Review of Literature
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, a brief review of the earlier studies on the variables chosen for the study namely, Trait Emotional Intelligence (EI), Burnout, Hardiness, and Commitment has been analyzed and presented. Further, the efficacy of an intervention in organizations has also been presented.

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCY

Gerits (2005) reports on a two-year longitudinal study on the Emotional Intelligence profiles of nurses caring for clients with highly frequent and extremely severe behaviour problems. The aim was to identify EI cluster types for those nurses reporting the fewest symptoms of burnout, the least absenteeism due to illness, and the least job turnover. The Dutch version of baron on EQ-i was used to measure nurse’s level’s of EI. The fewest symptoms of burn out were reported by female nurses with relatively high EI profiles and relatively low social skills. Males with higher problem-solving and stress tolerance skills also showed less burnout. No specific cluster types with a significant relation to absenteeism due to illness or job turnover could be identified.

Arvind and Ajay (2004) investigated the relationship of the factor-analytically derived dimensions of Emotional Intelligence (EI) with some of the Organizationally relevant outcome variables were examined based on the data obtained from 250 middle-level male executives of two-wheeler automobile manufacturing organizations. Results based on multiple regression Analysis suggests that the dimensions of EI were meaningfully related with the job satisfaction. Personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, Reputational effectiveness, general health, trust, turnover intension, organizational effectiveness, and organizational productivity. The results showed that EI may have significant impact on the organizationally relevant outcome variables.

Mousumi Bhattacharya, Ashok, Manas (2004) attempts to examine the factor structure of the construct of emotional intelligence in India. From a pool of 130 items drawn from varies scales developed in western countries, 49 items were selected that
were subjected to principle component factor analysis followed by varimax rotation. Analysis yielded five factors: appraisal of negative emotions, appraisal of positive emotions, Interpersonal conflicts and difficulties, findings suggested that the construct of emotional interpersonal skills and flexibility, and goal-on warding intelligence involve appraisal and experience of emotion for self and inter-personal situations in valence terms (positive-negative) in India.

James (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievements. During the 1st month of classes 372 first year full time students at a small Ontario University completed the short form of Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I: short). At the end of the academic year the Emotional Quotient-Inventory data was matched with the student’s academic record. Predicting academic success from emotional intelligence variables produced divergent results depending on how the forms variable was operationalized. When Emotional Quotient Inventory variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly stressful students who achieved a first year university GPA of 80% or better versus relatively unsuccessful students who received a first year GPA of 59% or less) academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Results are discussed in the context of the importance and social competency during the transition from high school to university.

Kavitha and Velayuthan (2004) examined the relationship between financial Independence and Emotional Intelligence in Women. The study was done on a total of 120 women out of which were 60 were working women who were financially independent and 60 non-working women who were financially dependent. Their emotional intelligence was measured by using Emotional Competency Inventory by Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatis (2001) which is made up of eighteen dimensions. t – test and MANOVA were used to assess the data collected. Results depict that working women and Non-Working Women are quite similar when Emotional Intelligence is measured as a whole.

Fireman (2004) examined critically the recent growth of emotion measurement in organizational behaviour. The epistemological and phenomenological consequences of psychometrically ‘boxing’ emotion were, it was argued, problematic and restrictive.
This might be seen in the power and professional prestige it affords to the measure and in the consequences to those classified by measurement. This was particularly so when an emotion is presented as key to personal or organizational success. Emotional intelligence was a strong illustration of these issues, where ‘experts’ ascribed positive value to people with high emotional intelligence quotients (EQ), and low EQs are regarded as suitable cases for training.

Within business the organizational concept of call centers has developed rapidly. Within the UK the use and development of these centers has grown at a significant rate over the last decade. The economic benefits of this organizational concept have been threatened by the nature of the work and operating environment leading to high level of attrition with associated recruitment, training and loss of productivity costs. As a result much effort had been focused on recruitment criteria and selection processes. In reviewing the criteria it was clear that many overlap with elements from within the concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI). Higgs (2004) reported a study designed to explore the relationship between the EI of call center agents and ratings of their performance. Samples of 289 agents from three organizations were studied. Results included a strong relationship between overall EI and individual performances as well as between several EI elements from the model and performance. Further, a relationship between age and performance was established along with a number of gender differences.

Although the role of organizational characteristics in the change-process has been extensively analyzed and discussed in the literatures on Emotional Intelligence, individual characteristics, which were equally crucial for the success of change, had been neglected. The study by Vakola et al., (2004) added a different way of looking and working with organizational change by focusing on individuals’ emotions and personality traits. The study explored how emotional intelligence and the ‘big five’ dimensions of personality could facilitate organizational change at an individual level by exploring the relationship between these attributes and attitudes towards organizational change. The sample consisted of 137 professionals who completed self-report inventories assessing emotional intelligence, personality traits and attitudes towards organizational change. The results confirmed that there was a relationship between personality traits and
employees’ attitudes toward change. Similarly, the contribution of emotional intelligence to the attitudes to change was found to be significant, indicating the added value of using an emotional intelligence measure above and beyond the effect of personality.

A study on Emotional Intelligence (Harvard Business Review, 2004) presented information on the biological aspect of emotional intelligence and the emotional intelligence of executives. Scientific inquiry strongly suggested that there was a genetic component to emotional intelligence. Psychological and developmental research indicated that environment plays a role as well. How much of each perhaps will never be known, but research and practice clearly demonstrated that emotional intelligence can be learned. According to the study, Emotional Intelligence is born largely in the neurotransmitters of the brain’s limbic system learns best through motivation, extended practice and feedback. To enhance emotional intelligence, organizations must refocus their training to include the limbic system. They must help people break old behavioral habits and establish new ones. That not only took much more time than conventional training programs, but it also required an individualized approach too.

Denham (2003) examined pre-schoolers (N=143) patterns of emotional expressiveness, emotional regulation and emotional knowledge were assessed. This contribution to social competence, as evidenced by sociometric likeability and teacher ratings were evaluated via latest variable modeling, both concurrently and across time. Moderation of key results by age and sex were explored. Emotional competence assessed at 3 to 4 years of age contributed to both concurrent and kinder garden social competence. Even early in the preschool period, contributions of emotional competence to social competence have long – term implications.

Literature suggested that managerial skill in general, and emotional intelligence in particular, played a significant role in the success of senior managers in the workplace. This argument, despite its popularity, remained elusive. This could be attributed to the fact that although a few studies had provided evidence to support this argument, it had not received an appropriate empirical investigation. Carmeli (2003) attempted to narrow this gap by empirically examining the extent to which senior managers with a high emotional intelligence employed in public sector organizations developed positive work
attitudes, behaviour and outcomes. The results indicated that emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behaviour and work outcomes, and moderated the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment but not the effect on job satisfaction.

Mc Cann et al. (2003) provided a review and conceptual comparison between self-report and performance-based measures of emotional intelligence. Analysis of reliability, psychometric properties, and various forms of validity led to the conclusion that self-report techniques measured a dispositional construct, that may have some predictive validity, but which is highly correlated with personality and independent of intelligence. Although seemingly more valid, performance-based measures had certain limitations, especially when scored with reference to consensual norms, which led to problems of skew and restriction of range. Scaling procedures might partially ameliorate these scoring weaknesses. Alternative approaches to scoring, such as expert judgment, also suffered problems since the nature of the expertise was unclear. The authors felt that the use of experimental paradigms for studying individual differences in information processing might, however, inform expertise. Other difficulties for performance-based measures included limited predictive and operational validity, restricting practical utility in organizational settings. Further research appeared necessary before test of EI were suitable for making real-life decisions about individuals.

Emotional intelligence reflects the ability to read and understand others in social contexts, to detect the nuances of emotional reactions, and to utilize such knowledge to influence others through emotional regulation and control. As such, it represents a critically important competency for effective leadership and team performance in organizations today. Prati et al., (2003) developed a conceptual model that brought together theory and research on emotional intelligence, leadership, and team process and outcomes. Additionally, the study formulated testable propositions, proposed directions for future research, and discussed implications for practice.

Pau and Croucher (2003) investigated the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and perceived stress (PS) in dental undergraduates. All dental undergraduates attending a UK dental school were invited to complete a questionnaire on
age, gender, year of study, Emotional Stress and perceived stress. 230 students participated. Factor analysis was used to test the factors such as optimum, mood regulation, utilization of emotions, appraisal of emotions and social skills. T - Test indicated that females had significantly higher Emotional Intelligence than Males. Correlation analysis showed an inverse relationship between emotional stress and perceived stress.

Karen (2002) examines the relationship of self and other ratings of emotional intelligence with the academic intelligence and personality, as well as the incremental validity of emotional intelligence beyond academic intelligence and personality in predicting academic and social success. A sample of 116 students was registered to measure for emotional and academic intelligence, the Big five indicators of social and academic success. Academic intelligence was low and inconsistency related to emotional intelligence revealing both negative and positive interrelations. Strong relationships were found of the emotional intelligence dimensions with the Big five, particularly extra version and emotional stability. Interestingly, the emotional intelligence dimensions were able to predict both academic and social success above the traditional indicators of academic intelligence and personality.

Nikalaou and Tsaousis (2002) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and sources of occupational stress and outcomes on a sample of professionals in mental health institutions. A total of 212 participants were administered the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire as well as the Organizational Stress Screening Tool (ASSET), which measured workplace stress. The results showed a negative correlation between emotional Intelligence and stress at work, indicating that high scores in overall EI suffered less stress related to occupational environment. A positive correlation was also found between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, which according to the ASSET model was considered as a consequence of stress, suggesting a new role for EI as a determinant of employee loyalty to organizations.

Feyerherm and Rice (2002) investigated the relationship among a team’s emotional intelligence, the team leader’s emotional intelligence, and team performance. Twenty-six customer service teams and their leaders were studied using the three
components of Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) conception of emotional intelligence: Understanding emotion, managing emotion, and identifying emotions. Team members and two corporate directors assessed team performance using customer service, accuracy, productivity, and continuous improvement as performance indicators. Of the three components of Emotional Intelligence (EI) studied, only understanding emotion and managing emotion positively correlated with some measures of team performance. However, no correlations occurred between identifying emotions and any performance measure. Of the six positive correlations between team EI and team performance, three were between EI and customer service. No EI components correlated with productivity or continuous improvement performance measures. Study results also indicated that team leader’s EI had a neutral to negative relationship with team performance from the team members’ perspectives. The data showed, overall that a negative relationship exists between leader EI and team performance as rated by individuals. The only positive correlation was between team leader understanding emotion scores and customer service, as rated by managers. This result was consistent with the findings stated previously that team EI positively correlates with customer service.

Rapisarda (2002) argued that the degree of emotional competence demonstrated by members of a team will determine whether member interaction builds cohesiveness and high performance. The study examined the relationship between the average score of team members in thirteen Emotional Intelligence (EI) competencies, and ratings of team cohesiveness and performance in 18 teams in an Executive MBA program. Results showed EI competencies of influence, empathy, and achievement orientation were positively related to student and faculty ratings of team performance, and achievement orientation was positively related to student ratings of team performance.

Ashkanasy et al. (2002) provided review of recent developments in two areas of research in contemporary organizational behaviour: diversity and emotions. In the section ‘Diversity’, the study traced the history of diversity research, explored the definitions and paradigms used in treatments of diversity, and signal new areas of interest. It concluded that organizational behaviour in the 21st century was evolving to a more eclectic and holistic view of humans at work. On ‘Emotions’, the study focused on recent developments in the study of emotions in organizations. Four major topics had been
identified as a result of the study: mood theory, emotional labor, Affective Events Theory (AET), and emotional intelligence, and argued that developments in the four domains had significant implications for organizational research, and the progression of the study of organizational behaviour. As with the study of diversity, the topic of emotions in the workplace is shaping up as one of the principal areas of development in management thought and practice for the next decade. The study concluded by discussing how these two areas were being conceptually integrated, and the implications for management scholarship and research in the contemporary World.

Emotional intelligence is an increasingly popular consulting tool. According to popular opinion and work-place testimonials, emotional intelligence increases performance and productivity; however, there has been a general lack of independent, systematic analysis substantiating that claim. Lam and Kirby (2002) investigated whether emotional intelligence would account for increases in individual cognitive-based performance over and above the level attributable to traditional general intelligence. The authors measured emotional intelligence with the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso 1997). As measured by the MEIS, overall emotional intelligence was a composite of the 3 distinct emotional reasoning abilities: perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions (Mayer and Salovey 1997). Although further psychometric analysis of the MEIS was warranted, the authors found that overall emotional intelligence, emotional perception, and emotional regulation uniquely explained individual cognitive-based performance over and beyond the level attributable to general intelligence.

In a series of seven studies, Schutte et al. (2001) examined the link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. In studies one and two, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations. In study three and four, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence displayed more cooperative responses toward partners. In study five, the participants with higher scores for emotional intelligence had higher scores for close and affectionate relationships. In study six, the participants’ scores for marital satisfaction were higher when they rated their marital
partners higher for emotional intelligence. In study seven, the participants anticipated greater satisfaction in relationships with partners described as having emotional intelligence.

New research uncovers what emotional intelligence at the group level looks like and how to achieve it. Emotional intelligence has been viewed only as an individual competency, when the reality is that most work in organizations is done by teams. Study after study has shown that teams are more creative and productive when they can achieve high level of participation, cooperation, and collaboration among members. If managers have one pressing need today, it is to find ways to make teams work better. Druskat (2001) studied the Emotional Intelligence of groups, and states that there are three conditions that are essential to a groups’ effectiveness i.e., trust among members, a sense of group efficacy and a sense of group identity. Perhaps more than anything, a team could be influenced by a broader organizational culture that recognized and celebrated employee emotion. Group emotional intelligence was about bringing emotions deliberately to the surface and understanding how they affect the team’s work.

Humpel and Martin (2001) examined the relationships between Emotional Competency, Trait Affectivity, Stress and Experienced Emotions among 43 mental health nurses in Australian regional hospitals. A significant relationship found between emotional competency and personal self-doubt in male nurses only, however no association with Experienced Emotions but no stress. Gender differences were found in Trait Affectivity and Experienced Emotions. The results of the study have implications for the extension of mental health nurses in their profession.

Morand (2001) in a study of 41 MBA students concluded that there was strong correlation between the ability of students to correctly identify facial expressions and their emotional intelligence. Moss (2001) found, in a study of a group of health care executives, that emotional intelligence could be linked to leadership style. Livshin (2001) determined that those who attributed more meaning to their work also had higher EI scores, but could not find a relationship between conflict styles and emotional intelligence.
Jacger (2001) samples 150 public administration students who completed an emotional intelligence component as part of a core management class. Although findings revealed positive relationships between initial and ending levels of emotional intelligence and academic performance, improvement in emotional intelligence was not a predictor of student academic success.

Gerald and Zeidner (2000) in their studies found that Emotional Intelligence is related to an individual’s ability to transfer competencies for handling stress to novel situations. Fund, (2000) in his studies indicated that Emotional Intelligence has to do with an ability to deal with environmental demands, to influence stressful events, and to actively do something to improve the immediate situations.

Emotions having long been considered to be of such depth and power that in Latin, for example, they were described as Moutus Anima. Meaning literally “the spirit that moves us” The statement of Plato that “All learning has an emotional base” is significant in realizing the important part, emotions play in life and its achievement. Claude (2000), in his article “What’s Love Got to Do with it?” ‘Opening the heart of Emotional intelligence’ states “We already knew, but had failed to acknowledge – that the emotions matter and emotional competency is as important as intelligence to help do well-had become a culture – wide “paradigm shift” reading people to confront the long neglected emotional realm”. But still there is no agreement on the nature of emotions and the function they play in life and circumstance. A careful review of opinion expressed by difficult reports studying emotions is necessary at this point. This would help us in defining Emotions

Dupreez (2000) of the Potchefstroom University South Africa states “Emotions originate from exposure to specific situations. The nature and the intensity of the emotions are usually related to cognitive activity in the form of the perception of the situation”.

Bagshaw (2000) stated that when people in the workplace do not act with emotional intelligence the costs could be great. Low morale, bitter conflict, and stress all limited business effectiveness. There was also the financial cost of litigation when people complained of being bullied, intimidated, and exploited. Emotional intelligence also
contributed in a positive business enhancing way, improving team-working, customer service and the managing of diversity. Fortunately this critical personal resource could be improved through appropriate coaching and training.

Yost and Tucker (2000) in a study of 73 students of finance and business, who were divided into groups for a specific project, determined that emotionally intelligent teams were more effective because they had higher problem-solving abilities, better performance and better grades. Their results suggested that emotionally intelligent individuals, who work well with others and cultivate the group’s collective Emotional Intelligence, would be the most valued and sought-after employees.

Emotional intelligence has as much to do with knowing when and how to express emotion as it does with controlling it. For instance, consider an experiment that was done at Yale University by Barsade and Gibson (2000). He had a group of volunteers play the role of managers who come together in a group to allocate bonuses to their subordinates. A trained actor was planted among them. The actor always spoke first. In some groups the actor projected cheerful enthusiasm, in other relaxed warmth, in other depressed sluggishness, and in still others hostile irritability. The results indicated that the actor was able to infect the group with his emotion, and good feelings led to improved cooperation, fairness, and overall group performance. In fact, objective measures indicated that the cheerful groups were better able to distribute the money fairly and in a way that helped the organization.

Megerian (1999) conducted a study to observe whether self-awareness of managers would have moderate relationships between aspects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behavior and managers were included in the study and results revealed that correction between emotional intelligence aspects, leader behavior and performance varied as functions of self awareness of managers.

Socick and Megerian (1999) applied tests of emotional intelligence to 63 managers, gathering information from the managers themselves as well as their subordinates and superiors. The results suggested that “transformational” Leaders who were in agreement with their subordinates regarding their leadership abilities’ might have been perceived in a positive light by both their superiors and subordinates.
Creating an atmosphere of openness with clear lines of communication is a key factor in organizational success. People who exhibit the Communication competence are effective in the give – and – take of emotional information, deal with difficult issues straightforwardly, listen well and welcome sharing information fully, and foster open communication and stay receptive to bad news as well as good. This competence builds on both managing one’s own emotions and empathy; a healthy dialogue depends on being attuned to others’ emotional states and controlling the impulse to respond in ways that might sour the emotional climate. Data on managers and executives showed that the better people could execute these competencies effectively (Goleman, 1998).

The collaboration and Teamwork competence has taken on increased importance in the last decade with the trend towards team-based work in many organizations. Teamwork itself depends on the collective EI of its members; the most productive teams are those that exhibit EI competencies at the team level. And collaboration is particularly crucial to the success of managers. A deficit in the ability to work cooperatively with peers was, in one survey, the most common reason managers were fired (Sweeney, 1999). Team members tended to share moods, both good and bad with better moods improving performance (Totterdell, Kellett, Teuchmann, and Briner 1998). The positive mood of a team leader at work promoted both worker effectiveness and retention (George and Bettenhausen, 1990). It was also observed that positive emotions and harmony on a top-management team predicted its effectiveness (Barsade and Gibson, 1998).

The Trustworthiness competence translated into letting others known one’s values and principles, intensions and feelings, and acting in ways that were consistent with them. Trustworthy individuals were forthright about their own mistakes and confronted others about their lapses. A deficit in this ability operated as a career detail (Goleman, 1998).

Asher and Rose (1997) in their studies indicated that the consequences of emotional competencies include the effective skill in managing one’s emotions, which is critical to being able to negotiate one’s way through interpersonal exchanges. Baron (1997) in his studies regarding Emotional Intelligence indicate that Emotional Intelligence include competencies that help in stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control and general mood like happiness and optimism). Stress management and adaptability are
two major components of Emotional Intelligence. In other words, adaptive coping might be conceptualized as emotional intelligence in action, supporting mastery of emotions, emotional growth, and both cognitive and emotional differentiation, allowing us to evolve in an ever changing environment. Carnevale, Gainer and Meltzer (1988) in their studies regarding Social Intelligence found that Social Intelligence (Emotional Intelligence) is associated with social qualities like group and interpersonal effectiveness and team work. Studies conducted by Baron (1997) on Emotional Quotient indicate that Emotional Intelligence includes both intrapersonal skills (emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, independence) and interpersonal skills (interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy).

The Empathy Competence of the Social Awareness Cluster gave people an astute awareness of other’s emotions, concerns and needs. The empathic individual could read emotional current, picking up on nonverbal cues such as tone of voice or facial expression. Empathy required Self-Awareness; an understanding of others’ feelings and concerns flowed from the awareness of one’s own feelings. This sensitivity to others was critical for superior job performance whenever the focus was on interactions with people. For instance, physicians who were better at recognizing emotions among patients were more successful than their less sensitive colleagues at treating them (Friedman and DiMatteo, 1982). The ability to read others’ needs would come naturally to the best managers of product development teams (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). And skill in Empathy correlated with effective sales, as was found in a study among large and small retailers (Pilling and Eroglu, 1994). In an increasingly diverse workforce, the Empathy Competence allowed individuals to read people accurately and avoid restoring to the stereotyping that could lead to performance deficits by creating anxiety in the stereotyped individuals (Steele, 1997).

Dupertuis (1996) suggests that poor stress managements tactics such as surrendering to feelings of hopelessness and helplessness rather than facing problems happens when the stress tolerance component of Emotional Intelligence is not functioning adequately.
Individuals with Initiative competence act before being forced to do so by external events. This often means taking anticipatory action to avoid problems before they happen or taking advantage of opportunities before they are visible to anyone else. Individuals who lack initiative were reactive rather than proactive, lacking the farsightedness that could make the critical difference between a wise decision and a poor one. Initiative was the key to outstanding performance in Industries that relied on sales, such as real estate, and to the development of personal relationships with clients, as was critical in such business as financial services or consulting (Crant, 1995; Rosier, 1996).

Goleman (1995) found that emotional Intelligence is linked with the abilities essential for overt behavior in social contexts including impulse control, persistence, zeal and self motivation, empathy and social deftness.

McClelland’s (1961) landmark work The Achieving Society established Achievement orientations as the competence that drove the success of entrepreneurs. In its most general sense, this competence, which was called Achievement Drive, referred to an optimistic striving to continually improve performance. Studies that compare star performers in executive ranks to average ones found that stars displayed classic achievement – oriented behaviors – they took more calculated risks, they supported enterprising innovations and set challenging goals for their employees, and so forth. Spencer and Spencer (1993) found that the need to achieve was the competence that most strongly set apart superior and average executives. Optimism was a key ingredient of achievement because it could determine one’s reaction to unfavorable events or circumstances; those with high achievement were proactive and persistent, had an optimistic attitude toward setbacks, and operated from hope of success. Studies have shown that optimism could contribute significantly to sales gains, among other accomplishments (Schulman, 1995).

Seligman (1995) developed a construct called “learned optimism”. It refers to the casual attributions people make when confronted with failure or setbacks. Optimists tended to make specific, temporary, external casual attributions while pessimists made global, permanent, internal attributions. In a research at Met Life, Seligman and his colleagues found that new salesman who were optimists sold 37 percent more insurance in
their first two years than did pessimists. When the company hired a special group of individuals who scored high on optimism but failed the normal screening, they outsold the pessimists by 21 percent in their first year and 57 percent in the second. They even outsold the average agent by 27 percent.

In another study of learned optimism, Seligman (1995) tested 500 members of the freshman class at the University of Pennsylvania. He found that their scores on a test of optimism were a better predictor of actual grades during the freshman year than SAT scores or high school grades. The ability to manage feelings and handle stress was another aspect of emotional intelligence that was found to be important for success. A study of store managers in a retail chain found that the ability to handle stress predicted net profits, sales per square foot, sales per employees, and per dollar of inventory investment.

Social Awareness also plays a key role in the Service Competence, the ability to identify a client’s or customer’s often unstated needs and concerns and then match them to products or services; this empathic strategy distinguishes star sales performers from average ones (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). It also means taking a long-term perspective, sometimes trading off immediate gains in order to preserve customer relationships. A study of an office supply and equipment vendor indicated that the customer’s viewpoint and showing appropriate assertiveness in order to steer the customer toward a choice that satisfied both the customer’s and the Vendor’s needs (McBane, 1995).

Lazarus (1993) in his transactional model suggests a possible conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence as the psychological basis for adaptive coping. Salvoes et al (1996) found that effective coping with stress is central to Emotional Intelligence. More emotionally intelligent individuals cope more successfully, because they “accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know how and when to express their feelings, and can effectively regulate their mood states”.

The Relationship Management set competencies included essential Social Skills. Developing others involved sensing people’s development needs and bolstering their abilities – a talent not just of excellent coaches and mentors, but also of outstanding leaders. Competence in developing others was found to be a hallmark of superior
managers, among sales manages, for example, it typified those at the top of the field (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Although this ability was crucial for those managing frontline work, it has also emerged as a vital skill for effective leadership at high levels (Goleman, 2000). The most effective people sense others’ reactions and fine – tune their own responses to move interaction in the best direction. This emotional competence emerged over and over again as a hallmark of star performers, particularly among supervisors, managers and executives (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Star performers with this competence were seen to draw on a wider range of persuasion strategies than other do, including impression management, dramatic arguments or actions, and appeals to reason. At the same time, the influence competence required them to be genuine and put collective goals before their self – interests; otherwise what would manifest as effective persuasion would become manipulation.

A talent of those skilled in the Conflict Management Competence is spotting trouble as it is brewing and taking steps to calm those involved. The arts of listening and empathizing are crucial to the skills of handling difficult people and situations with diplomacy, encouraging debate and open discussion, and orchestrating win-win situations. Effective Conflict Management and negotiation are important to long-term, symbiotic business relationships, such as those between manufacturers and retailers. In a survey on retail buyers in department store chains, effectiveness at win-win negotiating was an accurate barometer of the health of the manufacturer-retailer relationship (Ganesan, 1993).

The signs of the Conscientiousness Competence included being careful, self-disciplined, and scrupulous in attending to responsibilities. Conscientiousness distinguished the model organizational citizens, the people who kept things running as they should. In studies of job performance, outstanding effectiveness in virtually all jobs – from the bottom to the top of the corporate ladder – depended on Conscientiousness (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Among sales representative for a large U.S. appliance manufacturer, those who were most conscientious had the largest volume of sales (Barrick, Mount and Strauss, 1993).
The acceleration of transitions as the world enter the new century has made the Change Catalyst competence highly valued – leaders must be able to recognize the need for change, remove barriers, challenge the status quo, and enlist others in pursuit of new organizational goals. A leader’s competence at catalyzing change brought greater efforts and better performance from subordinates, making their work more effective (House, 1988).

If there is any single competence our present time calls for, it is Adaptability. Superior performers in management ranks exhibited this competence (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). They were open to new information and could let go of old assumptions so that they could adapt as to how they operated. Emotional resilience allowed an individual to remain comfortable with the anxiety that often accomplished uncertainty and to think “out of the box”, displaying on-the-job creativity and applying new ideas to achieve results. Conversely, people who were uncomfortable with risk and change became non-sayers who could undermine innovative ideas or be slow to respond to a shift in the market place. Business with less formal and more ambiguous, autonomous, and flexible roles for employees, open flow of information, and multidisciplinary team oriented structures experienced greater innovation (Amabile, 1988).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in their research regarding social intelligence found that social intelligence (Emotional Intelligence) as a set of competencies contribute to adaptive processing in demanding, potentially stress situations.

Organizational Awareness, the ability to read currents of emotions and political realities in groups, is a competence vital to the behind – the – scenes networking and coalition building that allows individuals to wield influence, no matter what their professional role. Insight into group social hierarchies requires Social Awareness on an organizational level, not just an interpersonal one. Outstanding performers in most organizations shared this ability; among managers and executives generally, this emotional competence distinguished star performers. Their ability to read situation objectively, without the distorting lens of their own biases and assumptions, allowed them to respond effectively (Boyatzis, 1982).
Heading the list in the Self-Management Cluster of Emotional Competence is the Emotional Self – Control Competence, which manifests largely as the absence of distress and disruptive feelings. Signs of this competence included being unfazed in stressful situations or dealing with a hostile person without lashing out in return. Among small business owners and employees, those with a stronger sense of control over themselves, but also those who controlled the events in their lives were less likely to become angry or depressed when faced with job stress, or quit (Rahim and Psenicka, 1996). Among counselors and Psychotherapists, superior performers tended to respond calmly to angry attacks by a patient, as do outstanding flight attendants dealing with disgruntled passengers (Boyatzis and Burrs, 1995; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). And among managers and executives, top performers were able to balance their drive and ambition with Emotional Self – Control, harnessing their personal needs in the service of the organization’s goals (Boyatzis, 1982). Those Store Managers who were best able to manage their own stress and stay unaffected has the most profitable sales, by such measures as sales per square foot, in a national retail chain (Lusch and Serkenci, 1992).

Empathy is a particularly important aspect of emotional intelligence, and researchers have known for years that it contributes to occupational success. Rosenthal (1978) and his colleagues at Harvard discovered over two decades ago that people who were best at identifying others’ emotions were more successful in their work as well as in their social lives. More recently, a survey of retail sales buyers found that apparel sales representatives were valued primarily for their empathy. The buyers reported that they wanted representatives who could listen well and really understand what they wanted and what their concerns were.

**Trait EI**

The concept of Emotional Intelligence has been researched for several years now. However, the measurement of EI was based on either self-report or items that can be responded to correctly or incorrectly. Moreover, it was observed that different measurement approaches would almost certainly produce different results, and measurements of EI did not converge (Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Pluta, 2005; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004). Hence two different EI constructs can be differentiated on the basis
of the method of measurement used to operationalize them (self-report, as in personality questionnaires, or maximum performance, as in IQ tests) (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001). Trait EI (or trait emotional self-efficacy) concerns emotion related self perceptions measured via self report, whilst ability EI (or cognitive emotional ability) concerns emotion related cognitive abilities that ought to be measured via maximum performance tests.

Trait emotional intelligence (trait EI or trait emotional self-efficacy) is defined as a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Trait EI concerns people’s perceptions of their own emotional abilities. Trait EI theory provides an operationalization that recognizes the inherent subjectivity of emotional experience. The construct provides a comprehensive operationalisation of the affect-related aspects of personality and lies wholly outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability (Carroll, 1993).

Several research works have shown that trait EI is related to affective decision making. For example Sevdalis, Petrides, & Harvey (2007), examined the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and decision-related affect using two studies. In Study 1, a positive relationship was obtained between trait EI and the deterioration of mood after the recall of a poor real-life decision. In Study 2, negative relationship was obtained between trait EI and negative emotions experienced a few days after a failed negotiation. In addition, trait EI was positively associated with affective overprediction.

In another study on the relationship between trait EI and emotion regulation by Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne, & Quoidbach (2008), found that using a controlled experimental design, whether it is possible to increase EI. Participants of the experimental group received a brief empirically-derived EI training (four group training sessions of two hours and a half) while control participants continued to live normally. Results showed a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion management abilities in the training group. Follow-up measures after 6 months revealed that these changes were persistent. The authors suggest that EI can be improved and open new treatment avenues.
In another study on the role of Trait EI on peer-ratings of behaviour (Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006), in a sample of 1140 pupils aged 11–13 years found that Trait EI showed strong concurrent and predictive validity in relation to measures of socioemotional competence.

Smith, Heaven, & Ciarrochi, (2008) examined the stability and change of trait emotional intelligence (EI), conflict communication patterns and relationship satisfaction in cohabiting heterosexual couples over a 12-month period. The results showed that for individuals, the effect of self-rated EI on their own satisfaction was stable over the 12-month period and was not related to changes in satisfaction over time. The researches state that trait EI has the potential for improving communication patterns in promoting relationship satisfaction.

Trait EI was also examined in the context of the understanding of the role of dispositional factors in the aetiology of self-harm among adolescents. Austin (2004, 2009) hypothesized that higher trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) would be associated with a lower likelihood to harm oneself, and that this relationship would be mediated by the choice of coping strategies. In a study on 490 adolescents recruited from eight British schools, the results showed that the relationship between trait EI and self-harm was partly mediated by the choice of coping strategies. Emotional coping was a particularly powerful mediator, suggesting that self-harm may be a way to decrease the negative emotions that are exacerbated by maladaptive emotional coping strategies, such as rumination, self-blame, and helplessness. Trait EI was correlated positively with adaptive coping styles and negatively with maladaptive coping styles, and depression. Thus the author concludes by emphasizing the potential value of incorporating coping coaching programmes in the treatment of self-harm patients.

Malterer, Glass, & Newman, (2008) found significant correlations between non-cognitive factors, in particular trait emotional intelligence (EI), as a possible explanation for their lack of success by exploring the association between psychopathy and EI.

A growing number of studies have shown mediational and incremental trait EI effects over various relevant variables on exam related stress (Austin, Saklofske, & Mastoras, 2010); problem behaviour in adolescents (Downey, Johnston, Hansen, Birney,
& Stough, 2010); Gardner & Qualter (2010) found in a sample of 307 student participants that the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire was the superior predictor of multiple psychological criteria and the incremental validity extended beyond age, gender and the Big Five personality traits.

Kluemper (2008) examined the construct validity of trait EI in middle and late childhood by exploring its relationships with cognitive ability, emotion perception, and social behaviour. The sample comprised of 140 children aged between 8 and 12 years from primary school. The results showed that Trait EI Scores were positively related both to peer–rated prosocial behaviour and to overall peer competence. They also predicted perception accuracy beyond overall peer competence. This showed that trait EI is important even during developing years.

Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy and Roy (2007) examined the incremental validity of trait EI to predict mood changes over and above social desirability, alexithymia, resilience and the five-factor model of personality was also examined. Multiple regressions, performed on the three samples showed that a) trait EI significantly moderated impact of the experimental stressor on subsequent mood deterioration, b) the effect held after controlling for social desirability and c) trait EI had incremental validity to predict mood deterioration over and above the other predictor.

In another study by Vernon, Villani, Schermer, Kirilovic, Martin, Petrides, Spector, and Cherkas (2009) investigated the genetic and environmental components of correlations between humour styles and trait emotional intelligence. In two independent adult-twin samples, significant phenotypic correlations were found between four humour styles (affiliative, self-enhancing, aggressive, and self-defeating) and five trait emotional intelligence (EI) variables (well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability, and global trait EI).

Several research studies have been linking the empirical connection between personality and trait EI (Vernon, Villani, Schermer, & Petrides, 2008). The study has made a behavioural genetic investigation of the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (trait EI or trait emotional self-efficacy) and the Dark Triad traits of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. In line with trait EI theory, the construct
correlated positively with narcissism, but negatively with the other two traits. Generally, the correlations were found consistent across the 4 factors and 15 facets of the construct.

Petrides, Vernon, Schermer, Ligthart, Boomsma, and Veselka, (2010) investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (trait EI; TEIQue-SF) and the Big Five personality dimensions (NEO-FFI) in two Dutch, North America and Britain samples. The results showed that Neuroticism was the strongest correlate of trait EI in both samples, followed by Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness. Regression analysis confirmed that the overlap between trait EI and the higher-order personality dimensions.

In a preliminary study, Pérez and Castejo´n (2005) applied the Schutte Assessing Emotions Scale to a sample of university students and found that those in educational degrees scored higher in global trait EI than those in technical studies. Trait EI research has expanded significantly during the last few years. Recent data from children, adolescent, and adult samples show that trait EI scores predict teacher and peer ratings of prosocial and antisocial behaviour. The study aimed at investigating how trait emotional intelligence (EI) dimensions intertwine to predict components of happiness. For example Platsidou, (2010) in a sample of 280 high school and university students found that specific EI dimensions predict happiness in a distinctive mode. First, each of the components of happiness was directly predicted by at least one EI dimension: Vigor and personal efficacy was predicted by Appraisal of emotions; Positive affect, enjoyment and fun and also Life satisfaction were predicted by both Optimism/mood regulation, and Social ability; Social interest was predicted by Social ability. Second, the happiness components were also indirectly predicted by the lower-level EI dimensions via the higher-level EI dimensions they affect. These findings suggest that focusing on developing the basic EI dimensions may be the key to designing effective training programs that will result in enhancing happiness.

In another study Mavroveli et al. (2007) investigated the relationship between trait EI and four distinct socioemotional criteria on a sample of 282 (136 girls, 146 boys) Dutch adolescents. The results showed that trait EI was positively associated with adaptive coping styles and negatively associated with depressive thoughts and frequency
of somatic complaints. It was also negatively associated with maladaptive coping styles, in boys only. Adolescents with high trait EI scores received more nominations from their classmates for being co-operative and girls gave significantly more nominations to classmates with high trait EI scores for having leadership qualities.

Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham (2004) examined the role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and in deviant behaviour at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education. The results showed that Trait EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and academic performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EI scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school.

Several studies on Trait EI have also been done in organizational settings. In organizational as in other domains, the relevance of trait EI in general and, more specifically, of the particular profile that will be conducive to superior performance will vary as a function of the context, and will therefore ideally require customized task analysis (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004).

More recent studies have found that high trait EI is associated with lower levels of stress and higher levels of perceived job control, job satisfaction, and job commitment. Petrides & Furnham (2006) investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence and 4 job-related variables (perceived job control, job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment). The results showed that perceived job control had a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on satisfaction. Stress had a negative effect on satisfaction, which, in turn, had the strongest positive effect on commitment. There were many gender differences in the model, mainly concerning age, which was negatively related to control and commitment in the female sample only. Trait EI had specific, rather than widespread, effects in the model.

Other researchers have suggested that high trait EI may be conducive to entrepreneurial behaviour (Zampetakis, Beldekos & Moustakis, 2009). The research using a sample of 224 employees from four organisations showed the influence of personal traits (represented by trait EI or emotional self-efficacy) and contextual factors
(represented by Perceived Organisational Support – POS) on entrepreneurial behaviour. Results indicate that both personal and contextual variables correlate with individual entrepreneurial behaviour.

Johnson, Batey, & Holdsworth (2009) examined the mediators between personality traits and health especially the roles of Trait Emotional Intelligence (Trait EI) and Work Locus of Control (WLC) as mediators of the paths between the Big Five personality traits and General Health in a sample of 328 university students (160 male). Structural Equation Modelling and mediation analyses, that Trait EI and WLC mediated the paths between personality and health. Direct effects on health were observed for Trait EI, WLC, Emotional Stability and to a lesser extent Openness to Experience.

Schutte and Loi (2014) in a more recent study found among 319 working adults recruited from the United States and Australia showed that higher trait emotional intelligence was significantly related to better mental health, more work engagement, more satisfaction with social support in the workplace, and more perceived power in the workplace. The study as a result of the Mediation path models indicated that more satisfaction with social support in the workplace and more perceived power in the workplace linked greater emotional intelligence to indicators of flourishing.

**Burnout**

Researches in Burnout have been exhaustive focussing on various dimensions. However, it can be classified in terms of researches on individual factors, organizational, burnout in particular occupations, and individual-environment factors.

Several research studies have focussed on the various aspects that surround Burnout. Studies are conducted to investigate the various dimensions of burnout phenomenon such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover and intention to leave (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; Singh et al., 1994; Brewer & Shapard, 2004; Akhavan Anvari et al., 2011; Gholipour et al., 2011, Moore, 2000; Rake & Yadama, 1996; Koeske & Koeske, 1993). Most of the studies report that job burnout is correlated with job negative reactions particularly to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and to intention to leave positively (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).
The researchers also point out that the impacts of burnout on variables such as the intention to leave, job satisfaction and organizational commitment differ in terms of jobs. For example, Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) show that burnout among teachers and pupils impact on their satisfaction and pupils may have burnout experiences as same as their teachers. Many other researchers indicate that those employees who suffer burnout are located in lower levels of job satisfaction which cause reduction in their motivation and performance (Rocca & Konstanski, 2001; Bettina, 2006).

**Burnout and Demographics**

Researches that relate demographics with burnout have found mixed results for the relationship between an individual’s age, gender, and marital status. For example, according to Maslach et al. (2001) employees who are young have greater burnout than those employees who are in their 30s or 40s. However, contrary evidence were found by Brewer & Shapard (2004) that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization among young teachers than experienced.

While some studies show that gender is not a strong predictor for job burnout, Maslach et al. (2001) found that job burnout is greater among female than males. While Russell et al. (1987) found that married employees' job burnout is reported higher than single ones, Maslach et al. 2001 found that singles especially men are more exposed to burnout than married individuals and single individuals have more burnout than divorcees. In terms of education, Maslach et al. (2001) indicate that people with higher educational levels suffer more job burnout probably because of heavier responsibilities or because of their higher expectations. Brewer & Shapard (2004) suggests that an understanding of the personal variables’ role in burnout might help HR professionals to devise more objective preventive plans.

Most of the research work on burn out has been studied among health care personnel such as medical technicians, (Blau, Tatum, and Ward-Cook, 2003); radiation therapists, (French, 2005); social workers, (Gellis, 2002); occupational therapists (Painter, Akroyd, Elliot, 2003); physicians (Carr, Gareis, and Barnett, 2003; Firth-Cozens, Greenhalgh, 1997. Johnson, Hall, & Ford, et al. (1995); Marshall, Zahorodny, & Passannante, (1998); McManus, Winder, & Gordon (2002)); and collections of health
care staff across disciplines (deJonge, Mulder, & Nijhuis, 1999); Erickson, Hamilton, & Jones, (2003); Park, Wilson, Lee (2004); Rowe (1997) and Weinberg and Creed, 2000). However, fewer studies have been reported on other professionals such as engineers, lawyers or employees working in teams.

Several researches have examined the role of personality as a variable in the burnout. For example, Allen, Mellor (2002) and Buhler, (2003) report that while neuroticism is associated with exhaustion, (neurotic individuals are emotionally unstable and prone to psychological distress), external locus of control is positively correlated with burnout (Buhler, 2003) and stress (French, 2005). However, Rowe (1997) DePew, Gordon, Yoder, et al. (1999); Simoni, & Paterson, (1997), report that the relationship between burnout and hardiness has been mixed. Another variable which is anxiety especially, trait anxiety, the more stable component which may be regarded as a personality characteristic, that has close relationship with burnout has been anxiety which has a link with stress (Decker (1997); Smith, Ortiguera, Laskowski, et al. (2001)). However, the association between interpersonal relationships and burnout and stress has not been well studied. The present work which has been studied in a managerial unit comprising of several teams would be able to highlight how burnout manifests in interpersonal relationship in organizations with teams.

The research works by French (2005); Rowe (1997); Allen, Mellor (2002); Decker (1997); DePew, Gordon, Yoder, et al. (1999); Simoni, & Paterson, (1997); Smith, Ortiguera, Laskowski, et al. (2001) and Buhler (2003) show that perceptions of job stress and burnout are not just a product of work conditions because not all workers, exposed to the same conditions, develop burnout or perceive stress. However, the specific features of personality that affect the perception of stress or burnout remain unclear. This has largely remained unanswered. The present investigation in terms of Trait EI with factors that have specific features on the personality of the individual could be an answer to the same. The intervention designed would help to improve trait EI dimensions and thereby hypothesized that it would reduce burnout.

The consequences of burnout have also been explored in several research works. In terms of organization related factors that cause burnout, research works points out that
Job resources which are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job can also be sources of burnout. For example Cordes and Dougherty (1993) suggest that burnout may cause commitment mitigation, increase in absenteeism and turnover, productivity decrease, morale reduction, and decrease in human consideration. Maslach et al. (2001) explains burnout accompanies not only with job withdrawal, absenteeism, intention to leave and turnover, it can also cause mental dysfunctions which lead into anxiety, depression and self-esteem decrease.

Some of the job resources that have been identified as factors that increase burnout: (a) job control (Taris, Schreurs, & van Iersel-van Silfhout, 2001), (b) access to information (Leithwood, Menzies, Jantzi, & Leithwood, 1999), (c) supervisory support (Coladarci, 1992), (4) innovative climate (Rosenholtz, 1989), and (5) social climate (Friedman, 1991).

Burisch 2002; Kalliath, & Morris, 2002 report that low job satisfaction is a correlate of burnout syndrome. Low job satisfaction can lead to increased job mobility and more frequent absenteeism and reduce the efficiency (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). In the previous research (Shirom, Nirel, & Vinokur, 2006), the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout syndrome was viewed from two perspectives – the perspective of causes and the perspective of consequences and their effect on attitudes, mental and physical health, productivity, absence from work, fluctuation, and other different forms of work behaviour. In order to mitigate stress, studies have shown that social support in terms of co-worker support and empowerment especially “organizational support” exhibited the expected negative relationship with work exhaustion (Shirom, Nirel, & Vinokur, 2006). Similarly, social support from supervisors or colleagues demonstrated a negative association with work stress. (Johnson, Hall, Ford, et al. 1995; Muncer, Taylor, Green 2001; Joiner, Bartram, 2004). Similarly, work empowerment showed a strong, negative association with job tension and a strong positive relationship with perceived work effectiveness. (Laschinger, Havens 1997; Laschinger, Wong, McMahon, et al. 1999). Similarly, in other reports, structural empowerment in the workplace (e.g., opportunity, information, support, resources, power) contributed to improved psychological empowerment (e.g., meaning, confidence, autonomy, and impact). According to Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, et al. (2001) psychological empowerment, in turn, had a
strong positive effect on job satisfaction and a strong negative influence on job strain. Likewise, as perceptions of empowerment increased, less emotional exhaustion and depersonalization along with a greater sense of personal accomplishment—the three components of burnout has been reported (Hatcher, Laschinger 1996; Joiner, & Bartram, 2004). It may be inferred that most of the studies have reported organizational/ work environment factors as main correlates of Burnout. The key factors are workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, (2001) state that when the early signs of burnout are to identify for preventive interventions. Moreover, a longitudinal paradigm, with a reasonably long time interval, would help to assess the robustness of the longitudinal predictors. Especially, the researchers observe that exhaustion and cynicism are the two primary measures of burnout such that during a period of peak demand, employees may become seriously exhausted, but their cynicism remains low because they can address the demands through effective coping. Alternatively, if there are issues of unfair treatment or disrespect in the workplace, employees may become cynical, but this situation would not necessarily deplete their energy and lead to exhaustion (Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, (2001).

According to Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) research works on the application of burnout research have relatively little systematic research. Most burnout interventions focus primarily on individual-centered solutions, such as developing effective coping skills or learning deep relaxation. Other burnout reduction interventions have been educational interventions that enhance the capacity of individuals to cope with the workplace. The results have shown that people can indeed learn new ways of coping. The authors also state that the research findings on the effect of interventions on burnout have been mixed. Thus the present research work has tried to test the efficacy of an intervention on Burnout.

**Burnout and Nurses**

Siying Wu et al. (2008) studied the Relationship between burnout and occupational stress among nurses in China. The sample consisted of 495 nurses from three provincial hospitals in China. The Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) was used to measure burnout, and the Occupational Stress Inventory –
Revised edition was used to measure two dimensions of occupational adjustment. Scores for burnout of surgical and medical nurses were statistically significantly higher than those of other nurses. Lower educational status was associated with lower professional efficacy, and younger nurses reported higher levels of burnout. The most significant predictors of emotional exhaustion were role overload, responsibility, role insufficiency and self-care. The most significant predictors of cynicism were role insufficiency, role boundary, responsibility and self-care. The most significant predictors of professional efficacy were role insufficiency, social support and rational/cognitive coping.

Schmitz et al. (2000) studied the Stress, burnout and locus of control in German nurses. Convenience samples of 361 staff nurses from nine units in five German hospitals were surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory, the Locus of Control Questionnaire and a Work-Related Stress Inventory. Results support the hypothesized model and suggest that greater work-related stress and burnout would be associated with poorer locus of control in nurses. The findings supported the notion that perceived degree of control is instrumental in enabling nurses to cope with stress and burnout.

Hare et al. (1988) studied the Predictors of burnout in professional and paraprofessional nurses working in hospitals and nursing homes. This study examined interpersonal, intrapersonal and situational factors expected to contribute to the six dimensions of burnout among nursing staff who worked in acute care and long-term care health facilities. The sample included 312 professional and paraprofessional nurses. Findings revealed that work relationships and tension-releasing and instrumental problem-focused coping were the most powerful predictors of burnout. Based upon this, it was concluded that nursing burnout is both an organizational and a personal problem.

Poncet et al. (2007) studied the Burnout Syndrome in Critical Care Nursing Staff. The main aim was to study the identify determinants of BOS in critical care nurses. Of the 2,392 Severe BOS-related symptoms were identified in 790 respondents. By multivariate analysis, four domains were associated with severe BOS: (1) personal characteristics, such as age (2) organizational factors, such as ability to choose days off and factors such
as conflicts with patients, relationship with head nurse or physicians and (4) end-of-life related factors, such as caring for a dying patient. One-third of ICU nursing staff had severe BOS.

Koivula et al. (2001) studied Burnout among nursing staff in two Finnish hospitals. The aim of the study was to describe burnout and factors affecting it in nursing staff. A questionnaire measuring burnout was answered by 723 nurses. Half of the staff had scores which indicated they were frustrated or burnt out. Personal resource variables having an influence on staff burnout were age, vocational education and years of practice. Burnout increases with age, and staff with short work experience in nursing practice experience lower levels of burnout. Staff with a secondary level education working on psychiatric wards experience especially high levels of burnout. Continuous professional education is related to lower levels of burnout if it lasts for more than 10 days over a period of 2 years.

Piko (2006) studied the Burnout, role conflict, job satisfaction and psychosocial health among Hungarian health care staff. Questionnaire contained items on work and health-related information (i.e., burnout, job satisfaction, role conflict, and psychosomatic symptoms) and on some basic socio-demographics. Beyond descriptive statistics, Findings show that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores were higher, while scores on personal accomplishment was lower as compared to Canadian, Norwegian or US samples. Burnout, particularly emotional exhaustion was found to be strongly related to job dissatisfaction. Schooling was inversely related to satisfaction with the. While job satisfaction was a negative predictor of each type of burnout subscale, role conflict was a factor contributing positively to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores.

Greenglass et al. (2001) studied the Workload and burnout in nurses. This paper examines the relationship between workload, burnout and somatization in nurses. The respondents consisted of 1363 nurses employed in hospitals, which were undergoing extensive restructuring. Results of structural equation analyses showed that workload was positively related to emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion led to cynicism and somatization, and cynicism was negatively related to nurses' professional efficacy.
Bartz & Maloney (2007) studied Burnout among intensive care nurses. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between intensive-care nurse burnout and demographic variables. The Maslach Burnout Inventory measured six components of burnout: emotional exhaustion frequency and intensity, depersonalization frequency and intensity, and personal accomplishment frequency and intensity. The sample was drawn from an army medical center. The variables, nursing, age, sex, military status, level of education, and length of time in nursing correlated with more than one aspect of burnout. Older age, less than a baccalaureate degree, female, and civilian status described the intensive care nurse who was less prone to burnout.

Hayter (2000) studied the Burnout and AIDS care-related factors in HIV community Clinical Nurse Specialists in the North of England. A two-stage, mixed method study was carried out. In Stage one 30 Clinical Nurse Specialists in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)/AIDS from the North of England completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and the AIDS Impact Scale. For Stage two five practitioners were selected randomly for semi-structured interview. Burnout morbidity was significant. Sixty-six per cent of informants scored as moderate or high burnout cases on the emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment subscales of the MBI. Only three per cent scored as cases on the depersonalization subscale. Links between the close involvement of practitioners with clients, death of clients, isolation, stigma and discrimination and the availability of support and supervision were identified as significant factors in AIDS care within this population that contributed to stress and burnout.

Parker & Kulik (1995) Burnout, self- and supervisor-rated job performance, and absenteeism among nurses. Burnout is related to absenteeism and job performance in a sample of 73 registered nurses. It examined the extent to which burnout may mediate the relationships of job stress and social support with these performance indicators. Analyses indicated that levels of work support and job stress were both significant predictors of burnout. Additionally, higher burnout levels were significantly associated with poorer self-rated and supervisor-rated job performance, more sick leaves, and more reported absences for mental health reasons. The findings suggest that burnout not only may negatively impact healthcare providers, but also may influence objective absenteeism and supervisor perceptions of employee performance.
Schaufeli & Janczur (1994) studied Burnout among Nurses: A Polish-Dutch Comparison. Results are presented of a cross-national study on burnout among 200 Polish and 183 Dutch female nurses. Polish nurses are significantly more burned out than their Dutch colleagues, even after controlling for differences in work situations in both countries. Subjective work stressors contribute most strongly to burnout in Polish as well as in Dutch nurses. Personality characteristics and aspects of the work situation play a less prominent role. Although the work situation of Polish and Dutch nurses differs considerably, psychological variables—notably, experienced job stress—are likewise crucial in understanding burnout among nurses of both countries.

Kalliath (2002) studied Job Satisfaction among Nurses: A Predictor of Burnout Levels. This study assessed the impact of differential levels of job satisfaction on burnout among nurses, hypothesizing that higher levels of job satisfaction predict lower levels of burnout. The findings show that job satisfaction has a significant direct negative effect on emotional exhaustion, whereas emotional exhaustion has a direct positive effect on depersonalization. A significant indirect effect was seen of job satisfaction on depersonalization via exhaustion. The path coefficient shows that job satisfaction has both direct and indirect effects on burnout, confirming job satisfaction as a significant predictor of burnout.

Sundin et al. (2007) studied the relationship between different work-related sources of social support and burnout among registered and assistant nurses in Sweden. This cross-sectional study addresses the relationship between organizational and social factors and burnout in a group of registered and assistant nurses in Sweden. The study was conducted using a sample of 1561 registered and assistant nurses in Sweden. The results showed statistically significant correlations between the three support indicators and all three burnout dimensions. In the regression analyses, co-worker and patient support were statistically significantly related to all three burnout dimensions, whereas supervisor support was only statistically significantly related to emotional exhaustion.

Chandra et al. (2004) studied the Factors related to staff stress in HIV/AIDS related palliative care. Staff stress in HIV related palliative care has been identified as an
important problem worldwide. This study aimed at estimating prevalence of staff stress and its correlates in a sample of palliative caregivers in HIV/AIDS in India. Fifty-two participants (29 female and 23 male) completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), AIDS Contact Scale (ACS) and AIDS Stress Scale (ASS) and a semi-structured questionnaire. The majority (92%) had average to high scores on at least one domain of MBI. High scores on the factors Emotional Exhaustion, depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment were seen in 10%, 17% and 58% of the sample respectively. ASS score, severity of stress in dealing with persons living with AIDS and having considered leaving HIV related work were predictors of high Emotional Exhaustion scores. ASS score, ACS score and severity of stress with death of a person with AIDS were predictors of high depersonalization scores. Female gender was a predictor of a high Personal Accomplishment score.

Demerouti et al. (2000) studied a model of burnout and life satisfaction amongst nurses. This study, among 109 German nurses, tested a theoretically derived model of burnout and overall life satisfaction. The model discriminates between two conceptually different categories of working conditions, namely job demands and job resources. It was hypothesized that: (1) job demands, such as demanding contacts with patients and time pressure, are most predictive of exhaustion; (2) job resources, such as (poor) rewards and (lack of) participation in decision making, are most predictive of disengagement from work; and (3) job demands and job resources have an indirect impact on nurses' life satisfaction, through the experience of burnout (i.e., exhaustion and disengagement). A model including each of these relationships was tested simultaneously with structural equations modelling. Results confirm the strong effects of job demands and job resources on exhaustion and disengagement respectively, and the mediating role of burnout between the working conditions and life satisfaction.

Hardiness

Hardiness is a constellation of personality characteristics functioning as a resistance resource when encountering stressful life events (Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982). According to Kobasa (1979), and Maddi & Kobasa, (1984) hardiness emerges from a quality of rich, varied, and rewarding childhood experiences. It manifests in feelings and
behaviors characterized as commitment, control, and challenge. Hardy individuals are active, goal-oriented people who are committed to themselves do not view themselves as victims of threatening changes, but as persons who are active determinants of the consequences brought about by change (Kobasa, 1979). People possessing hardiness traits became ill less often and had the ability to turn stressful life events into opportunities for personal growth and development and to remain healthy under stress (Funk, 1992) and to transform distress into eustress (Selye, 1976). A study conducted by Hills and Norvel (1991) showed that the presence of high of hardiness exerted clear main effects in the prediction of reduced stress, burnout, and illness.

The concept of hardiness involves three major dimensions namely -commitment, control, and challenge. Researches in these dimensions show that while Committed persons do not give up easily under pressure and their involvement takes an active approach rather than passivity and avoidance (Kobasa, et al., 1982) Control gives a sense of autonomy and effect on one’s future (Averill, 1973; Phares, 1976; Seligmen, 1975), (Bartone. Ursano, Wright, & Ingraham, 1989). It enhances stress resistance and development of responses to stress (Kobasa, et al., 1982). The third component of hardiness, challenge, allow the integration and effective appraisal of exceedingly incongruent events (Moss, 1973).

**Hardiness and demographic variables**

Kobasa et al. (1982) found no relationship between hardiness and age, education, and job level. But the studies done by Nowack, 1986; Rich & Rich, 1987; Schmeid & Lawler, 1986 found high hardiness among older individuals. Similarly, in terms of gender mixed results were found. Williams (1990) and Haw (1982) found hardiness was found more among women in non managerial samples. Benishek and Lopez(1997) found that there were significant male and female differences in hardiness levels and found that perceptions of stress versus frequency played a more important role in coping processes. Berwick (1992) reports that increased stress levels among females could be predicted by low levels of hardiness and other variables such as job satisfaction and work-family
obligations. Studies on hardiness among various professions are quite exhaustive. For example, Bartone, et al. (1989) in a study on military professionals found that disaster events were perceived less overwhelming when hardiness levels were high.

**Hardiness in various professions**

In another study, among male and female undergraduates, Banks and Gannon (1988), discovered individuals reported fewer life events and hassles than did those lower in hardiness. Allred and Smith (1989) found that high hardy male students immersed themselves in positive thinking more often than did low hardy students of which both groups were involved in high stress. In a sample of undergraduates (Hull, Van Treuren & Virnelli, 1987), described that hardiness moderates the stress-strain relationship because hardy persons experience fewer stressful events. Furthermore, in a similar study, Hull, Van Treuren, & Propsom (1988) found high-hardy subjects rated stressful events as positive and low-hardy individuals rated stressful events as negative. Weibe (1991) provides additional evidence that high-hardy participants displayed higher frustration tolerance, appraised the same stressor as less threatening, and responded to the stressor with more positive and less negative affect than did low hardy subjects. The study also attributes that hardiness affected cognitive appraisal in such a way that stressfulness of the event was reduced and psychological arousal was altered.

The studies on hardiness among nurses are aplenty. Boyle, Grap, Younger, & Thornby (1991) found the use of emotion-focused coping was negatively related to hardiness and positively related to burnout among nurses. The results also showed that hardiness was positively related to coping styles, which attempted to solve or alter the stressful situation (problem-focused coping). Further, coping styles attempting to minimize the stressful situation without actually resolving it (emotion-focused) were negatively related to hardiness. Most of the studies on in nursing literature on hardiness research were found associated mostly with staff nurses in relation to variables of burnout and stress and issues related to retention, turnover, and absenteeism (Fusco, 1994; McCranie, Lambert, & Lambert, 1987; Rowe, 1998; Toscano & Ponterdolph, 1998).
In a study of critical care nurses, Boyle et al. (1991) found a negative correlation to exist between hardiness and emotion-focused coping but no relationship between hardiness and problem-focused coping. Rich and Rich (1987), Collins (1996), and Simoni and Paterson (1997), concluded that hardy nurses are more resistant to stress, strain, and burnout. Further studies have discovered significant relationships with spirituality (March, Beard, & Adams, 1999), health status and academic performance (Williams, 1990).

Drayton- Hargrove (1993) indicates a significant relationship between certain leadership styles and hardiness. According to the researchers, hardiness is a mediator for both stress appraisal and responses to stress by individuals. Hardiness is also found to have relationship with performance, leadership, conduct, and health. Research evidence show the positive influence of hardiness on performance and mood in such diverse samples as bus drivers (Bartone, 1989), firefighters (Giatras, 2000), lawyers (Kobasa, 1982), military personnel (Bartone, 1999), sports (Maddi and Hess, 1992), and Swimmers (Lancer, 2000).

**Hardiness and Personality**

Hardiness has been shown to be correlated positively to conscientiousness (Maddi, Khoshaba, Persico, et al., 2002; Ramanaiah & Sharpe, 1999, Komarraju & Karau, 2005). In addition, studies have shown the positive influence of hardiness on undergraduates coping with university first-year stress (Maddi, Wadhwa, & Haier, 1996), student adjustment to university life (Mathis & Lecce, 1999), and student retention (Maddi, Kobasa, Jensen, et al., 2002).

Thus the review of the research works showed that hardiness is a learned trait and can be guided to the development of a hardiness-training program (Kobasa & Maddi, 2001). Especially, when the training program is based on a workbook that includes hardy coping, social interacting, and self-care exercises, plus a procedure for using the feedback would deepen hardy attitudes. Several evaluation studies of hardiness training shows that it not only increases hardy attitudes and actions, but also improves performance and health in working adults (Maddi, 1987; Maddi, Kahn, & Maddi, 1998) and college students (Maddi, Kobasa, Jensen et al., 2002). In working adults, the training increased
not only their hardiness levels, but also their job satisfaction, and constructive involvement with fellow employees. The training also decreased the number of employees in the sample whose blood pressure was too high.

Bartone and Snook (1999) found that hardy attitudes emerged as the best predictor of transformational leadership over years of training. Further, the higher the hardy attitudes of firefighter applicants about to enter training, the better is their performance during, and rate of successful completion of the 4-month training (Maddi, Harvey, Resurrection, Giatras, & Raganold, 2006). A positive relationship between hardy attitudes and the hardy actions was found in engaging in effective self-care, rather than excessive or insufficient nutrition, exercise, and relaxation (Maddi, 2002; Weibe & McCallum, 1986). Further, hardy attitudes are positively related to feeling actively involved in the choice of activities and the ensuing interaction to creativity, and entrepreneurial effectiveness (Maddi et al., 2007).

Thus the present research work has tried to improve hardiness in the participants using an intervention program that involves aspects of the hardiness training.

Organizational Commitment

According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) organisational commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation, as characterised by strong beliefs in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to retain membership in the organisation.

Organizational Commitment and Demographics

Matheiu and Zajac (1990) and Aven, Parker and McEvoy (1993) found that women tend to be more committed to organisations than men, because they are offered fewer opportunities for employment. Bellman, Forster, Still, and Cooper (2003) found that organizational commitment as a stress outcome was significantly different across genders, with males reporting significantly lower commitment. In this study, males were found to have less organizational commitment because they perceived higher levels of need-for-recognition pressure. Other evidence has shown women to be more committed
to their organizations based on different values and ethical views than men. For example, women have been shown to be more committed to their organizations as evidenced by their greater concern with doing tasks well, promoting harmonious work relationships, and adhering to work rules than men (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2007).

Similarly, age and tenure were found to be positively correlated with organisational commitment in several researches because as employees get older, their employment opportunities commonly decrease, thereby motivating them to invest more personal effort into the organisation, with the aim of being considered valuable to the firm and thus retain their position (Angle & Perry 1981; Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac 1990; Allen & Meyer 1993; Harrison & Hubbard 1998).

However, education is found to have a negative relationship with organisational commitment, as employees with higher education have more opportunities for alternative employment and mobility (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac 1990).

In terms of organisational factors, factors related to job characteristics such as job satisfaction is established as a result of organisational commitment, (Mowday et al., 1982; Glisson & Durick 1988; Gregersen & Black 1992), work experiences that occur during an employee’s tenure with an organisation (Mowday et al., 1982; Harrison & Hubbard 1998); and organisational characteristics such as an employee’s opportunities for leadership, in terms of participative planning, coordinating, disciplining, organisational problem solving, and decision making (Yukl 1981; Glisson & Durick 1988; Mathieu & Aajac 1990; Randall 1993).

Researches on organizational commitment show that employees who are highly committed to their organizations perform better in a variety of jobs than those who are less committed (Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974; Allen and Meyer, 1987). And highly committed employees are more likely to remain with their employer in the face of alternative opportunities, than are their less committed counterparts (Porter et al., 1974). Organizational commitment is also found to be a better predictor of turnover than individual differences in job satisfaction and an indicator of overall organizational effectiveness, especially if it is a goal of the management to employ individuals who identify with and involved in the organization (Buchanan, 1974, Steers, 1995).
While in one study by Steers (1997), employee commitment was highly related to the attendance of workers, Gellatly (1995) found that continuance commitment was related with the how often an employee was absent. Somers (1995) in a study among nurses found those nurses with lower levels of commitment had higher levels of absenteeism. Similar results were found by Blau and Boal (1987) on a group of insurance workers and also found that those employees who had higher levels of commitment had lower levels of absenteeism and turnover.

With reference to employee performance, Meyer et al. (1993) and Baugh & Roberts, (1994) both find that committed employees had high expectations of their performance and therefore performed better. The researchers state that performance and commitment may not be related because factors such as the appraisal process, the value of job performance by an organization and the amount of employee control over outcomes. Research has also found that those employees who are committed to their profession also have higher levels of commitment to the organization. Baugh and Roberts (1994) found that those employees who were committed to both their organization and their profession had high levels of job performance. Meyer & Allen, (1997), found that employees that have a good relationship with their immediate work group have higher levels of commitment i.e., if employees are directly committed to their group, their commitment to the overall organization will be higher. Lio (1995) states that “workers’ organizational commitment was significantly correlated to perceived job security”.

Koopman (1991) states that leadership styles affected employees and found those employees who favoured their manager’s style also favoured the organization more. Though there was no direct connect between commitments, it could be argued that this would then affect their levels of commitment to the organization. Nierhoff et al. (1990) found that the “overall management culture and style driven by the top management actions are strongly related to the degree of employee commitment”. Eisenberger et al. (1990) discuss that those employee’s who feel that they are cared for by their organization and managers also have not only higher levels of commitment, but that they are more conscious about their responsibilities, have greater involvement in the organization, and are more innovative.
Significantly, meta analysis have been studied to assess the impact of employees affective commitment on turnover intentions and turnover, as a causal sequence (Cohen, 1993; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The results showed that the experience of loyalty and a desire to stay with the company are generally considered to be a definitional element of the affective organizational commitment construct itself (Jaros et al., 1993; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). And, affective commitment to the organization is generally conceived to also include identification with the organization and willingness to expend extra effort on its behalf. This has been further analyzed by Scholl (1981) and Weiner (1982) for commitment–organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) relationship. The findings show that commitment drives pro-social behaviours that indicate a personal concern with the organization or that reflect personal sacrifice made for the sake of the organization. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) found, in a study of university employees, that identification and involvement were significant predictors of extra-role compliance behaviours. Shore and Wayne (1993) found that affective commitment predicted both altruistic and compliance organizational citizenship behaviours in a multinational firm.

Organizational Commitment has been studied in a variety of setting such as financial services organization (Martin et al., 2005), a Master’s level management class (Tierney et al., 2002), and a university athletic department (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). Jaskyte (2003) examined the relationship between employees at all levels of a rehabilitation organization and their perceptions of organizational arrangements, job characteristics, leadership behavior and job satisfaction and commitment. Results showed that rehabilitation employees’ perceptions of leadership behavior were important predictors of job satisfaction and commitment. Mannheim and Papo (2000) conducted a study among professional and nonprofessional occupational welfare workers to investigate the relationship between various participant characteristics and organizational outcomes, including Organizational Climate. Results showed that professional occupational welfare workers were less committed to the organization than their nonprofessional counterparts.

Having reviewed the various factors that surround organizational commitment it may be inferred that improving organizational commitment would have several benefits
both to the organization as well as the employee. Research works carried out to improve commitment has been rather sparse. For example in a study by Nyhan (1999) Affective organizational commitment has been equated to the public service motivation of public employees. The study states that few management intervention strategies exist that specifically address increasing affective commitment and successful interventions are designed around correlates of the intended attitudinal construct. The study states that an intervention aimed at positively impacting affective commitment when trust is developed especially linked to systems trust, an intervention based on a top-down strategy would be the better choice. In a study of over 600 employees from three different public organizations, the results showed that interpersonal trust is the significantly stronger correlate of affective commitment These findings suggest that intervention strategies that begin with trust building from the bottom-up are likely to have a higher likelihood of increasing affective organizational commitment than strategies reflecting a systems trust building objective.

Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider, and Armstrong (2013) in an interventional study emphasizes the importance of emotion and affect by showing that employees who experienced positive mentoring events at work exhibited higher levels of Affective Organizational commitment, which in turn led to reduced turnover intention.

Thus an intervention that builds trust among the employees and that would help in building interpersonal relationship might help in improving organizational commitment has been hypothesized in this present research work.

**Interventions on Organizations**

Teri, James, Johnston, Joan Hall, and Salas, (1996) in a meta-analysis tried to determine the overall effectiveness of stress inoculation training and to identify conditions that may moderate the effectiveness of this approach. The analysis was based on a total of 37 studies with 70 separate hypothesis tests, representing the behavior of 1,837 participants. Results indicate that stress inoculation training was an effective means for reducing performance anxiety, reducing state anxiety, and enhancing performance under stress. The examination of moderators such as the experience of the trainer, the type of setting in which training was implemented, and the type of trainee population
revealed no significant limitations on the application of stress inoculation training to applied training environments.

Aust, and Ducki (2004) discuss the role Health circles, the central element of a comprehensive health promotion approach that has been developed in Germany in recent years, to emphasize organizational and psychosocial factors while actively involving employees in the process. Based on the results of review of 81 health circles, the results showed that health circles are an effective tool for the improvement of physical and psychosocial working conditions and have a favorable effect on workers’ health, well-being, and sickness absence.

Cecil (1990) in a study among Fifty-four regular classroom teachers were randomly assigned to one of the following three treatment groups: coworker support, stress inoculation training, or no-treatment control. The results indicated that stress inoculation training was effective in reducing teachers' self-reported stress, while the coworker support group was not.

Richardson, Katherine, Rothstein, and Hannah (2008) in a meta-analysis investigated the effectiveness of stress management interventions in occupational settings. Thirty-six experimental studies were included, representing 55 interventions. The interventions were cognitive-behavioral, relaxation, organizational, multimodal, or alternative. The results showed that intervention type played a moderating role. Cognitive-behavioral programs consistently produced larger effects than other types of interventions, but if additional treatment components were added the effect was reduced. Within the sample of studies, relaxation interventions were most frequently used, and organizational interventions continued to be scarce. The effects were based mainly on psychological outcome variables, as opposed to physiological or organizational measures. The examination of additional moderators such as treatment length, outcome variable, and occupation did not reveal significant variations in effect size by intervention type.

In another recent study by Delphine, Ilios, Jordi, Michel, Weytens, Pauline, and Moïra, (2011) showed that adult emotional competencies (EC) could be improved through a relatively brief training. In a set of 2 controlled experimental studies, the authors investigated whether developing EC could lead to improved emotional
functioning; long-term personality changes; and important positive implications for physical, psychological, social, and work adjustment. Results of Study showed that 18 hr of training with e-mail follow-up was sufficient to significantly improve emotion regulation, emotion understanding, and overall EC. These changes led in turn to long-term significant increases in extraversion and agreeableness as well as a decrease in neuroticism. Results of Study 2 showed that the development of EC brought about positive changes in psychological well-being, subjective health, quality of social relationships, and employability. The effect sizes were sufficiently large for the changes to be considered as meaningful in people's lives.