participated in the study. Emotional intelligence was measured using The Emotional
Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and burnout was measured using the Burnout Measure (BM). Negative relationships were found between emotional intelligence dimensions: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills and police officers’ total burnout levels. The results indicated that the more self-aware, self-regulated, motivated, empathetic, and socially inclined police officers were, the less likely police officers were to experience burnout.

Furnell (2008) explored the relationship between burnout, emotional labour, and emotional intelligence. The sample comprised of 195 call centre representatives (91 females and 104 males) in two branches of a leading South African telecommunication company’s call centres located in Western Cape. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) developed by Palmer and Stough (2001) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996) was used to assess burnout. Emotional exhaustion was found to have significant negative relationships with two components of emotional intelligence viz. emotional management and emotional control. Depersonalization had a significant positive relationship with one component of emotional intelligence viz. emotions direct cognition, and significant negative correlations with two components of emotional intelligence namely emotional management and emotional control. Results revealed significant positive correlations between personal accomplishment and emotional intelligence-total score, and four components of emotional intelligence viz. emotional regulation and expression, understanding emotions, emotional management, and emotional control.

Wu, Yu, and Song (2008) examined the impact of emotional intelligence on burnout. Based on the data analyses of the sample comprising of 197 students selected from P-MBA students and members of EDP, the main effects of subordinates’ emotional intelligence, supervisors’ emotional intelligence on the job burnout were found out. Emotional intelligence of subordinates had a significant negative impact on their job burnout including the three dimensions (exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy). Emotional intelligence of supervisors had a significant negative impact on subordinates’ cynicism, and supervisors’ emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between subordinates’ emotional intelligence and job burnout.
Huang, Chan, Lam, and Nan (2010) examined the joint effect of leader member exchange and emotional intelligence on burnout and work performance. Results based on data collected from 493 leader-member dyads in the call centre of a large Chinese telecommunication company indicated that burnout mediated the link between use of emotion and work performance. Results also showed that leader member exchange was associated with burnout and work performance more strongly for service workers with lower levels of self-emotion appraisal. More surprisingly, the link between leader member exchange and work performance was stronger for service workers with higher levels of use of emotion.

Lee (2010) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional labour and its effect on job burnout in Korean organizations. 398 employees (87 women and 311 men) from various electronic, financial, heavy industry, retail, manufacturing and engineering, resort, and security companies participated in the study. Emotional intelligence was assessed using Moon’s (1999) Emotional Intelligence Test and burnout was measured using the Korean version of Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1981) validated by You, Lee, and Lee (1998). Correlational analyses revealed that emotional intelligence was negatively correlated with two components of burnout viz. emotional exhaustion and depersonalization; and positively correlated with the third component i.e. personal accomplishment.

Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) examined the impact of emotional intelligence and organizational politics among Public Sector employees. The sample comprised of 308 employees (240 females and 68 males) from a variety of departments (tax collection, human resources, engineering, city development and maintenance, welfare services, culture and sports), from different jobs and occupations (clerks, accountants, engineers, social workers, technical occupations), and from different hierarchical levels in the two municipalities located in the centre of Israel organizations (low and mid-level managers). Emotional intelligence was assessed using the Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and burnout was measured by a six-item scale taken from the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Emotional intelligence was found to have a significant negative relationship with burnout.
Kafetsios, Nezlek, and Vassiou (2011) examined the relationship firstly, between leaders’ emotional intelligence and subordinates’ emotion and work attitudes and secondly, between leaders’ and subordinates’ emotional intelligence and work outcomes. 33 school directors/supervisors (26 men, 7 women) and 179 teachers (i.e., subordinates; 59 males 120 females) from schools in secondary and primary education in northern and central Greece participated in the study. The Greek version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Greek version, Anagnostopoulos & Papadatou, 1992) and the self-report Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong & Law, 2002; in Greek, Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008) were used to assess burnout and emotional intelligence. Results indicated that while one component of burnout (personal accomplishment) had a significant positive correlation with self emotion appraisal (a dimension of emotional intelligence); another component of burnout (emotional exhaustion) had significant negative correlations with two dimensions of emotional intelligence – others’ emotion appraisal and utilization of emotion. The third component of burnout (depersonalization) did not have any significant correlations with any of the dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Sachin (2011) assessed the emotional intelligence and burnout among female teachers of private schools. A sample of 150 female teachers from different English medium schools of Hisar, Haryana were taken. The Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1986) were used to measure emotional intelligence and burnout respectively. Results indicated that there existed significant negative relationships between emotional intelligence and two components of burnout namely exhaustion and cynicism. Emotional intelligence however had a significant positive correlation with the third component of burnout i.e. professional efficacy.

Singh and Kanupriya (2011) carried out a study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among middle level executives. The sample comprised of 125 middle level managers belonging to different private organizations. The Multidimensional Measures of Emotional Intelligence and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach et al., 1996) were used to measure emotional intelligence and burnout respectively. Exhaustion was
found to have significant negative correlations with four components of emotional intelligence viz. managing emotions, motivating oneself, self awareness, and handling relation. Cynicism had significant negative correlations with two dimensions of emotional intelligence namely managing emotions and motivating oneself; and significant positive correlation with one dimension of emotional intelligence i.e. empathy. Additionally results that professional efficacy had significant positive correlations with four dimensions of emotional intelligence viz. managing emotions, motivating oneself, self awareness, and handling relation.

Moon and Hur (2011) examined how emotional intelligence affects emotional exhaustion (a component of burnout) resulting from emotional labour, and how emotional exhaustion influences an individual’s job performance in terms of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The sample comprised of 295 retail sales employees in South Korea. Of the 4 factors identified in the emotional intelligence model developed by Schutte et al. (1998), three (appraisals of emotions, optimism, and social skills) were found to be negatively associated with emotional exhaustion but the fourth factor of utilization of emotion showed no significant links with emotional exhaustion.

Vaezi and Fallah (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among 104 Iranian EFL teachers (52 females and 52 males). To evaluate EI researchers employed Bar-On EI Test (Bar-On, 1997) and burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator’s Survey (MBI-ES) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The results indicated that there exists a significant negative correlation between all 15 components of emotional intelligence and burnout.

Delpasand, Nasiripoor, Raiisi, and Sahabi (2011) carried out a study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational burnout among nurses in critical care units in Iran. Participants were 150 nurses of social security hospitals in Tehran. Emotional intelligence was measured using Shrink’s Emotional Intelligence questionnaire and burnout was measured using Maslach Burnout Inventory. Results revealed that there exists a significant negative correlation between all dimensions of emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion and a significant
positive relationship between all dimensions of emotional intelligence and personal accomplishment. There also existed a significant negative correlation between total emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion and a significant positive relationship between total emotional intelligence and personal accomplishment.

Akomolafe and Popoola (2011) conducted a study to examine the interactive and relative effect of emotional intelligence and locus of control on burnout among secondary school teachers in Nigeria. The sample consisted of 300 teachers (156 females and 144 males) randomly selected from 10 secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. Emotional intelligence was measured using Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire developed by Schutte et al., (1998), locus of control was measured by Locus of Control Scale developed by Craig, Franklin, and Andrew (1984) and burnout was measured using the Teacher Burnout Scale developed by Richmond, Wrench, and Gorham (2001). Results revealed a significant negative relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout.

Weng, Hung, Liu, Cheng, Yen, Chang, and Huang (2011) conducted a study to examine the associations between emotional intelligence and doctor burnout, job satisfaction, and patient satisfaction in Taiwan. This study was carried out on 110 internists and 2872 patients. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (2002) and burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). Results indicated that there existed a significant negative correlation between all dimensions of emotional intelligence (i.e. self emotion appraisal, others’ emotion appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion) and all dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment).

Ahmadzadeh and Alavinia (2012) carried out a study which sought to explore the association between emotional intelligence and burnout in a sample of 75 high school EFL teachers (38 females and 37 males) in West Azerbaijan. Emotional intelligence was measured using Bar-On’s Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I, 1997) and burnout was measured using Maslach’s Burnout Inventory-Educators’s Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). Results indicated that there existed a significant negative correlation between emotional intelligence and burnout.
Gorgens-Ekermans and Brand (2012) investigated the inter-relationships between work stress, burnout and if emotional intelligence was a moderator in the stress-burnout relationship in a group of nurses. The sample comprised of 122 nurses (109 females and 13 males) across various levels in the nursing profession in private hospitals in the Western Cape Province, South Africa. The Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence test (SUEIT; Palmer & Stough 2001) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Human Service Survey (MBI-HSS; Maslach et al., 1996) were used to measure emotional intelligence and burnout. Results indicated that there existed significant negative correlations between emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (components of burnout) and overall emotional intelligence, two dimensions of emotional intelligence viz. emotional management and emotional control. Personal accomplishment (a component of burnout) was found to have significant positive correlations with overall emotional intelligence and two dimensions of emotional intelligence namely emotional management and emotional control.

Khanifar, Maleki, Nazari, and Emami (2012) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout. There were 84 participants in the study, who were official personnel of Ghom public universities. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Mayer Salovey Emotional Intelligence Test and burnout was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. The results revealed a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout. Also, there existed a positive relationship between self control dimension of emotional intelligence and emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout.

Lee and Ok (2012) investigated the direct and indirect effects of employees’ emotional intelligence on two different forms of emotional labour (i.e., emotional effort; emotional dissonance), burnout (emotional exhaustion; depersonalization; personal accomplishment) job satisfaction. Data was collected from 309 customer-contact hotel employees and managers (178 females and 131 males) in the United States. The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Wong & Law, 2002) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986) were used to assess emotional intelligence and burnout. Results of structural equation
modelling showed that emotional intelligence had a direct, positive effect on personal accomplishment and a direct, negative effect on depersonalization.

Baik and Yom (2012) examined the effects of social support and emotional intelligence on the relationship between emotional labour and burnout among clinical nurses. The sample consisted of 382 nurses from four hospitals located in Seoul or Gyunggi Province. It was found that emotional intelligence had a negative effect on burnout.

Aftab and Qadeer (2013) investigated the relationship of emotional intelligence and burnout in a sample of 100 managers (37 females and 63 males) working in various organizations in Karachi, Pakistan. Emotional intelligence was measured using the 33-item Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009) and burnout was assessed using the Burnout Questionnaire. Perception of emotions and managing one’s own emotions emerged as significant predictors of burnout.

Kwon & Kim (2015) studied the effects of emotional labour and emotional intelligence on burnout in a sample of 200 nurses. The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (2002) adapted by Lim (1998) and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (1981) was adapted by Choi and Jeong (2003) to measure emotional intelligence and burnout. Results revealed that emotional intelligence had a significant negative correlation with burnout.